THE CARIBBEAN TODAY: FACING CHALLENGES AND ASSESSING OPPORTUNITIES THROUGH POSTGRADUATE RESEARCH

Selected Proceedings from the 2nd Biennial Department of Behavioural Sciences Postgraduate Research Conference, held at the University of the West Indies, St Augustine Campus, April 9/10, 2015
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This conference proceeding is based on the 2nd Biennial Department of Behavioural Sciences (DOBS) Postgraduate Research Conference held at the Learning Resource Centre (LRC), The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine on April 9th and 10th, 2015. Under the theme “The Caribbean Today: Facing Challenges and Assessing Opportunities through Postgraduate Research”, several topics were covered and the presenters did an outstanding job of sharing their research and expertise with the audience. We believe that the diverse and dynamic group of presenters provided in-depth insight, as well as, actionable and practical tools of engagement models, methods and mechanisms across a broad spectrum of academic disciplines. Indeed, the presenters were the fulcrum of this successful conference and they are deserving of plaudits.

Apart from the presenters, the success of the Conference was also due to a multiplicity of individuals including student attendees, corporate sponsors, academic staff, student volunteers, members of the public and a host of departments at The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine, who gave freely of their time. This conference is a product of the contributions of many organisations, departments and individuals, too numerous to mention here and we would like to express our appreciation for the help we received. Unfortunately, we cannot mention everyone by name who assisted; however, the following deserve special commendations:

Our first appreciation goes to the Department of Behavioural Sciences, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine for providing the key funds for organizing the Conference in addition to providing the organizing team, through the expertise of Ms. Rachael D’Arceuil in assisting with the planning and coordinating of the event. Similarly, we wish to thank the Faculty of Social Sciences for their generous contribution and support in making this conference a success. We also extend our gratitude to the School for Graduate Studies and Research who provided a substantial amount financial support and who is responsible for this
We are most grateful to Nestle, Joe’s Pizza and Rituals Coffee House for sponsorship.

Specifically, we also thank our Keynote Speaker, Professor Jason Young from City University of New York for his attendance and delivery of an absorbing speech. We are grateful to Professor Kit Fai Pun, Chair, Graduate Studies and Research at The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine for providing us with guidance, and for accepting the invitation to welcome the many presenters to the Conference. A debt of gratitude is also owed to Professor Derek Chadee, the Head of Department, Behavioural Sciences for his inputs and guidance, Mr. Errol Simms, Dean (former) of the Faculty of Social Sciences for his overall support, Dr. Acolla Lewis-Cameron, Head, Department of Management Studies, The UWI St. Augustine, for her stellar efforts in managing and delivering of the Postgraduate Development Workshop and Professor Emeritus Ramesh Deosaran for accepting our invitation to be honoured and for his delivery of some insightful comments.

To the discussants who voluntarily chaired the panels and who ensured that the Conference proceeded in a timely manner, thank you. The discussants were: Dr. Wendell C. Wallace, Dr. Bennie Berkeley, Dr. Georgina Chami, Dr. Angelique Nixon, Mr. Harold Pulwarty, Ms. Michelle Sogren, Dr. Dylan Kerrigan, Dr. Allan Patenaude, Dr. Randy Seepersad, Dr. Rosanna Yearwood and Dr. Christine Descartes. We also owe a debt of gratitude to the coordinator of the Poster Session, Dr. Jannel Philip. To the members of civil society groups such as Mr. David West (Chairman of the Police Complaints Authority, Trinidad and Tobago), Brigadier General Anthony Phillips-Spencer, Mr. Burton Hill (Trinidad and Tobago Prison Service representative) and Mr. Anthony Rosales (University of Trinidad and Tobago) who accepted our invitation to attend, participate and lend support to the presenters, we extend a heartfelt thank you.
Finally, the contributors and participants deserve our special commendation for their brilliant presentations and robust, engaging debates which made the conference a success. To all other persons and organizations, too numerous to mention, who assisted and who made this conference a success, we say thank you. The names of the paper contributors and poster presenters are listed against their papers reproduced in this publication.
1. Policing with pride: Community policing and the attitudes of frontline Police officers in the Central Division of the Trinidad and Tobago Police Service. Nigel Toussaint, Criminology Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

2. A culture of corruption: Understanding Police corruption in Trinidad and Tobago. Nirmala Sookoo, Criminology Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

3. Policing your brother as the other: Towards a victimology of paramilitary policing. Keron M. K. King, Criminology Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

4. A Phenomenological study of the respect given to private security officers by private citizens and public Police officers in the Trinidad and Tobago Police Service. John K. Sylvester, Criminology Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

5. Development of an Index for accessing the quality of and level of access to Urban Ecosystem Services - Environmental Studies, University of Trinidad and Tobago.

6. Confronting the contemporary local and regional challenges to sustainable development in CARICOM. Kezra Lashley, International Relations, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

7. A neorealist examination of the capabilities of CARICOM member states to implement the CSME’s free movement of labour regime: A case study of the role of the CSME focal point. Kai-Ann D. Skeete, International Relations, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.
8. The Caribbean Court of Justice as a Change Agent for the Commonwealth Caribbean? Justice Anthony Gafoor, Mediation Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

9. Effectiveness of inventory management in the Trinidad and Tobago Coast Guard. Sheryl Leacock, Management Studies, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

10. Exploring a connection between domestic violence and multiple partner fertility among women. Bernadette Neptune, Sociology Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

11. A study of maternal experiences in caring for a child diagnosed with Sickle Cell Disease between the ages of 6-14 years in Trinidad. Shermaine Belgrave-Ramdial Sociology Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

12. The impact of maternal employment on the behaviour outcomes of adolescents: A study of adolescents attending secondary schools in Trinidad. Jainap Seheult, Sociology Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

13. Children of divorced and separated parents: A study of how they are affected and how they cope. Genevieve Bernard Mediation Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

14. Abortion in Trinidad and Tobago: Distinguishing between attitude and support. Siobhonn Job, Psychology Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

15. Leading like a Girl: An ethnographic approach to how female cadets lead within the Trinidad and Tobago Cadet Force. Allyce Woodhouse, Sociology Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

17. Beyond control vs. beyond coping: A study of factors contributing to deviant behaviour in girls brought to the Courts in Trinidad and Tobago. Jolene Romain, Social Work Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

18. Male and female students’ perspectives and recommendations on the gender disparity in academic performance at High School level. Dr. Marc Jackman, University of Trinidad and Tobago.

19. A journey toward Masters’ degree completion: Stories of “Personal Empire Building”. Alisha Ali, Sociology Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

20. Understanding motivation and stress of full time and evening university students – methodological considerations. Karima Theresa Pragg, Sociology Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.


22. Assessing argument mapping: The development of critical thinking and utility for pedagogy, Shenelle Boyce, Psychology Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

23. Is there room for mediation? A study of elder mistreatment. Dianna Baptiste-Pantin, Mediation Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

24. Implications of population ageing on the labour market in Trinidad and Tobago. Katherine Inniss, Sociology Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.
25. The homebound elderly: An overlooked population. Lisa Finch, Social Work Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.


27. A stakeholder perspective on the Day of the Dead as a dark tourism product within the community of Orange Walk, Belize. Arturo Gonzalez, Management Studies, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

28. Recognition, redistribution and the politics of difference: Understanding the Multiculturalism Policy of Trinidad and Tobago. Paul Ramlogan, Department of Political Science, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

29. Eurocentric academia, Rastafari and the quest for re-development. Tyehimba Salandy, Sociology Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

30. Juvenile delinquency in Trinidad and Tobago: Examining the re-entry challenges of young female offenders. Alaina Boochoon, Social Work Unit

31. An overview of the rehabilitative programs for male juvenile offenders in Trinidad and Tobago. Arlene Hamblin, Criminology Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

32. Social reintegration: A case study exploring the experiences of three males, institutionalized between the ages of 10-18 years old. Samantha Mendoza, Social Work Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

33. An investigation of the pre-release programs and post-release services to reduce recidivism in Trinidad and Tobago: Female Inmates’ Perspectives. Sherry Ann Ramdeo, Criminology Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.
34. Pleasure vs. pain: An application of Beccaria’s pleasure pain principle on the convicted prison population of Trinidad and Tobago. Karen Lancaster-Ellis, Criminology Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

35. The relationship between the introduction of the ferry service between Trinidad and Tobago and the incidence of narcotic offences in Tobago. Michelle Nicholson, Criminology Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

36. An analysis of the impact of moderator variables on the relationship between relative deprivation and crime in Trinidad among males aged 16-30. Anna Ragoonath, Criminology Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

37. A study to determine whether the structure of the family impacts on juvenile delinquency in the county of St Patrick, Trinidad and Tobago. Videsh Rampersad, Criminology Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.


39. The impact of family structure, absent fathers and family relations on criminogenic behaviour among males age 14-18 years. Andrew Hicks, Criminology Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

40. Technological advances and the Criminal Justice System: Towards a system of virtual visitation in the Caribbean. Wendell C. Wallace, Criminology Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

41. Law enforcement challenges with cyber-crime in Trinidad and Tobago. Candy Saunders-Alfred, The Trinidad and Tobago Police Service.

42. Predicting crime trends through incarceration. Brittney Stricker, Criminology Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.
43. An investigation into the socio-demographic and psychological correlates of compulsive Internet use among university students in Trinidad. Linda Mohammed and Marc Jackman, The University of Trinidad and Tobago.

44. Social media and identity in Trinidad and Tobago: The role of Facebook in the construction of self. Yasphal Kissoon, Sociology Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.

45. Hair stories: The identity of hair. Michelle John, Sociology Unit, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine

**Poster Sessions**

1. How do furniture aesthetics reinforce power relationships? Angélica Rodriguez-Bencosme, Gender and Development, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.


3. Grocery Blues: the opportunity costs of the professional woman at the expense of family life and fertility. Candice Sobers, Cultural Studies, The University of the West Indies, St. Augustine.


5. Evidence-based assessment and treatment of a Trinidadian-American adolescent girl with oppositional defiant disorder. Shari Ross, Florida International University, USA.
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Introduction

Research conducted by the Postgraduate community throughout the three main campuses of The University of the West Indies is diverse, wide-ranging and of a high academic standard. However, opportunities for Caribbean postgraduates to present their work in a professional conference environment are often limited.

As such, in 2013 the Department of Behavioural Sciences established a biennial Postgraduate Research Conference at the University of the West Indies, St Augustine Campus to alleviate this lack of opportunity by highlighting the wide range of research on contemporary issues facing Caribbean societies as well as possible solutions and recommendations as viewed through the lens of the next generation of Caribbean scholars.

In this conference proceedings collection, you will find a selection of papers from the 2nd Biennial conference held on April 9th and 10th, 2015 from a breadth of disciplines including Sociology, Psychology, Social Work, Mediation and Criminology and Criminal Justice. The topics covered include: Police, Security, and Crime in Society; Reintegration and Recidivism; Gender; Family Relationships; Society, Culture and Change; Social Media and the Internet; and Education.

Each selected paper went through a review process. As such each paper has been slightly modified from the original presentation to be included in this collection. Special thanks to Dr Wendell C. Wallace, Dr Christine Descartes, Dr Dylan Kerrigan, Ms. Fareena Alladin, Ms. Mala Ramesar, Ms. Allyce Woodhouse, Ms. Sherry Ann Ramdeo, and the post-graduate students for their hard work in the compilation of this proceedings.
A Journey Toward Masters’ Degree Completion: Stories of “Personal Empire Building”

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Abstract

This qualitative study provides insight into how MSc Petroleum Engineering students experience factors internal and external to the university as they journey toward degree completion. For some of these students the programme is a “means to an end.” To better understand this “end,” this study suggested the analogy of “personal empire building” as a process through which students acquire qualifications and can negotiate their social position within the petroleum engineering field. Structured interviews with a purposeful sample of twelve (12) participants generated narrative data. Themes describing the experience of masters’ degree students were then generated via coding. The findings reveal the dynamic nature of degree completion and the significant role of social factors in shaping students’ experience. This is a timely and pertinent study because an increasing number of students at the masters’ level experience problems completing their programme in a timely manner or opt to withdraw, thereby wasting resources invested. Additionally, there is limited research on the experiences of students at the masters’ level and a consequent need to shed light on this area. In this presentation I provide an overview of the journey some students make toward masters’ degree completion and a discussion of my findings.

Keywords: Masters’ degree completion; social factors; personal empire building; social capital; habitus; field
Introduction

Internationally, regionally and locally increasing access to higher education has corresponded with a rise in attrition and time-to-degree completion at all levels of higher education. In 2013 Errol Simms, Dean of the Faculty of Social Science at University of the West Indies (UWI) lamented, “in the case of purely research degrees, we can be honest and we can only say that the graduation rate has been very disappointing” (Kowlessar 2013). This low rate negatively affects a wide range of stakeholders in the tertiary education sector: students’ waste of energy, hope and financial resources. Institutions may receive negative reputations based on high attrition rates. Society is also affected by the loss of research intended to advance knowledge, ideas and perspectives (Clark 2010; Myers 1999).

At the UWI St. Augustine (STA), an examination of enrolment, registration and graduation trends for the M.Sc. in Petroleum Engineering programme demonstrate, despite steadily climbing rates for new registration, the percentage of students crossing the finish line over the years has barely budged (The University of the West Indies 2012a; The University of the West Indies 2012b). Over a three-year period from 2009 – 2012, new enrolment in the programme continued to remain relatively constant, averaging 23 students annually. While registration rates for continuing students have increased by 54%, this represents more than half. Meanwhile, graduation rates continue to remain low, averaging 9 students per year from 2009-2012. This suggests a considerable number of students are either remaining in the programme for a longer time than necessary or withdrawing.

Given the importance of graduate education to our society it is insufficient to dismiss degree completion as an issue simply based on personal choice or inability to meet the high demands of a graduate degree programme. Lovitts (2001; 2008) contends it is important to also consider wider structural issues students experience through the bottom-up perspective of the students
themselves. This qualitative study provides insight into how a sample of M.Sc. Petroleum Engineering students experience factors internal and external to the university as they journey toward degree completion and seek to build their “personal empire,” a metaphor for understanding the students’ experiences.

Methodology

A qualitative method of data collection was most suitable for this research project because graduate education is considered discipline specific and is well suited to qualitative case studies.

Sampling

Purposeful sampling through the snowballing method was the most appropriate sampling procedure due to: the inaccessibility of students who were employed offshore; inability to source a sample frame to randomly select a sample due to university confidentiality policies; and the small number of students who passed through the programme.

Data Collection

Semi-structured interviews, utilizing an interview protocol, were conducted with 12 students. Three (3) students each from four (4) distinct stages in the programme namely: 1) first semester and began working on their research project; 2) final semester and began working on their project through the research methods course; 3) on the research project; and 4) recently completed. The interviews lasted between 45 minutes and one hour and were conducted face-to-face or via Skype and transcribed verbatim.
Data Analysis

This study utilised thick descriptions to show rather than tell. Analogies akin to the 15th century “empire building” process, were devised to narrate the experiences of students at the different stages of the programme namely: discoverers (first semester and began working on their research project); settlers (final semester and began working on their project through the research methods course); explorers (on the research project); and conquerors (recently completed). 14 themes were generated via coding (Stake 1995 cited in Engle and Schutt 2014). These themes were then categorised into four major headings. For the purpose of this paper two themes from each of the following factors will be examined: faculty (professional and personal faculty-student relations; research project and faculty as research project supervisors); peers (connection and collaboration with peers; social isolation and the transition to the research project); family (family education and industry experience; emotional and technical family support); and workplace (workplace motivation; balancing work and study).

Discussion

One way to conceive the M.Sc. Petroleum Engineering programme for these students is a “means to an end.” The end is to build their “personal empire” by acquiring qualifications through which they can negotiate their social position within the engineering field. “Personal empire building” through the acquisition of qualifications is not clear-cut but rather a fluid, dynamic and multifaceted process. Students at the four stages of the programme: discoverer, settler, explorer and conqueror, share similar experiences in relation to the factors internal (faculty and peers) and external (family and workplace) to the university.
Faculty

At all stages, students described their relationship with faculty as both professional and personal. Generally, students at all levels viewed faculty in a positive light. However, as students became explorers charting new territory with the transition to the research project, their views of faculty as supervisors were described as either facilitating or hindering the research project. Explorers tend to view faculty in a negative light more than students at other stages of the programme.

Students developed a relationship with their research project supervisors as early as the discoverer stage and believed these supervisors had a significant effect on their ability to conquer the programme. Some students reported changing supervisors and infrequent contact with them hindered degree completion. All students who were stuck on the explorer phase, and one who conquered the programme but spent two years in the explorer stage, reported a change in research project supervisor. Some students at the discoverer stage of the programme reported informal and infrequent contact with their research project supervisor. Wao and Onwuegbuzie (2011), Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) and Myers (1999) suggest this may be problematic as the settlers move into other stages of the programme. Other students reported their research project supervisors were facilitative, particularly with networking. This was important for students who were not employed in the industry but needed access to industry related information and faculty bridged that gap.

Peers

Students in the M.Sc. Petroleum Engineering programme generally sought peer academic support from each other but it was on an informal basis rather than formal study groups. For discoverers, settlers, explorers and conquerors, academic support was most prevalent during examinations. Students employed in the petroleum engineering field who already had a habitus
(Bourdieu 1997) aligned to the programme through their industry experience were also able to bridge the gap for their peers who were either unemployed or not employed in the industry.

With the transition to the research project, interactions with peers diminished for students who entered the explorer phase. They felt isolated and believed the research project drove a wedge between their peers and themselves. For them it was new territory as they moved further inland and explored the terrain they discovered and settled into. Discoverers and settlers were still used to being around their peers during the coursework phase and had not yet experienced this diminished peer interaction.

**Family**

At the graduate level it is assumed students tend to be older and begin assuming responsibility over themselves as they enter the world of work. However, most of the participants in this study had recently completed undergraduate programmes and still relied on their family. Students who were the first in their families to pursue a tertiary level programme felt as though they were “living in two worlds” (Gardner and Holley 2011). Others who had siblings and parents with degrees had “a feel for the game” and could better navigate through the programme. They had the “cultural capital” (Bourdieu 1997) necessary to understand what tertiary level education was about and had access to advice or assistance.

Students throughout the programme received both emotional and technical support from family members. However, technical support was more prevalent for students whose family members had tertiary education. On the other hand, students whose family members did not have tertiary level education or education in the petroleum engineering field or experience in the industry, tend to be less supportive of students’ enrolment in the programme and often did not understand why students were pursuing the programme. This is perhaps the case because their parents have less experience in navigating bureaucratic institutions and less knowledge about higher
education (Kuh et al. 2006). These students instead received emotional support involving overall encouragement, esteem building, and love (Jairam and Kahl 2012).

*Workplace*

Students particularly those in the discoverer and settler stage were employed in the petroleum engineering field and were motivated to pursue the programme to negotiate their social position within that field. Others, particularly those in the settler and explorer phase, never worked in petroleum engineering but pursued the programme to create opportunities to enter the petroleum engineering field and facilitate a career change. All of the discoverers and two settlers had experience in the petroleum engineering field which whet their appetite to delve further into the field.

Most students employed while they pursued the M.Sc. in Engineering programme had to balance their time between their studies and work. For some students their employers were facilitating and provided flexible working hours. Whereas others experienced “time poverty” (Callendar and Feldman 2009) and resorted to doing schoolwork at the office. All students in this study at the discoverer stage opted to leave their full-time employment primarily due to difficulty balancing their time between work and study.

**Conclusion**

Students at the four chronological stages of the programme: discoverer, settler, explorer and conqueror shared similar experiences. However, the explorer phase appeared to be a defining point for students and their ability to conquer the programme. Some students were effective at plotting and navigating through the programme successfully whilst others got lost and experienced difficulty. Generally, factors internal (faculty and peers) and external (family and
the workplace) to the university were mediated by social integration. Where social integration is weak students generally experience more difficulty completing the programme.

**Recommendations**

Students in the study and the authors such as Lovitts (2001), Norris and Barnett (1994), and Bean and Eaton (2001), suggest activities that can increase social integration and contribute to persistence. Some of these recommendations include: introducing a cohort model since students at different levels of the programme were enrolled in the same courses and they were not always familiar with each other, which may contribute to feelings of isolation among some students. Lovitts (2001) suggests, “Cohorts provide interactions with peers that foster connectivity and increase social integration, sense of belong and community.” Additionally, for students who are not employed in the petroleum engineering field, faculty can be overtly facilitative to students seeking industry linkages for their research project. This would buffer the perceived inequality experienced by students whose habitus does not mirror the university setting. Furthermore, the university can consider peer mentoring programmes where conquerors can speak to discoverers about their first hand experiences and efficient ways to navigate through the programme. Moreover, the university can consider maintaining statistics on attrition and time-do-degree completion because it is currently difficult to track which students have withdrawn entirely.

**References**


Is There Room for Mediation? A Study of Elder Mistreatment

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Abstract

This study explored the risk factors and mediating factors of elder mistreatment among elder adults by their caregivers. The sample was based on eighteen males and females who resided within residential care setting, as well as three caregivers. A qualitative research design was employed and interviews were used to collect the data on both the elderly and caregivers. Data analysis suggested that all elders experienced some form of mistreatment. The findings also revealed that economic strain, caregiver burden and informal social support were some of the factors associated with elder mistreatment. The study highlighted the mistreatment experienced by the elders and suggested that the introduction of family mediation could be one of the measures used to address conflicts in such situations involving the elderly.

Keywords: Elder mistreatment, caregivers, mediation, social support, residential care setting
Introduction

Elder mistreatment has been defined by the United Nations as “a single, or repeated act, or lack of appropriate action, occurring within any relationship where there is an expectation of trust which causes harm or distress to an older person, it also refers to the intentional or unintentional neglect of the elder” (United Nations 2013). In Trinidad and Tobago elder mistreatment has been occurring with little recognition or response, as a result there is a dearth of information in Trinidad and Tobago of any form of sound research that had been conducted in Trinidad and Tobago with respect to family conflict and mistreatment of the elderly in the society. This serious social problem has been hidden from the public view and considered mostly a private matter. Even today, elder abuse continues to be a taboo, mostly underestimated and ignored by many in society. Elder mistreatment needs societal attention and this study aimed to explore risk factors and mediating factors of elder mistreatment among elder adults by their caregivers.

Mediation is a promising approach which could be used to resolve disputes between elders and their caregivers, whether family members or not. Mediation as defined by the Mediation Act (2004) of the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago is a process in which a Mediator facilitates and encourages communication and negotiation between the mediation parties, and seeks to assist the mediation parties in arriving at a voluntary agreement. This study examines the types and experiences of elder conflict situations in Trinidadian homes and whether Mediation would be able to assist in the inception and reduction of elder mistreatment. Additionally, the study attempted to determine the reasons for placement in a residential care setting.
Literature Review

Types of mistreatment identified

The characteristics of elder mistreatment have been identified as financial or material (this includes property), physical, sexual, psychological, controlling behaviours, verbal, emotional and medicinal (Hassanali 2011). The authors also added the violation of the rights and freedoms of the elderly.

Risk factors for elder mistreatment

Quinn and Tomita (1997) postulated that the personality of the caregiver and his or her level of dependence on the older adult and the level of dependency increased the risk of elder mistreatment taking place. They also believed that other risk factors were social isolation, lack of social support, dependence, age, gender, impairment, depression and loneliness. Lachs and Pillemer (2004) believed that risk factors for elder mistreatment were at a shared living space which increased the probability that the parties would interact with each other on a regular basis thus resulting in conflict. The authors also concluded that elders who suffered from some form of ailment were at a higher risk for physical mistreatment. In keeping with Lachs and Pillemer (2004), this would most likely have resulted from aggressive and disruptive behaviours of the elder which lead to the caregivers feeling stressed out. The authors deduced that another risk factor for elder mistreatment was social isolation, where victims were isolated from friends and relatives, thus decreasing the likelihood of an intervention.

Methodology

For this study Phenomenology was used because its aim was to describe the lived experiences of the elders who were involved in caregiver conflict as accurately as possible. The purpose of this study was to administer self-reported questionnaires which could be used to determine the
experiences of the elderly in their domestic habitat setting within Trinidad and Tobago and the reasons for placement in a residential care setting because more recently elders were being cared for within such settings.

**Demographics**

The sample population was made up of eighteen individuals; fifteen (n=15) elderly people both males and females living in a residential setting and three (3) caregivers who took care of them while they were at home. The caregivers volunteered to give their side of the story when they heard about the research. Each person was interviewed once for approximately one hour.

**Analysis of Data**

Throughout the data there were many types of mistreatment identified which included: physical, emotional/psychological, medical and financial mistreatment. Based on the research done, the characteristics of victims of elder mistreatment were frailty, some form of disability, vulnerability and dependability upon others for support (not solely financially but in other areas of their lives as well). However, the data showed that psychological mistreatment followed by financial mistreatment was way ahead of the other forms of mistreatment. Of all the parties interviewed, 20% had a history of mental illness. 87% of the elders interviewed were victims of psychological/emotional abuse, for example they were often yelled at and cursed by their caregivers who not surprisingly were close relatives to them. The data showed that elders constantly got into conflict situations with their caregivers because of financial misappropriation of their pension money, as well as conflict about who the property was going to be willed to. Quite a few of the respondents’ pension money was taken away from them by a relative or caregiver, but yet still they were not fed on time or in cases where the caregiver went to work they were left hungry until that individual returned home late in the evening. 60% of the individuals interviewed had no idea that they were being taken to live in a residential
setting and as such had no say in the decision making process. Most of the elderly respondents (87%) desired to let their family members and/or caregivers know how they felt. This 87% were willing to try mediation as a last resort because they wanted to mend their broken relationships and once again feel like part of a family. However, the other 13% were not willing to try mediation because that relationship ‘done dead and gone’.

Three caregivers were interviewed to obtain information from their own perspective about the reasons for placing their relative into a residential care setting. One caregiver attributed the emotional maltreatment and neglect of her parents to the neglect which she received as a child:

“... When I was growing up and needed him, he only used to play with the other children. He did not want me to go to school. I had to stay home and clean dog shit every day. You don’t know the story ... My parents did not like me because I used to talk to all the neighbours. I don’t want to see them no more ... I am a big woman, I must be taking lash!”

The caregivers argued that the most common source of conflict was the burden of caring for the elder. When the elders were asked what they thought was the root of the conflicts experienced, some of the elders complained that the caregivers were too hyper and they liked to quarrel for everything. However, the data revealed that caregivers with high levels of stress and feelings of overburdened responsibility were more likely to mistreat the elder in their care.

**Discussion**

The results of this study suggested what the research had hypothesized, that elders within our society were mistreated by someone very close to them whom they trusted. In this study the results implied that disputes involving the elderly had led to conflict and mistreatment. Based on the results, elder mistreatment was in some way connected to a shared living arrangement, social isolation and caregiver stress. The outcome also revealed that almost all of the primary
caregivers resided with the elder. According to Lachs and Pillemer (2004) a shared living arrangement was a major factor for elder mistreatment because of increased proximity and opportunities for conflict. Family caregivers consisted of mainly offspring. Lachs and Pillemer (2004) also found that those offspring who mistreated the elderly were heavily dependent on the elder for resources and financial assistance. Additionally, the research revealed that conflict occurred in families with an elder relative who need some form of care. The findings of the research revealed that elder mistreatment was extremely prevalent in the home. Smyth (2011) worked in collaboration with the Elder Mistreatment Mediation Project as a means of testing the feasibility of mediation as a way to resolve everyday disputes involving the elderly. Most of the caregivers thought that the elder was miserable.

The caregivers believed that they were the ones being mistreated by the elder. One of the caregivers did not admit she was financially dependent upon the elder, but admitted to using the elder’s finances to buy things for herself. Caregivers considered themselves to have been emotionally abused by the elder in their care because they were 'harassed' every minute of the day. Kohn and Verboek-Ofstedahl (2011) concluded that caregivers were the ones at risk because they were constantly badgered by the elders in their care. Caregivers admitted that they often refused to fulfil their obligations to the elder by denying them food, assistance to go to the bathroom and their need for ‘fresh air’. Elder mistreatment was therefore seen as a situation that may soon reach crisis level due to stressful situations and inexperience in elder care-giving within a domestic setting. What makes an elder vulnerable to being mistreated? The answer is power imbalance and the unavoidable dependency upon another human being. Consistent with the findings of this study, Craig (1997), a pioneer in the field of elder mediation, agreed that stressors such as vulnerability and power imbalance were conflict situations that could lead to elder mistreatment. Craig (1997), in her study concluded that elder mediation could be used to curb elder mistreatment at the early stages of elder conflict. Research done by Bagshaw, Wendt
and Zannettino (2009) found that the three most common forms of elder mistreatment were financial, psychological and physical mistreatment. In conclusion, Bagshaw, Wendt and Zannettino’s (2009) research, proposed that mediation could prevent financial abuse of the elderly by those close to them.

**Conclusion**

Mediation approaches are not set in stone, thus there is room for flexibility. Of the many mediation approaches, the interest-based model and the facilitative model appeared to be the most conducive with respect to issues where elder mistreatment involving caregivers were identified. This is because in situations where family members were involved preservation of the relationship would have been of the utmost importance. The Interest-Based approach could be used in cases where elder mistreatment and neglect had been identified. This approach would focus on the interests and needs of the negotiating participants and as such both parties would have some of their needs met. The facilitative model also deals with elder mistreatment and neglect and of the two models this one seemed to be the most common. This approach would help the participants define and understand the underlying issues and experiences which they may have been dealing with.

Future research should focus on exploring if there is a connection between social issues and the prevalence of elder mistreatment in Trinidad and Tobago. Although awareness was based on intuition, research is necessary so as to get a true picture of the risk factors associated with elder mistreatment based upon the culture of Trinidad and Tobago.
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Children of Divorced and Separated Parents: A Study of How They Are Affected and How They Cope

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Abstract

The study examined the effect of parental divorce and or separation on children and how they could cope with the negative impact of their experience. A qualitative research design was used which included a purposive sampling method. Participants were selected on the basis of their suitability to the main research questions. Fifteen participants between the ages of 11 and 27 years were selected based on referrals from practitioners in several disciplines. Data was collected by way of unstructured interviews with participants and mediation practitioners. The findings of the study revealed that, consistent with past studies, parental divorce or separation affected children negatively causing emotional distress and behavioural problems which could have long-term or short-term consequences. The main emotions which emerged were sadness, anger, and hate, some of which led to serious behavioural problems such as self-mutilation and attempted suicide. The individual coping strategies were varied but similar to those used by children in the wider world. Custody mediation as a state mechanism to lessen the negative effects of parental divorce was examined, looking at what exists in Trinidad and Tobago as compared to the North Carolina Custody Mediation Programme.

Keywords: Divorce; Separation; Parental Separation; Coping; Custody Mediation; Trinidad and Tobago.
Introduction

Parental divorce and or separation have been known to be tragic experiences for the children. This is because they are inevitably caught in the middle of the conflict between their parents. It also results in loss of at least one of the attachment figures to which they have grown accustomed. This occurrence creates trauma and instability in their lives. Often the ordeal for the children does not end with the actual separation but continues through bitter verbal as well as legal battles about custody, maintenance and visitation issues.

In fact, decades of studies have shown that parental divorce and or separation have had serious negative effects on the welfare of children of the union. Evidence of this can be found in meta-analyses of 97 studies published through the 1980s (Amato and Keith 1991) and 67 studies in the 1990s (children’s physical health problems (Troxel and Matthews 2004) which showed that youth in divorced families had more conduct, internalizing, social, and academic problems than those in non-divorced families (Wolchik, Schenck, and Sandler 2009).

This study aims firstly to investigate the effects of parental divorce/separation on the children of the union in Trinidad and Tobago and how these effects have impacted and continue to impact their lives. It will also look at individual strategies used by the children as well as those used by the State to assist them to cope with the negative effects of parental separation.

Background to the Problem

The social problem of divorce and the resultant single parenting can be seen as one of the scourges of the modern era. This issue has been engaging the attention of policy makers and other prominent figures in Trinidad and Tobago. Chief Justice Ivor Archie, in his speech Marriage under threat at the opening of the 2012-2013 law term, addressed the issue of divorce and its negative impact on family life in Trinidad and Tobago. He dealt candidly with the issues of divorce and single parenting and its effects on children whom he surmised are often times
the ultimate victims of divorce. At present, Trinidad and Tobago is besieged with problems of delinquency, drug use and gang warfare involving the youths of the nation, many of whom are from single-parent underprivileged backgrounds. This is consistent with the findings of a study by Deosaran (2007) in which he found that 75% of students in junior secondary schools were from single-parent backgrounds and many of them were children of poor parentage and experiences. Single parenting was also identified by Ryan (2014) as one of the key factors which have contributed to problems in our nation’s schools.

**Theoretical Perspectives**

This study is guided by perspectives on the role of the family and also perspectives on how divorce affects the family unit. The functionalist perspective on family alluded to the importance of the role of both parents in the family unit. Whereas the father fulfils the family’s economic needs, making important decisions and providing leadership, the mother has the expressive role of running the household, caring for the children and meeting the emotional needs of the children (Parsons and Bales 1955). Views on divorce were summarised by Amato (1993) using five (5) theoretical perspectives regarding the reasons for adverse outcomes of the divorce process. In taking a brief look at two of these perspectives; the Interpersonal Conflict Perspectives attributes the diminished wellbeing of the children of divorce to the conflict which exists between their parents. This view is supported by theorists such as Barber and Demo (2006) and Benner and Kim (2010). Relatedly, the Economic Hardship Perspective assumes that economic hardship, which is one of the consequences of divorce, is primarily responsible for the problems faced by the children of the severed union (Kreider and Elliot 2009).

**Method**

A phenomenological research strategy was used which allowed persons who have not experienced this phenomenon to gain insights into the subjective experiences of these children.
A purposive sampling method was used to select the participants. In this regard the selection was done on the basis of referrals from practitioners in various fields and other associates, based on the participants’ suitability to the research objectives.

Participants were selected based on the following characteristics:

a) They were of ages ranging between 18 and 25 years.

b) They lived with both parents either from birth or for a period of at least 5 years.

c) They experienced parental divorce and or separation.

Research Instruments/Protocols

Data was collected by way of unstructured interviews held with participants as well as two mediators and a social worker from the Family Court of Trinidad and Tobago. The research questions which were used were:

- How are children in this study affected by their parents’ divorce and separation?

- How have they managed to cope with the negative impact of their parents’ separation?

- Are these coping strategies the same as those identified for the developed world from which most of existing theory has been abstracted?

- How effective was child custody and visitation mediation as a coping mechanism?

Results of the Study

All of the participants in this study expressed negative feelings about their parents’ separation. Most of them reported that they had experienced various types of emotional distress as a result of their parents’ separation, some of which was manifested in various kinds of negative behaviours.
**Physical Effects**

*Pain*

At least seven participants talked about feeling pain or hurt as a result of the frustrations brought about by parental separation.

*Self-inflicted Injuries*

Two participants reported having experienced severe emotional issues following their parents’ separation which resulted in them engaging in life threatening activities. One of them claimed to have engaged in self-mutilation as well as self-starvation.

*Suicidal Tendencies*

The other complained that his experience with parental separation had messed up his emotions. Therefore, along with self-mutilation he also harboured thoughts of suicide and even went as far as experimenting with it in one instance.

**Other Behavioural Problems**

*Poor Educational Performance*

- Of the fifteen participants only two of them, one of whom was attending primary school and the other secondary school, reported a decrease in school performance.

- Another participant was expelled from secondary school while another left school at age 15 when she found out she was pregnant (both lived in depressed communities).

- One participant who also lived under similar circumstances, left secondary school at eighteen with only two passes.
Financial Difficulties

Two participants related the problems they experienced in acquiring the barest of necessities from their parents due to the continuous conflict between them. They told of the difficulties they faced to get financial assistance from the non-custodial parent.

Social Exclusion (Lack of Emotional Support)

Three support sources were examined: siblings, friends and extended family. Of the 15 participants in this study, only one reported receiving no support from any of the three sources. In terms of the other 14, some of them received support from more than one source, six (6) received support from their siblings, eight (8) received support from friends and seven (7) or 47% received support from their extended family.

Individual Coping Strategies

Religious Beliefs - five participants identified religious belief as a medium of coping.

Physical Activities - with respect to physical activities there were various responses ranging from liming, playing football, doing household chores to “engaging in masturbation as a form of comfort”

Musical Entertainment - four participants reported that they found relief in musical entertainment.

Spending Time with Friends - Four participants said that their friendships with their peers assisted them.

Avoidance - two participants used avoidance as a means of coping with their situation.
Acceptance - four participants admitted that they had arrived at a place of acceptance “mentally” which actually assisted in their ability to cope with their situations.

Child Custody Mediation

Of the fifteen (15) participants in this study only seven (7) of them experienced the custody or maintenance process. One of them, her father used the custody agreement as an instrument of revenge. Another one of them was disappointed about the way the system worked since she was of the view that there was no proper system in place to ensure compliance:

As for the eight who had not experienced the custody or maintenance process, three of them felt that it could be useful if applied generally to custody, maintenance and visitation issues but they believed that it is necessary to have the children actively participate in the process, that is, “let the children voices be heard.”

Conclusion

The results of this study showed that for each of the participants, the divorce or parental separation was an unwelcomed intrusion in their lives and one which created various emotional and physical problems.

These results were consistent with past studies in that the negative effects of divorce such as emotional disorders and poor behavioural tendencies were quite evident (Wolchik, Schenck, and Sandler 2009; Cameron 2008). Additionally, the availability of social support systems impacted on the children’s ability to cope with divorce.

The results also revealed that there is a need for a revision of the custody mediation process in Trinidad and Tobago with a view to adequately provide for the needs of its main target base which is the children of those severed unions. According to the views of some of the participants in the study, there is a definite need to consider the issue of the inclusion of children
in the actual process of mediation. Apart from hearing their views about what parental arrangements they believe are in their best interest, it will also give the mediator an indication of whether the child requires further intervention. In this regard mediators should also receive specialized training to deal with mediation involving children. This will equip them to recognize whether there is in fact a need for further intervention.

Interestingly, the findings revealed that children affected by emotional distress due to the separation of their parents experienced ongoing conflicts between these parents, lack of financial support as well as inadequate social support. As such, it is necessary to have psychological support readily available to compliment the child custody mediation process.

Finally, the findings of this study provided valuable insights into the need for scientific analysis to understand the phenomenon of parental divorce/separation in Trinidad and Tobago. There is also a need for analyses to be conducted regarding parental relationship qualities and their effects on children’s ability to cope with divorce with a view to establishing intervention strategies for parents on how to relate to their children.

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Assessing Argument Mapping: The Development of Critical Thinking and Utility for Pedagogy

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Abstract

Critical thinking has received increasing research interest both locally and internationally, as an integral outcome of the education system (Jules 2010; Gibbons 2010; Francis 2010; Dancy-Benjamin and Green 2004). With the rapid development of tools designed to foster critical thinking, there has been little to no research on their use within our current context. This paper, therefore, seeks to examine the applications of computer assisted argument mapping on the development of critical thinking skills among tertiary level students. In addition, it will seek to extrapolate varied ways in which argument mapping may encourage the employment of cognitive and metacognitive strategies related to critical thinking. The study will comprise of a pre and post-test design, and will assess the roles of potential confounding variables, student motivation and academic level, on the development of critical thinking. The assessment will employ a control group to facilitate comparisons across groups and better understand how the use of argument mapping may affect critical thinking. The study also seeks to explore whether use of computer assisted argument mapping in one domain will transfer skills across another. Comparisons will be made between baseline (pre-test) and post-test measures of critical thinking, individual motivation, and the transferability of potentially learned skills. Results will be interpreted with considerations for pedagogical practice.

Keywords: Argument mapping, critical thinking, pedagogy
Introduction

Critical thinking has long been argued to be a fundamental component of our education system, which, according to The University of the West Indies, Institute of Critical Thinking (2010, 1), “…create[s] learners who have the appetite to think analytically and critically, to use what they know to enhance their own lives, and also to contribute to their society, culture and civilization.” However, as a society, even with the limited understanding of critical thinking and its importance to the livelihood of the individual and the society, there has been a lack of fundamental research into how such thinking may be taught, or developed, and its long-term effects on our development. This study aims at exploring critical thinking within our local context, as well as examining tools and techniques which have developed to engage students in skills of critical, analytical thought. Though at the onset, this study will focus on the ways in which such skills may impact the student academically, this can be viewed as one of many studies to come which narrows in on critical thinking and the varied ways in which it can be utilised to enjoy, “…a good quality of life” (UWI Institute of Critical Thinking 2010).

This study therefore is an evaluation of one tool, argument mapping, which can be utilised to engage persons in observable and measurable behaviours related to critical thinking. These involve metacognitive strategies such as self-regulation in the employment of higher order thinking such as problem solving, decision making, judgement and analysis, and evaluation. Critical thinking within the study’s scope therefore, is not a matter of “good thought”, but the employment of such skills which extend beyond memory and recall of facts/streams of information, but how these facts can then be extrapolated and used within different contexts (Facione 2011; Halpern 2013). This is of particular importance, not only within the classroom, but also within other areas of life. Should our concern, as a society, truly be on improving the standards of living for others, then one should also concern itself with the ways in which
persons are being exposed to these patterns of thought and their successful employment to enhance/improve their lives and decision making.

This research is geared towards an examination of critical thinking skills within a tertiary level student population. It will examine whether the argument mapping tool encourages self-regulation, and the effective extrapolation of knowledge in the areas of problem solving, analysis and evaluation, and judgement/decision making. Further to this, the longevity of critical thinking skills will also be explored, that is, the research will seek to explore if the skills are developed through the use of argument mapping strategies, how long lasting these effects may be. The study will also attempt to examine whether skills which may have been learned through argument mapping will transfer to other critical thinking activities. It will also explore the implications of such a tool in pedagogical practice, as well as potential correlates with academic achievement. The hope of this research is to begin to better examine critical thinking, considering its important implications towards the development of Trinidad and Tobago, in and out of the classroom. Particularly as a result of the following statement by the then Ministry of Science, Technology and Tertiary Education (MSTTE), Trinidad and Tobago, that our systems of education be on the fore of such by developing individuals who are, “…capable of critical-thinking and possess the ability to creatively confront the plethora of challenges which face us, while grasping the opportunities as they arise” (2010, p 3).

Critical Thinking

Critical thinking has been widely explored across varying schools of thought and practice; namely in the fields of education, philosophy and psychology. Though with differing perspectives on some elements of critical thinking, there are central themes which remain consistent and prominent across the literature: critical thought is pervasive and purposeful;
critical thinking is important to the processes of analysis, judgement, decision making and problem solving and; critical thinking skills can be learned.

Dewey was one of the first researchers to suggest the pervasive and purposeful nature of critical thinking, indicating that it is a thought process that one actively engages in. This is in keeping with cognitive psychology and the understanding of critical thinking as a higher order cognitive process. The implication is that its nature is not in the mere storage and recitation of learned facts, but the ways in which such information can be utilised to engage in problem solving strategies, for example. Notably, this also aligns with research proposed through Bloom's taxonomy within educational practice. As such, therefore, one must focus on critical thinking as a process comprised of various stages leading to a specific, and often, desired outcome. Furthermore, persons must become consciously aware of their underlying thoughts and the ways in which stored knowledge can be applied across varied contexts. This is particularly important since such a distinction suggests the crucial role of meta-memory and self-regulation within the process of critical thinking.

Further to the pervasive and purposeful nature of critical thinking, are the key areas within which critical thinking are implied to be more heavily utilised. Research demonstrates that critical thinking is particularly important to components of thought such as analysis and evaluation, judgement, decision making and problem solving. Yet it is often noted that these processes occur even when there is no critical thinking taking place. This is an important distinction to note and adds further to the argument of critical thinking being defined as "good thought." Within this context, critical thinking across varied situations and contexts would imply that strategies and processes utilised would lead to the best outcome for the individual; yet still, persons have not successfully demonstrated this in their own lives, and in particular within the context of the learning environment.
Existing literature also suggests that while thought cannot be taught, specific skills in thinking can be practised and learned over time (Halpern 2003; Dwyer, Hogan and Stewart 2014; van Gelder, Bissett and Cumming 2004). This occurs through deliberate and explicit instruction in such thinking strategies. This approach is more in line with the cognitive scientific focus on those processes of thought that are concrete and observable. This does not undermine the underlying processes involved but gives way for these strategies to potentially influence the underlying and related phenomena toward the application of critical thought. It also allows for the observable to be reliably and realistically measured and evaluated. This approach may also influence the practical implications for teaching critical thinking skills within varied learning environments, which is an important aspect of this research design. In subsequent components of this paper the roles of innate qualities, such as dispositions, will be examined in relation to the employment of critical thinking. For the purposes of the present study however, it is important to understand the skills of critical thinking and the distinct tools which may be utilised to assist persons to successfully employ critical thinking across differing contexts and domains.

**Motivation**

Within the present research there is much debate on the measurement of the factors which may influence critical thinking. There continues to be great dialogue between dispositions and motivation. However, it should be noted that both play an important role in the use of the skills of critical thinking. Researchers such as Valenzuela, Nieto and Saiz (2011), in their study of critical thinking, suggest that rather than look at dispositions as sole internal contributors toward the tendency to engage in critical thought, the school and theory of motivation should be employed to study this phenomenon. Related to this, they conducted research to create their own measures to test the role of motivation in engaging critical thinking strategies. According
to the theory, dispositions are one component within the scope of motivational factors which influence a person to think critically in various contexts, and motivation may be viewed as the central figure in the use of critical thinking skills to attain desired outcomes (Bandura 1997; Eccles and Wigfield 2002; Valenzuela, Nieto and Saiz 2011).

Although the motivational perspective lacks a valid and reliable measurement tool, its theoretical foundation provides an important approach to be further explored and expounded upon as a means to better understand the motivational factors which may influence critical thought. The model of motivation chosen by Valenzuela, Nieto and Saiz (2011), was the expectancy/valence model, since unlike the intrinsic/extrinsic model of motivation, it allows for persons to identify intervening means through which motivational behaviours may be encouraged to lead to desired outcomes. Accordingly, therefore, motivation to perform specific tasks depends upon the expectancy and task value of the prescribed task. The authors suggest that while critical thinking may not be a concrete/definable task in itself, it is the prescribed type of behaviour to be encouraged through motivational properties (Valenzeula et al. 2011). In defining it as such, expectancy relates to personal expectations about performing tasks well or with favourable outcomes. In this way, the notion defines itself upon a person’s future potentials to competently become self-efficacious in carrying out particular tasks (with continued practise I will perform well on this and similar tasks). Another important component to this model of motivation is the value given to the task. Value may be broken down into four sub-components, attainment, utility, cost, and interest value. Thus, persons will be motivated to think critically based on how important it is for them to perform the task well, how much enjoyment will be derived from carrying out the task, what is the usefulness of fulfilling this task (critical thinking), and how much effort is needed to perform this task. The attainment value is most related to a person’s identity about his/her given ability to perform critical thinking, whereas the interest component relates to a person’s intrinsic enjoyment from
performing critical thinking strategies. Intrinsic enjoyment is important in that it has been noted as a crucial element to the positive performance outcomes in a variety of contexts (Deci and Ryan 1985). Thus, the interest aroused in a person to engage in critical thinking strategies will have important impacts on the employment of such skills. The utility component of the model identifies with an individual’s perception as to where the use of critical thinking will fit into his/her future self-plans, that is, will it be an important tool to the person in other areas/stages of life. The cost aspect of the value category relates specifically to the amount of effort required to perform the critical thinking skills (effort and emotional cost, see Neuville, Bourgeois and Frenay 2004).

Further to such research has been a growing body of research indicating the important role of external factors in students' employment of critical thinking skills. Notably has been the demonstration that students tend toward the use of critical thinking when the environment encourages them to be autonomous thinkers (Linck, Wolberg and Salmon 2012; Mathews and Lowe 2011). Additionally, it has been suggested that educators need to model the behaviours to motivate students, as well as to give guidelines to how they should engage in critical thinking throughout the course of the subject matter in question (Mathews and Lowe 2011). However, research is still required to better elucidate the interaction of motivation and critical thinking skills. Thus this study aims to better examine the ways in which motivation may affect the employment of critical thinking, particularly since these factors may have important implications to pedagogical practice and the later demonstration of critical thinking within the classroom (Valenzuela et al. 2011).

Metacognition

In the study of critical thinking, particularly within the field of education, researchers suggest that the theoretical construct, metacognition, act as the bridge that brings together the various
trends of thought related to critical thinking (Kuhn 1999, 2004; Halpern 1994, 1998, 2010). Many definitions of critical thinking, in the fields of philosophy, education and cognitive psychology, suggest that to think critically one must be aware of his/her thought (Anderson and Krathwohl 2001; Bloom 1956; Kuhn 2004; Marzano 2001; Romiszowski 1981, 1984). Metacognition refers to awareness and management of personal thought, or thinking about own thinking. Within cognitive psychology, it is examined under the term of executive control.

Educators, therefore, in utilising the definition provided for this higher level order of cognitive processing can support its development in students. That is, they can encourage students to reflect upon and evaluate their own thinking practices and outcomes (Kuhn 2004). Students can be engaged in discourse with teachers about how they know certain things they mention, or investigate the reasons the students may make certain inferences or judgments. In this way students are made to become more aware of their thinking and facilitate students in their own self-reflection when thinking. Caution should however be exercised, since persons may decide to make metacognition synonymous with the idea behind critical thinking (Halpern 2000). Rather, this is one means through which persons may engage others in more self-reflective and controlled thinking, enabling them to employ strategies of critical thought (Kuhn 1999, 2004).

*Argument Mapping*

Argument mapping is one proposed technique which attempts to reduce cognitive load and increase efficiency in the representation of arguments and coherently and accurately analyse and evaluate its component parts (Chang, Sung and Chen 2002; Rider and Thomason 2008; Twardy 1991; van Gelder 2001). Argument maps are two dimensional representations of the structure of an argument, the main propositions, its related component parts, and conclusions drawn (Harrell 2008). They are typically represented using box and arrow pictures indicating relationships in an argument structure (see Figure 3.1). Argument maps help persons to
articulate the, “implicit, but crucial, unstated premises” (Rider and Thomason 2008, 114) in an argument. Thus, it is an important tool in the training of the informal reasoning which Toulmin spoke to and which we deal with in the context of the real world within which we operate. Argument mapping allows persons to visualise an argument and represent its component parts in a flexible and easy to manipulate manner, highlighting crucial relationships in the data (van Gelder 2001; Harrell 2008), as well as facilitates recognition of unstated premises within an argument structure (Larkin and Simon 1987; Rider and Thomason 2008; Harrell 2008). This is crucial especially when one has to evaluate or analyse the conclusions made within the argument, when positing own arguments, and when analysing the strength of the argument (Chang, Sung and Chen 2002; Halpern 2003; van Gelder 2001).

**Methodology**

*Sample*

For the study Year 1 and 2 undergraduate students will be randomly selected among a tertiary level population. The sample sought to capture students enrolled in full time, part time or evening university modules. The sample also sought to target students between the ages of 18 – 40 years, which would provide for a more accurate representation of present student populations within the current system of tertiary level education. Recruitment will be done electronically on social media sites and through emails sent to registered students of the University. Participants will also have the opportunity to receive a prize upon the completion of the study. The pilot sought to capture responses from sixty persons, while the full study sought to capture responses from 120 persons. After persons complete the initial pre-tests, participants will be randomly assigned to the control and experimental groups.
Materials and Measures

Materials to be provided during the course of study are five arguments to be mapped, exercises in critical thinking and memory recall tasks.

The study will also employ the use of the Watson Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal Short Form (WGCTA-S), the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) and the Graduate Record Examination (GRE) Analytical Writing Test.

The WGCTA-S (Watson and Glaser 2008) will be administered at pre- and post-testing. The WGCTA-S comprises of 40 multiple choice questions. These questions assess the critical thinking skills of inference, recognition of assumptions, deduction, interpretation and evaluation of arguments. The questions are all based on different scenarios related to the identified critical thinking skills. The maximum score on this test is 40 and the minimum score is 2. Test re-test reliability is robust, ranging from .75 to .92 (El Hassan and Madhum 2007; Watson and Glaser 2008, 2012; Williams, Oliver and Stockdale 2004). The internal consistency of the scale is .81 (Watson and Glaser 2008).

The Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ; Pintrich et al. 1991) was administered to attain base measures of participants’ motivation at the pre-testing stage and to assess differences between groups at the post-testing stage. This is based on the assumption that motivation plays a significant role in the employment of critical thinking (Ennis 1998; Dwyer et al. 2011; Garcia et al. 1992; Dwyer 2014). The MSLQ employed within the study consisted of 44 questions responded to utilising a seven-point Likert scale. The sub-scales included within the study were those which measure motivation towards elaboration, critical thinking, effort regulations, metacognitive self-regulation, organisation, control of learning
beliefs and extrinsic goal orientation. Internal consistency for sub-scales range from 0.65–0.88 (Pintrich et al. 1991; Dwyer 2014)

The Graduate Record Examination (GRE) Analytical Writing Test was utilised as a post-test measure to evaluate the transferability of learnt skills through argument mapping exposure. This test comprises of two component parts: the analyse issue and analyse argument essays. Each component takes 30 minutes to complete. Scores range from 0-6 with higher scores indicating higher levels of performance.

Procedure

The study will take place over a period of six (6) weeks. Prior to participants being assigned to groups they will complete pre-test measures on the WGCTA-S and the MSLQ. Participants will also complete a demographic questionnaire to capture, age, course of study and programme level.

Three groups will participate in the study: those within the implicit instruction group, those within the explicit instruction group and the control group. Both the implicit and explicit instruction groups will be instructed through the use of argument mapping (AM), however, for those within the explicit group, the goals of critical thinking development will be made clear while for those within the implicit instruction group, the goals of critical thinking will not be expressed. The three groups will be exposed to the same basic content of the study that is, they will be given 30 proposition texts and be given fifteen minutes to read/study and then will be asked to complete an exercise which comprises of both memory recall tasks and critical thinking tasks. Those within the instruction groups however, will be taught how to create and manipulate argument maps over a fifteen-minute teaching period prior to being given the proposition text. With their propositions, they will be instructed to create argument maps within
the same fifteen-minute period given to the control group. The instruction groups will then complete the task, within fifteen minutes, which will be the time given to all groups within the study.

Although recent research has focused primarily on critical thinking instruction as part of specific course curricula (Davies 2008; Dwyer 2011; Harrell 2008; Norman 2007; Rider and Thompson 2008; Twardy 2004), there has been a growing trend in studying the implications of explicit instruction of critical thinking techniques in stand-alone critical thinking courses (Marin and Halpern 2011; Helsdingen 2010; Abrami et al. 2008; Hatcher 2006). These two trends in the study of critical thinking are indicative of the specific and general approaches to this higher order cognitive function. Further to these approaches are studies which differentially suggest the implications of the implicit and explicit approach to critical thinking and their correlates to critical thinking outcomes. Review of both the implicit approach and the explicit approach lend to mixed understandings of the significant correlation between the approaches and critical thinking (Hatcher 2006; Marin and Halpern 2011; Abrami et al. 2008). Both, for example, demonstrate significant outcomes for students (van Gelder 2005; Davies 2008; Swartz 2003) but some researchers argue explicit instruction to be better for long-terms outcomes (Halpern 1998; Marin and Halpern 2011; Abrami et al. 2008; Hatcher 2006) as opposed to the intrinsic approach, although there is no clear research evidence to support such a notion. There have not, however, been numerous studies which examined the use of tools outside of specific curricula guidelines that have concurrently employed the implicit and explicit approaches to assess their roles in the development of critical thinking skills among individuals. It would be important to investigate this, and the potential ramifications for the use of such materials outside of the classroom context, and how these tools may also impact performance across varied classroom contexts. As such, this study proposes to investigate the use of the argument mapping software outside a particular scope of study.
Students within the study will be trained to create and manipulate argument maps using Rationale\textsuperscript{TM} AM software.

Upon the completion of this six-week period, post-test assessments on the WGCTA-S and the MSLQ will be completed online. Participants will also complete a critical thinking task utilising the GRE Critical analysis task. This will be utilised as a measure to assess the potential transferability of skills learned through AM. Two weeks after the completion of the study, participants will again complete the WGCTA-S online to assess the potential longevity of critical thinking even though AM training has stopped.

**Discussion**

The aims of the study are to investigate the utility of argument mapping within a tertiary level, Caribbean sample, as a means through which the skills of critical thinking may be developed. Further to this, the study will also explore related mechanisms and processes involved in the development of critical thinking skills.

The results of the study will then be utilised to better understand the usefulness to students, the implications for pedagogical practice and the future of critical thinking research within our local context. Questions which this research will help to explore include, how is critical thinking currently envisioned within the curricula, how can these skills be taught, and how may we better equip education professionals to assist students in the development of these skills?

While the present study will not observe current pedagogical practices employed across the university, it will attempt to demonstrate how technology can be utilised as part of the teaching and learning process to help facilitate specific forms of development among the student population. Consideration will also be given to the potential usefulness of a tool such as argument mapping, as part of student learning within tutorial classes. This study positions itself...
as one of many to come which will fully investigate critical thinking and varied means through which the skills of such thought may be developed within our classrooms. It is however, important to note that this initial study will be limited in making generalizations and is to be considered only as the beginning of this field of research locally. It will however, begin an important discussion and exploration for those within the field and practice of education, as well as local researchers who will be able to guide, through their research, a more holistic understanding to critical thinking, its related skills, and its potential development among our students.

References


A Stakeholder Perspective on the Day of the Dead as a Dark Tourism Product within the community of Orange Walk, Belize

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Abstract
The advent of niche tourism brought about many smaller pockets of tourism, catering to the needs and wants of many tourists. Coupled with globalization the tourism industry saw the formation of newer types of niche tourism inclusive of dark tourism. Dark Tourism may be referred to as “the act of travel to sites associated with death, suffering and the seemingly macabre” (Stone 2006, p146). Given that the world is experiencing new atrocities everyday, it is quickly becoming a popular past time to visit these places. Dark tourism is rapidly growing to become a niche product that is attracting the attention of many within the tourism industry and the academic field. This study, through quantitative and qualitative research, discovered that the residents of Orange Walk, Belize are very much ignorant of this new niche tourism product. Given that the country is heavily marketed as an eco-tourism destination, it was the researcher’s aim to introduce the concept of dark tourism within the community through the revival of the festival of day of the dead. As the festival deals with deceased loved ones, it was thought ideal to be used as a dark tourism product. Upon closer examination the community expressed their doubts on the product and many expressed their concern should it be used as a tourism product. The recommendations focused on educating the community on benefits that would be brought about both socially and psychologically through the revival of a cultural heritage and the performance of obligations to the deceased.

Keywords: Dark Tourism, globalisation, Belize, niche, community, stakeholder
Introduction

Edgar Allen Poe in his stories once stated that “Death’s a good fellow and keeps open house” (Poe 2010, 153). Today that statement is relevant since death is allowing itself to be more accessible to many, especially in the tourism field. From ancient to modern times, travel and death have had a correlation and mutual understanding for each other. For example, in ancient times when people travelled to see gladiatorial games and, similarly, during the Middle Ages people took it upon themselves to witness public executions. Today “dark tourism” is evident in modern day travels when people visit homes of dead celebrities and haunted houses. The history surrounding the public displays of death prove that dark tourism is often used for the amusement of the people. It is apparent that people made these occasions into family outings, and occasions in which family bonding can take place and the ability to see new things and experience new sensations are evident. Leisure and death are two topics that are not usually placed together, but travel and death is fast becoming an integral role in shaping new tourism markets.

The Difference between Mass and Niche

Over the past few years the need to become aware of the heavy negative impacts tourism is making on the environment and the socio-cultural aspects, has triggered many to re-evaluate what exactly tourism can do to give back. Technology is no doubt the main supporter for the influx of mass consumption; in fact, mass consumption and mass production are the main motivators to continue to build and expand a mass touristic product. Novelli (2005, 2) states that mass tourism refers to the production, structure and organization of tourism akin to an industrial process whereby economies of scale are sought to meet market needs. Niche tourism being of a smaller scale can be more easily monitored, planned, managed and can offer a more widespread benefit to the community. Butler (2007, 12) states that “small-scale developments
of tourism, all other things being equal, could reasonably be expected to have fewer and less severe impacts than large-scale developments and thus be more sustainable”. Tourism consumption has become increasingly based on advanced travelling experiences and selective knowledge of choices and destinations according to particular needs, wants, and desires. Given this particular knowledge of choices a specific type of tourism is now emerging offering a controversial choice to tourists.

**Dark Tourism**

In 1996 two professors of Glasgow Caledonian University in Scotland came up with the concept of *Dark Tourism*. “Dark Tourism” is a study within the tourism field that deals with sites associated with death or the macabre. Lennon and Foley (2002) describe dark tourism as “a commodification of anxiety and doubt.” Following on the heels of Lennon and Foley many other academics (Stone 2006; Tarlow 2005; Walter 2009; Seaton 1996) have attempted to define dark tourism? These definitions include:

- “Travel to locations wholly or partially motivated by the desire for actual or symbolic encounters with death” (Seaton 1996, 237)
- “Visitations to places where tragedies or historically noteworthy death has occurred and that continue to impact our lives” (Tarlow 2005, 48)
- “The act of travel to sites associated with death, suffering and the seemingly macabre” (Stone 2006, 146)
- “Contemporary dark tourism does not present death per se, but rather represents certain kinds of death” (Walter 2009, 74)

These authors among others have paved the way for many in the academic field to better understand what dark tourism really is. People discovered that dark tourism can be commercialized as a new form of tourism, many sites became labelled as a dark site and many
new studies have emerged to properly explain the phenomenon of dark tourism. Yet as much as dark tourism would like to be thought of as a “form of special interest tourism” (Farmaki 2013, 287) it must be understood that dark tourism has had its roots in cultures and the history of the world and has been transmitted down the ages to present day. Dunkley et al. (2007) following in the footsteps of other authors went ahead and sub divided dark tourism into segmented types which can either stand alone or can become part of a whole. For example, warfare tourism can become part of genocide tourism. The different sub segments of dark tourism are:

1. Horror Tourism – which involves the visitation of sites associated with murder, torture and infamous crime, such tourism, is reminiscent of the torture chambers of the past or the brutal murders committed.

2. Grief Tourism – this tourism is divided into two parts firstly it involves visiting the burial sites or resting places of the victims of tragedy, and secondly it includes sites famous for their association with death.

3. Hardship Tourism – involves the visiting of sites where individuals have experienced or are experiencing human hardship, struggle and in many cases death.

4. Tragedy Tourism – this tourism involves natural/accidental or deliberate/pmeditated disasters or accidents, whether on a global or local scale to individual or mass effect.

5. Warfare tourism – tourism that includes portraying every aspect of war, including battlefields, war museums, battle re-enactments and war memorials.

6. Genocide Tourism – involves visiting sites associated with exposing the deliberate killing of people or a nation.
7. Extreme Thana tourism – involves a connection with ‘live’ events: the witnessing of death and depravation or associated rituals as they happen.

Given the many sub segments within the realm of dark tourism the researcher chose to investigate the role of “Extreme Thana Tourism” in the Hispanic festival of the Day of the Dead celebrated in the community of Orange Walk, Belize.

*Day of the Dead*

Every culture has remembrances to their deceased. The Mestizo culture portrays and celebrates those remembrances in a distinctive way. This celebration is known today by many names, yet all of them mean the same thing “el dia de Animas (Soul’s day), el dia de los Finados (The day of the deceased), or el dia de los fieles difuntos (The day of the faithful departed)” (Brandes 2006, 6). On these days emphasis is placed on the return of the deceased, as if a member of the family is returning after a long journey. Entire families go through enormous efforts to prepare for the day and the altars to perfection “it is important to take into account the respect that families have for the deceased and the conscientiousness with which they prepare the altars, out of affection for the dead” (Cervera 2004, 35). The celebration of the day of the dead coincides with the liturgical calendar of All Saints day and All Soul’s day of the Roman Catholic Church yet this celebration has grown around these dates to take on a more homogenous celebration to partially include the Church in its rituals.

*Methodology*

In trying to achieve a balance to better understand dark tourism the mixed method is considered ideal to carry out the study. By combining both the quantitive and qualitative approaches it reduces the limitations such research brings. In other words, the approach seeks to maximize on the strengths of the two research types and minimize the limitations that are characteristic
in single method research studies. The mixed methods approach would combine both a questionnaire and a survey to better understand the community’s reactions to this type of product. The research was conducted in the community of Orange Walk, Belize. Following on the guidelines of Seaton’s (2009) heritage force field the questionnaire and survey were directed to the 4 types of stakeholders namely the owners/controllers, Host Community, Subject groups and visitor Groups.

**Findings**

**Questionnaire:** The data collection highlights the community’s view of such a tourism venture. The questionnaire asks members of the community if they have heard about dark tourism and if the introduction of such a tourism product would be accepted within the community. The questionnaire reveals that 81% of the community have never heard of dark tourism, 70% of the population went on to express that they do not think dark tourism can be introduced within the community, and 61% of the population in the community expressed that the community would not be accepting of using Day of the Dead as a dark tourism product.

**Interviews:** The semi structured interviews were administered to the tourism representatives within the community and the gatekeepers that would influence the creation of a dark tourism site. In the interviews a representative each of the Belize Tourism Industry Association, National Institute of Culture and History, a hotel representative within the community and a Jesuit of the Roman Catholic Church were interviewed. The responses gathered from these representatives were that even though they applaud the heritage aspect of the tourism product they foresee that since the celebration is heavily influenced by Catholic rituals many within the community especially the non-Catholic denominations would be against it. When interviewing Fr. Jose Antonio Vega superior of the Jesuit Order in Belize he explained that he understands the allure of it but given that the day of the dead is considered a communion with God, it should
not be used to put on a “show”. Fr. Vega made very clear that given the sacredness of the celebration and the Church’s view on the matter he would be certain that the community would not be much receptive to the idea.

**Discussion**

It has been noted by the research that many obstacles exist within the community when it comes to dark tourism and the day of the dead. One important factor that stands out among the research is the conflict between religions when it comes to Day of the Dead and dark tourism. One institution would like to keep the celebration as a religious sacred ritual to be used for the consolation of their congregation while the other would like to secularize death so as to assert their doctrine and make the pain of loss less pronounced. Given that the two religious institutions hold much ground within the community, there is much reluctance for the participant’s willingness to venture into such a tourism product. Though many of the tourism representatives accepted the heritage role in the celebration they also pointed out that this specific celebration is too entrenched in religion for it to be used without angering a sector or many sectors of the community.

**Conclusion**

Dark tourism has indeed had a very controversial beginning and continues to cause a stir within the tourism industry. This research was done in the spirit to educate and introduce a new type of tourism to the country of Belize, widely known more for its ecotourism package. Yet what started as just an introduction of a tourism product delved into a deeper understanding of dark tourism and the many emotions that come with it. No other tourism product has stirred the imagination, controversy and emotions when it comes to dark tourism. Even in today’s ever globalizing world death still holds sway and many either try to embrace it or try to repel it. The study highlighted the need for further education into the matter and the proper introduction of
new tourism products within the community. Dark Tourism allows for the newer generation to fully appreciate the concept of death and in the case of day of the dead also learn about the cultural value attached to it.

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An Analysis into the Impact of Moderator Variables on the Relationship between Relative Deprivation and Crime in Trinidad among Males aged 16-30 years

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Abstract

Relative deprivation can lead to crime but this is not usually the case in empirical studies. In spite of this, relative deprivation is reported to influence crime through moderator variables. That is, under certain conditions relative deprivation can lead to crime while in the absence of these conditions there is little to no relationship. These conditions can be specified as moderator variables which affect the relative deprivation-crime relationship by either strengthening or weakening this relationship. The moderator variables used in this research include criminal peers, criminal values/attitudes, low self-control and illegal opportunities. However, for the purpose of this paper emphasis will be placed on criminal peers. Secondary data was utilized which was gathered through a survey conducted throughout Trinidad among males 16-30 years. The research instrument used was a questionnaire which consisted of closed ended questions and was conducted in the form of face to face interviews. In analysing the data, the median split approach was used. The results indicated that the relationship between relative deprivation and crime was stronger in the presence of criminal peers while the relationship weakened in the absence of criminal peers. Therefore, this paper assesses the impact of criminal peers have on the relative deprivation-crime relationship.

Keywords: Impact; moderator variables; relative deprivation; crime; Trinidad; males
Introduction

There are many factors that have been attributed to the causation of crime in society. One such factor is relative deprivation, a term coined by Stouffer, Suchman, DeVinney, Star, and Williams (1974) in their study of American soldiers. For the purpose of this paper relative deprivation is limited to its economic aspect. Although it can be argued that relative deprivation influences crime (see Figure 1 below) this is typically not the case in empirical studies. In spite of this, it is postulated that relative deprivation can lead to crime in the presence of moderator variables. A moderator variable is a third variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the independent or predictor variable and the dependent or criterion variable (Baron and Kenny 1986). Criminal peers was used as the moderating variable. The moderator variable will be analysed to determine its impact on the relationship between relative deprivation and crime. For the purpose of this paper the emphasis will be on the moderator variable criminal peers. However, there were three other moderators used in the study which includes criminal values/attitudes, low self-control and illegal opportunities.

Relative Deprivation and Crime

The term relative deprivation refers to the discontent that people feel when they compare their position to those around them and realize that they have less than which they believe themselves to be entitled (Boundless 2014, 2). That is, relative deprivation is a situation where an individual compares themselves to other people (who are similar to them in terms of economic and social standards) and is of the belief that they have gotten less than they are entitled to. The foundation theories of relative deprivation postulate that there are some people who are dissatisfied with what they have as compared to what they believe they are entitled to in reference to other persons or groups while others do not experience dissatisfaction (Davis 1959; Gurr 1968a, 1968b; Davies 1962; Runciman 1960; Crosby 1979).
The persons that experience this dissatisfaction are the ones who feel relatively deprived. It is therefore argued that the disparity between what an individual has and what an individual feels they are entitled to may lead the individual to find some solution to correct this disparity, one of which is the engagement of crime. However, it is argued that relative deprivation can lead to crime in the presence of certain conditions such as in the presence of moderators (Agnew 1999; Agnew Cullen, Burton, Evans and Dunway 1996; Kaplan and Lin 2000). That is to say even though individuals are dissatisfied with their situation they would be more likely to respond using criminal acts if there is a third variable present (such as criminal peers) rather than in the absence of the third or moderating variable.

Criminal peers as a moderator

Criminal behaviour is often argued to be learned behaviour (Sutherland 1947). Many researchers have highlighted the importance of social interaction in comprehending criminal behaviour (Bayer, Hjalmarsson and Pozen 2009) The social interaction that occurs between peers replace formal networking with informal networking, allows for the dissemination of knowledge and skills needed to commit criminal acts. Criminal behaviour is learnt through these interactions as criminal peers act as role models to persons reinforcing the values and attitudes needed to commit criminal acts.

Agnew (1999) postulates that criminal peers can emphasize the notion that crime is an appropriate and reasonable response to deprivation. In a study conducted by Agnew, Cullen, Burton, Evans and Dunaway (1996), criminal peers were tested as moderators of relative deprivation. Agnew et al. (1996) found that criminal peers moderated the relationship between relative deprivation and crime. Their findings indicated that in the presence of high criminal peers, relative deprivation will lead to crime. However, when there were low levels of criminal peers, relative deprivation most likely would not lead to crime. Therefore, in the presence of
criminal peers, relative deprivation will most likely lead to crime rather than in the absence of criminal peers.

**Hypothesis**

The following hypothesis was derived from the literature review. That is to say based the existing literature there were several gaps that were discovered. In order to account for the gaps and provide some solution a hypothesis was developed. The hypothesis derived test the influence of criminal peer on the relative deprivation-crime relationship. It states that in the presence of criminal peers, relative deprivation would lead to crime rather than in the absence of criminal peers.

**H1: Relative deprivation is more likely to lead to crime for persons who have criminal peers than for those who do not.**

**Methodology**

A quantitative research design was used for data collection and analysis. A secondary data set was utilized in this study. The survey type method was used to gather data using a questionnaire as the research instrument. The questionnaire consists of a number of pre-set closed ended questions conducted in the form of face to face interviews. The sample was randomly chosen with a sample size of 950 male participants between 16-30 years throughout Trinidad. There was a 100% response rate. The median split approach was used to analyse the effect of moderation which was done by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

**Results**

*Median Split Method*

The median split method of moderation analysis was used to examine the influence of moderators on the relationship between relative deprivation and crime. Crime within
respondents’ lifetime was the dependent variable, relative deprivation was the independent variable and criminal peers was the moderator variable used in the analysis. The median split method requires the sample to be split into two subsamples. The sample was split using the median score of criminal peers. The median score for criminal peers was calculated as 2.75. One group consisted of high scores or scores above the median for criminal peers (criminal peers > 2.75) while the other group consisted of low scores or scores below the median for criminal peers (criminal peers < 2.75).

The relationship between relative deprivation and individual crime was calculated using Pearson’s Correlation under the condition criminal peers > 2.75. This represented persons who are associated with criminal peers, those above the median. For persons who had a high number of criminal peers, $r = .216$ ($p < .001$), there was a positive relationship between relative deprivation and crime. The coefficient from the regression analysis showed that under the condition (criminal peers > 2.75) relative deprivation significantly predicted variance in crime $r^2 = .046$ ($p < .001$). This indicates that under the present condition relative deprivation accounted for 4.6% of variance in crime.

On the other hand, under the condition criminal peers > 2.75, that is, persons who are below the median or have little to no association with criminal peers, relative deprivation was a weaker predictor of crime. That is, $r = .079$ ($p < .087$). The coefficient from the regression analysis showed that under the condition (criminal peers < 2.75) relative deprivation is insignificant at predicting crime ($r^2 = .006$ ($p < .087$). Therefore, this indicates that relative deprivation is a stronger predictor of crime in the presence of high levels of criminal peers but in the absence or low levels of criminal peers, relative deprivation is a weak predictor of crime. It should be noted that the other three moderators produced similar results as criminal peers using the median split method of moderation analysis.
Conclusion

This paper attempted to analyse the impact moderator variables have on the relationship between relative deprivation and crime in Trinidad. Through the use of statistical analysis, it was shown that in the presence of criminal peers (moderator) relative deprivation is a stronger predictor of crime. However, in the absence of criminal peers, relative deprivation is a weak predictor of crime. Similar results were produced using the other three moderators as well. Therefore, this indicates that persons who experience relative deprivation have a greater chance of committing criminal activities in the presence of moderators rather than in the absences of moderators.

References


An Investigation of the Pre-Release Programmes and Post-Release Services Needed to Reduce Recidivism in Trinidad and Tobago: Female Inmates’ Perspectives

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Abstract

There is a paucity of academic research concerning the pre- and post-release needs of female inmates in Trinidad and Tobago. The extant literature indicates that the programming needs of females are different from those of males and that gender-responsive programming may lead to more positive outcomes for female offenders. This study sought to better understand those factors that contribute to recidivism and the effectiveness of prison-based programming from the female inmates’ perspective. Semi-structured interviews of female inmates at the Golden Grove Women’s Prison explored the participation in and utility of existing pre- and post-release programmes and services. Consensus emerged regarding the efficacy of current programming and the resources needed to improve them as well as policy recommendations needed to reduce the risk of recidivism among this population.

Keywords: pre-release programmes, post-release services, recidivism, female offenders, Trinidad and Tobago.
Introduction

There is a paucity of academic research concerning the pre-and post-release needs of female inmates in Trinidad and Tobago and an association between the availability of services that address those needs with the rates of recidivism. The etiology of female recidivism is a worldwide concern as prisons struggle to address the needs of returning female inmates and, by extension, public safety. There has been an increase in research in recent times that focus upon gender-specific approaches and gender-responsiveness to dealing with female criminality in an attempt to better understand the factors that contribute to recidivism (see Bloom and Covington 1998; Covington and Bloom 2000, 2007; van Wormer 2010). Once the factors that contribute to recidivism are understood, solutions that may decrease the rates of recidivism among female offenders can be provided (Zamble and Quinsey 1977; Banks 2003; van Wormer 2010).

Gender-responsiveness seeks to address women’s issues and realities by developing programmes, content and material that treat with women’s needs. Social and cultural factors such as poverty, class, and gender as well as abuse, violence, family relationships, substance abuse, and mental disorders and other co-morbidities are acknowledged in an attempt to build the individual’s skills and promote self-efficacy. Women’s pathways to criminality have been acknowledged as unique from those of men and multidimensional approaches that are based on theoretical perspectives need to be developed (Covington and Bloom 2000). Developing gender-responsive programmes may assist in decreasing the rates of recidivism among female inmates.

In Trinidad and Tobago, policies and services have focused primarily on male offenders and this approach has been justified not only because female offenders commit fewer and less violent crimes than men but also because female offenders account for only 2.67% of the total number confined (The International Centre for Prison Studies 2014). However, this problem is
not limited to Trinidad and Tobago since there is a paucity of gender-responsive programmes for dealing with women who are already in prisons worldwide, and who upon release may recidivate because of a lack of services available to assist them with successfully reintegrating into society (Bloom 1999; Covington and Bloom 2007; Kempf-Leonard 1998; Koons et al. 1997).

In order to decrease recidivism, it is necessary to understand the factors that existed in the individual’s life prior to incarceration and how these factors affected their offending behaviours. Female offenders may have unique life experiences and issues and understanding these experiences and issues may assist with developing programming that decrease the risk of them re-offending. The pathway perspective (Daly 1992), the risk-needs-responsivity model (Andrews, Bonta, and Hoge 1990) and feminist theories have contributed to the understanding of the etiology of female criminality and can assist with developing programmes and services that may reduce offending and re-offending by this population.

Research is indicating that the pathway to criminality is different for female offenders and they have different needs from male offenders, addressing those specific needs may decrease the likelihood of them recidivating. The risk-needs-responsivity (RNR) model (Andrews, Bonta, and Hoge 1990) states that the risk of re-offending is linked to an inmate’s needs and individual characteristics and it is relevant to their treatment needs therefore meeting those needs may decrease recidivism. Feminist theories each offer different perspectives on gender relations in society and the effect that those relations have on law, crime and criminal processing. Creating gender-responsive programmes that treat with the specific needs of female inmates may decrease the risk of them re-offending.

The pre- and post-release needs of offenders in Trinidad and Tobago have not been studied from the perspective of the female inmate. The purpose of this study is to investigate female
inmates’ needs from their perspective to provide what Webber (1992) described as policy knowledge that will contribute to further policy recommendations to ameliorate the needs of this population.

**Methodology**

A qualitative research method that is emic in nature was utilized in this study. Female offenders at the Golden Grove Women’s Prison were interviewed using semi-structured interviews each consisting of 12 open-ended questions. The purpose of the interviews was to gather data about the pre-release programmes and post-release services offered by the prison system from the inmates’ perspective. The interviews ranged from 30 to 90 minutes in length and were conducted over a three-day period. The interview process was flexible and allowed participants to not only answer the open-ended questions in their own words but also allowed for spontaneity in regards to additional topics that were discussed based on what the inmate perceived as important at the time. Theoretical saturation was accomplished during the 11th interview. To confirm saturation, an additional four interviews were conducted and no new data emerged. A total of 15 interviews were conducted for this study.

**Analytical Framework**

This study utilized Attride-Stirling’s (2001) thematic network analysis as its method of analysis. Thematic network analysis is non-iterative, less complex and less time consuming than other methods of analysis. This method allowed the researcher to identify, examine, and record codes or keywords and develop themes that emerged from within the interviews. Thematic networks systematize the extraction of basic themes which are the lowest-order premises evident in the text; organizing themes which are categories of basic themes grouped together to summarize more abstract principles; and global themes which are the super-ordinate themes encapsulating the principal metaphors in the text as a whole (Attride-Stirling 2001).
The steps involved in analysing the data from this study were: (1) coding the material which involved examining each interview transcript line-by-line and extracting salient and/or reoccurring words and phrases as well as specific topics or words that were relevant to the research questions. The extracted text was reduced to codes, that is, phrases, single words and sentences and they were placed in a new document. This process continued until all the data was reduced to codes. The interviews were re-read to ensure that all relevant codes were identified and extracted; (2) Identifying themes: A total of 101 codes were identified from over 600 text segments and were grouped into 12 basic themes, these basic themes emerged from the repeated analysis of the coded data which focused on themes that were common and salient throughout the interviews; (3) Constructing the thematic network: The 12 basic themes were revised and summarized to more abstract principles or organizing themes as the analysis progressed (Attride-Stirling 2001), a total of four organizing themes emerged. The global theme of Reduced recidivism emerged from the clustering and interaction of the four organizing themes. Table 1-1 illustrates the relationship between the basic, organizing and global themes that emerged from this study.
Table 1-1: Relationship between Basic-Organizing-Global Themes

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<th>Basic Themes</th>
<th>Organizing Themes</th>
<th>Global Theme</th>
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<tr>
<td>Pre-release programmes offered</td>
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<td>Problems with programmes</td>
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<td>Pre-release programmes needed</td>
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<td>Treatment</td>
<td>Rehabilitative treatments</td>
<td>Reduced recidivism</td>
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<td>Counselling</td>
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<td>Support</td>
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<td>Pathway to criminality</td>
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<td>Spirituality</td>
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<td>Improvements</td>
<td>Prison and justice system changes</td>
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<td>Legal System</td>
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<tr>
<td>Financial/housing post-release services needed</td>
<td>Post-release services needed</td>
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<td>Self-help post-release services needed</td>
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Source: Fieldwork (2014)

**Findings**

The findings indicate that from the perspective of the female inmates, pre-release programmes and post-release services are needed to assist them with successfully reintegrating into society, thereby decreasing the likelihood of them recidivating. The current pre-release programmes
are thought to be helpful; however, the inmates felt that academic pre-release programmes that lead to the accomplishment of degrees in areas such as psychology, law and social work are needed and will increase the likelihood of employment at post-release. Vocational pre-release programmes such as interior decorating, agriculture, cosmetology and animal rearing among others were identified by the inmates as necessary to assist them with self-employment upon release.

All inmates indicated that counselling is needed to treat with their psychological issues such as past traumas, anger and depression. Increased visitation from their children, family and friends and self-help programmes such as parenting classes as well as drug rehabilitation programmes are needed at pre- and post-release to increase the likelihood of the inmates successfully re-integrating into society. All inmates indicated that improvements are needed in the administration of the current pre-release programmes; for example, there is a need for consistency in course offerings, for up-to-date books as well as for teachers to facilitate the courses to their completion.

The inmates also outlined a number of areas they felt needed improvements including adjusting the times that meals are served, in particular dinner which is served at 4-5pm and then there are no meals served until breakfast the next day which is at 7am. Other areas identified were: being paid fairer salaries for work done in prison, having gym facilities to assist with maintaining their health and restocking of the canteen for visitors to be able to purchase necessities for the inmates. Legal system changes such as greater sentencing options, time off for good behaviour, instituting a parole system and the use of ankle bracelets were identified by the inmates as areas for consideration. These legal system changes mentioned by the inmates are outside the scope of this thesis, however, it is an area of concern among the inmates.
All inmates felt that post-release services such as assistance with employment, housing, financial assistance in the form of loans, acquiring documents such as national identification cards, birth papers, and driver’s licenses, counselling to re-establish and maintain bonds with their children, family and community and continued drug rehabilitation programmes are needed. At the time the interviews were conducted there were no post-release services being offered by the prison service; however, some of the religious organizations do offer temporary housing for female offenders. Additionally, all inmates indicated that accessible pre-release programmes and post-release services will be utilized and will help reduce the likelihood of them recidivating.

Conclusion

Gender-responsive pre-release programmes and post-release services may decrease the rates of recidivism among female offender in Trinidad and Tobago. This research found that from the perspective of the female inmates, pre-release programmes and post-release services are needed to assist them with successfully reintegrating into society, thereby decreasing the likelihood of them recidivating. This research adds to the body of knowledge on the pre- and post-release needs of female offenders in Trinidad and Tobago and it contributes knowledge that may be used in policy formation to ameliorate the needs of this population. Future researchers may consider conducting this type of research with male offenders to understand from their perspective their pre- and post-release needs in an attempt to decrease the risk of them recidivating.
References


‘Outta Order’: A Study on Young Women brought before the Courts in Trinidad and Tobago for Behaviour related Offences

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Abstract

Previous research in the area of delinquency mainly emphasized issues relating to boys. Thus, research specific to girls was seen as necessary to enhance the limited knowledge available on the topic. The present study examined issues which resulted in girls being brought before the Courts in Trinidad and Tobago for being beyond parental control. The study sought to understand this issue from the perspective of the lived experiences of eight (8) young women, who were institutionalized for misconduct at a correctional institution in Trinidad and Tobago. In its final stages, the study advocated for a more sensitive and female specific restorative approach to treating with these matters in Trinidad and Tobago. The study’s aim was to raise awareness of the foundational issues that contributed to the behaviour exhibited by the girls studied. The study utilized semi-structured interviews and a qualitative data analysis. The findings revealed underlying factors that contribute to the existence of girls being beyond control. There are numerous implications emanating from this study for legislators, policy makers and social work practitioners in Trinidad and Tobago. These implications and results would be briefly discussed.

Keywords: “Outta” order; young women; Courts; Trinidad and Tobago; behaviour related offences
**Introduction**

‘Outta Order’ is a term in the local youth parlance of Trinidad and Tobago which is used to refer to a person who is rude or a dysfunctional situation. Like any other colloquial phrase, it can be used to translate the message the communicator wants to send to the audience. In this instance, it is used to jolt readers into the reality of the circumstances faced by young women in the juvenile justice system. In addition to the aforementioned, this article has been used as a forum to discuss the plight of these young women in relation to their life experiences and the origination of their behavioural challenges.

This article begins by defining the key terms utilized in the study. It then outlines the methodology, explains the rationale for the study, highlights the statement of the problem, briefly touches on the literature review, and itemizes some of the findings of the study before concluding. It concludes by making a plea to continue bringing to the fore the issues faced by these young women, so that more informed state policies and decisions can be made.

*Definition of Terms*

Trinidad and Tobago is ‘an independent republic in the West Indies, comprising the islands of Trinidad and Tobago’ (Dictionary.com, Random House Inc., 2015). A young woman in the context of this article refers to a female who has not yet attained the age of adulthood. According to the Act No. 12 of 2012 (The Children’s Act of Trinidad and Tobago), a child is defined as ‘a person under the age of eighteen years’. The Courts in this article refers to the legally recognized forum for the settlement of disputes through the application of legal forms and principles. In this instance specific reference is made to magisterial courts, where juvenile matters are presided over. Behaviour related offences denotes for the purpose of this article, juvenile matters, particularly those where children are brought to the court as beyond control.
In Trinidad and Tobago, the Children Act, No. 12 of 2012 is the guiding legislation for juvenile offenders in the island, yet the Act does not define the term ‘juvenile’ or ‘juvenile offender’; however, it outlines that a Court in which a magistrate hears charges against or applications related to children shall be referred to as a Juvenile Court (Trinidad and Tobago 2012). A person who falls into the category of ‘juvenile’ in Trinidad and Tobago is under the age of eighteen (18) years and is generally assumed to be an adolescent. The Children Act, No. 12 of 2012 (Trinidad and Tobago) outlines in Section 61 that a child can be brought before a Court as beyond control ‘where a parent, guardian or person with responsibility for a child proves to a Court with jurisdiction in family matters that he is unable to control the child, and he desires the child to be sent to a Community Residence under this Part, the Court shall order that the child be brought to the attention of the Children’s Authority.’ The Act further provides in Section 62 for the child, if seen as necessary, to be placed under the supervision of a Probation officer.

**Rationale for the Study**

Previous research in the area of delinquency favoured tracking the trends of boys as it relates to being beyond control. Shaffner (2006) highlighted that “academic studies, policy development and funding have and continue to focus on the situations and experiences of boys.” However, delinquency in girls has been proven to be a growing issue locally and regionally. Therefore, examining the factors that contribute to delinquency in girls was important to enhance the limited knowledge available on the topic. This study was unique in its exploration, as no prior studies were found to have addressed the issue of juvenile delinquency from this perspective.

**Statement of the Problem**

Statistics obtained from the Family Court of Trinidad and Tobago (2012) revealed that from the period May, 2006 to November, 2010, the Family Court dealt with a total of seven hundred
and sixty-two (762) beyond control cases. It should be noted that this Court provides magisterial services to persons residing in the western part of the country, extending eastward to the district of San Juan. Statistical trends indicated that children between the ages of fourteen (14) and fifteen (15) years old accounted for the highest number of beyond control cases at the Family Court in all its years of existence. Instructively, this problem is not unique to Trinidad and Tobago. Statistical information has proven that youth delinquency rose in the 1990s in virtually all parts of the world. For example, in a study conducted by the United States Department of Justice (2010) the results indicated that there was an increase in delinquency in girls between 1991 and 2000, but by 2004, girls accounted for thirty per cent (30%) of all juvenile arrests in the United States of America. On the other hand, Western Europe saw a fifty per cent (50%) increase in juvenile delinquency between the mid-1980s and the late 1990s and since 1995 Eastern Europe has been experiencing dramatic increases in juvenile delinquency (Cox 2013).

Deosaran and Chadee (1997) point out the complexity in the definition and use of the term delinquency. For example, Deosaran and Chadee (1997) quoted Savitz (1967, 15-16), who defined delinquency as “all crimes for which adults are liable, plus many other acts which are prohibited only to juveniles until they reach adulthood, are subsumed under “delinquency.” Purely juvenile delinquencies include such offences as truancy, incorrigibility, and running away from home, as well as some rather trivial offences…such as use of obscene language, street-corner lounging, visiting “gaming places” and smoking cigarettes.’ In light of this definition, juvenile delinquency constitutes both criminal/non-criminal, acts by youthful offenders.

A UNICEF (1997) synthesis of studies report on juvenile justice in the Caribbean, which was conducted in 1997 revealed that children have been used by adults in carrying out criminal activities, such as transport and peddling of drugs, robbery, larceny and house breaking. In
Barbados, Belize, St. Lucia and Trinidad and Tobago girls in particular have been known to be used in sex crimes, such as pornography and prostitution. The report also highlighted that juveniles have been found to be involved in crimes on their own accord. These crimes included wounding, armed robbery, rapes and murder, as well as offenses, such as using obscene language, possession of weapons, guns and ammunition.

Although research has not revealed any gender specific statistical trends for Trinidad and Tobago as well as the Caribbean region, the problem of youth crime and delinquency is now more recognized than in previous years and is no longer an issue ascribed solely to boys. It has also been documented that there has been an increase in crime committed by persons under the age of twenty-five (25) in Trinidad and Tobago (UNCEF 1997). Lambert-Peterson (2007, 149) also highlighted this upsurge in juvenile offending as she proffers the view that “there has been great concern in Trinidad and Tobago in recent years about the level of juvenile delinquency and the increased number of young persons within the criminal justice system on very serious criminal or capital charges.” Data from the International Centre for Prison Studies (2012) indicates that of an estimated annual prison population of three thousand, eight hundred (3,800) persons in Trinidad and Tobago in 2012, juveniles and minors constituted 6.4% of the incarcerated population.

**Literature Review**

The prevalence of juvenile delinquency in girls has been climbing slowly since 1986 (see Chesney-Lind and Sheldon 1999). This population accounts for the fastest growing segment in the juvenile justice system in America (Acoca 1999). However, although statistical trends continue to show an increase in delinquency in girls in America, boys still comprise the higher number of juvenile delinquents (Knoll and Sickmund 2012). A study on children beyond parental control in Singapore revealed the opposite to the trends in America. The study showed that girls accounted for a total of sixty five per cent (65%) of the juvenile population in that
country (Ching 1996). Indeed, girls are no longer the ‘forgotten few’ in the juvenile justice system (Bergsmann 1989). The seemingly global trend towards increased juvenile delinquency in girls’ raises the question of how this has come to pass and what are the factors contributing to this phenomenon. Research studies have revealed that there are many contributing factors to female juvenile delinquency. These factors include low socio-economic background, personality, and a history of crime among family members or peers, mental health problems, high levels of negative life events, sexual abuse and maltreatment.

**Methodology**

The study was geared towards exploring the precipitating factors resulting in the phenomenon of girls beyond parental control in Trinidad and Tobago. The study unveiled these factors by understanding the lived experiences of eight (8) girls, who were remanded to a correctional institution by Magistrates in various districts in the country for behavioural offences. Semi-structured interviews were utilized in the collection of data. The study challenged whether the girls exhibited negative behavioural patterns as a coping mechanism for the emotional distress brought on them by traumatic incidents in their lives.

**Findings**

In fulfilling the purpose of this study it was important to understand the life experiences of the girls prior to their institutionalization to determine whether there was a relationship between their behaviour and their life circumstances. The findings of the study emerged under themes, some of which were; ‘my own way’, family history of crime, family instability. Six (6) of the eight (8) participants disclosed that they chose to do things their own way and act against the advice or guidance of their parents and relatives. The responses of the participants indicated that doing things their ‘own way’ gave them a sense of autonomy over their lives. Family history of crime was a factor that emerged in only one of the participants of the study. However,
it was an important contribution, as the participant’s mind-set and orientation appeared to be built strongly around a life of crime. Family instability was reported to have been experienced by four (4) of the eight (8) participants were reported to have been affected by varying degrees of family instability such as; unstable living arrangements, poor family relationships, low income family backgrounds and unhealthy family relationships.

Conclusion
The issue of juvenile delinquency in girls is a serious social problem in modern society. Women in today’s world are geared towards seeking upward mobility and equal rights. However, this social problem, if not managed well, stands to stunt the progress of many young women. According to Schaffner (2006), “a correlation can be drawn with young women’s early experiences of harm and exploitation and later problems with juvenile authorities” (Schaffner 2006, 5). Behavioural problems in girls also often result in a lack of education and further victimization for their problems, due to the lack of resources in many countries to address the issues faced by girls. Young women brought into the Court system and placed in correctional institutions often leave at the age of eighteen (18) years with little to no support and a history of behavioural problems. This leaves such girls vulnerable to many risk factors, such as unstable living arrangements, abusive relationships, unwanted pregnancies, prostitution, substance addiction and a life of crime.

It is important to understand the depth of this problem and the experiences of the young women. The author’s experience has pointed to the fact that in addition to the presenting problems in these situations, there are underlying factors to the behaviour of the girls. It is believed that these girls have for the most part adopted non-conformist behaviour as a poor coping mechanism to treating with trauma and deep emotional disturbances in their lives. It is only
when the underlying factors for such negative behavioural patterns are understood fully, then social service and other professionals can work towards providing more effective interventions.

In recent times, it has been reported that the media has focused more attention on female juvenile crime, but their emphasis has been noted to be mostly around sensationalized issues, such as “girls and gangs” (Bloom and Covington 2001). Due to this emphasis, research on issues, policies and programs for at-risk adolescent females has for the most part been ignored (Bloom and Covington 2001). Information on the experiences of girls is therefore sparse and this area requires more attention from researchers, gender specialists, legislators, policy makers and social service professionals. Perhaps this is a reflection of society’s deeper thoughts on women’s rights and development, despite efforts towards a more gender inclusive world.

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Evidence-based Assessment and Treatment of a Trinidadian-American Adolescent Girl with Oppositional Defiant Disorder

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**Abstract**

The objective of this research paper is to determine whether the behavioural problems of an American adolescent female of Trinidadian descent can be eliminated through the use of evidence-based assessments and interventions. Oppositional defiant disorder is a type of disruptive behaviour disorder that is characterized by negativistic patterns of defiance, noncompliance and negativity toward authority figures. It is a growing concern as it is a leading cause for parents of adolescents entering the mental health system. Two evidence-based interventions were used to treat the adolescent including individual cognitive behavioural therapy for the adolescent and parent training; specifically, the Community Parenting Education Program (COPE) with her parents. Results showed that based on the evidence-based assessments administered throughout the course of treatment, behavioural problems exhibited in school and at home were greatly diminished. The adolescent’s cognitive awareness was also improved. The parenting skills of both parents did not improve, likely due to a lack of treatment adherence. *Conclusions*: Cognitive behavioural therapy can be effective when used with adolescents of mixed American and Caribbean backgrounds. Parent training as a form of intervention may be ineffective with parents of Trinidadian descent due to a lack of treatment adherence and cultural influences.

**Keywords**: oppositional defiant disorder, disruptive behaviour disorder, adolescents
Introduction

Children and adolescents can sometimes be oppositional and defiant when met with the demands of authority figures such as their parents, teachers or other adults to whom they must answer. However, when the oppositionality and defiance are disproportionate to the developmental stage of the individual, and when this oppositionality and defiance cause detrimental problems and go on into adulthood, then a disruptive behaviour disorder might exist. One such behaviour disorder is called Oppositional Defiant Disorder (ODD). ODD is defined as “a recurrent pattern of developmentally inappropriate levels of negativistic, defiant, disobedient, and hostile behaviour toward authority figures” (Greene et al. 2002, 1214).

According to the diagnostic criteria in the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders 5 (DSM-5)*, ODD is “a pattern of angry/irritable mood, argumentative/defiant behaviour, or vindictiveness lasting at least six months as evidenced by at least four symptoms from any of the … categories, and exhibited during interaction with at least one individual who is not a sibling” (American Psychological Association 2013, 462). The categories are as follows: Angry/Irritable mood with symptoms of often losing temper, often being touchy or easily annoyed and often being angry and resentful, Argumentative/Defiant behaviour with symptoms including often arguing with adults or those in authority, actively defying or noncompliance with requests and rules of authority figures, often deliberately annoying others and often blaming others for their own mistakes and behaviour and Vindictiveness including the symptom has been spiteful or vindictive at least twice within the past six months.
Evidence-based Assessment

Evidence-based assessments use research and theory to inform the selection of assessment targets, methods and measures to be used and the manner in which the assessment process will unfold and be evaluated (Hunsley and Mash 2007, 29). They are conducted for a number of purposes including making an accurate diagnosis, helping to identify appropriate treatment, monitoring treatment progress and screening individuals for a particular problem or diagnosis.

Evidence-based Intervention

The American Psychological Association 2005 Presidential Task Force on Evidence Based Practice defines and discusses evidence-based practice in psychology. A well-established treatment is defined as having at least two randomised clinical trials with research having been carried out by independent researchers. It is the integration of the best available research with clinical expertise in the context of patient characteristics, culture and preferences (American Psychological Association 2006, 272).

Materials and Methods

Case

The client, I.J. is a 15-year-old Caribbean American female who is in the 9th grade, and has met the diagnostic criteria for ODD according to the DSM-5. She has been showing at least four symptoms of angry/irritable mood, argumentative/defiant behaviour and vindictiveness for at least six months, disturbance in behaviour causing distress to the individual and others and negatively impacting on different life domains. The symptoms were categorised as moderate as they caused distress in two domains; home and school. The client also reports that she has
problems with anger management. The Diagnostic Impression she received according to the DSM-5 is 313.81 Oppositional Defiant Disorder, Moderate.

**Evidence-based Assessments**

Two evidence-based assessments used during treatment include the Brief-FAM III and a Daily Behaviour Report Card (DBRC) or Daily Report Card (DRC). The Brief-FAM III is a 14-item screening measure that is used to assess the overall functioning of the family or to obtain a basic idea of whether there are problems in family functioning. The items’ answers use a 4-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The raw scores that are obtained are then age and family role (mother, father, daughter etc.) normed (T-scores) with a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10.

In order to get an idea of behavioural problems at school, one evidence-based assessment tool used is the DBRC. DBRC’s have four characteristics (Vannest et al. 2010, 656) – they clearly outline behaviour being targeted for modification, there is intermittent assessment of behaviour measured on a value-judgment scale, there is a system by which behaviour is monitored on a daily basis and there is a school to home communication component.

Other assessments used which were not evidence-based include the number of calls made home by the school for negative behaviours, client self-report of use of skills learned in treatment, client & parent self-report of treatment gains and clinical observation.

**Evidence-based Intervention**

Two evidence-based treatments were used. The first was used with the parents of the client and is the Community Parent Education Program (COPE). This is a parent training community based workshop for parents of children who have disruptive behaviour disorders between the ages of 3 and 18. It includes four core elements: 1) interventions are conducted with parents,
2) there is emphasis on prosocial goals, 3) content includes instruction in the social learning principles, addressing child behaviour, positive reinforcement, punishment and command implementation and 4) techniques such as didactic instruction, modelling and role playing are used. The programme typically has 13 identical sessions. The aims of COPE are to improve availability, improve utilisation, improve parenting skills, build problem solving skills and improve family functioning.

Cognitive-behavioural skills training is the second treatment used. It is a model of skills training which assumes that when children and adolescents with behaviour problems experience an anger or frustration arousing event, “their emotional, physiological, and behavioural reactions are determined by their cognitive perceptions and appraisals of that event, rather than by the event itself” (McMahon, Wells and Kotler 2006, 180). Therefore, the focus of treatment is on these cognitive perceptions and appraisals.

Treatment Goals

The treatment goals for I.J. are as follows; 1) to increase the number of points on the Daily Report Card (DRC), 2) to decrease the number of calls made home from school weekly from 6 to 0, 3) to learn and practice skills to reduce aggressive and oppositional behaviour, 4) to change cognitive distortions that lead to oppositional and aggressive behaviour, 5) parents learn and implement behaviour management skills and 6) to improve overall family functioning.

Results

The results for each treatment goals were as follows; goal 1: the points on the DRC for week 6 of treatment decreased dramatically (see Figure 1 in Appendix), goal 2: the number of calls decreased from 6 at pre-treatment to 0 post-treatment (see Figure 2 in Appendix), goal 3: based on client report, the client learned and practiced skills to reduce aggressive and oppositional
behaviour. Parent report shows that skills were learnt and practiced in only some areas (see Table 1 in Appendix), goal 4: based on client self-report and clinician observation, I.J. is able to link her thoughts, feelings and behaviours and recognise cognitive distortions such as “I am a bad person and I can never do anything right” to positive cognitions such as “I have made mistakes in the past but it is up to me to change in the future. I can make the right choices if I try”, goal 5: the client’s parents learned all of the behavioural management skills. Clinician and parent (mother) reports show that not all of the skills were implemented at home (see Table 2 in Appendix), goal 6: From pre- to post- treatment the mother’s T-score went from 38 (12th percentile) to 50 (50th percentile) indicating an improvement in family functioning. At post-treatment, the client’s T-score dropped from 62 (88th percentile) 52 (58th percentile) indicating a deterioration in overall family functioning (Table 3 in Appendix).

Discussion

When all of the results are taken at post- treatment, it can be concluded that the use of evidence-based assessments and treatments for the culturally diverse adolescent female and her family proved to be moderately successful. A majority of the goals were met including decreasing the number of calls made home from school, learning and practicing skills to reduce aggressive and oppositional behaviour, changing cognitive distortions, parents learning child behaviour management skills and improving overall family functioning (according to the mother). The goal of increasing the point on the DRC was not met; the points dropped in the sixth week of treatment likely due to a confrontation which occurred in the fifth week of treatment between client and mother which resulted in acting out at school. Also, although the parents learned the behaviour management skills they were not adequately implemented. This may be because of a lack of and belief in the treatment due to culturally based ideas on how punishment and child behaviour modification should occur. Lastly, the client’s Brief-FAM III results show that there was a deterioration of overall family functioning. This is perhaps due to a broadening of
cognitions which helped the client to realise that problems occurring within family may not have been entirely her fault.

**Conclusion**

Overall, it can be concluded that cognitive behavioural therapy can be effective when used with adolescents of mixed American and Caribbean backgrounds. The results showed that the evidence-based treatment; cognitive behavioural therapy, was effective in reducing and in some cases eliminating behavioural problems in the female adolescent. However, parent training as a form of intervention may be ineffective with parents of Trinidadian descent. Although this needs to be explored further, this ineffectiveness can be due to a lack of treatment adherence as a result of attribution of problem behaviour solely to the child and not to the self (parent) as well. It is recommended that this type of treatment is done with a larger sample to determine its effectiveness. It is also recommended that parent training materials be adapted to suit parents of Caribbean nationality.

**References**


Figure 1 Bar graph showing points on the Daily Report Card for Weeks 4, 5 and 6 of treatment (goal 1).

Figure 2 Line graph showing the number of calls made home from school from pre-treatment to the last week of treatment (goal 2).
Table 1 showing client and mother report of skills learned and practice during treatment (goal 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symptom</th>
<th>Client</th>
<th>Mother</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>↓ intensity of defiance</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>↓ frequency of defiance</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Termination of temper tantrums</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>↑ compliance</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>↑ respect &amp; cooperation</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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</table>
Table 2 showing mother report and clinician observation of behavioural management skills learned and implemented during treatment (goal 5).

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Implementation</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House Rules</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special Time</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commands</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive reinforcement</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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</table>

Table 3 showing pre and post-test scores for client and mother for the Brief-FAM III (goal 6).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Raw Score</th>
<th>T-score</th>
<th>Percentile</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pre</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Client</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>12</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Post</strong></th>
<th>Raw Score</th>
<th>T-score</th>
<th>Percentile</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Client</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
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A Culture of Corruption: Understanding Police Corruption in Trinidad and Tobago

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Abstract

An under studied area in criminological research within Trinidad and Tobago is corruption within the police service. There exists the infamous Scott Drug Report of 1986 which painted a picture of a police service tainted with involvement in the drug cartel, bribery, murder and reputed with the use of brute force. A review of the literature has revealed that this phenomenon is typically influenced by the nature and context of police work, inadequate salaries, limited opportunities for promotion as well as individual traits. Not only is police corruption impacted upon by organisational and individual traits but by culture. Organisational and national culture which support and perpetuate corruption would influence the selection, socialisation and institutionalisation of corruption within the police service. It is argued that cultural tolerance to corruption at the societal levels also filters to the policing institution which has bred tolerance of corruption within the agency. With this in mind, this research explored the effects that national and organisational culture has upon the phenomenon. This paper seeks to fill the research gap of police corruption within Trinidad and Tobago as well as understanding the linkages between culture and corruption.

*Keywords:* Organisational culture; individual traits; police corruption; Trinidad and Tobago
Introduction

Police corruption is an international problem and it certainly is a source of grave concern within the twin republic of Trinidad and Tobago (Gomes 2007). Corruption is the misuse or the abuse of one’s authority for personal gain (Bayley and Perito 2011) and this occurs within the very institution entrusted with the responsibility to prevent and arrest those who commit acts of corruption. Transparency International (2000) recognised numerous appearances that corruption may take. Police corruption may appear in the form of bribery, misappropriation of funds; deceit, extortion abuse and misuse of power; treason, misuse of insider and confidential, information, fraud, perversion of justice; non-performance of duties, nepotism, approval of improper, fees, gifts along with speed money and entertainment; operations in black market; cronyism; illegal surveillance; and public personnel dealing with criminal actors (Transparency International 2000).

Background to the Problem

Corruption within the police service of Trinidad and Tobago is a problem perceived as very grave (Gomes 2007). In Trinidad and Tobago. Police officers are not only accused of excessive use of force (Deosaran 2002) but have been linked to theft of state property as well as the possession of illegal narcotics and unlicensed guns and ammunition hidden in the ceilings of police stations (Simon 2009). Not only are police suspected in theft of illicit drug taken as seizure and held as evidence, they are suspected in the active involvement in the illicit drug trade (Figueira 2002) and informants to gangs (Parks and Mastrofski 2008). In 1986, the then Commissioner of Police of the TTPS, Randolph Borroughs along with 51 police officers (under his control) were accused of being involved in a drug cartel (Griffith 1997). Furthermore, police officers are often accused of soliciting bribes. Park and Mastrofski (2009) submitted that in the 2008 Model Stations Community Survey, 42.9% of the respondents) from Trinidad and Tobago
perceived that police accept bribes or favours. This created a low level of confidence as only 14% perceived that the police were efficient. This reduced confidence in the police lowered the rates at which the public would cooperate with the police in terms of the reporting of crimes. According to Loree (2006) when citizens no longer revere the police, the government's ability to function in its role as a public agent deteriorates. Additionally, police corruption poses a threat to national development by challenging economic and political stability, and eventually presents a threat to international financial stability (Pfaff 2010). Instructively, nations which have higher levels of perceived corruption have lower levels of economic development (Nazario 2007). Additionally, Police corruption wastes resources, undermines security, makes a mockery of justice, slows economic development, and alienates populations from their governments (Bayley and Perito 2011).

Systemically, corruption not only influences justice, but also the wider institution of government. The police are agents of the government, and their duty is to defend the rights of the people being governed. Violating citizen trust, results in a negative opinion directed not only toward the police, but also toward the government as a whole. When the public no longer respects or has confidence in the police, the government's capacity to operate in its role as a public agent deteriorates (Loree 2006).

**Literature Review**

A number of variables are linked to police corruption such as the low opportunities for promotion (Kappeler, Sluder, and Alpert 1994)), a small salary (Klockars, Kutnjak and Haberfeld (2004), poor quality of leadership (Domoro and Agil 2012), and demographics such as older officers (Yokoyama 2004), males and low educational attainment (Cheung and Chan 2008). However; in this paper, the focus is on the influence that culture has upon police
corruption. In this study culture is divided into three dimensions; national, organisational and police subculture.

Organisational Culture

Seldom ever do persons work in isolation; rather, they perform as parts of a larger organizational structure (Kleinig 1996). The organisation acts to bond persons together, producing a set of commonalities, social bonds and a common culture disconnected from the person’s own cultural ideology. The institution of the police as an organisation plays an extremely significant role in the transmission of organizational cultures. The organisation police culture is divided along four dimensions; leadership or quality of supervision, punishment, peer supervision and transparency of punishment.

Leadership: The literature determines leadership to be a main variable predicting corruption. Supervisors who themselves commit acts of corruption or chose to ignore their subordinates’ misdemeanours as well contribute to corruption. A work environment in which many police officers either accept the existence of corruption or partake in corrupt activities calls into question the quality of leadership. Within the Trinidad and Tobago Police Service, poor relations, extremely weak leadership due to managerial inefficiencies, a lack of communication among senior officers, ineffective disciplinary procedures, high supervisor turnover, uneven and unclear officer workloads, and a lack of respect for senior officers among junior officers may precipitate corruption (Committee on the Restructuring of the Police Service 1984).

Discipline: The discipline or non-discipline of police who have been charged guilty of corruption predicts the culture of corruption. Officers who are not punished strengthen the convictions that corruption amongst the police are accepted. The enforcement of administrative
policies curbs corruption as an officer learn to discern types of misconduct which are serious offenses (Klockars, Ivkovic and Haberfeld 2000). The absence of accountability within the police service will hastily guide the way to a disregard for the policy, and a boost in misconduct and corruption of that policy. In the TTPS, this is indeed an issue as there is a lack of internal investigations and internal disciplinary procedures can take as long as five years (O'Dowd 1991).

**Peer Supervision:** Police corruption is also influenced through an officer's peers. Peer supervision tends to be closer and better informed than that of senior officers (Klockars, Ivkovic and Haberfeld 2000). If an officer's peers fail to follow organisation code of conduct and the law, the officer is apt to ignore the law as well.

**Transparency of Disciple:** Transparency speaks to how open an institution is to public scrutiny. Organisations that abstain from, or are forbidden to make public statements concerning their treatment of disciplinary procedures are more apt to cultivate an environment of suspicion (Seaby 1993) and influence increased corruption.

**Police Subculture**

In this study police subculture is limited to two main dimensions; cynicism and blue code of silence. According to Becker (1963) many officers view the world as a “we versus them” environment. They tend to see the world as being composed of insiders and outsiders and see outsiders as suspicious (Kappeler, Sluder, and Alpert 1994. Their world view inculcated through training and isolation in the barracks push them towards becoming cynical which is related to them having a higher taste to engage in corruption (Pfaff 2010).
The blue code of silence is similar to the theme of police solidarity; the code was initially intended to protect police officers from genuine threats (Kleinig 2001). This code of silence reinforces protection and social support of police officers. At the same time, it can facilitate corruption. Police may fail to report their peers and lead corruption. The police wall of silence has its counterpart in the Mafia code of silence (Andvig and Fjeldstad 2008).

**Extent of Corruption in Society**

The community and political environment are influential in establishing attitudes toward corrupt activities. When corruption is found in other government agencies, among judges, prosecutors, and politicians, and in the business world, it contributes to the ability of the police officer to rationalize his or her own behaviour (Newfield and Barret 1988; Roberg and Kuykendall 1993). This is especially the case in developing countries as there is high political corruption, a lack of accountability and corruption brings desirable results. Corruption in the government is an important indicator of corruption in a police department. A non-corrupt government is unlikely to allow corruption to flourish in a police department, but a corrupt government is more likely to use the police to fulfil their own goals, as well as tolerate other occurrences of low level corruption. Developing countries are particularly susceptible to systemic corruption as a result of challenged political structures and a lack of accountability to the public.

The culture of corruption is pervasive in countries such as Mexico, India and Russia. In India, the use of bribery is widespread in every aspect of public life (Satishchander 2014). Bribes may be demanded in order for an official to do something he is already paid to do. They may also be demanded in order to bypass laws and regulations. Interviews were conducted with sixty persons by the current author in 2014. Participants in Aranguez, Moruga, les Couteax, and
Golden Lane, Tobago revealed that the use of bribery is seen as necessary to get things done (Sookoo 2015). The police service is not totally disconnected from the national culture and may even be influenced by the larger culture of corruption.

**Theoretical Framework**

The conceptual model was built from cultural variables which were found to be significant in influencing police corruption. The model shows how national, organisational and police culture impacts upon corruption. National culture has two dimensions; level of political corruption and public tolerance of corruption. Their impact upon corruption was tested and found significant Pfaff (2010) and Satishchander (2014). The second variable; organisational culture has several dimensions; ineffective leadership (Pfaff 2010), lack of punishment (Klockars, Ivkovic and Haberfeld 2000), reduced peer supervision (Klockars, Ivkovic and Haberfeld 2000) and lack of transparency in punishment (Seaby 1993) which were significant in impacting upon police corruption. The final variable was police subculture, which had two dimension; cynicism and blue code of silence which were tested by Pfaff (2010) further work on the code of silence was reported influential (Andvig and Fjeldstad 2008). Therefore, the source of the conceptual model was collated from several variables focusing on the impact of culture upon police corruption. These variables were gleaned from significant research findings.
Figure 1: Conceptual Model Illustrating the Influence of the Criteria upon Police Corruption

Research Hypotheses

- **H1**: The level of political corruption increases police corruption
- **H2**: Public tolerance of corruption increases corruption
- **H3**: Ineffective leadership impacts upon corruption
- **H4**: The lack of punishment of police officers predicts corruption of police in Trinidad and Tobago.
- **H5**: The lack of positive peer supervision produces police corruption
- **H6**: The lack of transparency leads to police corruption.

- **H₆**: Authoritarianism predicts police corruption

- **H₇**: Police cynicism effects corruption among officers in Trinidad and Tobago.

- **H₈**: The blue code of silence impacts upon police corruption.

**Methodology**

The methodology which would be utilised for this research will be mixed mode; both quantitative and qualitative methods would be used to attain a reliable and valid measurement of the phenomenon of police corruption. Thus, two methods of data collection shall be employed. One shall be a survey of police officers randomly selected via multi-cluster sampling through the nine policing divisions. The questionnaire used in the survey shall be closed ended and use previous tested scales as well as those created for the purpose of this study. Table 1 illustrates the variable and the measurement scales together with its sources and established reliability.
### Table 1: Measurement Scales of the Independent and Dependent Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th># of Items</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Discipline</strong></td>
<td>Self constructed scale</td>
<td>Author</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Peer supervision</strong></td>
<td>Self constructed scale</td>
<td>Author</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Transparency</strong></td>
<td>Police Transparency</td>
<td>Chanin (2014)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Authoritarianism</strong></td>
<td>Authoritarian Spillover</td>
<td>Johnson, McGure and Kruger (2005)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cynicism</strong></td>
<td>Cynicism Scale</td>
<td>Cochran and Broomley (2003)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Blue Code of Silence</strong></td>
<td>Police integrity Scale – Code of Silence</td>
<td>Klockars, Ivkovic and Haberfeld (2000)</td>
<td>7 for each vignette</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Extent of political corruption</strong></td>
<td>New measure for this study</td>
<td>Author</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Use of corruption by the public</strong></td>
<td>New measure for this study</td>
<td>Author</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tolerance of corruption by the public</strong></td>
<td>New measure for this study</td>
<td>Author</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Corruption</strong></td>
<td>Police Integrity Scale</td>
<td>Klockars, Ivkovic and Haberfeld (2000)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interviews with police officers as well as experts in the field such as personnel in the Police Complaints Authority would be initiated. The sample size will be obtained when saturation of data is achieved.

**Expected Results**

Data collection will be initiated in 2016. However, previous results from the region as well as international sources have shown the various research hypotheses to be significant. Please see table (2) which shows the hypotheses used to test the conceptual model and the associated studies which have supported those hypotheses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Empirical Sources which have supported the hypotheses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Political corruption increases police corruption</td>
<td>Supported in Jamaica, Barbados and Trinidad and Tobago (Pfaff 2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public tolerance of corruption influences corruption</td>
<td>Supported in Mexico (Sabet 2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ineffective leadership impacts upon corruption</td>
<td>Supported in Trinidad and Tobago (Pfaff 2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The lack of punishment of police officers increases police corruption</td>
<td>Supported in Trinidad and Toago (Pfaff 2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The lack of transparency influences corruption.</td>
<td>Supported in Russia (Becks and Robertson 2005)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritarianism predicts police corruption</td>
<td>Supported by McCafferty, Souryal and McCafferty (1998)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Police cynicism increases police corruption</td>
<td>Supported in Trinidad and Tobago (Pfaff 2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The blue code of silence among officers impacts upon police corruption</td>
<td>Supported in Chicago (Juarez 2004)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Pfaff (2010); Sabet (2010); Becks and Robertson (2005); McCafferty, Souryal and McCafferty (1998); Juarez 2004.*
Conclusion

Police corruption has been identified as a problem plaguing Trinidad and Tobago. The goal of this paper is to illustrate that corruption is not the result of the individual but wider societal, organisational and sub-cultural pressures. The officer is impacted by the values and beliefs of the wider society. Corruption embedded within the organisation as seen in poor quality leadership, lack of punishment, insufficient transparency of punishment and reduced peer supervision push officers to the path of corruption. The subculture of the police which is inculcated during training and work protects the corrupt brother/sister in the force as they watch over one another. Finally, a government perceived to be a corrupt and a society which tolerates it and even offers bribes to police promotes the image that corruption exists in all spheres and generally accepted. Thus, the officer is surrounded in a web of cultural values and beliefs of corruption.

References


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Crime statistics in Trinidad and Tobago reveal a cyclic pattern with a slight drop in overall crime from 1990 to 2012 while the corresponding prison population has increased substantially during the same period. Research has shown that crime rates decline with increases in incarceration rates (Levitt 1996; Marvell and Moody 1994; DeFina and Arvantis 2002); yet, Trinidad and Tobago is believed to be an exception to this truism. This study will examine both the crime and incarceration rates by major crime categories and status (remanded or sentenced) on admission. Prison recidivism rates are difficult to determine and predict in this country given the state of digital recordkeeping and that most recidivism studies have primarily been based on the self-reports of inmates; the latter has suggested a 50% recidivism rate based on answers to survey questions asking inmates if they had ever been imprisoned. Although this analysis will provide short- to medium-term trends, it is expected that analyses of the crime and incarceration trends will not correspond to the literature, they will nonetheless provide initial policy knowledge and a stepping stone for future, more sophisticated examinations of recidivism in Trinidad and Tobago and other Caribbean nations.

*Keywords*: crime rates; incarceration rates; crime category; projection; recidivism, Trinidad and Tobago
Introduction

Trinidad and Tobago is a developing island state in the southern Caribbean. In the last decade, it has been home to dramatic increases in both crime and prison admissions (Maguire and King 2013; Sookram, Basdeo, Rai and Saridakis 2009). It is important to understand the relationship between crime rates and incarceration rates because it allows us to predict future crime trends and with a certain degree of accuracy, examine recidivism. The use of crime trend projections to predict future crime can allow for the development of a more consistent and coherent understanding of crime. Developing such a knowledge base is important for not only improving public policies but also targeting government expenditures related to crime prevention. They also have been used by some criminologists and policy makers in crime reduction and even crime prevention (Schneider 2002, 1).

Although the ability to predict crime has its merits, it does not come without challenges, especially in developing nations, such as Trinidad and Tobago. For example, gaining access to accurate crime statistics and data is sometimes difficult in Trinidad and Tobago. This is primarily due to the fact that there are many organizations that obtain crime data, such as the Crime and Problem Analysis Branch of the Trinidad and Tobago Police Service (TTPS), the courts, and other various Government of Trinidad and Tobago ministries (for example, National Security). Barriers to obtaining this type of information include but are not limited to the fear of misinterpretation and misuse of the data obtained but also the overall time it takes for the approval process to be completed.

This study aims to explore the relationship between crime and incarceration trends and status on admission to prisons (remanded and sentenced). Furthermore, it will identify some challenges faced by researchers in the field. It anticipates making a contribution to the field of
criminological research by providing some initial small- to medium-crime trends that can be used to inform policy making in Trinidad and Tobago as well as other Caribbean nations.

Research Questions

This proposed study is guided by the following research questions:

- What are the short-to-medium trends and projections on crime in Trinidad and Tobago?
- What implications do these crime/incarceration trends have on future crime and recidivism?
- Are there differences in respect to crime projections and gender?
- What are the challenges of obtaining crime and incarceration data in Trinidad and Tobago and what are potential solutions to overcoming these challenges?

Methodology

The research design is a quantitative approach which will use both crime and incarceration data garnered from police and prison organizations in Trinidad and Tobago. Crime trend data will be collected from the Crime and Problem Analysis (CAPA) Branch of the Trinidad and Tobago Police Service, and incarceration data will be obtained from the Trinidad and Tobago Prison Service. The scope of the research will only include Trinidad and Tobago.

Analyses

The data obtained will be statistically analysed by using the software program, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The statistical tests that will occur include correlation, and standard regression.

Findings

Currently, there are no findings to report as this is a work in progress.
Challenges

Crime Data

Crime is multi-faceted, difficult, and complex and changes over time and place. What is deemed a crime today might not be considered a crime tomorrow; therefore, explaining why changes in crime occur is often a challenge for researchers. Crime cannot be measured by only using one type of measurement (Thornberry and Krohn 2003). Many statistical techniques can be employed in order to offer a wide scope of results in relation to crime projections.

Obtaining crime data in Trinidad and Tobago can be very difficult due to the high levels of bureaucracy and government control. Getting permission from the various sources (courts, police, prisons, and government ministries) often takes an extended period of time. Gathering various crime statistics also poses its own challenges, as some crime events are documented and others are not. The primary source to obtain crime data is through the TTPS’s Crime and Problem Analysis Branch (CAPA). If we only use police reports as the basis for crime projection, it will be biased and many crimes will have gone undetected and/or unreported. The best way to obtain this missing information would be through a victimization survey.

Generating consistent data over time is a challenge because reporting capabilities change over time. With new technology come new reporting capabilities. While one program might offer detailed data, a new one could limited or may omit some important information that is much needed to project crime trends.

As Figure 1 reveals, crime and corresponding rates of incarceration can be understood as a funnel. The direction of flow through this funnel is typically from the top downwards. The nature of the funnel is with a large lip at the top, narrowing as we go down, resulting in a smaller spout that represents the decreasing number of people involved in the criminal justice
process. Not only for that reason does the crime funnel pose a challenge when it comes to identifying crime trends, but also due to the fact that it is merely a snapshot of the case processing for a given year. In short, the amount of crime that we can use to draw on our projections might not accurately be represented for a number of reasons, including the fact that crime often goes unreported by the victims or the number of crimes that occur exceed the crimes reported to the police; the police might use their discretion to release the offender with a warning; the case might be diverted out of the courts (as seen with juveniles and probation); the case might not even make it to court as an offender could jump bail; the long wait on remand and to obtain a court date might actually diminish the reality that an offender will go to court; and lastly, an offender can be placed on probation and, therefore, incarceration is not potentially an option.
Incarceration Data

As with crime data, collecting and interpreting incarceration data holds its own unique challenges. First, there are three ways of obtaining incarceration data and they include: firstly, the number of admissions for a given year; the average daily counts for a given year; and lastly, a snapshot during the year (typically done on either July 1st, or December 31st (of a respective year) (Correctional Services Program 2013/2014). Each prison system collects data in different ways, which means that being able to use this data consistently is often challenging and time consuming. Secondly, there are difficulties in transferring data collected from those incarcerated in youth facilities to adult facilities. Often, information is lost or neglected when
it is being transferred through systems. Lastly, there is an issue with correctional offender management systems, which in the case of Trinidad and Tobago is non-computerized.\footnote{Anecdotal information revealed that the Trinidad and Tobago Prison Service has recently instituted a computerized offender management information system which is currently being populated.} This means that correctional officers must manually document information on inmates into logbooks and inmate files.

The number of consistent data produced is often a challenge especially when examining incarceration trends. In addition to offender management systems, there is the concern over the lack of biometrics to confirm the identity of an offender across the criminal justice system. Criminals in Trinidad and Tobago often will give the police, the courts, and correctional staff aliases and/or altered names. A consequence of this practice is that the validity of recidivism studies based on this information is compromised. There is no way to know if the offender is a recidivist if there is no way to confirm his or her identity. This is potentially why most of the recidivism studies in Trinidad and Tobago are potentially flawed as they have been based on self-reports from the inmates themselves saying that they have or have not been in prison previously.

**Conclusion**

To some degree, projections of crime and incarceration trends can help governments and organizations anticipate changes in crime and identify areas of grave concern. It is hoped that with a deeper examination of both sets of data that not only small-to-medium trends can be identified, but the proposed study will help with solutions to the challenges in conducting recidivism studies in a developing island nation, such as Trinidad and Tobago.
References


