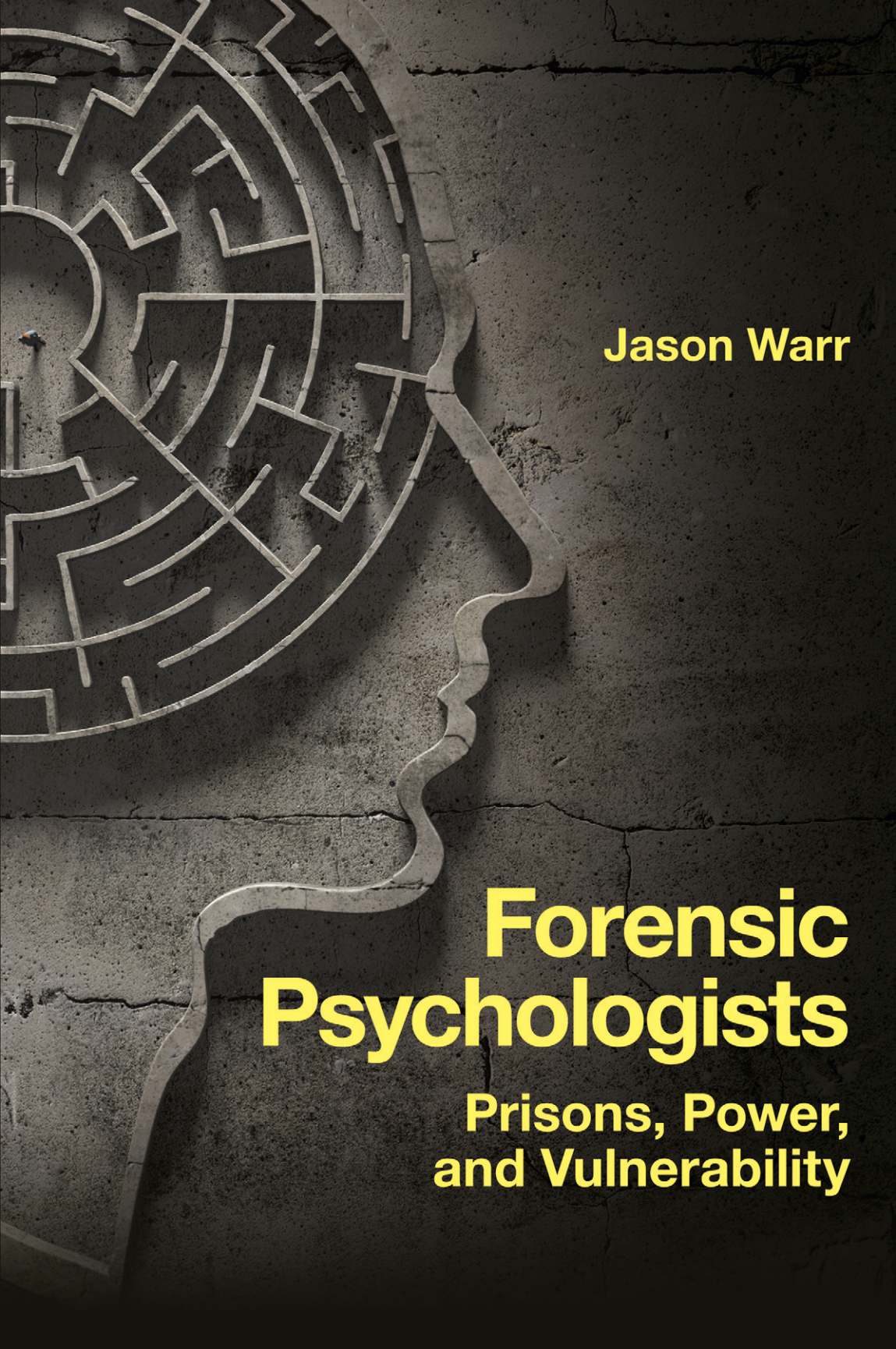




Jason Warr

Forensic Psychologists

**Prisons, Power,
and Vulnerability**

Forensic Psychologists

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Forensic Psychologists: Prisons, Power, and Vulnerability

BY

JASON WARR

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INVESTOR IN PEOPLE

This book is dedicated to ... all those who were kind enough to take part in the study.

To Dr Ruth Mann, the first of the nine, who died on 25/04/2020. In her absence Forensic Psychology is diminished.

To those dynamic educators who got me started on this path – Yvonne Hurlow, Bill Macdonald, Alan Smith. If not for you this road would not have been walked.

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Glossary

AI	Appreciative Inquiry
AII	Appreciative Informed Inquiry
BPS	British Psychological Society
GOAD	Good Order and Discipline
HMIP	Her Majesty's Inspector of Prisons
HMPPS	Her Majesty's Prison and Probation Service
HMPS	Her Majesty's Prison Service
IEP	Incentives and Earned Privileges
IPP	Imprisonment for Public Protection
IRAS	Integrated Research Application System
ISPP	Indeterminate Sentence for Public Protection
KPTs	Key Performance Targets
MoJ	Ministry of Justice
NOMS	National Offender Management Service
NPM	New Public Management
NRC	National Research Committee
OASys	Offender Assessment System
OBPs	Offending Behaviour Programmes
OM	Offender Manager
OMU	Offender Management Unit
OPDP	Offender Personality Disorder Pathway
PCL-R	Psychopathy Check List (Revised)
PIPEs	Psychologically Informed Planned Environments
PSI/O	Prison Service Instructions/Orders
SMT	Senior Management Team
SOTP	Sex Offender Treatment Programme
VP	Vulnerable Prisoner
YOI	Young Offender Institute

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About the Author

Dr Jason Warr is a Senior Lecturer in Criminology and Criminal Justice at De Montfort University, UK. He has a wide range of research interests which include penology, sociology of power, sensory criminology, and the philosophy of science. He has conducted research in a number of criminal justice settings and has written on the emotional geographies of prison, the pains of imprisonment, prison staff, and narrative criminology.

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Preface

Its funny, someone like you, interviewing someone in my position.
—Psychologist during this study

Prisons often act as impenetrable fortresses. Behind their stony edifices lie hidden worlds of social life, organisational practice, and working realities. To this day, after hundreds of years of thought and word, after examination and description, the lived and occupational realities that occur within these Leviathans is still marred with an agnotologic air. They remain mysterious and, to some extent, barely known. We, the outsiders, remain largely ignorant of what these places of punishment, these places of control, do, how they are constructed, what makes them tick. We only occasionally become aware of the horrors and deprivations, the pain and suffering, the trauma that exists within. We know even less of the joys, triumphs, victories, humour, and camaraderie that also defines these hidden worlds. This shrouded reality makes them essential sites of research, of inspection. Yet herein lies a fundamental problem. Prisons have traditionally been, and remain, bloody difficult places to access. As Alisa Stevens (2019) notes, for researchers, gaining access to prisons has never been an easy enterprise but has become, sometimes, a Sisyphean task.

A number of factors have conspired to move this abstract impenetrability into a palisaded reality. There exists in this epoch of penal risk and image control both a politicised penal and carceral fetish as well as a desire to hide the reality of the institutions in which that fetish is embodied. This overt political charge has created a situation in the last two decades whereby gaining access to the Prison Service in England and Wales to conduct any sort of research is fraught, and can sometimes elicit Ministerial wrath. It also, now much more so than ever, involves a careful negotiation of a bureaucratic labyrinth, at the heart of which lies the much feared (and oft maligned) National Research Committee. The research project upon which this book is based suffered, as many others have suffered, the same trials that is now common to the prison research milieu. However, there were two compounding variables that rendered this research somewhat more difficult. Firstly, the fieldwork for this project began during a period when psychological services within Her Majesty's Prison Service (HMPS) were under a further burden of heavy criticism from prisoners, prison reform campaigners, and legal advocates. This combination of institutional pressure and professional critique resulted in a population and a service that were embattled and defensive. This compounded the problems of gaining access, securing trust, and recruiting an adequate sample. Secondly, there was the small problem of my background as a

former Life/HMP sentenced prisoner who had been subject to the power, assessment, and reportage of forensic psychologists working within the prison service.

Plan A was to conduct a systematic and empirical account of the role of the forensic psychologists within the modern prison, the effect of the risk assessment process on both prisoners and psychologists, and the power differential that exists between these two parties. However, the Area Psychologist with whom I liaised prior to beginning the hazard strewn *Pathway to Access* informed me that given my history as an HMP sentenced prisoner such a research project, given that it would require access to formal sensitive data, was unlikely to gain ethical approval. This necessitated the reformation of, and a change in outlook to, the study. Plan B. The decision was made to focus not so much on the risk assessment process and the power of psychological expertise in the modern prison but instead on the forensic practitioners themselves. The reason for this decision was twofold: firstly, it avoided the ethical problems relating to case data and physical access to prison sites making the research more likely to be approved centrally. The second reason was that at inception, and subsequently (see Brown et al., 2015; Crewe, 2009; Shingler et al., 2017), there existed a small body of literature, and numerous articles and letters in the prison newspaper 'Inside Time', which covered prisoners' experiences of the risk assessment process and of specialist services such as probation and psychology. However, little beyond the brief attention given by Brown et al. (2015) and Crighton and Towl (2008, 2015) focused explicitly on either the experiences of those specialist practitioners themselves nor on the personal/subjective specificities of conducting psychological work in the prison. What was missing was an exploration of what impact such work may have on the practitioners themselves.

However, the point made by the Area Psychologist regarding my history, and thus positionality, is worthy of further consideration. As previously stated, I had been an HMP sentenced prisoner who was incarcerated for 12 years in 14 different establishments. During that period of time, I had numerous interactions, both formal and informal, with forensic psychologists employed within Her Majesty's Prison Service (see Warr, 2008). I had been both witness and subject to their power. For much of my incarceration, the interactions and experiences I had with forensic psychologists were both negative and profound. Despite a degree of separation between these interactions and my beginning this project, I held some enmity towards forensic psychologists. To some degree I still do. Therefore, not only had these experiences shaped my initial interest in conducting this research but my consequential positionality had imbued my approach, unwittingly, with a particular bias. This was echoed when the research design was reviewed by two independent Professors who pointed out to me that the actual design of the study, specifically the structure of the provisional interview schedule, was not concomitant with the stated aims of the research.

Kochan (2013) argues that emotion in and of itself is a necessary aspect to the development and process of science but nevertheless must be guarded against – especially if the shaping emotion is one that is negative. One of the fundamental duties of the qualitative researcher is to ensure that their personal interest, or

‘positionality’, does not negatively bias their research (Marshall & Rossman, 2006). The main danger of positionality is when it is carried through, from informing the initial interest in a subject to the point where it becomes operationalised in the structure of the study, and infects the analysis and communication of findings. When discussing the philosophical problem of the Rosenthal Effect in social science, whereby the assumption and value laden nature of research and theory construction can shape the very results that are discoverable, Martin (1994) argues that mitigating strategies are necessary in order to prevent these forms of overt bias. In order to mitigate one’s positionality, the social scientist must engage in multiple processes of reflexivity and methodological introspection and peer review – processes which force the researcher to inspect their approach, theory, method, analysis, explanation, and communication (Hopkins, 2007). Immersion within this bias-focussed process, coupled with honest and critical peer input, will (hopefully) enable the researcher to discover their own assumptions and ‘subjectivities’ thus taking account of them when constructing/analysing/communicating their study (Mason, 2002).

I had been aware that my positionality may have flavoured my approach to the research subject and as such had attempted to construct the study in such a way as to minimise whatever negative bias may yet have lingered. Unfortunately, though I had managed to achieve this in the scope and focus of the project, the timbre of the interview schedule was tainted by the negativity towards the prison environment, and more explicitly, the power of forensic psychologists, that my experiences had left me with. This had resulted in a somewhat hostile interview schedule that, instead of focussing on what psychologists experienced in their occupational lives, focussed on eliciting negative responses that affirmed my bias. It seemed obvious once highlighted but up until that point I had been unaware of it. This is the curse of researcher bias, whilst you can be aware that it exists, the specifics of it always remain just slightly beyond your own sight. It teases you from the shadows of your own enquiring mind and lays in wait, ready to pounce, ready to trip you up when you are least prepared. An academic addendum to the Laws of Infernal Dynamics if you will. There are many positionalities that the wary researcher needs to consider: ethnicity, class, gender, sensory and embodied processing (Herrity et al., 2020; Pink, 2015), neurotypicality or neurodiversity, theoretical and disciplinary perspective, etc. Each and all require some examination and reflexivity. Qualitative research does not have the luxury of the simplicity of quantitative research – it often requires a more profound examination of self, process, method, methodology, analysis, and communication. However, to return to the problem as was, both Professors mentioned above noted that this sense of negativity with which my approach was imbued might be a contributing factor to the hesitancy of the prison authorities in granting me access to the requested population. They recommended that in order to further eradicate this aspect of my ‘positionality’, and to alleviate the fears of those prison gatekeepers (an issue I shall return to), I should restructure the research project in terms of an Appreciative Inquiry (AI) and adopt methods of Appreciative Interviewing. Whether I have been successful in achieving this will be up to the reader to decide.

There have been a number of formulations of AI as various academic disciplines and industrial discourses have adapted it for their own ends. However, as Cooperrider et al. (2007) note, the process is designed to be a force for effective organisational change. As a method of research it is based upon a number of central assumptions: firstly, that organisations are co-constructed social realities; secondly, that organisational processes are dependent upon what meaning those who are involved ascribe to their interactions, and not so significantly on the dedicated application of official techniques; and thirdly, that both effective knowledge and change is best bought about by focussing on and engendering what is positive and successful as opposed to focussing upon that which is negative. Whitney and Trosten-Bloom (2010) further note that perhaps the most powerful aspect of AI is its ability to allow researchers to know and comprehend their participants through the direct relationships, and forms of sociality that they have to their profession and peers, as opposed to solely knowing them through the organisational roles they perform. The purpose of this method is to facilitate an understanding of a 'culture, society or organisation through the eyes of its inhabitants' (p. 50) and not the superficial perspectives sometimes gained by external observers. It allows those working with an organisation to be heard in the context in which they live, work or operate. In many regards, the methodological approach of AI is similar to, and shares many facets with, both Ryle's (1968) and then subsequently Geertz's (1994) notions of 'thick description' and the best means by which a researcher can attempt to capture the experiential realities of a lived culture where in-depth ethnography is not possible.

It must be noted, however, that coming from a perspective external to the organisation and profession with which I was concerned meant that I was obviously not conducting a strict, by the books, form of AI. Rather my method was an Appreciative Informed Inquiry (AII). By adopting the methodological ethos in the development of my interviewing models (Kvale, 1996), it allowed me a way out of the bias that I found myself ensnared by. This is, really because of the third precept described above

that both effective knowledge and change is best bought about by focusing on and engendering what is positive and successful as opposed to focusing upon that which is negative.

This also happens to be the most misunderstood element of AI. Many people take this as the view that you are trying to discover 'only' the good in an institution/organisation. A particularly troublesome practice when exploring the realities of such contentious sites as prisons. In this regard, it can be seen to be a mechanism of justification or legitimation – something that we criminologists should, given the power laden nature of those disciplinary monuments, be extremely wary of. I have seen this allegation made towards a number of prison scholars who have utilised the AI method and seen their work dismissed exactly in this manner. However, this is a misunderstanding of the process and method. The purpose of exploring the positive is that it gives you a contrast to the negative elements of organisational life, and thus a fuller picture of the social world of that

organisation. In a typical interview if you ask someone ‘what it is like to work here?’ you will get a partial answer that resembles

It’s not bad, it’s okay I suppose ... bit stressful sometimes, there’s not enough of us and we’re understaffed. Actually, it’s gotten quite bad at the moment the workload is getting on top of us and the cracks are beginning to show. It doesn’t help that our line manager is really awful and really unhelpful. Also, someone keeps on stealing the milk out of the fridge and others won’t wash the cups or the microwave ... and as for Susan in accounts ...

Now, there is some good information in that made-up(ish) vignette which could tell you a lot about the organisational culture in which such an interviewee worked. However, it is partial. This is because structuring interviews in this way allows the person to focus on a closed set of elements (Crow & Semmens, 2008) which are negative or bring dissatisfaction to them. However, there is no account about what works well, what they enjoy doing, where they get their job satisfaction, what makes the environment survivable, where the humour is, who they like, etc. In order to have a fuller picture of life in that office, you would need that side of the story. Asking for the positive gives you that. People will still tell you everything that is wrong, problematic, and disturbing but before they do you will have gotten the flipside of that narrative coin. I have now conducted 100s of interviews in multiple criminal justice settings and, if you do not explicitly ask for the positive, all you end up with is the negative. All you end up with is a partial account. All you end up with is data that hamper your explanation and theorising.

After reformulating the project in terms of AII, the process of gaining access became more straightforward. However, once access was granted, I then ran into a second problem. Hardly any of the psychologists working in prisons were willing to talk to me. As expected, the response to the initial call was minimal but a small number of psychologists (four) responded. It took some negotiation with those individuals to find a suitable location in which to conduct those interviews. For some, it was decided that the best locale was Stirling House, a Prison Service training and conference centre, whilst for others there were facilities outside of, but attached to, their home prisons. Once these locations were decided upon, the interviews were arranged and conducted. Then a scandal broke. It was discovered that a serving forensic psychologist was having a sexual relationship with a prisoner. Informally, I was told that my topic and the nature of my research may cause concern for some in light of this development. Whether that was the reason I do not know but the respondent well, as it were, dried up at that point.

Plan C. As a result of these concerns, when I resent the introductory emails to the contact list to see if any more people would be interested in participating, I was at pains to explain my neutrality and point out that this was an opportunity for them to speak to those issues which concerned them. Again, a small number of people came forward and with whom negotiations began in order to arrange times, dates, and locations. However, uptake was extremely low. It was also at this time that a number of psychologists responded by saying that though they

were interested in participating time constraints and work schedules prevented them from doing so. A few more were polite enough to respond and say that they were not interested in taking part. However, the majority did not respond at all. This was a pattern that became repeated (not the scandal but the not responding) throughout what became a long, torturous, bout of fieldwork.

I had been aware that, as a body, forensic psychologists were an embattled group but thought that the study would, at the very least, be an opportunity for them to put their side of the story forward. One potential issue beyond the matter of interest may have been my history. One of the early participants had been very forthright in pointing out that they had found my background as a prisoner to be a stumbling block. They explained that they had found the prospect of being interviewed by a former prisoner '*extremely uncomfortable*' and '*daunting*'. However, they also felt that as they '*... were supposed to be in the business of rehabilitation it would be hypocritical for them not to participate*' solely on those grounds. It is difficult to gauge how widespread these concerns were as few others spoke of this and, obviously, the position of those who either did not respond or declined to participate is impossible to know. A further potential issue was the fact that psychological services were undergoing a national remodelling at the time that the fieldwork was being conducted. This may also have contributed to the insecurity that some may have felt during this period and thus may have prevented some from volunteering. However, this is guesswork. Why people did not want to be involved is something that I have still not fully been able to get to the bottom of.

What is certainly true though is that there was a great deal of hesitancy from this population which was difficult to overcome during the initial fieldwork (which involved Plans D through G). Over a period of 30 months, I managed to convince only 21 individuals to sit down with me in interview. One of these formally requested that their interview be terminated and any information gleaned not be used. This was of course honoured. This meant that the effective sample consisted of 20 forensic psychologists all of whom were in the current employ of the Prison Service at the time. The shortest of these interviews was 85 minutes and the longest nearly three hours (it involved a bad bout of food poisoning and vomiting but no one needs to hear about that). Though a small sample, given the population of forensic psychologists working in HMPS (currently just over 500), they were both sufficiently culturally knowledgeable (Rubin & Rubin, 1995) and represented a purposive sample where those interviewed were able to provide sufficiently significant data (Silverman, 2010) on the occupational realities of forensic psychologists in prisons. The 20 main interviewees were drawn from various regions around the country, were employed at various grades (psychological assistants, trainees and qualified), were engaged in various forms of psychological work, and included both men and women of varying ages. It must be noted that none of those interviewed were employed within PIPE units, which is still something of a fringe practice in terms of the core psychological work undertaken by forensic psychologists. These practitioners were not deliberately excluded from the sample but none of those who wished to participate happened to work in these environments. This means that I have no substantial data on this type of working. The sample that were drawn, however, were considered to be sufficiently knowledgeable regarding the delivery of the

quotidian psychological services in the Prison Service, able to offer a range of perspectives that would be representative of the wider population and were minimally sufficient in number and range of views that a larger respondent pool was not deemed necessary (Gordon, 1992).

A further nine people were interviewed in order to gain an understanding of the historical context in which the recent era of forensic psychology arose. These interviewees consisted of former high-ranking psychologists and Prison Service personnel who were involved in the recruitment, training, and delivery of psychological services over the last 25 years. Informal conversations were held with a number of Prison Service psychologists throughout the duration of the study and these played a part in shaping the interviews and analysis. Since the completion of the doctoral thesis, I have had further conversations with another 20 + forensic psychologists about my research. In many ways, these conversations have given weight to my findings and allowed me to be slightly bolder in setting out the conclusions discussed in the following chapters. However, it is important to note that the data used to inform the substantive chapters of this book are, unless otherwise noted, based solely upon the 20 original participants mentioned.

Before beginning in earnest, a further point has to be raised both about the research that underpins this book and the way that this has shaped the writing process. This point is concerned with ethics. Usually there are four core areas of ethical concern when conducting qualitative research. These tend to relate to voluntary participation, subject well-being, anonymity, and confidentiality. The first two of these issues were not concerns for this research. The forensic psychologists who were involved were adults and trained professionals who understood the parameters of the research, their role, and my responsibilities to them. However, the latter two issues were something of a problem. A problem that arose during the fieldwork and which now shapes how I write about it.

In terms of anonymity and identity disclosure, there were a number of issues that had to be addressed, some of which only arose as the study continued. Due to the nature of the research questions, there was a possibility that identifying and/or sensitive, incriminating or individually harmful, information could be supplied by the participants. Fortunately, no direct or actionable information arose during the course of the interviews that concerned illegal activity and as such no action was necessary in this regard. However, this consideration dictated that, as far as is possible, the participants would not be identified in person during the course of the research and that everything would be done to try to ensure anonymity. For this reason, it was initially intended that the participants would be assigned pseudonyms based upon obscure Star Wars characters (yes, I am a geek) and that any information that could result in the identification of the respondent would be altered or removed. However, a problem quickly arose which smacked down those carefully laid plans. At the time of the fieldwork there were, within the psychologist population of prisons in England and Wales, very few men compared to women. It was thus felt that if participants were given gendered pseudonyms it might still be possible for those men who participated in the study to be identified. Even obscure names from a galaxy far far away would not have solved this issue. Alas. Along the same lines, it was noted early on that because of

the relatively small number of chartered psychologists within the Prison Service at the time of the fieldwork if a respondent was referred to as such it may, again, be possible to identify them. Therefore, it was decided that nongendered and nonrank-specific titles would be used when quoting directly, so it will be 'a' psychologist said X or Y.

One ethical issue, which had not been anticipated but which also impacts on how I write about this population, arose in part due to the bureaucratic nature of the Prison Service and the manner in which recruitment emails were cascaded down through the hierarchical management structure of the service. During the early stages of the study, it came to my attention that some of the people who were interested in participating in the study had in fact been asking their line managers for permission to participate, who then forwarded the request on to various departmental heads and Area Psychologists/Managers. This obviously compromised their anonymity, especially if they were to be the only person from a particular region who volunteered. From that point on I made sure that when first contacting individuals I emphasised the importance of their anonymity to the ethics of the research. However, at a later stage, I had a one respondent inform me that they knew I had previously interviewed two others, from different regions, whom they then went on to name. AGHHHHH. This had arisen after they had been cc'd into an email exchange between their line manager and one of the two identified psychologists where participation in the study had been discussed. At least two others 'outed' themselves by talking about their participation in the study on social networking sites. Yet another prefaced a question to me whilst I was presenting at a conference by identifying themselves to the room as someone who had participated in the study. This reinforced the decision not to provide pseudonyms of any description throughout this thesis and to avoid the gendered pronouns 'he' and 'she'. It was also decided that this method would satisfy any issues concerning confidentiality.

This gives you some understanding of the method, sample, and research that was conducted in order to provide the material discussed. More information on these issues will be littered throughout this book. However, I also hope that this preface gives you some indication to the type and nature of the discussion that will exist herein. I take my responsibilities seriously and will present, what is I hope, a robust and theoretically sophisticated discussion on the working realities of forensic psychologists in prisons. It is my aim that the discussion here will extend our understanding of the prison, the matrices of power that exist there, and how those who wield a significant amount of power within carceral settings can also be professionally vulnerable. I am, however, also hoping that this book is easy and enjoyable to read. I believe wholeheartedly that in order for this type of discussion to have resonance, we need to move somewhat beyond the cold, literary conventions of traditional academic texts. We need to attempt to bring such texts alive, to take our readers into these worlds with us.

That is my intention.

Welcome to the prison world of forensic psychologists.

J Warr (2020).

Chapter 1

Introduction: Forensic Psychology and Her Majesty's Prison Service

The control of individuals, this sort of punitive penal control of individuals at the level of their potentialities, could not be performed by the judiciary itself; it was to be done by a series of authorities other than the judiciary ... a whole network of institutions of surveillance and correction ... the psychological, psychiatric, criminological, medical and pedagogical institutions for correction.

–Foucault (1994a, p. 57)

I think from a psychology point of view, working within a prison, you have got a range of role conflicts that you have not necessarily got in other institutions.

–Participant Forensic Psychologist

Prisons stand boldly as a totem of a state's control and dominance. Whilst the blue line of the police and the green shield of the military are also emblematic of a State's coercive potential, they still do not come close to the symbolic power of the stony morality of the prison. Those high walls and barely glimpsed barred windows shout a clear and profound message to all those who witness them. Here be power. Awful power. Yet that power is not singular. Within the prison there exists a confluence, a complex matrix, of differing forms of power designed to both restrain and constrain. Those in our society deemed to have breached the tenets of our social contract are consigned to these institutions. In England and Wales, with its neo-liberal political economy, we demand that the prison not only take these individuals and keep them away from us, the public, we also demand they remake those civic ghosts into conforming and contributing citizens. Labourers. It is within the confines of these penal monoliths that we, as a society, expect, or even demand, that prisoners be both punished and remade. Forensic psychologists have in the last two decades come to inhabit a central role in these conflicting processes. They are tasked, utilising a nascent and flawed disciplinary power, with both serving the punitive and disciplinary interests of the prisons in which they serve, and bringing about the reformation of prisoners that society demands. As a

profession they have become both harbingers of change and adjuncts of penal power.

Examining how psychological power manifests within, and influences experience of, the carceral habitus allows us to gain a greater understanding of the prison as an entity and its role in our lives. However, forensic psychologists in prisons and their staff culture are overlooked in terms of contemporary prison sociology. Little is known about this specific subgroup of prison staff. Other staff groups such as prison officers (Crawley, 2004; Liebling, Price, & Shefer, 2011; Nylander, Lindberg, & Bruhn, 2011; Tait, 2011), prison governors/managers (Bennett, 2016; Bryons, 2008; Liebling & Crewe, 2013) and even prison health and drug workers (Kolind, Frank, Lindberg, & Tourunen, 2015; McDonald & Fallon, 2008; Walsh, 2009) have been subjected to an investigatory gaze the prison psychologist has not. There is a distinct lack of knowledge regarding their culture, how they interact with the wider institution, how they perform their multiple roles, how they experience the prison, and what role they play in prison's confluence of power. The aim of this book is to redress this particular lacuna of knowledge and to highlight how an examination of this staff population can tell us so much more about the contemporary prison.

Between 1992 and 2007, there was a significant increase in the demand for, and expansion of, psychological services within prisons in England and Wales. This established a psychological status quo within our modern prisons. As one prisoner in Crewe's (2009, p. 118) study of the prisoner social world noted '*psychologists have taken over the prison in the last ten years*'. Overwhelmingly, this psychological demand has been met by specialist forensic practitioners (Crighton & Towl, 2015; Towl, 2004). I bore witness to this expansion, and its consequence, first hand. As discussed in the Preface of this book in 1992, at the age of 17, I entered the prison system of England and Wales as an HMP sentenced prisoner.¹ At that time, especially in Young Offender Institutions, the only psychologists you encountered were those who had a counselling, or a clinical, role. They were, from a prisoner's perspective, on your side. They were there to help. The very first conversation I had with a psychologist, in the dim and distant carceral past, was related to whether I was sleeping okay and if they could be of any assistance? At that time their power was minimal and reflective of other nonuniformed and health-related staff. What power they had derived from the coercive matrices of control produced by the institution itself and conferred on all those who wield keys. It was not unusual. However, the next 12 years saw psychological services shift from a minor institutional entity concerned with helping prisoners and providing the odd pretrial report to an entrenched and powerful discipline that influenced all aspects of the carceral life world.

I witnessed first hand the growth in numbers, the expansion of role, and the embedding of this professional practice into the very fibre of the contemporary prison. By the time of my parole in 2004, they were no longer a benign entity. They had become a group of staff who wielded a great deal of unchecked power.

¹Her Majesty's Pleasure. An indeterminate sentence given to juveniles.

Unchecked, because unlike with other prison staff who have formal systems of check and balance to mitigate their power, there is no recourse to the power of psychology in prisons, nor is there any avoiding it. It is pervasive. So pervasive that the very discourse of forensic psychology now infuses the very narrative habitus (Fleetwood, 2016) of prisoners and shapes all aspects of their identity performance (Warr, 2019). Psychological terms have come to infest the day-to-day language and points of reference that prisoners utilise to discuss their own carceral lives (I shall return to this point). However, their power is not only pervasive but is also profound. One example I have discussed elsewhere (see Warr, 2008) was where a forensic psychologist perceived a relationship between a personal officer and myself as unhealthy (the officer accepted that I may have been telling the truth over my continuing appeals against conviction) and thus the psychologist recommended that my personal officer be reassigned. This recommendation, this act deprived me the succour of a single person within those monstrous walls who thought I may be telling the truth. The power of that psychologist went so deep that it could affect the very relationships that I could have with other staff in the prison, and shaped my penal life for many years afterwards. Their power, in only a short number of years, had infiltrated every aspect of the prison so much so that on the say so of a forensic psychologist your relationships with other prisoners and with staff, your role and activities within the prison, and your very future could be disrupted and destroyed. Psychological pronouncements carry a great deal of symbolic weight and can have devastating and unescapable consequences for prisoners, especially indeterminately sentenced prisoners.

When it came to forensic psychologists and their power within the contemporary prison, my lived experience made me an ideal candidate to conduct the research that follows. It allowed me to identify questions that needed to be explored. However, we need to be careful when it comes to how much we privilege lived experience, or insider knowledge. Over the last decade, we have seen something of a fetishisation of lived experience. It has, in some regards, come to be elevated in such a way as that it, in and of itself, can confer expertise and authority. We see, especially within the criminal justice commentariat, a wealth of people trading upon their lived experience. Of course, lived experience can provide someone with unique insight into the criminal justice system (or whatever phenomena they happen to be discussing) but it is also a double-edged sword. As I discussed in the Preface, it can imbue someone with a profound bias that is difficult to overcome and which, if care is not taken, can cloud every judgement and pronouncement they make. Furthermore, whilst the individual with lived experience may be an expert on their own subjective experience, this does not necessarily mean that person has any great insight into the lived realities of others. This extrapolation from the subjective to the general is a particular inductive danger of the lived experience fetish. We must not make the mistake of assuming that lived experience, whilst profound and important, makes anyone an expert on the realities of others or the phenomenon that they discuss. It does not. We sometimes forget this in our rush and desperate need to hear the voices of those traditionally silenced within criminal justice discourse.

However, I soon discovered that my lived experience was not unique. In every prison in England and Wales that I visited I heard the same stories being told. So much so that it became a frequent lament, a constant of the modern prison, this tale of psychologists and their power. In some regards, the forensic psychologist has become the folk devil of the modern prison and many a wary prisoner has a cautionary tale of their encounter with these maleficent and mysterious creatures. An illustrative example of this is a young man whom I met at HMYOI Neverland.² He had been convicted over a gang-related homicide in South London. A forensic psychologist had noted that despite doing all recommended offending behaviour courses, his risk remained high, and thus they should not progress to a lower category prison, due to the fact that he maintained a close connection, and friendships, with a number of co-defendants in the prison.³ This maintenance of relationships was perceived as maintaining gang ties.

Given that 3 of the 5 co-defendants in the prison (one of whom he shared a cell with) were family members, the implications of such a report were clear. Maintaining his relationship with those family members meant that his perceived 'risk' would not reduce and he would not progress through the system. Family or freedom. Those were seemingly the choices being imposed upon him. His anger at that psychologist was immediately palpable and, given that soon after showing me this report he was moved from HMYOI Neverland to a high security prison in the North of England, would be long lasting. That move, predicated on that report, will add years to that young man's time in prison. His was not a lone tale. Why would this happen? Forget for a brief moment the (at best) cultural insensitivity or (at worst) naked racism inherent to the interpretation of the life of this young man. The reason is that the proclamations of forensic psychologists can condemn these prisoners to years of extra, or even permanent, incarceration. Given that there are currently about 10,000 indeterminately sentenced prisoners in England and Wales (Ministry of Justice, 2020), forensic psychologists wield a particular, pervasive and potent power over a significant number of our prisoners.

There is a considerable need for a grounded understanding on the role and influence of forensic psychologists in prison (see Crewe, 2007; Liebling, 2004). Their power over the future lives of prisoners means that forensic psychologists have, in the eyes of many prisoners and prison staff, come to be central to an absolutist yet partial nexus of soft power (Crewe, 2007, 2009). Indeed, some forensic psychologists themselves have expressed discomfort about the changing nature of their role, the demands placed upon them, their colleagues and indeed their profession (Brown, Shell, & Cole, 2015; Crighton & Towl, 2008). Witnessing the infestation of this power into the contemporary prison, and the effects that it has on so many, left a lasting impression on me and a desire to understand both the source of their power and the influence of this professional

²Not the establishments real name but a place where I conducted field work for 30 months between 2011 and 2014 and have referred to in a number of publications.

³He showed me the report and I read it in full. Basic details were recorded in field notes.

group. Coupled to this motivation was a growing awareness that although we had some understanding of other prison staff, and how they experienced power and the institution, this particular staff group were absent from the wider story. This struck me as a glaring omission, and one I hope to redress here.

The expansion in numbers of forensic psychologists employed within our prisons is an outcome of several interrelated factors. Firstly, since 1993, the number of people being committed to prison has almost doubled (Ministry of Justice, 2020) and the number of people serving indeterminate sentences has also increased in the wake of the Criminal Justice Act of 2003 (Cavadino, Dignan, Mair, & Bennett, 2019). These factors have created greater case-loads, and thus more bureaucracy, for psychology departments throughout Her Majesty's Prison and Probation Service (HMPPS). A further factor has been an overt commitment to the ideals of public protection that have come in the wake of the 2003 Criminal Justice Act and the report into the case of Anthony Rice, a paroled life sentenced prisoner who went on to kill whilst under probation supervision (HMIP, 2006). This shift, and the corresponding expectations of the Ministry of Justice, the Parole Board and the Prison Service authorities, has impacted directly upon psychologists employed in our prisons. The duties and procedures of risk-monitoring, risk-assessment, and programme delivery have now overtly supplemented existing responsibilities for the majority of psychologists employed in our prisons. In 2011, the development of an Offender Personality Disorder pathway (NOMS, 2015) involving both the Ministry of Justice and the Department of Health also involved some changes to psychological practice in prisons – especially the Psychologically Informed Planned Environments. These changes in ethos and practice have affected the nature and level of work faced by psychologists in prisons and have directly resulted in a new range of occupational, institutional, and individual pressures.

Fitzgibbon (2007), as well as Towl (2004), have noted the importance of understanding both the risk-assessment process that is central to modern penal practice (Litwack & Schlesinger, 1999; O'Malley, 2005) and the impact that it has on those who are responsible for administering it. It is inevitable that an increased and altered workload, set against the backdrop of a constrained and austerity focused prison, will impact on the occupational and professional lives of those psychologists who work there. Further to these issues is the continuing 'bad press' that psychologists working within the prison system of England and Wales and their 'treatment industry' receive through the national prisoner newspapers *Inside Time* and *ConVerse*.

The almost constant negative rhetoric and vitriol contained within these pages, which often relates to the folk devil status I mentioned earlier, can be both incredibly personal and intense. Given the nature of psychological power in the prison and the numbers subject to it, this is perhaps understandable. However, at the time that this research began, many psychologists felt besieged by the negativity that was being directed towards them (Maruna, 2011; Warr, 2008). For every one of those stories reproduced in those papers, there is a personal referent – a forensic psychologist who is being excoriated. Many felt they were under personal attack. Many felt that their work was misunderstood, misrepresented, and much maligned. As one noted

I feel like they are deliberately trying to undermine not only what we do, but the skills and expertise we have, by attacking us personally and ... that's not fair as we can't answer back.

Another noted that reading such stories in print made them feel '*vulnerable*' and '*got at*'. This is a situation that has, in some senses, only been compounded as critiques of the 'treatment industry' have become more profound and vociferous. In October 2019, a former Director General of the Prison Service, Sir Martin Narey, publicly attacked the 'treatment industry' that had overtaken British prisons.⁴ This garnered a great deal of backlash by forensic psychologists and others on varying social media sites.

However, there were other factors that seemed to play a significant part in this sense of vulnerability. Right at the start of this research, at a wine soaked social function, I was introduced to a former forensic psychologist who had recently left the Prison Service. After some awkward conversation (the person who introduced us said that I was '*investigating you lot*' ... thanks!) the psychologist explained that they had left the service after being stalked by a married uniformed officer. They noted that, although this was an extreme circumstance, it was nevertheless an extension of their wider experiences of the uniformed body. Experiences that were tainted with sexism, misogyny, bullying, and harassment. At the time I thought this was an extreme example. However, soon after, another former prison employed psychologist who I met at a conference, also relayed a number of negative and related experiences with uniformed members of staff, across a number of prisons, that had resulted in them also leaving the Prison Service for private practice. These experiences, which were rapidly corroborated by those I interviewed, made me aware that work place relationships, and the dynamics which underpinned them, were indeed one of the defining factors in how individuals perceived their role and professional life. They also played a significant part in an overarching ontological vulnerability that many psychologists felt.

This factor highlights that though wielders of incredible power these psychologists also felt vulnerable within the context of the prison. They seemed to occupy mutually exclusive positions – being both central to a wide reaching, pervasive, unchecked, and inescapable penal power whilst simultaneously being vulnerable and powerless. How can such a situation be explained? This question highlights the need to understand this population, their experiences, and how they manage their carceral employment in far greater depth than has hitherto been achieved. This question forms the foundation for this book.

Despite these concerns being both evident and a source of much discussion between practitioners, much of the literature surrounding forensic psychology, which is largely practitioner-authored, misses this. This extant, and increasingly exhaustive, literature tends to fall into two broad categories. The first focuses largely on the development, mechanics, and tools of risk-assessment, programme

⁴See article: <https://www.theguardian.com/society/2019/oct/29/prisoner-rehabilitation-does-not-work-says-former-prisons-boss>.

delivery, training, and creating rehabilitative ways of working (e.g., Clarke, Simmonds, & Wydall, 2004; Friendship, Blud, Erikson, & Travers, 2002; Mann, Howard, & Tew, 2018; Mann & Riches, 1999 etc.). Even a critical text like *Bad Psychology: How Forensic Psychology Left Science Behind* (Forde, 2018), which is an excoriating exploration of forensic psychology in the United Kingdom, largely falls into this category. The second comprises evidence-based investigations into both the efficacy of varying assessments, programmes, interventions, and the best practice for their delivery (Adler & Gray, 2010; Andrews & Bonta, 2003; Clarke et al., 2004; Friendship et al., 2002). What has been lacking from this academic discourse is any in-depth, sociological, and generative studies which focus upon the practitioners themselves, their role in the contemporary prison, their motivations, their perspective on their relationships with the prisoners whom they assess, and the impact of the environment and work on their emotional selves. Brown et al. (2015) in their book *Forensic Psychology: Theory, Research, Policy and Practice* and the Ministry of Justice's (2018) promotional videos exploring the experience of forensic psychological work in prisons come closest to addressing some of these issues. However, as the Brown text is introductory many of these issues are only afforded a brief examination and the MoJ videos are promotional and thus of limited value. Therefore, it remains the case that, in both the practitioner and wider psychological and criminological literature, the experiences of the psychologists themselves have had limited attention. There is still a need to understand how forensic psychologists in the employ of the Prison Service⁵ experience their professional world.

Given this need, the core aim of the research was to explore the following questions: firstly, how is psychological power formulated, what recognition is there of the power inherent to their role and profession, and how do psychologists experience the power of the institution to which they belong? Secondly, just who are the psychologists who are employed within our penal institutions and what motivates them to join this profession? Thirdly, how do these psychologists derive occupational satisfaction and what are the barriers to doing so? Fourthly, what impact does performing psychological work in the prison have on their personal and emotional lives? Lastly, how do these psychologists experience the relationships they have with those whom they work on, and alongside?

Inevitably, given the nature of these questions, there are a wide range of interrelated themes discussed in this book. However, these themes really coalesce around four sociological issues: Power, Occupational Morality, Emotion Work, and Gender Relations. Firstly, I discuss how disciplinary discourses, via symbolic interactivity, both inform and shape penal power. Also, how those who wield extensive penal power can also be extremely vulnerable to other forms of penal power within the contemporary prison. Secondly, I discuss how a typology of values and professional perspectives for this occupational group allows us to understand variance in professional practice. Thirdly, I discuss the necessary distinction between emotional and emotive labour. Here the former is defined as

⁵From here on in referred to as prison psychologists.

the process of working with one's own emotions; the latter is the processes of working with the emotions of others. This involves an exploration of how the occupational vicissitudes that this population face, given the variant moral positions, result in differing ways of experiencing and coping with the prison. This provides a hitherto unknown account of how these prison staff members perceive and derive job satisfaction and conversely experience stress. Fourthly, I provide an explanation of how these distinct 'types' both respond to the power of the establishments in which they work, the manner in which they wield their own professional power, and how their discipline creates and promulgates a form of symbolic capital I refer to as disciplinary capital. As psychologists sit at the intersections of varying power relations in terms of the prison and wider criminal justice system, this provides a novel understanding of modalities of power and discourse. Finally, the manner in which the gendered nature of the prison can impact on female forensic psychologists is elucidated. This adds to the wider literature on gender relations within the prison and provides a greater understanding of how many female staff can be unprotected, and indeed victimised, within the confines of penal spaces designed around, and dominated by, varying forms of masculinity.

This is the part of any academic text where the author typically sets out the structure and contents of the succeeding chapters. This always strikes as somewhat superfluous given the discussion above and as you have probably read the contents page. Nevertheless, the book is split into two broad sections which separate the explication of the history of psychological services in the prisons of England and Wales and the wider theoretical legacies that inform this discussion and then the setting out of the substantive findings. The first section (Chapters 2 and 3) establishes the theoretical framework upon which the research is built, a description of the historical events, policies and practices that have given birth to modern psychological practices within the British penal system and discusses the issues and foundations of forensic psychology as a structure of expertise. As such, Chapter 2 explores psychological expertise and the concept of disciplinary capital and its exchange within the contemporary prison. It will detail how this symbolic interaction lies at the heart of forensic psychological expertise. This chapter will also explore how this symbolic capital is central to both ideations and manifestations of varying forms of power, especially soft power, within the penal habitus. Chapter 3 is concerned with the genealogy of psychological, and then later forensic psychological, services within the Prison Service of England and Wales. This will include a broader discussion of the medicalisation of deviance within society (Conrad, 2007; Conrad & Schneider, 1992) and how these positivistic discourses have shaped the contemporary penal landscape. This chapter also explores the literature on prison staff cultures, defines Emotional Labour and the specifics of the emotional labour that psychologists engage in.

The second broad section details the substantive findings. Chapter 4 describes the varying psychologist types that can be found working within the modern prison system and establishes a central hypothesis. The moral and occupational positions of those interviewed, whilst an unintended area of exploration, became immediately evident and could be categorised in terms of four distinct 'types'.