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ATLANTIC INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY

**JANUARY 2022**

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# INTRODUCTION

Crime is a part of our daily life. When you turn on the television, you will see documentaries about crime, films about crime, and news items about crime. Pick up a newspaper and you'll find coverage of local crimes as well as items on national and international crimes. If you go to a bookstore, you will most likely come across a crime section featuring novels about crime, true crime stories, books about criminals, and books written by criminals. Listen to a discussion on the bus or at the pub, and there's a decent chance you'll hear about a burglary in their neighborhood, a car break-in, or a friend's credit cards being taken.

Crime has been in the news since Cain murdered Abel. For centuries before psychology, philosophers sought to explain evil and antisocial behavior, while scholars of law grappled with concerns of criminal law and punishment. It wasn't until the turn of the century that psychology was used to explain criminal behavior, and forensic psychology didn't fully emerge as a specialty until the mid-twentieth century.

However, forensic psychology has swiftly gained popularity, aided and assisted by a number of well-known television shows. University postgraduate courses in forensic psychology have proliferated, and individuals with the necessary degrees now have a variety of career options.

The Concise Oxford English Dictionary defines forensic as "of, utilized in, courts of law." So, properly speaking, forensic psychology is the application of psychology to legal concerns. In Wrightsman's Forensic Psychology, he proposes that "forensic psychology is mirrored by any application of psychological knowledge or procedures to the challenge confronting the judicial system" (2001, p. 2). This accurate usage of the term 'forensic' is also mirrored in other publications devoted to forensic psychology (Gudjonsson & Haward, 1998) or to psychology and law more broadly (Bartol & Bartol, 1994; Kapardis, 1997; Stephenson, 1992).

However, the term "forensic psychology" has come to be used in a much broader meaning — when psychology is involved with any area even slightly related to crime, such as the genesis of antisocial behavior, the study of various types of offenders, and crime prevention. This inappropriate usage of the term "forensic" has been widely condemned (Blackburn, 1996), yet it has spread.

When addressing the issue of forensic psychology in a broad sense, it is useful to distinguish between legal psychology (as defined by Wrightman) and criminological psychology (the application of psychological knowledge and methodologies to the study of crime and criminal behavior).

ORIGIN OF LEGAL PSYCHOLOGY

Even while psychology was developing as a university-based academic science, it was being applied to the legal realm. In their history of forensic psychology, Bartol and Bartol (1999) note that numerous prominent individuals, including J. McKeen Cattell (1895), Alfred Binet (1905), and William Stern (1910), undertook research on memory accuracy, drawing similarities with the precision of real-life eyewitness evidence. Sigmund Freud was also interested in legal psychology, writing a paper titled 'Psychoanalysis and the ascertainment of truth in courts of law' in 1906.

However, there is little question that the most prominent person of the time was the German psychologist Hugo Münsterberg (1863–1916), who was located in the United States. Münsterberg, a PhD student of Willhelm Wundt in Leipzig, met William James at Harvard in 1889 and finally accepted a position there in 1897 (Spillmann & Spillmann, 1993). While writing on a variety of topics in psychology, frequently in a contentious way (Hale, 1980), Münsterberg's primary contribution to the embryonic subject of forensic psychology may be found in his book On the Witness Stand, published in 1908. He advocated for the use of psychology to improve knowledge of courtroom issues and processes.

Münsterberg, in particular, drew emphasis to the psychologist's grasp of perception and memory, stating that psychological expertise provides insight into the trustworthiness of witness evidence (thus supporting the psychologist's role as expert witness). Münsterberg's comments about the practical benefits of psychology in the courtroom were met with vehement opposition from the legal community at the time (Wigmore, 1909). However, his ideas have endured the test of time by foreshadowing major fields of inquiry, such as the study of the reliability of evidence, as demonstrated in studies of eyewitness recall and confessional testimony.

L. R. C. Haward (1920–98) is appropriately regarded as the pioneer of British forensic psychology. Lionel Haward, a clinical psychologist by training, saw the potential for psychology to inform judicial procedures. He began writing about forensic psychology in the 1950s, long before The British Psychological Society established the Division of Criminological and Legal Psychology (now the Division of Forensic Psychology), and he created the classic work Forensic Psychology in 1981. Along with his academic work, he served as an expert witness in a number of trials, including the infamous Oz trial in the 1960s.

Hugo Münsterberg (1863–1916) is often regarded as the pioneer of forensic psychology. Münsterberg, a German psychologist, was brought to America in 1892 by William James to establish a psychological laboratory at Harvard University. Münsterberg's conviction that psychology could be applied to education, industry, and law was either praised as inspirational by his fans or criticized as opportunistic by his detractors. During World Conflict I, his political beliefs (as seen by his pro-German sentiments and a critical position against American engagement in the war) caused him to become a social and academic pariah.

EYEWITNESS MEMORY

## An early model of memory

One of the first topics of examination in psychology science was the capacity and fallibility of human memory. Several notable scientists, especially Hermann Ebbinghaus (1850–1909), began to uncover some of the underlying features of memory functioning via thorough experimental work (Ebbinghaus, 1885/1994). One early concept outlined the three memory processes of I acquisition (when memories are generated), (ii) retention (keeping them in storage), and (iii) retrieval (fetching them from storage).

While memory theory has progressed beyond this fundamental paradigm, it remains relevant in discussions of eyewitness memory. The accuracy of eyewitness testimony has been studied in three stages: the first observation of the occurrence (acquisition), the time between seeing and recalling (retention), and lastly, providing evidence (retrieval). Over a long period of time, researchers have worked with a wide range of relevant variables, including: n social variables, such as the status of the interrogator; n situational variables, such as the type of crime; n individual variables, such as witness age; and n interrogational variables, such as the type of questioning.

## Acquisition

The impact of specific sorts of crime has also been studied. Can witnesses to a violent crime, for example, be as reliable as witnesses to a non-violent crime? Controlled experimental research, in which witnesses observe filmed incidents of varied degrees of severity, reveal that violence reduces witness accuracy (Clifford & Hollin, 1981). Surprisingly, field studies of real-life witnesses show that persons who observe very violent situations may provide quite accurate evidence (Yuille & Cutshall, 1986). Indeed, adult rape victims typically provide a very realistic picture of this acute personal experience of violence (Koss, Tromp & Tharan, 1995).

One possible explanation for this seeming contradiction is that, in a stressful scenario like a violent crime, a witness's attention may be drawn to the major (rather than the periphery) parts of the occurrence. According to the hypothesis, the deployment of attention narrows to core features of the event, such as the criminal's conduct, resulting in less reliable recollection for peripheral information, such as the color of the criminal's shirt (Clifford & Scott, 1978). When a life-threatening weapon is the major topic, witnesses may give significantly greater attention to the weapon, to the exclusion of other information. This is referred to as 'weapon concentration' (Loftus, Loftus & Messo, 1987). It is critical to comprehend the influence of elements such as crime type on witness recollection. What is encoded during acquisition is crucial because it serves as the foundation for what is kept in memory and later retrieved while testifying.

## Retention

During the retention stage, witness memory may be influenced by a variety of factors, including discussions with other witnesses and exposure to media stories of the incident, not to mention the fact that memory deteriorates with time. As a result, the time elapsed between capture and retrieval is an evident factor. A number of studies have been conducted to examine the accuracy of eyewitness facial identification over short and long time periods. For example, Malpass and Devine (1981) picked short (three-day) and long (five-month) periods. Unsurprisingly, they discovered that after three days, there were no incorrect identifications, but after five months, the incidence of erroneous identifications had increased. The rate of right identifications, on the other hand, was initially high but dropped dramatically after five months. Krafka and Penrod (1985) discovered a similar result with significantly shorter time periods of two hours and 24 hours. The weight of the data implies that identification accuracy declines over time, albeit the rates for incorrect and right identifications may differ.

## Retrieval

Finally, elements that may impact the accuracy of eyewitness testimony during the retrieval stage include interview style and the use of aids to remember, such as photofit and identity parades. According to research on the impact of leading questions, even little changes in question phrasing can alter testimony. Loftus and Palmer (1974), for example, asked witnesses to a recorded traffic collision to estimate the speed of the automobiles when 'they – into each other': the blank read 'contacted,' 'hit,' 'bumped,' 'collided,' or'smashed' for various sets of witnesses. The witnesses' estimations of speed rose in proportion to the quantity of force suggested by the verb in the question.

Those witnesses who had been asked about the car 'smash' were more likely to indicate – incorrectly – that they had observed shattered glass during subsequent questioning. Additional research has found that false information supplied to witnesses has a greater affect on peripheral details than on major events (Read & Bruce, 1984). Furthermore, the effects of leading questions, such as those employed by Loftus and Palmer (1974), appear to be a direct result of the demands of the questioning processes, rather than the questions causing lasting alterations in memory (Zaragoza, McCloskey & Jarvis, 1987). This last argument stresses how witnesses might give inaccurate answers to questions even though the memory trail ('retention') itself appears to be unaltered.

## Strength and Validity of the Evidence

Narby, Cutler, and Penrod (1996) classified witness-related evidence into three categories based on dependability and size of effect:

1. consistent and reliable effects on eyewitness memory (e.g., there are differences in memory performance between adult and child witnesses; if a person is wearing a disguise, such as a hat, this influences accuracy of memory; and the length of time, referred to as 'exposure duration,' that the witness has to observe an incident);

2. dependable and moderate characteristics that show impacts in some studies but not others (e.g., the match between a witness's degree of trust in their recall and how accurate it is; weapon emphasis; and criminal severity); and

3. insignificant or non-influential characteristics that have little or no influence on witness accuracy (e.g., witness gender; witness personality; and (within limitations) witness intellect).

A more general issue than the strength of the evidence is its applicability in the real world. Do the conclusions of psychological research correspond to what occurs to real-life crime witnesses? Should the findings of research be made public to the court in order to influence actual trials? In other words, can psychological studies of eyewitness recall be extrapolated to real-world situations?

Many experimental investigations, according to critics such as Konecni and Ebbesen (1986) and Yuille and Cutshall (1986), lack realism, such as the use of filmed crimes and the participants' awareness of the research goals. The issue is one of control — laboratory studies allow for a high degree of control at the price of realism, whereas field research is more realistic and "ecologically valid," but subject to a variety of circumstances that diminish control over the variables being assessed. This is an issue that has plagued many fields of psychological study, but maybe none more so than in the field of forensic psychology. The most valid results will most likely be generated from a mix of research (including laboratory studies, case studies, field studies, and archive studies) that use a wide range of experimental designs and procedures.

# THE PSCYHOLOGY OF CONFESSION

In the legal world, a confession is extremely powerful proof - an unmistakable acknowledgment of guilt. However, while the majority of confessions are accurate, some persons have been known to 'confess' to a crime they did not commit. Gudjonsson (2003) provides a list of examples in which persons were imprisoned for extended periods of time, or even executed, based on a false confession. In the United Kingdom, these infamous examples include the 'Guildford Four' and 'Birmingham Six,' two court cases from the mid-1970s in which four and six innocent persons received long jail terms based on evidence that included false confessions. It is hard to say how frequently such cases emerge since issues of guilt and innocence are not always clear-cut, and the discovery of a mistake in sentence might take years. Some blunders, without a doubt, never go away. Another point mentioned by Münsterberg (1908) is why people make false confessions. This is a highly 'psychological' matter. False confessions can be classified into two types: voluntary and forced. Coerced false confessions are further subdivided into two types: coerced–compliant false confessions and coerced–internalized false confessions.

## Voluntary False Confessions

A voluntary false confession happens when an individual presents himself to the police and admits to committing a crime he did not commit in the absence of any clear external coercion. Kassin and Wrightsman (1985) provide numerous explanations for this behavior:

1. the desire for notoriety – it is a feature of many high-profile crimes that a large number of people come forward to confess;

2. the individual may feel guilty about a previous event in his life and believe he deserves to be punished;

3. inability to distinguish between fact and imagination, so internal thoughts of committing a crime become'real' (this type of behavior is frequently associated with major mental disorders such as schizophrenia);

4. the desire to procreate

According to Gudjonsson (2003), another motivation that might lead to a false confession is vengeance. In one case, a guy produced a fake confession on purpose to waste police time in retaliation for what he thought to be earlier unfair treatment by the police.

In contrast to voluntary false confessions, a forced confession requires the subject to be induced to confess. As Kassin (1997) says, in order to comprehend coercion in the context of a false confession, one must first understand the process of police questioning.

## Interrogational tactics

The rules governing the questioning of suspects by police differ from one nation to the next However, there are certain psychological aspects to consider concepts that may be used if someone is looking information from another person, regardless of location. Suspects may spend time in police cells before and after their arrest under questioning, which may be a terrifying experience upsetting (Irving, 1986). For individuals, this scenario may cause or intensify pre-existing psychological and emotional suffering conditions. Police interrogation guides from both the United Kingdom and the United States (Walkley, 1987) and America (Inbau, Reid, & Buckley, 1986) relate their stories.

From a police standpoint, the interrogator must overcome the suspect's inherent reluctance to reveal the truth, and the suspect must do the same. These interrogation techniques are based on social psychology. The interrogator will achieve this by implying that they have the authority to decide what fee to levy will be brought, if the suspect will be granted bail or imprisoned remanded in jail, and whether additional persons should be involved. The suspect is aware of this. The interrogator may also employ persuasion methods aimed at persuading the suspect to confess, such as proposing. For example, there is evidence to support the case against the suspect, or that accomplices have confessed, or even, as some have suggested, Gudjonsson and MacKeith (1982) observed that by creating mock evidence dossiers. Recently, there have been a number of legislative revisions to the rules controlling the conduct of interrogations in order to remove suspects exercise (Gudjonsson, 2003). There is a cautious confidence that the

The modifications are having the expected impact. However, in such a tense situation,

and intricate arena, where the cops are frequently under pressure. It might be tough to know how to solve a high-profile crime. The intricacies of social interactions during questioning have an impact on the final result.

## Coerced false confessions

According to Gudjonsson and Clark (1986), a suspect will arrive at an interview with a broad cognitive 'set' that may be hostile, suspicious, or cooperative. This cognitive set (which is influenced by characteristics like as IQ, stress level, and past experience with police interrogation) will influence the suspect's evaluation of the situation, and hence the suspect's strategy for coping with the interrogation. Gudjonsson and Clark distinguish two types of initial coping responses: 1. a logical, realistic approach that seeks to actively deal with the situation and may lead to active resistance (that may weaken as the interrogation progresses) to the interrogator's persuasion to confess; and 2. a passive, helpless stance that avoids confrontation with the interrogator, reducing stress but increasing susceptibility to the interrogator's persuasive tactics.

During interrogation, the suspect must recollect information while simultaneously making difficult judgments. She must determine how certain she is of her recollections, what response to offer the interrogator (which may differ from the suspect's intimate knowledge of events), and if she trusts the interrogator. Resistant suspects are more likely to maintain their own version of the truth, despite compelling attempts to persuade them to confess.

Suspects who are coerced may modify their version of the facts in order to comply with the interrogator.

When a false confession is obtained, this process of compelled consent can be viewed in two ways:

1. The suspect is aware that her confession and her private, internal understanding of the incident contradict each other, yet she eventually agrees with the interrogator.

A coerced–compliant false confession is what this is termed.

2. In certain cases, the suspect's internal account of events alters to match the interrogator's version of events, such that the suspect comes to agree with the interrogator's version of events both publicly and privately. A coerced–internalized false confession is what this is.

## Coerced Compliance

In psychology study, the concept of compliance has a long history (Asch, 1956; Milgram, 1974). In the situation of the coerced–compliant false confession, the compliant suspect copes with the stresses of questioning by coming to agree with the interrogator (even when the agreement is erroneous). This might happen for a variety of reasons, including the suspect's desire to satisfy the interrogator, escape further detention and questioning, prevent physical injury (real or imagined), or negotiate a bargain with the interrogator that provides some incentive for making a confession (Vennard, 1984).

## Coerced Internalisation

The suspect must come to feel that their own recall of events is erroneous and that the police version must therefore be true in order for the confession to be coerced–internalized. Kassin (1997) drew parallels between this form of confession and the phenomena of false recollections. There may also be parallels with the concept of cognitive dissonance, discussed in chapter 17 (in which a person comes to change their attitudes to make them more consistent with their behavior), and the type of obedience that occurs towards authority figures  may be relevant here. Gudjonsson (1987) created the concept of interrogative suggestibility based on the psychology of suggestibility (Gheorghiu et al., 1989). This is the amount to which people absorb information provided by the questioner and hence modify their replies during intense questioning. A potent mix of environmental stress, individual characteristics such as self-perception, intellect and memory capacity, and present psychological state may contribute to the suspect's susceptibility to erroneous information and, as a result, a false confession.

# THE PSYCHOLOGY OF INVESTIGATION

## The Cognitive Interview

For a number of reasons, interviews are one of the most prevalent methods of acquiring information in a variety of contexts (Memon & Bull, 1999). Interviews with witnesses, suspects, and victims will be undertaken in the framework of a criminal investigation for a variety of reasons, including obtaining evidence, cross-checking information, and extracting confessions (Milne & Bull, 1999). Interviewing youngsters has become somewhat of a specialty in and of itself (Lamb et al., 1999). Investigators of false confessions have emphasized the less desirable parts of police interviews, but there are other, more beneficial components of the interview process to examine. The cognitive interview approach exemplifies the use of psychology to enhance investigative interviews.

Much of the research on eyewitness testimony emphasizes memory flaws and calls the trustworthiness of eyewitness evidence into doubt. The cognitive interview is an attempt to find a constructive solution to these issues and increase eyewitness recollection accuracy.

Fisher, McCauley, and Geiselman (1994) discuss how the initial cognitive interview methodology employed by cops included four tactics to improve memory retrieval:

1. Reinstatement of context - the witness is urged to recall components of the situational context (such as sights and sounds at the time of the occurrence, as well as significant personal variables such as how they felt and what they were thinking at the time of the incident).

2. Report everything — the witness recalls everything completely freely, unfettered by concentrated (and possibly leading) inquiry or self-censorship of what is recounted. The idea underlying these two strategies is based on the similarity of encoding and retrieval in terms of context. So, if retrieval from memory can occur in a psychological setting comparable to that in which the information was encoded, the witness should have eased access to stored memories, boosting recall accuracy and completeness (Fisher et al., 1994).

3. Reverse order – the witness is urged to begin their narrative of an event at different places (such as a mid-point), or to begin at the conclusion and proceed backwards to the beginning.

4. Shift viewpoint — witnesses are asked to try to describe the incident from the perspective of another individual, such as another witness or the victim.

Techniques 3 and 4 are designed to urge witnesses to use a variety of methods to recover information from memory. If memories are preserved as networks of associations, increasing the number of retrieval points should result in a more thorough recall of the original experience (Fisher at al., 1994). As the research and practice foundation grew, so did the cognitive interview procedures, which included, for example, a greater variety of specialized questioning strategies and the use of guided imagery (Fisher & Geiselman, 1992).

Since 1984, a corpus of assessment studies has accumulated in both laboratory and outdoor settings. According to Milne and Bull (1999), the cognitive interview elicits more right (that is, truthful) information than other forms of interviews. While there are some objections, the approach has been successfully adopted by police personnel and is regularly employed. Furthermore, current study indicates that it is a dependable and beneficial strategy with young witnesses (Milne & Bull, 2003).

## Detecting Lies and Deceit

How simple is it to identify when someone is lying and trying to fool you? Kassin (1997) gives various instances from police training manuals that indicate suspects' verbal and nonverbal signs may be evaluated to detect whether they are lying.

It has been stated, for example, that criminal suspects do not establish eye contact, but innocent suspects provide clear, crisp responses.

Although these broad criteria may be beneficial, empirical research reveals that even competent questioners are not effective at identifying deception based only on a suspect's verbal and nonverbal clues (Ekman & O'Sullivan, 1991). According to Vrij (2000), most liars are detected because it becomes too difficult to continue lying and they have not prepared adequately to escape discovery. Vrij identifies seven characteristics of a good liar:

1. having a well-prepared tale;

2. being creative in what is stated;

3. thinking quickly when the need arises;

4. eloquence in storytelling;

5. having a good memory for what has previously been told;

6. having a well-prepared tale;

7. excellent acting abilities

If verbal and nonverbal clues are difficult to interpret, how does an investigator identify someone who exhibits all of the aforementioned characteristics? Statement Validity Assessment is one technique that uses a highly systematic study of linguistic content (SVA).

SVA was first designed as a clinical instrument for analyzing children's testimonies in sexual abuse situations (Undeutsch, 1982), and it consists of three components:

1. In a structured interview, a statement is taken.

2. The forensic psychologist evaluates the statement's content using criterion-based content analysis (CBCA).

These content criteria are concerned with the statement's general characteristics (such as whether it has a logical structure), the statement's specific contents (such as descriptions of events and people), motivation-related content (such as admission of a lack of memory), and offence-specific elements (concerning the fine details of the offence).

3. Because the CBCA is inherently subjective, it must be reviewed against a standard set of questions outlined in the 'validity checklist' (Raskin & Esplin, 1991). This checklist raises concerns about the analysis's results. In other words, the content analysis is put to the test by taking into account interviewee characteristics in a methodical manner. The psychological and motivational features of the interviewee, the characteristics of the interview, and a 'reality check' against other forensic evidence are all considered.

SVA is unmistakably an attempt to bring order and rigor to the basically subjective topic of determining the veracity and dependability of an interviewee's testimony. Vrij (2000), in a review of the large evaluative literature on SVA, raised various misgivings about the approach and noted areas where uncertainties persist. He adds that 'SVA assessors appear to be more accurate than would be predicted by chance in detecting facts and falsehoods.' In other words, while not a flawless approach, SVA does assist in improving accuracy beyond guessing and incorrect notions about how to measure correctness.

## Offender profiling

Offender profiling would rank high on the list of most forensic psychologists if there was ever a topic that created a lot of heat and very little light. However, as our knowledge base grows, the approach is likely to become more advanced (Ainsworth, 2001; Jackson & Bekerian, 1997). Wrightsman (2001) specifies three types of profiling: historical and political characters, potential criminals based on crime scene features, and common traits of known offenders. Turvey (2000) distinguishes between inductive and deductive profiling approaches. Inductive approaches rely on the profiler's professional skills and knowledge - a method that is sometimes referred to be 'clinical' in style. Deductive approaches, on the other hand, rely on forensic evidence, such as crime scene features and offence-related empirical data — a method that is sometimes referred to as ’statistical’. Attempts have been attempted to create psychological profiles of historical personalities (ranging from Jack the Ripper to Adolf Hitler) by meticulously gathering and arranging material in order to comprehend their motivations and behavior. Experts will definitely have created psychological profiles of Saddam Hussain in order to forecast his behavior during the 2003 Iraq war. These profiles often rely on specialized expertise (e.g. military, historical).

##

## Profiling criminals from the crime scene

In the late 1880s, forensic pathologists were attempting to connect a sequence of crimes by comparing crime scene features, such as the form of a victim's wounds. Recently, the American Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) pioneered an investigative technique based on primary aspects (such as crime scene information and forensic evidence) in order to develop a profile of the criminal's psychological and behavioral traits (Douglas et al., 1986). While forensic evidence can provide numerous clues, the FBI's first step was to utilize the crime scene to build a picture of the sort of person who committed the murder. This method produced a number of categories of criminal types based on psychological features.

For example, under the FBI paradigm, an often utilized contrast (mostly concerned with severe criminals such as murders or rapists) is that between 'organized' and 'disorganized' offenders (Ressler, Burgess & Douglas, 1988). An organized perpetrator will plan the crime, take care not to leave any evidence, and specifically target the victim. The disorganized criminal will appear to commit crimes at random, utilize a weapon that has been abandoned at the site of the crime, and make minimal steps to conceal evidence or potential clues. In terms of psychological qualities, the organized criminal is perceived to be clever and socially adjusted, however this seeming normalcy might conceal a psychopathic disposition. According to this theory, the disorganized criminal is less intellectual and socially isolated, may have mental health issues, and is more prone to commit an offense when panicked. The obvious objections of such differences (and, more broadly, the FBI methodology) are that they are inductive, extremely subjective, and lack rigorous empirical support.

## Profiling common characteristics of known offenders

The third technique to profiling is to build profiles based on scientific facts rather than expert opinion. This approach emphasizes the rigorous collection of data about the crime from multiple sources (such as geographical location and victim statements), the application of complex statistical analyses to databases of crime scene details (and other forensic evidence), and attempts to build a theoretically sound profile of the offender. Canter and Heritage (1990) used this technique to analyze data from over 60 incidents of sexual assault and were able to identify over 30 offender characteristics, such as amount of aggression, use of a weapon, kind of assault, and use of threats. Statistical studies were utilized to look for correlations and trends among the components, as well as to create typical profiles of different forms of sexual assault. This and other comparable research give preliminary support for the key premises of offender profiling based on known criminals' shared features.

# CRIMINOLOGICAL PSYCHOLOGY

The academic connection between criminology and psychology has not always been cordial (Hollin, 2002a) (Hollin, 2002). Studies of the first criminologists, in the late 1800s, concentrated on the individuals offender, and it was impossible to discern between criminologists and psychologists. In the 1930s, the focus in mainstream criminology shifted from the person to society, and psychological theories of criminal conduct had little power compared to sociological theories. But since the 1990s, there has been an increased dialogue between the disciplines as the study of the individual once again becomes a focus in criminology (Lilly, Cullen & Ball, 2001). (Lilly, Cullen & Ball, 2001).

Longitudinal study has revealed that the majority of youth criminality is 'adolescence restricted.' In other words, most juvenile criminals 'grow out' of criminality by the age of 18. (Moffitt, 1993). However, some minors (dubbed "life-course persistent" offenders) will continue to commit crimes into adulthood (Moffitt, 1993). Developmental criminology seeks to uncover the characteristics that predict long-term criminality, so aiding in prevention efforts.

The Cambridge Research on Delinquent Development is a large longitudinal study undertaken in the United Kingdom that has yielded a plethora of data (Farrington, 2002). It began in 1961 with a group of 411 boys aged eight and nine, and it is still ongoing, with more than 90% of the original sample still living. The Cambridge Study approach included not just access to official data, but also repeated testing and interviews with participants, as well as their parents, peers, and schoolteachers.

Approximately 20% of the young males in the poll were convicted as minors, a ratio that climbed to 40% guilty (excluding minor offences) by the age of 40. Official convictions matched self-reported delinquency rather well. When the worst offenders were compared to the rest of the cohort, predictive variables began to emerge. These are characteristics that emerge during childhood and adolescence that have predictive significance for later-life behavior. The Cambridge Study clearly implies that the intensity and severity of some negative characteristics in childhood predict the development of antisocial and later criminal behavior.

According to Farrington (2002), these prognostic criteria are as follows:

1. antisocial behavior, such as troublesomeness in school, dishonesty, and aggressiveness;
2. hyperactivity–impulsivity–attention deficit, such as poor concentration, restlessness, and risk-taking;
3. low intelligence and poor school attainment;
4. family criminality, as seen in parents and older siblings;
5. family poverty, such as low family income, poor housing, and large family size; and
6. harsh parenting style, lack of parental supervision, parental conflict, and aggressiveness.

Other research have discovered comparable determinants of hostility and violent behavior (Kingston & Prior, 1995). It is also clear that antisocial behavior in childhood and teenage delinquency are linked to other developmental issues. Stattin and Magnusson (1995) discovered obvious links between the start of formal delinquency and other educational, behavioral, and interpersonal issues. According to Farrington, Barnes, and Lambert (1996), these developmental issues are commonly clustered in distinct households. In their sample of 397 households, 23 families accounted for half of the overall convictions in the sample.

The Cambridge Study and other comparable studies imply that preventative methods are needed to minimize child and teenage antisocial behavior (Farrington, 2002). Enhancing young people's academic success and interpersonal skills, as well as improving child-rearing practices and reducing poverty and social isolation, are examples of such efforts.

## Adult Criminals

A longitudinal research enables us to compare adult offenders and non-offenders in order to learn more about the paths to crime. When the Cambridge Study cohort reached the age of 18, they led a life marked by frequent drinking, sexual promiscuity, drug use, and small crimes (mainly vehicle theft, group fighting, and vandalism). They were very unlikely to have any formal credentials, they worked in unskilled manual labor, and they had been unemployed frequently. By the age of 32, chronic offenders were unlikely to be homeowners, to have low-paying employment, to have physically harmed their partner, and to have used a variety of substances. They had a long history of fines, probation orders, and jail terms, as one might anticipate. From their previous histories and current situations, it was evident that these guys were living a gloomy and socially dysfunctional existence.

The findings also lead to potential safeguards. These are the elements that appear to balance the negative predictors, such that offending does not occur when you would anticipate it to. When guys exhibit all of the predictors of a criminal career but do not commit crimes, Farrington and West (1990) term them "nice lads from terrible homes." These males were introverted as adolescents and socially aloof as adults. While they were not involved in criminal activity, they did have interpersonal issues with their parents or spouses. Forming intimate relationships in early adulthood appears to be associated with a decrease in offending as well. Those criminals who married, in particular, exhibited a drop in offending - provided their partner was not a convicted offender (Farrington & West, 1995). It would be a mistake to try to build a precise model of a criminal career from all of this information. There are too many unsolved issues for us to be unduly confident in forecasting the outcome, and just identifying the predictive elements is not the same as understanding how they cause delinquent behavior. So yet, no great theory has emerged to describe how a young person's interaction with his or her external conditions leads to crime. However, there are enough encouraging discoveries in the existing literature to suggest that this is a possibility in the future, at least in terms of certain probabilities and confidence levels.

## Psychological profile of violence

Some of the psychological mechanisms that characterize the aggressive individual have also been studied. Dodge and colleagues, for example, have used social information processing (how we perceive and comprehend other people's words and behaviors) to try to explain the psychology of violence.

Crick and Dodge (1994; Dodge 1997) proposed that as we process social information, we go through the following steps:

* encoding social cues
* encoding social cues
* deciding on the appropriate course of action for responding
* providing an answer

Dodge hypothesized that impairments and biases at any of these phases might lead to aggressive behavior. To begin with, there is evidence that aggressive young individuals seek for and encode less social cues than non-aggressive peers (Dodge & Newman, 1981) and give greater attention to cues at the conclusion of an engagement (Crick & Dodge, 1994). This misunderstanding can then lead to misattribution of purpose, such that other people's acts are seen as hostile or threatening (Akhtar & Bradley, 1991; Crick & Dodge, 1996). Identifying the right way to respond to a circumstance is a cognitive capacity known as social problem solving. It entails devising plausible courses of action, assessing various alternatives and their anticipated implications, and devising strategies for reaching the intended objective (Spivack, Platt & Shure, 1976).

According to research, aggressive persons have limited problem-solving abilities and contemplate less repercussions than non-violent ones (Slaby & Guerra, 1988). This chain of cognitive processes leads to aggressive behavior, which the violent person may regard as appropriate and reasonable (Slaby & Guerra, 1988).

## The role of anger

Cognitions interact with emotions, and anger (especially dysfunctional anger) is the most commonly related emotional state with violent behavior (Blackburn, 1993). When anger has major negative effects for the individual or for others, it is considered to be dysfunctional (Swaffer & Hollin, 2001). It would be incorrect to claim that anger is the primary cause of violence or that all violent criminals are furious, but it is undeniably a factor in comprehending violence.

Novaco's hypothesis of rage is currently the most influential (1975). According to Novaco, for someone to get furious, a certain pattern of physiological and cognitive arousal must first be triggered. This trigger is frequently found in the individual's assessment of another person's words and behavior. When we are furious, physiological and cognitive processes are activated. A rise in body temperature, sweat, muscle tension, and increased cardiovascular activity are all symptoms of increased autonomic nervous system activity. The related cognitive processes (Novaco & Welsh, 1989) entail a variety of information-processing biases that are associated with the encoding of interpretation

and triggering signals. Attentional cueing, for example, is the tendency to see hostility and provocation in other people's words and actions, whereas an attribution error occurs when the individual believes that his or her own behavior is determined by the situation, but that the behavior of others is explained by their personality. The disinhibition of internal control is related with the development from anger to violence, which can be caused by variables such as high levels of physiological arousal, the impression that there is little possibility of being captured or punished, and the perpetrator's use of drugs or alcohol.

## Moral Reasoning

There has been a lengthy history of study into the link between moral thinking and offending (Palmer, 2003). Gibbs has investigated the unique relationship between moral reasoning and violent behavior, concentrating on the link between social information processing theories and moral growth. According to Gibbs and colleagues, this bridge takes the shape of cognitive distortions (Gibbs, 1993; Goldstein, Glick, & Gibbs, 1998), which we use to excuse or mislabel our own behavior.

For example, if I view someone else's behavior to be aggressive, prompting me to assault them, my skewed justification may be that 'he was begging for it.' My skewed appraisal of the effects of my behavior is likewise evidence of cognitive distortion. So I could state that my victim "could have had it worse," "wasn't too severely harmed," or "no serious damage was done" (Gibbs, 1996). These sorts of powerful skewed thinking are frequently socially accepted and reinforced by the offender's peer group.

# WORKING WITH OFFENDERS

As our knowledge of antisocial and criminal behavior has evolved, approaches to treating with offenders have naturally altered, progressing from psychodynamic psychotherapy to group therapy to behavior modification. However, other people believe that employing therapy to reduce crime is a waste of time. (Hollin, 2001, has studied the conflict between supporters of therapy and supporters of punishment.) However, since the mid-1990s, there has been increased interest in the therapeutic strategy, fueled by a slew of meta-analysis research.

## Using meta-analysis to inform treatment programs

Meta-analysis allows for the examination of aggregated data from a number of investigations centered on a similar issue. Its application in research of the impacts of offender treatment has had a significant impact on current practice. Meta-analyses of offender treatment make a crucial difference between clinical and criminogenic outcome factors. Clinical outcomes in this sense relate to changes in some aspect of personal functioning, such as psychological adjustment, attitudes, or social competence.

Treatment of offenders (like with other groups) often produces positive therapeutic outcomes (Lipsey & Wilson, 1993). However, the meta-analyses have made an important contribution by highlighting impacts on criminogenic outcomes (that is, features of treatment treatments that result in a reduction in offending).

Several meta-analytic analyses have been conducted in order to discover practical suggestions that may be drawn from this empirical study. The first important result is that there is a ten percent reduction in reoffending following therapy (Lipsey, 1992; Lösel, 1996). The second conclusion is that certain treatments have a much bigger impact than others, with the most successful reducing reoffending by more than 20%. (Lipsey, 1992).

As research accumulates, a general agreement has emerged about the qualities of therapies that have an influence on offending:

1. Targeting treatment programs indiscriminately is unhelpful to reducing recidivism. Medium- to high-risk offenders should be chosen, and programs should concentrate on criminogenic targets: that is, therapies should address components of the offender's thought and behavior that can be proved to be directly connected to their offending.

2. The kind of treatment program matters, with organized behavioral and multimodal treatments outperforming less focused options in terms of evidence. (The word "multimodal" refers to the use of a number of treatment strategies to meet a variety of change objectives, as mentioned below with regard to Aggression Replacement Training.)

3. The most effective studies, albeit behavioral in nature, incorporate a cognitive component, in which the offender is encouraged to reflect on their attitudes and beliefs.

4. Treatment programs should be designed to engage high levels of offender responsivity: that is, the treatment style should engage the offender in order to make him or her responsive to treatment while also being responsive to the needs of different offenders such as juvenile or adult offenders or male and female offenders.

5. Community-based treatment programs have a greater impact than inpatient programs. While residential programs have the potential to be helpful, they should be structurally connected to community-based treatments.

6. The most effective programs have high treatment integrity because they are carried out by qualified personnel and treatment initiators are involved in all operational phases of the treatment programs.

The use of these meta-analysis-derived ideas in practice has come to be known as the What Works model of treatment programs (McGuire, 1995). The possibilities highlighted by the What Works principles have been acknowledged at a government policy level in the United Kingdom (Vennard, Sugg, & Hedderman, 1997), and have profoundly affected work with criminals in jail and on probation. The creation of national programs for dealing with offenders has become a significant project, with the goal of capitalizing on the opportunities created by What Works (Lipton et al., 2000).

The Aggression Replacement Training (ART) program is a great example of a program approach to working with offenders. ART was established in the 1980s in the United States as a method of working with violent criminals. This training approach has been shown to be an effective method of lowering aggressive behavior (Goldstein & Glick, 1987; 1996). ART has evolved as the evidence basis has grown and practice procedures have gotten more polished (Goldstein, Glick, & Gibbs, 1998).

ART consists of three components that are provided consecutively and so qualifies as a multimodal program:

1. Skillstreaming entails training skills to replace destructive, out-of-control behaviors with constructive, prosocial behaviors. Step-by-step instructions for dealing with important social circumstances are used to teach social skills. Offenders, for example, may be taught conflict resolution skills to utilize in instances where they would have previously used hostility.

2. Anger control training begins by identifying individual-specific causes for anger, and then employs anger management approaches such as I increasing awareness of internal anger cues, (ii) teaching coping mechanisms, (iii) skills training, (iv) self-instruction, and (v) social problem solving.

Offenders are therefore taught to recognize their own feelings of anger and then assisted in developing techniques to regulate anger and hence minimize aggressiveness, employing new abilities and greater self-control.

3. Moral reasoning training aims to improve moral reasoning abilities and broaden social perspectivetaking. This is accomplished through self-instruction, social problem resolution, and skill development. The emphasis here is on raising offenders' comprehension of the consequences of their acts on other people, so increasing young people's values for the rights and feelings of others.

# CONCLUSION

In light of this essay, it can be concluded that Forensic Psychology encompasses a wide range of topics, including (but not limited to) cognitive psychology, as seen in studies of eyewitness testimony, interview techniques, and social information processing accounts of violence; developmental psychology (essential for understanding delinquent development); and social psychology (which plays an important role in theories of criminal behaviour). There are several elements that might impact eyewitness memory accuracy, and research on eyewitness testimony accuracy focuses on three areas: acquisition, retention, and retrieval. Research has also been put to excellent use in aiding police in properly arranging witness interviews. People may confess to crimes they did not do, but there are significant differences between voluntary and compelled confessions — in the instance of pressured confessions, the suspect may come to feel that their own recall of events is incorrect. During criminal investigations, interviewers employ a range of strategies to improve witness memory recovery. Some of them allow retrieval from memory to occur in a psychological setting comparable to that in which the information was initially recorded, while others urge the witness to explore several alternative pathways to recall the information.

Even expert interrogators find it difficult to identify falsehoods and deception based just on a suspect's verbal and nonverbal signs, therefore more sophisticated tactics are frequently required. We now know, because to research like The Cambridge Study on Delinquent Development, that there are characteristics present throughout childhood that might predict adult offending, as well as critical impacts across the lifespan that assist to explain and define violent behavior. As our understanding of antisocial and criminal behavior has evolved, approaches to working with offenders have shifted from psychodynamic psychotherapy to group therapy to behavior modification, and a broad consensus has been reached regarding the characteristics of treatments that impact offending. Forensic psychologists, like any competent psychologists (and possibly unlike their portrayal in the popular media), are concerned with evidence (in terms of procedures for acquiring solid data and acceptable methods of analysis) on which to build proper theories and practice.

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