Hilbert College

Criminal Justice
Forensic Science/
Crime Scene Investigation
Departments

Writing and Oral Presentation
Guide

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Hilbert College
Criminal Justice Department

<u>Writing Guide</u>

Introduction

The following writing guide has been designed to *assist criminal justice students at Hilbert College to understand and appreciate the importance that writing has in the curriculum and in the many fields of criminal justice.* Moreover, this guide will introduce different types of writing assignments, as well as inform students of the skills that will be needed to achieve good grades on these assignments.

For years, we have asked many employers about which attributes are most desired in our graduates. The most common responses are these: graduates need to be able to think in a critical manner, have good character, and be able to express their ideas and share their work through their writing. Finally, employers want graduates to be well spoken. Because critical thinking, writing, researching and public speaking are tightly interwoven skills, students will complete many different assignments that seek to improve student competencies related to communication.

Therefore, this guide will assist students to better understand different types of writing assignments and provide some insights into the expectations of their professors. Depending on the course, students can expect to receive written assignments of the following types:

1. report writing
2. legal brief
3. journal article review/critique
4. research/term paper
5. literature review
6. research proposal
7. essays.

Furthermore, since the field of criminal justice uses the American Psychological Association's *citation* and *reference* style of writing, APA requirements will also be reviewed in this guide.

A table of contents has been provided for easy referencing. It is hoped that students will save this guide and refer to it before submitting any written assignments. If there are any questions, students should be sure to discuss assignments with the individual instructors to ensure that any ambiguity is eliminated.

APA Style Sheet

Format:

- Use 8.5" x 11" paper.
- Type double-spaced with 1" margins on all edges.
- Page numbers should be in the top right corner.
- The right margin should be ragged.
- Indent paragraphs five spaces.
- Use Times Roman or Courier 12 pt. type.

Conventions:

- Do not use contractions in academic papers (can't, don't, didn't, shouldn't).
- Do not write one-sentence paragraphs.
- Keep verb tenses consistent.
- Avoid using slang, jargon, and sexist or biased language.
- Use active voice whenever possible.

(Preferred: *The Director of Marketing hired five employees last week.* Compared to: *Five employees were hired last week.* The second sentence does not indicate who actually did the hiring.)

- Write from the appropriate viewpoint. This may vary according to the assignment.

For example, journal entries may be written in first person: *I completed an assessment.* Monographs and other research should be written in third person [the objective perspective]: *Twenty-five cancer patients comprised the sample group.* This viewpoint does not involve the writer personally. The exception would be if a writer needs to add a section of personal comment for purposes of indicating his or her own opinion or recommendations. This would usually be indicated by a separate heading and section in the paper, perhaps at the end. It is not appropriate to write in second person (using you or your) in academic papers because this addresses the reader directly. When in doubt ask the instructor.

Reference Page:

- Begin the reference page on a new page.
- Center the word References at the top of the page.
- List all entries in alphabetical order by the author's last name. Use the title of the work if the author's name is not known.
- Align the first line of every entry with the left margin. All subsequent lines of the entry are indented 5 spaces.
- Double-space entries.

APA STYLE HELP SHEET
PUBLICATION MANUAL OF THE AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION

WHAT IS APA STYLE?

Any time another person's material is used in a research paper, the source must be given proper credit; otherwise plagiarism is committed. APA style refers to a specific way sources must be documented as determined by the American Psychological Association.

WHAT IS THE APA FORMAT FOR RESEARCH PAPERS?

• **Title Page** - separate page, numbered 1. The title should summarize the main idea of the paper and should be approximately 10-12 words in length. Capitalize the first letter of important words in the title. Include the author's name (first name, middle initial, last name) and institutional affiliation.

• **Abstract** - separate page, numbered 2. The abstract, if required, should be a brief, comprehensive summary of the contents of the paper/manuscript.

• **Text** - start on a separate page, numbered 3. Double-space after every line in the text including title page, headings, quotations, references, etc. Indent the first line of every paragraph 5-7 spaces or one tab stop on your word processor. Number the manuscript pages beginning with the title page. The numbers should appear in the upper right-hand corner and should appear at least one inch from the right-hand edge between the top edge of the paper and the first line of text.

• **References** - start on a new page after the end of the text. Type the word References in upper and lowercase letters, centered at the top of the page. The References section should include only those references cited in the body of your paper. It must be in one list, (books, periodicals, Web sites, etc., all combined together), alphabetical by author's last name or title if there is no author. Double-space every line of your reference entries. A hanging indent is the preferred format of references, meaning that the first line of each reference is set flush left and subsequent lines are indented 5 to 7 spaces or one tab stop on your word processor. However, if a hanging indent is difficult to accomplish, standard paragraph indents may be used. The chosen format must be consistent throughout the References section.

REFERENCES IN TEXT

WHAT ARE REFERENCES IN TEXT?
References in Text are citations to borrowed material within the body of a research paper or manuscript.

GENERAL FORMATTING INSTRUCTIONS FOR REFERENCES IN TEXT

• **Direct quotations** - give the author, year and page number in parentheses. When citing text from a Web site, use paragraph numbers instead of page numbers.

• **Paraphrased material and citing ideas in-text** - give the author and year. Page numbers (paragraph numbers for Web sites) are not required but it is good practice to include them.

• **Double space all lines of quotes**. Examples in this handout are single-spaced to conserve paper.

EXAMPLES OF REFERENCES IN TEXT

1) Direct quotes fewer than 40 words:
Author is named in the sentence:
>	Drucker (1985) defines innovation as "the specific tool of entrepreneurs" (p. 20).

Author is unnamed in the sentence:
>	He defines innovation as "the specific tool of entrepreneurs" (Drucker, 1985, p. 20).

2) Direct quotes greater than 40 words:
Indent the entire quote five spaces and double space all lines of the quote.
Author is named in the sentence:
>	Drucker (1985) defines innovation as:

>	the specific tool of entrepreneurs, the means by which they exploit change as an opportunity for a service

>	or a business. Entrepreneurs need to search for the sources of innovation, the changes and their symptoms

>	that indicate opportunities for innovation (p. 20).

Author is unnamed in the sentence:
>	Innovation is defined as:

>	the specific tool of entrepreneurs, the means by which they exploit change as an opportunity for a service

>	or a business. Entrepreneurs need to search for the sources of innovation, the changes and their

>	symptoms that indicate opportunities for innovation (Drucker, 1985, p. 20).

3) Citing a publication with two authors:
Use the word "and" when the author is named in the sentence; use the ampersand (&) when the author is unnamed in the sentence.
Authors are named in the sentence:
>	Smith and Jones (1993, p. 137) stated that, "By 2000, 95% of all offices will use PC's."

Authors are unnamed in the sentence:
>	"By 2000, 95% of all offices will use PC's" (Smith & Jones, 1993, p. 137).

4) Citing a publication with three, four, or five authors:
List all authors the first time you cite the reference. Use the word "and" between the last two authors' names when named in the sentence; use the ampersand ("&") between the last two authors' names when the authors are unnamed in the sentence. After the first citation in both cases, use only the first author's name followed by the Latin abbreviation "et al." which means "and others."
Authors are named in the sentence:
First citation:
>	Johnson, Evan, and Munroe believe that "Buffalo is the greatest city" (1984, p. 132).

Subsequent citations:
>	Johnson, et al. (1984, p. 132) believe that "Buffalo is the greatest city."

Authors are unnamed in the sentence:
First citation:
>	"Buffalo is the greatest city" (Johnson, Evan, & Monroe, 1984, p. 132).

Subsequent citations:
>	"Buffalo is the greatest city" (Johnson, et al., 1984, p. 132).

5) Citing a group that serves as an author such as a corporation, association, government agency, etc.:
The name of the group author may be spelled out in the first citation and abbreviated in subsequent citations.
First citation:
> (National Institute of Mental Health [NIMH], 1991)

Subsequent citations:
> (NIMH, 1991)

6) Citing a work with no author:
Cite in text the first few words of the reference list entry (usually the title) and the year. Use double quotation marks around the title of an article or chapter, and italicize the title of a work.
> on free care ("Study Finds," 1982)
> the book College Bound Seniors (1979)

7) Citing a personal or electronic communication such as e-mail, discussion groups, messages from electronic bulletin boards or listservs, telephone conversations, etc.:
Because these do not provide recoverable data, personal communications are not included in the reference list. Cite personal and electronic communications in text only.
> K. W. Schaie (personal communication, April 18, 1993)

8) Citing a work discussed in a secondary source:
Read and cite the original source when possible. However, for a work that discusses material from another source which is unavailable to you, name the original work and give a citation for the secondary source.
> Seidenberg and McClelland's study (as cited in Coltheart, Curtis, Atkins, & Haller, 1993)

9) Citing a Web site:
To site an entire Web site, give the address of the Web site in text. No entry in the References section is needed.
> Kidspsych is a wonderful interactive Web site for children. (http://www.kidspsych.org)

10) Citing specific parts of a Web site:
Follow the citation format for direct quotations and/or paraphrased material. (See examples #1 and #2 above.) Use paragraph numbers if page numbers are not available. If needed, the abbreviation "para." can be substituted for the ¶ symbol. If page or paragraph numbers are not available, they can be omitted from the in-text citation.
Author named in the sentence:
> Myers (2000, ¶ 5) states, "Positive emotions are a means to a more healthy society."

Author unnamed in the sentence:
> "Positive emotions are a means to a more healthy society" (Myers, 2000, para. 5).

REFERENCES

The References section provides information necessary to identify and retrieve every source which has been cited in your Paper. This section should include only those references cited in your document, but no others.

EXAMPLES OF REFERENCES TO BOOKS IN PRINT FORMAT

1) Referencing books with one author:
> Parris, C. A. (1969). *Mastering executive arts and skills*. New York: Erlbaum.

2) Referencing books with two authors:
> Spetch, M. L., & Wilkie, D. M. (1983). How to bullet-proof your manuscript: An expert guide to professional
> writing. Buffalo, NY: Atheneum.

3) Referencing books with six or more authors:
> Sanders, T. J., Jones, L., Lyle, B.R., Brown, K. G., Speth, M. L., Wilkie, D. M., et al. (1992). *Effective
> leadership in the 90's*. New York: Management Press.

4) Referencing books with a group author such as a corporation, association, government agency, etc.:
American Psychological Association. (2001). *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association* (5th ed.). Washington, DC: Author.

5) Referencing books with no author:
The student's dictionary (4th ed.). (1992). New York: Wallace.

6) Referencing books with an editor:
Jones, J. (Ed.). (1992). *PC's today*. New York: Doubleday.

7) Referencing an article or chapter in an edited book:
Jones, J. T. (1992). The workplace in the year 2000. In R. Smith (Ed.), *PC's today* (pp. 113-120). New York: Doubleday.

8) Referencing encyclopedias and dictionaries with an editor:
Smith, R. F. (Ed.). (1994). *Dictionary of business terms*. (3rd ed.). Boston: Acme.

9) Referencing an article in an encyclopedia with an article author:
Jamison, L. R. (1994). The disappearing ozone layer. In R. Smith (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of ecology*. (Vol. 4, pp. 22-27). Chicago: Wiley.

10) Referencing an article in an encyclopedia with no article author:
The disappearing ozone layer. (1994). In R. Smith (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of ecology*. (Vol. 4, pp. 22-27). Baltimore: Elsevier.

EXAMPLES OF REFERENCES TO JOURNAL ARTICLES IN PRINT FORMAT.

1) Referencing a journal article with one author:
Maten, Y. A. (1993). Electronic communication in large organizations. *Technical Communication*, 39(2), 60-65.

2) Referencing a journal article with two authors:
Klimoski, R., & Palmer, S. (1993). The ADA and the hiring process in organizations. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 45(2), 10-36.

3) Referencing a journal article with more than six authors:
Wolchik, S. A., West, S. G., Sandler, I. N., Tein, J., Coatsworth, D., Lengua, L., et al. (2000). An experimental evaluation of theory-based mother and child programs for children of divorce. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 68(4), 843-856.

EXAMPLES OF REFERENCES TO MAGAZINE ARTICLES IN PRINT FORMAT

1) Referencing a magazine article with an author:
Morrison, H. A. (1992, December). The paperless office. *Business Talk*, 115, 70-76.

2) Referencing a magazine article with no author:
The new health-care lexicon. (1993, August/September). *Copy Editor*, 4, 1-2.

3) Referencing a magazine article with discontinuous pages:
Schwartz, J. (1993, September 30). Obesity affects economic, social status. *People Weekly*, 55-56, 70-71.

EXAMPLES OF REFERENCES TO NEWSPAPER ARTICLES IN PRINT FORMAT

1) Referencing a newspaper article with an author:
Jones, J. T. (1993, December 10). Is an upturn in Ohio's economy still years away? *Los Angeles Times*, p. 24.

2) Referencing a newspaper article with no author:
New drug appears to sharply cut risk of death from heart failure. (1993, July 15). *The Washington Post*, pp. A2, A14.

EXAMPLES OF REFERENCES TO AUDIO/VISUAL/MUSIC FORMATS

1) Referencing a videotape:
Harrison, J. (Producer), & Schmiechen, R. (Director). (1992). Changing our minds: The story of Evelyn Hooker. [Videotape]. (Available from Changing Our Minds, Inc., 170 West End Avenue, Suite 258, New York, NY 10023)

2) Referencing a music CD:
Goodenough, J. B. (1982). Tails and trotters [Recorded by G. Bok, A. Mayo & E. Trickett]. On and so will we yet [CD]. Sharon, CT: Folk-Legacy Records. (1990)

EXAMPLE OF A REFERENCE TO AN ERIC DOCUMENT ON MICROFICHE

ERIC (**Education Resources Information Center**) provides free access to more than 1.2 million bibliographic records of journal articles and other education-related materials.

1) Referencing an ERIC Document:
Mead, J. V. (1992). Looking at old photographs: Investigating the teacher tales that novice teachers bring with them. East Lansing, MI: National Center for Research on Teacher Learning. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED346082)

EXAMPLES OF REFERENCES TO MATERIAL IN ELECTRONIC/ONLINE FORMAT

1) Referencing a full-text book accessed from an electronic subscription database:
Parris, C. A. (1969). *Mastering executive arts and skills*. New York: Atheneum. Retrieved December 30, 2001, from netLibrary database.

2) Referencing a full-text book accessed via the Web
Kehoe, B. P. (1992). *Zen and the art of Internets*. Urbana, IL: Project Gutenberg. Retrieved December 30, 2001, from Project Gutenberg, Etext #34 on the World Wide Web:http://promo.net/pg/

3) Referencing an entire Web site
Give the address of the Web site in text. No entry is needed in the References section.

4) Referencing an article in an Internet-only journal
Fredrickson, B. L. (2000, March 7). Cultivating positive emotions to optimize health and well being. *Prevention & Treatment*, 3, Article 001a. Retrieved November 20, 2001, from http://journals.apa.org/prevention/volume3/pre0030001a.html

5) Referencing a journal article, three to five authors, retrieved from a database
Borman, W. C., Hanson, M. A., Oppler, S. H., Pulakos, E. D., & White, L. A. (1993). Role of early supervisory experience in supervisor performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78, 443-449. Retrieved October 23, 2000, from PsycARTICLES database.

6) Referencing an electronic newspaper article retrieved from a database

Hilts, P. J. (1999, February 16). In forecasting their emotions, most people flunk out. *New York Times.* Retrieved October 16, 2000, from Lexis-Nexis Academic Universe database.

7) Referencing an article in an Internet-only newsletter

Glueckauf, R. L., Whitton, J. & Baxter, J., (1998, July). Videocounseling for families of rural teens with epilepsy - Project update. *Telehealth News*, 2(2). Retrieved September 23, 2000, from http://www.telehealth.net/subscribe/newslettr_4a.html#1

8) Referencing an Internet-only document

Greater New Milford (Ct) Area Healthy Community 2000, Task Force on Teen and Adolescent Issues. (n.d.). Who has time for a family meal? You do! Retrieved October 5, 2000, from http://www.familymealtime.org

9) Referencing a chapter or section in an Internet only document

Benton Foundation. (1998, July 7). Barriers to closing the gap. In Losing ground bit by bit: Low-income communities in the information age (¶ 5). Retrieved December 21, 2000 from http://www.benton.org/Library/Low-Income/two.html

10) Referencing an ERIC Document retrieved from an electronic database:

Mead, J. V. (1992). Looking at old photographs: Investigating the teacher tales that novice teachers bring with them. East Lansing, MI: National Center for Research on Teacher Learning. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED346082) Retrieved October 21, 2000, from E*Subscribe database.

Recommended

A Pocket Style Manual by Diana Hacker, 3rd ed.

This manual is available at the Hilbert College
bookstore and is a valuable guide to writing.
It contains information on writing clarity, grammar,
punctuation, and both MLA and APA styles.

The Basic Steps for Writing a Research Paper

1. Define and narrow the topic.

2. Prepare a preliminary outline.

3. Prepare bibliography.

4. Do the research.

5. Take notes.

6. Prepare the final outline.

7. Write a first draft.

8. Get feedback from a friend who writes well, from your teacher, from the ASC Writing Lab.

9. Revise for content and organization.

10. Get feedback again.

11. Revise for mechanics, spelling, etc.

12. Prepare documentation.

13. Prepare cover page.

14. Print final copy (and make one for yourself too).

Types of Writing

Research Paper

One of the most common types of papers is the standard library research paper. It typically begins with the selection of a topic, followed by a search for good academic sources. Once you have the proper materials, factual information needs to be gathered and assembled into an original work. The purpose is to demonstrate your ability to gather, critique, and report relevant information in an organized way.

Evaluation Paper

This is a specialized paper where you, as the author, are being asked to evaluate some type of policy, law, program, or concept. Instead of starting with a general topic, you will begin with a clear sense of what is being examined and the need to assess its value. Your task will most likely include an assessment of arguments on both sides of an issue, which requires research into what is known and believed about the policy or concept. For example, is the policy of allowing police, under certain circumstances, to conduct a search without a warrant a good idea?

Critiques

These are usually relatively short assignments which require that you assess the strengths, weaknesses, or contributions of someone else's work. The critique may be of a book, a journal, or newspaper article, a film, a piece of music, or any other recorded communication. You will need to draw upon your own reactions to the article, but will usually have to do so within the context of some specific requirement. For example, you may have to assess the extent to which a book illustrates certain types of issues or contributes to an understanding of behavior.

Take-home Essay Exams

These are designed to be written with both your textbook and class notes in front of you and will generally require a deeper analysis of issues. The most important thing to remember is to make certain that you are answering the question which is being asked. After completing your response, go back and read the question again to be certain you have not become sidetracked into unrelated areas. It is important to demonstrate knowledge and not waste time on irrelevant matters.

Research Proposal

A research proposal does not simply require you to learn about a topic, it also requires you to develop a new way for the topic to be studied scientifically. It provides you with a chance to think creatively and to apply your understanding of how science works. The following outline is intended to assist you and does not need to be followed exactly.

Elements of a Research Proposal:

I. The Problem
       A. General statement of the problem
       B. Importance of the problem: Why should we be interested in it?
       C. Previous research in this problem area: how your proposal fits in the larger picture (this is where the literature review comes in)

II. Hypotheses and Theory
       A. Statement of hypotheses
              1. What are the variables?
              2. How do they interact?
       B. Theory — why should we expect that these variables are important and will tell us anything? (This can include discussion of formal theory, or speculation based on observed patterns)

III. Research Design (strategy)
       A. Type of design you have chosen to carry out proposed research
              1. Unit of analysis? Sample?
       B. Strategy
              1. What would be the most appropriate design to attack the problem?
              2. Can this ideal be achieved?
              3. If not, what are its limitation?
              4. What kind of modifications are necessary?
              5. How can you justify your methodological choices?

IV. Measurement
       A. Operational definitions
              1. Previously used definitions — Generally accepted? Appropriate?
              2. Developing new definitions
                a. What kinds of data will you need?
                b. Is the data available? Reliable? Valid?

V. Conclusions
              1. What conclusions do you expect to draw from this research?
              2. What problems do you expect to encounter?
              3. What objections might your colleagues raise?

Practicum

The practicum is designed so the student may demonstrate supervisory skills in written form using the student handbook as a policy reference. The student is expected to assess the problem stated in the practicum, and then write the assessment in about one sentence. Next, the student must find appropriate or similar policy from the handbook and use this as guidance when writing the action recommended to address the issue(s) in the practicum.

Policy found must be cited by page number and subsection or heading. Finally, the student must write their recommended action in about one or two paragraphs.

1. **assessment-**---write assessment in 1 sentences, This should be a concise evaluation of the issue presented in the practicum. Students should keep in mind that they are not solving the problem but identifying policy conflicts (if any) and keeping the best interests of the organization in mind.

2. **citation(s)---**find related policy in the handbook (if any). Cite the policy by chapter and pages. Do not write out the policy.

3. **action**---write a course action you would recommend to address the issue(s) based in part on the policy you found. If you decide there is no policy to be found in the text, state such on your paper. Be careful, though; be sure there is no policy before you commit to such action. You must still write a course of action even if no policy is found.

TIPS

1. Spelling and grammar count. Consider the Practicum as you would an official report that you would be submitting to your superior officer.

2. Handwriting or printing should be very legible.

3. Try and use words such as "allegedly" or "possibly" or "it appears" to preface your assessment and/or actions.

4. Try thinking in terms of writing for a reader, beyond the classroom. The reader in the real world would be your boss(es), a prosecutor, defense attorney, or a judge.

5. Remember you are writing as a superior officer and you should keep the welfare of the organization utmost in your decisions.

Examples of Writing

Model Outline

CJ Department Writing Project
Title: An Examination of Intimate Partner Violence in the United States

1. Introduction

   Men and women involved in intimate partner relationships have been physically, emotionally, and sexually abusing each other throughout history. This has led to a variety of social problems in virtually every society around the world, although the frequency and severity of this behavior does vary across cultures and over time. This paper will explore abusive behavior between long-term heterosexual partners in this country. Particular attention will be paid to current research reports on the underlying characteristics of victims and abusers.

II. Definition and Scope of the Problem

    a. Problems Defining the topic
        1. Changes in definitions of family over time
        2. Changes in definitions of abuse
        3. Multicultural influence on definitions
        4. Difficulty conducting research without a universal definition
    b. Prevalence of intimate partner
        1. How many women are abused?
        2. How many men are abused?
        3. Increase or decrease in the problem?

III. Characteristics of Victims and Abusers

    a.   Any person can be a victim, or an abuser
    b.   Patterns do exist:
        1. Demographic variables
            a.   Gender
            b.   Age
            c.   Social class, socioeconomic status
            d.   Race/Ethnicity
            e.   Religion
            f.   Marital status
        2. Residential patterns
            a.   Geographic patterns
            b.   Population density (rural vs. urban)
        3. Personal history
            a.   Family history
            b.   Physical/Mental health history
            c.   History of delinquency/violence/substance abuse
        4. Similarities and differences between victims and abusers

IV. Dynamics of Intimate Partner Violence

    a. All cases are unique, but very strong patterns have been identified
        1. Worsening of behavior over time
        2. Cycle of violence within relationships
        3. Mutual battering vs. intimate partner terrorism
        4. Cultural transmission of learned violence
        5. Role of lifestyle changes in triggering abusive behavior
        6. Elements influencing a reduction in violence

V. Overview and Conclusions

    a. Positive signs of progress
        1. some indicators suggest violence may be decreasing
        2. educational efforts may have begun to affect culture (cite research on changing attitudes toward victims & abusers)
        3. research projects have advanced our theories, and new research efforts are growing more diversified and inclusive
    b. Negative signs of delayed progress
        1. some indicators suggest violence is not decreasing
        2. funding cuts have reduced the resources available to help families
        3. funding cuts have greatly limited new research projects
    c. Need for better theory, more empirical research
    d. Concluding remarks on the extent to which intimate partner violence has come to be recognized as a major social problem, including the need to compare problems in this country to those of other nations.

Research Paper

The following is an example of a well written student research paper.

The assignment required students to take a position regarding the topic that they selected.

Thesis Statement:

The American Prison System is ineffective as evident by high rates of recidivism and a lack of influence on crime rates.

If you were to ask any American today, chances are they would tell you that we live in one of the greatest societies on the planet. For the most part that statement may be true. However no society is without its problems, even ours. A good example of one of the problems faced by American society today involves the criminal justice community and concerns the American Prison System. It can be argued that the American Prison System is ineffective as measured by high rates of recidivism and lack of influence on crime rates. In an effort to prove this point, the remainder of this paper will focus on three main areas: First, to establish a basic understanding of how the criminal justice system operates in America today; Second, to present both sides of the argument concerning recidivism, and crime rates, as well as counter points to each of these arguments; and third, the paper will present thoughts on steps to be taken to help reduce the ineffectiveness of the prison system.

To begin, it is important to establish two things, a basic understanding of how the criminal justice system operates, and the specific goals or justifications of the American Prison System. For simplicity, the system can be broken down into three different Sections. The U.S. Department of Justice's website (http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/bjs/justsys.htm, 2007) shows that: the first phase is Intake. This is where an individual enters into the criminal justice system, most commonly by way of an arrest; the second phase of the system is the Adjudication, or trial phase; lastly, if a person has been processed through the intake phase, and convicted in a trial, then they move on to the final stage of the system which is Corrections/Aftercare. Corrections and aftercare include the prison system itself, the parole system, and other programs that are designed to help prisoners and parolees with a variety of problems. It should be stated that it would be easy to establish any number of problems that each of these three phases face today. However for

the purpose of this paper, the arguments presented here regarding recidivism and crime rates will focus on the corrections phase of the criminal justice system.

Also, the four main goals of the American Prison System concerning corrections, or justifications for imprisonment will be established. The first justification or goal is retribution, "an eye for an eye", the thought that punishment should be proportional to the crime (Lauen, 1990). Next is deterrence, or the thought that punishment, or the threat of punishment should prevent those individuals punished (and others who observe the punishment) from committing future crimes (Lauen, 1990). The third is incapacitation, or the thought that further crime can be controlled by restraining those who commit crimes (Lauen, 1990). Lastly, rehabilitation is the final goal and is based on the idea that treatment of the root cause of criminality, at the individual level, can prevent that person from committing further crimes (Lauen, 1990, p.6).

To better understand the argument that the American Prison System is ineffective as shown by crime and incarceration rates, an effort should also be made to put the current incarceration rates of the Untied States in perspective with the rest of the world. For example, according to Lauen (1990) as of 1990 (per 100,000 people of population) the state of Nevada had a higher incarceration rate then the entire country of South Africa, while the District of Columbia had a higher incarceration rate then the entire Soviet Union. However, more recently, "in the United States, 702 per 100,000 people are currently incarcerated in both prison and jail, whereas Russia, previously the world leader in prison rates, locks up 628 per 100,000" (Jacobson, 2005, p.109).

With a basic understanding of how the criminal justice system operates, and good perspective as to how the incarceration rates in the untied states relate to the rest of the world, a strong argument can be made that the American Prison System is ineffective as demonstrated by

the lack of influence that high incarceration rates have on crime rates. This lack of influence can

be demonstrated by examining the two basic ideas-how incarceration rates and crime rates

should relate to each other and how they actually relate to each other in real life. Blumstein

(2000) explains the first part of this statement by saying:

> The interaction between crime and punishment is certainly a complex one. In simple
>
> terms, one might anticipate that, if crime rates increase, there should be corresponding
>
> increases in prison populations, perhaps with a lag of a year or two to account for the
>
> processing of the most serious of the arrested offenders into prison. On the other hand, if
>
> punishment levels increase, crime control theory suggests that deterrence and
>
> incapacitation should be reflected in a corresponding reduction in crime rates (p.3).

Essentially what Blumstein is saying here is that there should be somewhat of a "strong

relationship" between crime rates and prison populations. Meaning that as crime rates rise,

prison populations should rise correspondingly. Likewise, as prison populations rise, there

should be a noticeable effect on crime rates as well.

This "strong relationship", however, can be proven incorrect, at least when applied to the

American Prison System. According to Blumstein (2000) despite the fact that incarceration rates

have risen to nearly four times what they were two decades ago, crime rates have been mostly

unaffected. The most surprising thing is that there has been no downward trend in crime rates,

despite the incarceration rates, as many would have predicted.

Blumstein (2000) further illustrates this point by comparing the rates of murder and

robbery per 100,000 people of the United States, according to the UCR, against the general U.S.

incarceration rate at the same scale, from 1970 to 1995. When comparing these statistics, it is

observed that over the years the rate of robbery varies between 200-250 persons per 100,000,

with an average increase of 1.4% over the time period. Also, the rate of murder varies between 8-10 persons per 100,000, with an average increase near zero.

Conversely, the data is strikingly different when you examine the incarceration rate. According to Blumstein (2000), beginning around 1973, the incarceration rate in America began to grow exponentially. Over the years, the incarceration rate jumped from 110 persons per 100,000 in 1973, to 445 persons per 100,000 in 1997; an increase of nearly 400%. Therefore, by examining this data, it can be concluded that the high incarceration rates of the American Prison System, had little influence on the crime rates of murder and robbery in America between 1973 and 1997. If that is true, then it stands to reason that the prison system is also ineffective at achieving one of its main goals, the deterrence of violent crime.

However, this argument made by Blumstein is not without at least one strong criticism. The relationship that Blumstein presents between incarceration rates and crime rates, there is one question that must be asked. "How is it that incarceration rates continue to rise, if the crime rates remain relatively stable?" In other words, why is it that so many more people are going to jail than before, even though crime rates have remained somewhat even or have decreased? The answer according to Blumstein (2000) can be found in a major shift in policy, and a new focus on drug crimes. For example, when comparing the rates of drug, murder, robbery, assault, and burglary offenses, from 1980-1995, although all shown upward trends, none experienced the growth that drug offenses did, increasing tenfold over the period shown. This explanation is further supported by Miller (2002):

> The patterns in some states are truly astonishing. Between 1986 and 1996 for example,
> the rate of incarceration for drug offenses among African Americans increased by 10,102

percent in Louisiana; in Georgia by 5,400 percent; in Arkansas 5,033 percent; in Iowa

4,284 percent, and in Tennessee 1,473 percent (p.25).

The information presented above does present a good counterpoint. Surely with such a

sharp increase in the rate of drug crimes, there would be a corresponding rise in prison

populations. There is a flaw to this argument, however. By closely examining the data cited, it

is evident that the rate of drug convictions never eclipsed all of the other reasons for

incarceration until 1988 (Blumstein, 2000). When compared to Blumstein's initial information

concerning crime rates and rates of incarceration from 1970-1995, even though there was a

marked increase in drug crime, it only surpassed the rate at which other crimes were committed

according to the UCR for a total of 7 years. Therefore, it is easy to conclude that even though

drug crimes certainly had an impact on incarceration rates, they are only partly responsible for

the 400% growth over the period studied.

The argument that the American Prison System is ineffective because of the apparent

lack of influence high incarceration rates have on crime rates can be taken a step further by

examining the statements Todd Clear makes in his article "Imprisonment Does Not Reduce

Crime". According to Clear (2002) high rates of imprisonment are the wrong approach to crime,

and can lead to, in fact, creating more crime within communities. Clear (2002) goes on to

illustrate this point with the following example:

Dina Rose, a sociologist in New York's John Jay College of Criminal Justice, found that

in high-crime Florida neighborhoods that were otherwise comparable, crime reductions

were lower in those with the greatest number of people moving in and out of prison.

With high incarceration rates she argues, prison can be transformed from a crime

deterrent into a factor that fuels a cycle of crime and disorder by breaking up families,

souring attitudes toward the criminal justice system, and leaving communities populated

with too many people hardened by the experience of going to prison (p. 61).

There is however an entirely different, and more substantial argument as to why the

American Prison System is ineffective. It can be argued that the prison system is ineffective as

evident by incredibly high rates of recidivism. However, to better understand this argument a

definition of recidivism is necessary. The American Heritage Dictionary defines recidivism as,

"a tendency to return to criminal habits" ("recidivism," p. 575).

With a clear definition of exactly what recidivism is, the next step is to move on to the

main body of this argument, the high rates of recidivism that our prison system experiences. As

stated before, one of the main goals of the correctional system is deterrence. That is, the threat

of prison or returning to prison, is supposed to prevent people from committing crimes (Lauen,

1990). However, as seen by astonishing rates of recidivism, this is not the case. For example,

according to data from a Bureau of Justice Statistics Special Report, 67.5% of released prisoners

will be re-arrested, and 52% of released prisoners will return to prison, within 3 years of their

initial release. Further highlighting this growing problem, the number of parole violators that

were returned to prison jumped from 27,000 in 1980, to 203,000 in 2000, an increase of 652%

(http://www.nicic.org/library/Default.aspx?Library=020435). These statements are echoed by

Joan Petersilia (1999), stating that over the course of a study of 16,000 released inmates during

the mid-1980's, nearly 65% were rearrested within 3 years.

As you begin to see how large of a problem recidivism is becoming for the criminal

justice system, you are then forced to ask, what are the factors that are contributing to this

problem? Although the variables are countless, experts have been able to pin point a few general

factors that contribute to recidivism. First, one of the most basic factors that contributes to

recidivism is education. According to Ingley (2000):

> The Texas Department of Criminal Justice found that criminal recidivism for its degree
>
> holders leaving their system between September 1990 and August 1991 was 15%, four
>
> times lower than the general recidivism rate of 60%. The higher the level of degree, the
>
> lower the rate of recidivism. Several other states have shown similar results. (p. 21)

Another factor that contributes to high recidivism rates for those leaving prison, are the

poorly run prison programs designed to help prepare a prisoner for life after incarceration. For

example, according to Johnson (2002) although there are some worthwhile programs in place,

they simply aren't enough. Instead, most prisoners leave prison without ever participating in

prison programs. For those who do partake in pre-release programs, they are often exposed to

programs so poorly run that they leave prison completely unprepared for life in the free world.

As a result, a good deal of prisoners, suffer from diminished autonomy due to their experiences

in confinement.

A third factor that contributes to recidivism would be the short comings of the parole

system. Simply put, the current parole system cannot handle the job it is designed to do. This

point is best illustrated by Petersilia (1999) when she states that California is one area that shows

a definite lack in parolee services. The state provides a 200 shelter beds for the homeless, four

mental health clinics for 18,000 patients, and 750 beds in substance abuse programs for 85,000

patients. Petersilia (1999) goes on to further illustrate this point by saying:

> It is important to remember that more then 80% of all parolees are on caseloads where
>
> they are seen less than twice a month, and the dollars available to support their
>
> supervision and services are generally less then $1,500 per offender per year- when

effective treatment programs are estimated to cost $12,000 to $15,000 per year, per

client. It is no wonder that recidivism rates are so high (p. 514).

Lastly, one more factor that negatively influences recidivism rates would be exposure to

the prison system in general. For example, according to McLaughlin (2000), "Rather than

serving as places of punishment, correctional facilities may also serve as training schools for

criminal offending" (p. 25). McLaughlin (2000) goes on to say:

> Scared Straight, shock probation or parole programs, and certain boot camps have been
>
> associated with increases in recidivism among youth offenders. Interaction with
>
> incarcerated offenders may be particularly attractive to high risk youth who may view
>
> involvement in criminal offending as glamorous and attempt to emulate the offenders
>
> involved in the program (p. 26).

With an understanding of how much of a problem recidivism is for the American Prison

System, and the factors that contribute to this problem, the next obvious question is what can be

done to improve this situation? There are two obvious solutions. The first of which, is that the

parole system needs to be fixed, so that it gives released prisoners a better chance for success.

According to Petersilia (1999) the current parole system needs to be overhauled. Experts feel

that a new model for the parole system should include such things as the identification of

dangerous and violent parolees, quality treatment and job training programs for whom they can

benefit the most, an alternative approach to dealing with technical violators of parole, and a

community centered approach to parole supervision.

Another possible solution to the problem of high recidivism, would be the development

of strong community programs such as New York's ComALERT. The program provides job

referrals as well as job opportunities through a welfare-to-work program, as well as offering

housing and drug treatment services. After three years of study, the ComALERT program was found to reduce recidivism to 17%, versus the control group at over 40% (McKean, 2004).

However, as with everything, there is another side to this argument. Some researchers simply believe that when it comes to programs to help reduce the rate of recidivism, "nothing works" (Avio, 2003). There is a variety of research out there that is biased towards this point of view. Avio (2003) presents some of this information by saying, "Even though remedial education and vocational training programs 'have demonstrated success in providing prisoners and parolees with measurably increased academic and vocational skill,' they have typically not been successful in reducing recidivism rates" (p. 29). He goes on to further prove his point by saying:

> The hypothesis is that the programs have not improved offenders job opportunities, even though they have improved their skill levels. Released offenders either are unable to find better jobs, or if they do find better jobs, they cannot keep them because of inadequate preparation for the demands of such work (p. 29).

Perhaps the strongest statement Avio (2003) makes when presenting his case regarding programs that are aimed at trying to reduce recidivism is, "If 'nothing works' is too strong an assessment, then 'nothing works well' is quite justifiable" (p. 28).

In the end, the argument that the American Prison System is ineffective comes down to two things; an incredibly high rate of recidivism, and no apparent relationship between rates of incarceration and crime rates. Since the 1970s, we have seen a nearly 400% increase in incarceration rates and have seen recidivism climb to nearly 70%. Both of these factors are clear indicators of a prison system that neither deters criminals from committing crime, nor helps them

to establish a crime free life once they are released. Unless some progressive steps are made in

the direction of reform, the system will continue to operate in this highly ineffective way.

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Oral Presentation

Types of Speeches

There are four types of speeches based on <u>style of presentation,</u> regardless of topic or technical aids: (1) an **impromptu speech** (you make it all up on the spur of the moment); (2) a **memorized speech** (it's all in your head); (3) a **manuscript speech** (everything you say is written down and read aloud); and (4) an **extemporaneous speech** (you're working from an outline but making up the sentences as you go). The set of instructions on this sheet concerns #3: the manuscript speech.

The Manuscript Speech

What Is Easy About It

You get to write the whole speech word for word on one or more sheets of paper or on note cards of suitable size (3x5, 4x6, 5x8). Use only one side of sheets or cards so you don't have to turn anything over when you present the talk and in that way remind people that you really are reading it.

Type out the whole speech or print the words neatly and large enough so that everything is legible. Try to avoid long paragraphs so that you will be less likely to lose your place when you look up at your audience.

Practice

Once the whole speech is typed or printed, you can't be sure how long it takes to read it, or whether there are places where you might stumble over words, unless you practice ahead of time by reading it aloud while timing yourself.

Make your peace with yourself and any roommates you have that you need to practice out loud several times-that if you are overheard in your room talking out loud, you're not talking to yourself, but practicing your speech, because your teacher says you need to do this to get it right. Otherwise, you'd be surprised how easy it is to trip over your own words. And if there's a time limit, you need to see how well you can meet it by cutting out or adding words or sections so that your speech isn't perceived as too short (not enough material) or too long (so that you wear out your welcome).

Reading your speech aloud several times will also help make your delivery smoother and increase your confidence, so that your speech will more likely go better when the time comes.

Two Keys **(&** Two Challenges) in Making a Manuscript Speech Effective

A speech that you read is especially effective if it does not *seem* that you are indeed reading it! How can you legitimately create that effect? Through two way-tone of voice and eye contact.

(1) Tone of Voice

Too many persons, when they read, use a "reading" voice rather than a speaking voice. By <u>sounding</u> as if they are reading, they sound as if they are talking <u>at</u> the audience rather than talking <u>to</u> the audience.

Audiences tend to get bored if they feel they are being read to rather than spoken to. You need to use or modulate your voice the way you would when talking to others, only this time you're doing it when you read aloud.

Ideally you need to have a game plan for every sentence. How do you want to say it? Based on what your writing means at any given moment, do you ever want to talk (read) faster or slower, louder or softer, to make a point? This is a matter of speech dynamics, to avoid a monotone. When you do this well, you are more expressive in how you say what you say, while still being you, and it can make your presentation more interesting to hear, keeping your audience motivated to listen and remember.

Also, while you're doing this, don't mumble or murmur, but try to project your voice by generally speaking (reading) just a little louder than you normally would. It may seem odd at first, but that way your voice will fill the room better and should seem normal to your audience.

In short, when your tone of voice is effective, this is one way of succeeding in giving the illusion that you are not really reading your speech at all (when of course you are), but simply talking to the audience.

(2) Eye Contact

The other way to read a speech effectively is through eye contact. The more you look at you audience *and can hold the look while you are talking,* the more you give the illusion that you are not reading or dependent on your notes, but speaking directly to your audience.

This is another reason why your manuscript needs to be legible. But, also, you need through practice to be familiar with the actual physical layout of your words on paper or note cards, so that your eyes don't get fooled and skip over lines or cause you to trip over your tongue in reading them.

If you can take five or six words at a time and look up from the page or note card at the audience while saying them (holding the look), and then do it again-and again, you will more and more make audiences think you are not merely reading your talk but speaking to them (as long as you also avoid a reading voice). Of course, it is committed practice, ahead of time, that can enable you to do this smoothly.

Conclusion

There is also a place in your presentation for occasional gestures and appropriate facial expressions, but tone of voice and eye contact, if done together well, can make very effective a speech that is being read, by giving the illusion that it is not being read at all, but spoken.

Effective tone of voice and eye contact may come easier to some than to others. But if you really want to connect with your audience, the time spent in practice will be worth it.