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The Social Care Needs of Short-Sentence Prisoners



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FOREWORD

60,000 adults a year are sentenced to custodial sentences of less than 12 months. These offenders commit the majority of crimes and have the highest reoffending rates of any group of offenders. 60% are re-convicted within a year of release, costing the country as a whole between £7 and £10 billion a year. They also a high rate of suicide related to drug or alcohol misuse: often within weeks of their release from custody.

Access to support is critical for offenders with chronic and long-term health problems, particularly those with poor mental health and substance misuse. While health care services are generally available, access to social care services in custody and through release is not as available to them as it is to those serving over 12 months – even for the homeless or otherwise socially excluded.

Individual services targeting this group were started but had not been seen as a high priority. More recently, further support by police, probation and prisons for repeat offenders has been developed. First through the *Prolific and other Priority Offender* (PPO) scheme and later through *Integrated Offender Management* (IOM) approaches.

Reports by Baroness Corston (2007) and Lord Bradley (2009) also recommended that custody is inappropriate for some groups of offenders such as less-serious women offenders, and those with mental health problems or learning disabilities. Both recommended that, wherever possible, they should be diverted away from custody, into support services that meet their needs.

In the spirit of these recommendations, and with a commitment to improve the health and social functioning of offenders and reduce reoffending, the Directorate of Social Care in the North East commissioned the North East Public Health Observatory (NEPHO) to undertake work in this area. Firstly to identify the social care needs of this group of adult offenders, then to develop and test tools to screen and assess these needs, finally to develop pathways of care for addressing unmet needs.

This report is the first product of this project. Even in the short period since it was commissioned, there have been further developments in national policy and proposals significant change. The majority of health care commissioning in the National Health Service may be transferred from primary care trusts to consortia of General Practitioners, there will be more local discretion and local authority control of budgets. The National Offender Management Service is to be streamlined and police service commissioners may be directly elected locally.

The Government has also announced a "*rehabilitation revolution*" in the Ministry of Justice (2010a) green paper, *Breaking the Cycle: Effective Punishment, Rehabilitation and Sentencing of Offenders*. Particular emphasis is placed on offenders with short term sentences so that less serious offenders could receive "*more effective and robust community sentences*" (p.58) to keep them out of prison and those for whom a custodial sentence is still necessary receive increased rehabilitative work.

Breaking the Cycle recognises the multiple problems faced by short-sentence prisoners. This is a conclusion supported by the review published here. I commend the review both for the improved understanding it brings to a serious issue and for the potential it contributes to the development of better services and outcomes.

Wendy Balmain

Deputy Regional Director Social Care and Partnerships

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The North East Public Health Observatory, on behalf of the Directorate of Social Care in the North East, commissioned this review of the social care needs of short-sentence prisoners from *Revolving Doors*. In addition, tools to identify these needs and good practice at meeting these needs were also reviewed. A three-pronged approach was adopted: a review of the literature, interviews with key stakeholders and a small focus group with former short-sentence prisoners.

1 General Needs

This review identified a range of needs among short-sentence prisoners; the presence of multiple needs was common. Needs included:

Accommodation: Homelessness and unstable accommodation were clear issues. Pre-imprisonment homelessness was between 10-21% and accommodation was often lost following imprisonment.

Employment, Training and Education: Unemployment was the norm. One survey suggested almost half of them had no qualifications and 13% had never worked. Life skills were also poor.

Finance, Benefit and Debt: The majority of short-sentence prisoners had been on benefits prior to imprisonment; many were concerned about their situation on release and struggled with financial management.

Drugs and Alcohol: Estimates of alcohol problems ranged from 20% to 45%. Drugs were a particular problem; with estimates ranging from 40% to 50%, with high levels of heroin and cocaine use.

Family, Relationships and Social Networks: Family problems preceded and were exacerbated by imprisonment. Negative peers, unstable family relationships and isolation were all issues.

Emotional Wellbeing: Emotional needs around bereavement, loss of children, childhood trauma and victimisation were evident, particularly in women, but provision of support was poor.

Mental Health: Short-sentence prisoners exhibited high levels of mental disorder, notably anxiety and depression – particularly amongst women offenders. Almost two thirds suffered from personality disorder.

Disabilities requiring Social Care: There was evidence of health problems and disability. Although these may inhibit prisoners' mobility and ability to care for themselves, engagement of local authority adult social care departments was poor.

Learning Disabilities and Difficulties: Information specific to short-sentence prisoners was scarce. Levels in the prison population are estimated at 0.5%-1.5%, with many more prisoners on the borderline.

Thinking, Attitudes and Behaviour: Short-sentence prisoners wanted help to address their offending behaviour. Offence patterns suggest problems with impulsivity and anger management. Recidivist short-sentence prisoners demonstrated institutionalisation and fatalism about their ability to change.

2 Assessing social care needs

All prisoners receive the Grubin healthcare screen on reception. Housing needs are screened by the Housing Needs Initial Assessment form. The review uncovered evidence that considerable screening and assessment of social care needs already takes place; many prisons have developed their own forms to be completed during Induction. If needs are identified through screening or self-referral, agencies working within the prison often undertake detailed assessments covering a range of social needs. Some short-sentence prisoners will also have had an OASys (Offender Assessment System) assessment pre-imprisonment.

A number of problems with current processes were identified. The mental health element of the healthcare screen has been criticised in the literature for being brief. There is also no learning disability element. Prisoners are often disinclined to identify vulnerabilities within the prison environment; staff undertaking screenings can appear rushed and uncaring, and prisoners were concerned around exposing themselves to bullying.

Screening and assessment processes are fragmented. There appear to be limited or inadequate processes for the systematic transfer of information between agencies within the prison if needs are identified that fall outside the scope of the agency undertaking the assessment.

Some promising developments are on the horizon. The National Offender Management Service (NOMS) have developed a Basic Custody Screening Tool (BCST) that covers a range of needs. In addition, a specific screen for learning disabilities is being piloted. A number of screening tools from other fields are also considered, but difficulties associated with the prison environment render many of these inappropriate as part of a brief screening tool.

3 Good Practice

The evaluations of a number of successful projects targeting short-sentence prisoners or similar groups were considered. Research into successful interventions and service user views into 'what works' were also reviewed. Key themes emerged around how best to meet the needs of this group and these are listed below.

- Making the best use of the limited time available
- Addressing immediate problems and maintaining existing support
- Building motivation, self-esteem, confidence and re-engagement
- Signposting to external organisations
- Developing 'Through the Gate' support
- Providing Brokerage and advocacy
- Mentoring
- Forming High quality relationships
- Providing Holistic support
- Supporting case management
- Developing positive activities
- Providing women-only spaces and Black and Minority Ethnic Group (BME)-specific services

4 Next Steps

A screening tool has been developed alongside this review to identify social care needs in short-term prisoners. The research reviewed suggests that consideration needs to be given to the following during the implementation phase:

- Risk of Duplication and Fragmentation
- Timing of Screening
- Challenges and Risks of Screening for Trauma
- Pathways to Support

INTRODUCTION

The North East Public Health Observatory, on behalf of the Directorate of Social Care in the North East, commissioned this review of the social care needs of short-sentence prisoners from *Revolving Doors*. The terms 'short-sentence' or 'short-term' prisoner, unless otherwise stated, are used throughout to describe prisoners sentenced to less than 12 months' imprisonment. Recent evidence (Bradley, 2009; Brooker *et al*, 2009) suggests the short-term nature of their imprisonment makes the provision of support services in custody more challenging. Once released, this group currently receives no statutory supervision by the probation service (With the exception of young adult offenders aged 18–21) and has a high rate of re-conviction compared with other groups of prisoners. It is envisaged that these findings will support commissioning and service re-design for this group.

The review is set out in four chapters. Chapter 1 outlines the social care needs of short-sentence prisoners that have emerged from the reviewed research, and meetings with key stakeholders and those with personal experience of short-term imprisonment. Chapter 2 describes current and potential screening tools for identifying these needs within the prison context. There are currently a wide range of services working to meet the social care needs of this group. Chapter 3 highlights promising practice and service models in meeting these needs, distilling key features of an effective service response. Finally, Chapter 4 presents the proposed screening tool, developed in light of evidence from the review and following consultation with a small group of former short-sentence prisoners.

METHODS

A three-pronged approach was adopted.

- **A literature review:** Cambridge Scientific Abstracts (Social Sciences and Natural Sciences)¹ was searched systematically for research on the needs of short-term prisoners². Following this, a wider search was conducted on the needs of all prisoners, using search terms associated with the National Offender Management Service (NOMS) Resettlement Pathways (NOMS, 2004) or needs identified by interviewees. Search terms were also included to identify screening and assessment tools associated with the group.

The list of Prison Service Orders and Prison Service Instructions, and Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Prisons (HMIP) Thematic Reviews were searched manually. An internet search for relevant documents was also conducted. Literature recommended by experts within the field was included. Recent research was prioritised and research that was wholly from outside the UK was excluded.

Interviews with key stakeholders: Interviewees were identified by the commissioners, through existing professional contacts and by previous interviewees (see Appendix VI). Interviewees were asked to identify the social care needs of short-term prisoners. Interviewees were also asked for detailed information on current screening processes and good practice.

- **Focus group with former short-term prisoners:** A focus group was conducted with three adult males from Revolving Doors' National Service User Forum, who had personal experiences of short-term imprisonment. It was hoped that the group would include a woman but this was not possible on the day. Similar issues were covered to the stakeholder interviews; in addition detailed discussion into a proposed screening tool took place.
- A number of voluntary organisations working with this group in the North East were contacted by email for details of their screening processes but no response was received³.

The search for research specifically on the needs of short-term prisoners did not yield as much data as envisaged. Consequently, the search was widened to incorporate research on the needs of all prisoners; an approach supported by the interviewees who consistently said that short and longer term prisoners have similar needs. This yielded considerably more literature and it was not possible in the time available to undertake a systematic and comprehensive review of all of this literature so the focus remains on Short-Sentence Prisoners .

¹ The databases that are included within this can be reviewed at: http://www.csa.com/e_products/databases-collections.php?SID=g4vjfn0gv7v99nbv1o33htonk2

² Using the terms: "short sentenced", "short sentence(s)", "short prison sentence(s)", "short custodial sentence(s)", along with "prison*" and "offend*"; also "short term prison sentence(s)", "short term prisoner(s)", "short term custodial sentence(s)", and "short term sentence(s)".

³ These were identified through the Clinks database: <http://www.workingwithoffenders.org/>

FINDINGS

1 The social care needs of short-sentence prisoners

Research on short-sentence prisoners

The most recent research which comprehensively addresses the needs of this group is the Surveying Prisoner Crime Reduction (SPCR) survey of 1,457 prisoners of which 1,101 were sentenced to less than 12 months imprisonment; the remainder were sentenced to between 12 months and four years (Stewart, 2008). In addition, this review relies heavily on data obtained from large national and local projects targeted at this group; the West Mercia Connect programme (Leary & Thomas, 2007) and the seven Resettlement Pathfinders (Lewis *et al*, 2003; Maguire & Raynor, 2006).

Additionally, a report that cites findings from research into the probation service's voluntary aftercare of this group, in which 105 short-term prisoners were interviewed, has also provided a useful resource (Maguire *et al*, 2000). Several pieces of research from the 1970s were reviewed, although sentencing and welfare practices and post-release supervision arrangements have changed.

It was clear throughout the literature that short-term prisoners had multiple needs including both practical and emotional problems. Prisoners surveyed for the Surveying Prisoner Crime Reduction (SPCR) had an average of three needs (Stewart, 2008), while clients of the pathfinders averaged six problems, four significant (Lewis *et al*, 2003). In most cases, these needs are inter-related so that problems in one area (such as homelessness) impact upon other problem areas (such as drug use and mental health), making it even harder to address problems. However, for ease of analysis these needs are presented broadly under the Resettlement Pathways; this is not to suggest that interventions should treat needs in isolation, an approach refuted by the literature (Harper & Chitty, 2005; Rosengard *et al*, 2007).

Accommodation

Stewart (2008) described the pre-imprisonment housing situation of short-sentence prisoners: 34% were in rented accommodation, 19% were paying board, 16% were living rent-free, 13% were living in privately owned accommodation, 10% were homeless and 7% were living in a hostel or other temporary accommodation. Short-term prisoners were less likely to be in stable accommodation prior to imprisonment and more likely to have been homeless than prisoners sentenced to between 12 months and four years (this difference was statistically significant). Only 66% of those short-term prisoners who had somewhere to live prior to custody expected to return to the same accommodation on release. 38% of those surveyed wanted help to find accommodation. Similarly, 36% of those interviewed by Maguire *et al* (2000) anticipated accommodation problems on release – the most frequently anticipated problem.

Fifteen percent of the 7,720 clients on the Connect programme were of no fixed abode and 10% were in short-term or transient accommodation (Leary & Thomas, 2007). Accommodation was most frequently identified as the highest priority problem for clients on the Resettlement Pathfinders (Lewis *et al*, 2003). It was a significant problem for 51% of clients; only 41% expected to be in permanent accommodation on release. Of those participants for which data was available, 25% were in transient accommodation and 21% of no fixed abode prior to imprisonment. Accommodation issues were particularly problematic in prisons in London and the South-East, although over half of clients in Her Majesty's Prison (HMP) Hull and in the women's prison HMP Low Newton experienced significant accommodation problems too.

Pathfinder data suggests higher levels of need than the Surveying Prisoner Crime Reduction (SPCR); one reason may be that participation was voluntary and in just over a quarter of cases, clients cited getting help with accommodation problems as their primary reason for joining the Pathfinders – the most commonly cited reason.

Homelessness and rough sleeping among short-sentence prisoners is a longstanding feature of this group (Banks & Fairhead, 1976; Fairhead, 1981). Short-sentence prisoners face a number of difficulties finding housing. These include a shortage of affordable accommodation, being found not 'in priority need' for housing by local authorities, or being found intentionally homeless. They are often unable to pay rent in advance or deposits to private landlords (Nacro, 2000; Lewis *et al*, 2003). Many have complex co-existing problems that lead to exclusion from housing, anti-social behaviour and difficulties sustaining tenancies (O'Shea *et al*, 2003). Accommodation need is not simply restricted to finding housing; those with existing accommodation also need support to maintain their home and property while in custody (Everitt & McKeown, 2007).

Employment, training and education

13% of the short-term prisoners surveyed by the SPCR had never been employed; only half had worked in the year prior to custody, less than a third in the four weeks immediately preceding imprisonment (Stewart, 2008). This was significantly⁴ less than proportions for those serving longer sentences (58% and 38% respectively).

In another large-scale prison survey from 2003, only 29% of short-sentence prisoners had employment, training or education (ETE) arranged on release compared to 34% of those sentenced to between 12 months and 4 years, and 22% of those sentenced to over 4 years (Niven & Stewart, 2005). Sixty-six percent of all prisoners with employment arranged were returning to the same job held prior to imprisonment.

Employment was frequently anticipated as a problem on release for the short-sentence prisoners interviewed (32%) by Maguire *et al* (2000) and had frequently been a problem on a previous release (24%). Employment was a significant problem for 40% of the prisoners on the Resettlement pathfinders. This was most common in prisons outside the South-East, particularly in the women's establishment.

Those surveyed as part of the SPCR cited problems with accommodation, drugs and alcohol, lack of skills or qualifications and health problems, as well as their criminal record as reasons for unemployment (Stewart, 2008). School histories were regularly chequered; 58% had been regular truants, and 42% permanently excluded (Stewart, 2008). Many had no qualifications, with short-sentence prisoners significantly more likely to have no qualifications than longer sentence prisoners; 49% and 40% respectively. 40% wanted help obtaining qualifications, 39% work-related skills, and 22% improving literacy and/or numeracy. Education and training were considered by staff to be a significant problem for 35% of short-sentence prisoners on the Pathfinders (Lewis *et al*, 2003).

In addition to basic skills, vocational and other qualifications, short-sentence prisoners need education around 'life skills' (Social Exclusion Unit, SEU, 2002): "*Many prisoners have had disadvantaged family and educational backgrounds which have not helped them to develop the practical skills necessary to sustain a job, relationship and housing, or to manage their finances. The institutionalising effect of prison does not help and can damage what confidence and sense of responsibility they have developed.*" (p.86) Similarly, Baroness Corston, in her

⁴ Used throughout to mean statistically significant

report on women offenders emphasises that "*Life skills, for example how to live as a family group, how to contribute to the greater good, how to cook a healthy meal, are missing from the experiences of many of the women in modern society who come in contact with the criminal justice system.*" (p.7).

Finance, benefit and debt

Stewart (2008) reported that almost two-thirds of short-sentence prisoners were claiming at least one benefit prior to imprisonment with just over a third claiming job-seekers allowance; even some of those in employment were earning low wages, with 9% of all (< 4 years) working prisoners surveyed earning less than £100 per week.

Maguire *et al* (2000) found that money was a frequently anticipated problem on release by the short-sentence prisoners they interviewed (33%), and along with employment was the most frequently experienced problem on a previous release (24%). Hartfree *et al* (2010) highlight that for prisoners over the age of 24, the discharge grant given to prisoners on release has not increased since 1997. Given the expected 2-week wait for benefits the £46 works out as £3.29 per day; but some prisoners experience much longer delays. Echoing findings from an earlier study (Hagel *et al* 1995), Hartfree found that all their interviewees (not only short-sentence prisoners) had spent their discharge grant within days of release; some within a few hours. Crisis loans could help but placed ex-prisoners immediately in debt.

Financial management was a significant problem for 32% of Pathfinder participants (Lewis *et al*, 2003). The *Time is Money* report (Bath & Edgar, 2010) surveyed 144 prisoners (all sentence lengths, of which 47 were interviewed in depth), 24 former prisoners and 29 families of those with convictions. Almost two-thirds of prisoners interviewed had been struggling to pay bills or described themselves as in real financial trouble prior to imprisonment. Just over half of prisoners interviewed had debts (two-thirds of these owed over £1,000) with evidence that debts worsened during imprisonment. One in three of these prisoners reported owing money for housing; Hartfree *et al* (2010) found that managing costs associated with accommodation was a problem, even for those in employment.

Exclusion of prisoners from mainstream financial products was also a problem. A third of the prisoners surveyed for *Time is Money* did not have a bank account: 31% had never had one. Half of those interviewed said they were unsure when dealing with banks. More than half of those interviewed had been rejected for a bank loan and 8% of those surveyed had borrowed from a loan shark. The majority of former prisoners described difficulties either getting insurance or the high cost if available.

Drugs and alcohol

Stewart (2008) found that daily drinking and heavy drinking pre-imprisonment were more common among prisoners sentenced to less than 12 months (24% and 39%) than those sentenced to between 12 months and four years (13% and 31%); although only 17% wanted help for an alcohol problem. In their Health Needs Assessment in the East Midlands, Brooker *et al* (2009) found that 44% of short-sentence prisoners were at risk of alcohol abuse; five times greater than the proportion of the general population. Alcohol was rated as a significant problem for 32% of participants on the Resettlement Pathfinders (Lewis *et al*, 2003) but only 20% of the participants on the West Mercia Connect Project (Leary & Thomas, 2007).

Findings from the SPCR showed that in the year prior to custody 71% of the short-sentence prisoners had used drugs, with cannabis the most commonly reported (54%) (Stewart, 2008). Use of heroin, non-prescribed methadone or tranquilisers and crack cocaine in the year prior to custody was higher among short-sentence prisoners. Forty four percent of short-sentence

prisoners had used heroin, cocaine or crack cocaine (HCC) in the four weeks prior to custody, compared to only 35% of those serving sentences of between 12 months and four years.

This contrasts with findings from the 2001 Prison Resettlement survey which found that both prevalence and severity of pre-prison drug use did not vary significantly across sentence lengths (although prevalence of pre-prison heroin use was higher among short-sentence prisoners) (Ramsay *et al*, 2005). Forty seven percent of all prisoners exhibited acutely problematic drug use (defined here as the use of cannabis more than once a day or any other drug four times per week or more). Nevertheless, the authors expressed concern that short-sentence prisoners were most likely to anticipate having a drug problem on release (25%), but least likely to have received assistance in custody; although funding for prison drug treatment has increased fifteen fold since 1997 (Patel, 2010).

Drug use was a significant problem for 50% of the Pathfinder participants, the highest rated category other than accommodation (Lewis *et al*, 2003). Forty percent of the participants on the West Mercia Connect programme for short-sentence prisoners were also considered to have a drug problem at the time of enrolment (Leary & Thomas, 2007). Participation on both programmes was voluntary.

Only 16% of those short-sentence prisoners interviewed by Maguire *et al* (2000) said that either drug or alcohol use had been a problem on a previous release from prison; only 14% anticipated it to be a problem on their upcoming release, although the sample size for this study was much smaller. Stewart (2008) highlighted the disparity between the numbers using substances and the numbers wanting help for this issue, suggesting an unwillingness to recognise problems around drug and alcohol use.

Looking across all sentence lengths, Stewart found that HCC use in the four weeks prior to custody was higher in female prisoners (52%) than in male (40%). In both resettlement programmes considered for short-sentence prisoners (Connect and the Resettlement Pathfinders), drug use was particularly problematic among women offenders. Both Stewart (2008) and Ramsay *et al* (2005) observed distinct patterns of drug use among younger offenders with greater levels of cannabis and ecstasy use; and cocaine powder (Stewart only). A review of research into the health needs of prisoners pointed to different drug habits among Black and Minority Ethnic (BME) prisoner groups, who were more likely to be users of crack cocaine (Harris *et al*, 2006).

There is also some evidence of greater levels of risk-taking behaviour in terms of drug use. The SPCR analysis suggested that 41% of the HCC users subject to short-term sentences injected, compared to only 24% of those subject to longer term sentences (Stewart, 2008). Brooker *et al* (2009) reports higher rates of HIV and hepatitis in offenders than the general population; a higher proportion of short-sentence prisoners than offenders on probation had been diagnosed with Hepatitis B, although this study had a low response rate.

Family, relationships and social networks

Thirty four percent of short-sentence prisoners surveyed for the SPCR had been living with a partner prior to custody, 19% had been living with dependent children, 6% with adult children, 24% with parents or in-laws and 11% with other adult relations (Stewart, 2008). Additionally, 54% of the short-sentence prisoners had children under the age of 18, including step-children, when they entered custody. This raises a number of issues about those left behind; both their needs and the family-related needs of the prisoner. Although the latter is the focus of this review, research has indicated that successful resettlement is often reliant on the family's ability to provide support; helping to arrange employment and training opportunities (Niven &

Stewart, 2005) and providing post-release financial support (Hagell *et al*, 1995; Hartfree *et al*, 2010). This is not to say that the family's needs are not important in their own right.

An evaluation of 'First Night in Custody' services reported that family problems were frequently cited concerns for those arriving in prison, including concerns about arranging care for children or relatives (Jacobson *et al*, 2010). Six percent of all prisoners were living with dependent children prior to custody but not a partner (Stewart, 2008). In her report, Baroness Corston emphasised that women are less likely than men to have someone outside who can look after their home and family while they are away (Corston, 2007). A literature review undertaken by HM Inspectorate of Prisons (HMIP; Fossi, 2005) compared two studies; only a quarter of children of imprisoned mothers were being cared for by their biological or current father, while 90% of children of imprisoned fathers were being cared for by their biological or current mother. Following the imprisonment of a single parent, the child may be placed with another family member, or in some cases may be taken into local authority care (SEU, 2002).

This obstructs successful resettlement on release. The HMIP literature review describes how women cannot focus on resettlement activities until they are reunited with their children (Fossi, 2005). In one study, 10% of female prisoners interviewed did not expect to live with their children on release, despite having done so prior to imprisonment. A large scale prison survey (Niven & Stewart, 2005) found that only 57% of all prisoners who had been living with dependent children prior to imprisonment, expected to do so on release. The Social Exclusion Unit (SEU) (2002) describe the 'Catch 22' situation many women face: *"If they do not have children in their care they are unlikely to be given priority status by housing authorities. However, if they do not have secure accommodation then their children will not be placed back into their care."* (SEU, 2002, p.140).

In many cases family and relationship problems precede imprisonment, with fractious family relationships, poor childhood experiences and the perpetration and experience of domestic violence. Violence in the home is a particular problem for women offenders; Baroness Corston (2007) reports that up to half of female prisoners report having experienced violence in the home, compared with a quarter of men.

Fifteen percent of the Pathfinder participants were assessed by staff to have significant relationship problems (Lewis *et al*, 2003). A study of 129 adult male prisoners (McMurrin *et al*, 2008) used the Personal Concerns inventory (PCI-OA) to establish prisoners' current concerns; the life area 'family, partner and relationships' elicited the third greatest number of concerns. The majority of concerns focused around wanting to increase family coherence, including being a better father, and improving intimate relationships.

Baroness Corston (2007) emphasised the need for women offenders to develop 'emotional literacy' stating that *"Respect for one another, forming and maintaining healthy relationships, developing self-confidence, simply being able to get along with people without conflict must come before numeracy and literacy skills."* (p.7)

Interpersonal skills were a significant problem for 6% of those on the Pathfinders. Moreover, the picture that emerged of short-sentence prisoners suggested many faced less stable family relationships and increased social isolation than other prisoners. Stewart (2008) found that longer-term prisoners (12 months to four years) were significantly more likely to be married or living with a partner (36%) than short-sentence prisoners (30%); 19% of short-sentence prisoners were living alone. Additionally, Niven & Stewart (2005) found that fewer short-sentence prisoners received visits in prison (60%) than those serving longer sentences (80%). The authors identified pre-custody homelessness or residence in temporary accommodation as a factor in lack of visits – a more prevalent phenomenon among short-sentence prisoners.

Qualitative research conducted with 32 short-sentence prisoners, primarily recidivists, found all but one was unmarried. Many described positive aspects of imprisonment when contrasted with the problems they faced on release (Howerton *et al*, 2009). Some appeared to have a social network in prison that they lacked elsewhere.

For those short-sentence prisoners with a social network, this was not always a supportive influence; lifestyle and associates was a significant problem for 27% of Pathfinder participants (Lewis *et al*, 2003). Female prisoners have sometimes experienced exploitative relationships with coercion into offending behaviour from partners (Corston, 2007). Similarly, the National Audit Office (NAO, 2010) reports findings from the SPCR that 32% of short-sentence prisoners had another family member who had been to prison.

Emotional Wellbeing

Emotional wellbeing is related to an individual's mental health but is used here to include a broader range of problems and behaviours than solely clinical diagnoses. Many of these problems are interlinked with other areas of need previously discussed, such as family problems, social isolation and homelessness. Many prisoners with 'emotional problems' will also be suffering from clinically relevant anxiety, depression or other mental health disorders (discussed in the subsequent section).

Emotional problems were a significant problem for 20% of the Pathfinder participants (Lewis *et al*, 2003) and, despite a programme focus on practical problems, a few of the participants engaged in counselling. Prison health staff interviewed by Brooker (2009) identified a lack of counselling and other primary care services to support this group. Similarly the NAO (2010) reports that only one in 15 short-sentence prisoners receives help for mental or emotional problems.

In the cases where counselling was required by Pathfinder clients, this was to address the effects of bereavement, relationship breakdown and other emotional problems. In the interviews conducted with key stakeholders, problems related to bereavement were mentioned as an unmet need; this was not simply restricted to bereavement through death, but also other forms of separation from a loved one. In addition they highlighted significant levels of undisclosed sexual abuse in the male estate.

A report by HMIP identifies the lack of support for women in prison with regard to adoption and care proceedings. Currently, the *Inside Outside* project in the women's prisons HMP Low Newton and Styal offers such support and has reported higher than expected numbers of clients⁵. Prisoners can also be affected by separation from a child if the relationship between the child's primary carer and the prisoner has broken down.

Research into prison mental healthcare (Durcan, 2008), included an audit of case notes of young prisoners who were inpatients in the enhanced healthcare unit of a young offenders institution on three separate days. Just over half of those young prisoners had suffered a bereavement of a significant person in their lives by their mid-teens. For several, the timing of the bereavement appeared to have been associated with first or increased contact with police or the courts. Additionally, in interviews conducted with people convicted of committing 'street crime', bereavement and physical or sexual abuse were frequently cited 'critical moments' in their lives, which had led to the initiation of heroin or crack cocaine use (Allen, 2005). Allen suggested that these issues had been largely overlooked by criminological researchers.

⁵ See <http://www.afteradoption.org.uk/page.asp?section=00010001000700180003> accessed on 17th November, 2010

The NAO (2010) cites findings from the SPCR survey that 29% of short-sentence prisoners had experienced emotional, physical or sexual abuse. Singleton *et al* (1998) found that between a quarter (female sentenced) and a third (male remand) had been taken into local authority care as a child. Durcan (2008) interviewed 98 prisoners with mental health problems (predominantly male, all sentence lengths) from five West Midlands prisons:

"Most of the prisoners we spoke to reported at least some traumatic experiences. These included physical and sexual abuse in both their child and adult lives and also torture. Few had received any support in living with the impact of trauma and a number of prisoners reported feeling the effect of these experiences throughout their lives."(p.21)

Experiences of abuse are particularly common among the female prison population. Corston (2007) reports evidence that one-third of women have experienced sexual abuse compared with just under one-tenth of men. Experiences of abuse can lead to poor mental health, self-harm, problems with self-esteem and relationships; and in men particularly, concerns around masculinity and sexuality (Durcan, 2008; Nelson, 2009). There is some evidence that negative early experiences are less common amongst black and South Asian prisoners than white prisoners (Coid *et al*, 2002b).

The NAO (2010) reports that more than 1,100 short-sentence prisoners harmed themselves in custody during 2008. In the year prior to custody, 8% of the short-sentence prisoners surveyed had attempted suicide, while 6% had self-harmed (Stewart, 2008). The research suggested that self-harm and attempted suicide are more common among female prisoners, and lower among black prisoners than white prisoners (Singleton *et al*, 1998; Coid *et al*, 2002a; Stewart, 2008).

Mental health

Singleton *et al* (1998) remains the most comprehensive study of prisoners' mental health, using clinical interviews with a sample of 3,142 prisoners. Seven percent of male sentenced and 14% of female prisoners in the sample had experienced functional psychosis. Forty percent of male sentenced and 63% of female prisoners in the sample had a neurotic disorder (including anxiety or depression). The authors found that 64% of male sentenced prisoners in the sample and 50% of female prisoners suffered from a personality disorder; anti-social personality disorder was the most frequently occurring (49% male sentenced, 31% female) followed by paranoid personality disorder in male sentenced prisoners and borderline personality disorder in female prisoners (both 20%). Rates were invariably higher among remand prisoners. Lower levels of probable psychosis were observed among black prisoners than white prisoners (Coid *et al*, 2002).

The SPCR (Stewart, 2008) used a number of brief screening tools and survey-based measures to assess for likelihood of a mental illness or personality disorder. 10% of the short-sentence prisoners surveyed were likely to have a psychotic disorder. 82% reported experiencing at least one symptom of anxiety or depression, while 34% reported between 6-10 symptoms (the highest bracket). There was little difference in prevalence rates among short or longer-term prisoners (up to four years). However, considering prisoners of all sentence lengths, twice as many women as men were considered likely to have a psychotic disorder (18% v 9%), while almost half of women reported 6-10 symptoms of anxiety or depression compared to just a third of men. Additionally, 62% of the short-sentence prisoners screened positive as having a personality disorder. In this case, a slightly greater number of men screened positive.

Five percent of female sentenced prisoners and 3% of male sentenced prisoners surveyed by Singleton *et al* (1998) met all the criteria assessed for post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), although this finding has been criticised for not including the criteria of 'arousal' in the

assessment (Goff *et al*, 2007). A systematic review of the literature, which included international research studies, found evidence of PTSD that were higher than rates in the general population; between 4-10% of the prison population were identified as suffering from PTSD, with evidence that this increased to above 20% when longer time periods for experience of symptoms were included (Goff *et al*, 2007). Additionally, Durcan (2008) identified symptoms of PTSD in some of his interviewees.

Disabilities requiring social care

Stewart (2008) identified musculoskeletal (11%) and respiratory problems (9%) as the most common long-standing health complaints among short-sentence prisoners surveyed. In some cases, prisoners experience physical health problems which impact upon their ability to move around freely, wash and care for themselves and may put them at increased risk of victimisation from others. The Prison Inspectorate found evidence of under-recording disabilities, with only 5% of all prisoners recorded as disabled, in contrast to 15% who self-reported a disability. In one prison, where an officer had conducted a survey to identify hidden disabilities, identified disabilities increased nearly tenfold (HMIP, 2009). Problems with mobility, self-care and incontinence are particularly problematic for older prisoners, although the Prison Inspectorate (analysing the data available from 15 prisons) found that most male prisoners over the age of 60 were serving sentences of four years or more, with only 2% (10/552) of prisoners serving sentences of less than 12 months imprisonment (HMIP, 2004). The poor involvement of local authority adult social care departments in the assessment and support of these prisoners was repeatedly criticised by the Inspectorate. It was also mentioned by the stakeholders interviewed, who felt that prisoners were 'not even on the radar' of these departments.

Learning Disabilities and Difficulties

Information on the prevalence of learning disabilities and associated needs in the studies on short-sentence prisoners is conspicuous by its absence. Loucks (2007) found little consensus around the prevalence of learning disabilities in the criminal justice system (placing this at between 1 and 10%) and almost no literature on the levels of learning disabilities and difficulties among female offenders and Black and Minority Ethnic (BME) groups. Singleton *et al* (1998) estimated that 5% of male sentenced prisoners had a learning disability, although this and other studies suggest much higher levels of borderline learning disabilities. Rates of dyslexia within the prison population were around 30%. There was some evidence of other learning difficulties such as dyspraxia, dyscalculia, attention deficit disorder and the milder end of the autism spectrum but on the basis of this review prevalence rates for this were less certain.

A meta-analysis of multinational research suggested 0.5%-1.5% of prisoners had an intellectual disability (Fazel *et al*, 2008), at least as common as in the general population.

Thinking attitudes behaviour

The Social Exclusion Unit (SEU 2002) highlights the problem of institutionalisation and the need to instil life-skills and support on release to prisoners: "*Prisons have highly institutionalised regimes and one of the biggest problems faced by prisoners on release is that the process of depriving them of their liberty has often also deprived them of any form of positive responsibility and control over their lives*" (p.87). This does not distinguish between the needs of short and long-term prisoners. It discusses specifically how the problem of institutionalisation is intensified by lack of time out of the cells, which the NAO (2010) reports is common among short-sentence prisoners.

Twelve percent of the prisoners interviewed by Maguire *et al* (2000) described problems readjusting to life in the community on their previous release from custody, although only 6%

anticipated this as a problem on their upcoming release. In research conducted predominantly with short-term recidivist offenders, Howerton *et al* (2009) found that 42% (of 32) specifically referred to the psychological factors of readjustment with a number of prisoners referring to the lack of routine. The authors suggest that *"given that many prisoners mentioned having significant readjustment anxiety, we might also want to consider re-examining the concept of institutionalisation and its applicability to prisoners with short-term sentences."* (p.457).

Many of the interviewees displayed hopelessness and fatalism about their lives and their capacity to stop re-offending; this was linked to concerns about coping with anticipated obstacles such as homelessness and substance misuse. This echoes much earlier research on short-sentence prisoners: *"Many men related their offences to other aspects of their lives...generally current circumstances, in the shape of problems, bad friends or drink. The men seemed to feel that they had no control over their behaviour when in the grip of these circumstances and tended to regard their offences as inevitable responses to situations they found themselves in."* (Holburn, 1975, p.75)

Across all the pathfinders, attitudes were considered to be a significant problem for 30% of the short-sentence prisoners on the programme, thinking skills for 46% and motivation for 9% (Lewis *et al*, 2003). These are likely to be underestimates, since the voluntary-run pathfinders appear to have placed less emphasis on these problems, focusing instead on accommodation and drugs; motivation scores may also have been affected by the voluntary nature of participation on the Pathfinders.

Fifteen percent of participants reported that they joined the Resettlement Pathfinders specifically for support to stay out of trouble (Lewis *et al*, 2003). Of those surveyed for the SPCR (Stewart, 2008), 34% of short-sentence prisoners thought they needed help with their offending behaviour. This figure was similar to the proportion of longer-term prisoners who felt they needed this assistance. In a study asking prisoners to identify their current concerns, the 'self-changes' life area elicited the greatest number of concerns, particularly increasing self-control or making self-improvements (McMurrin *et al*, 2008). However, the NAO (2010) reports that average waiting times are longest in the Attitudes, Thinking and Behaviour pathway and Offending Behaviour Programmes are often too long for short-sentence prisoners to participate.

Interventions targeted at reducing impulsivity and anger management are likely to be particularly relevant to this group given that short-sentence prisoners are most commonly convicted of theft and handling, and violence against the person (NAO, 2010). A small proportion of short-sentence prisoners are convicted of sexual offences (1%) and in some cases interventions may be needed to address this behaviour.

Black and Minority Ethnic and Foreign National Prisoners

It is well-documented that Black and Minority Ethnic (BME) groups are over-represented within the prison system; 27% of the prison population (including foreign nations) are from BME groups, compared to just 11% in the general population. Overrepresentation is particularly stark for black groups (Ministry of Justice, 2010b). Prison inspection reports suggest that proportions of BME prisoners are considerably lower in prisons in the North East (HM Chief Inspector of Prisons, 2009a, 2009b, 2009c). For example, white British prisoners constitute 90% of those surveyed in HMP Durham. Only 18% of the sample of short-sentence prisoners surveyed for the SPCR (Stewart, 2008) was from BME groups (although foreign nationals subject to deportation were excluded from the sample). This suggests BME groups are over-represented among the longer term sentences (12 months to four years). Also, within the women's prison estate, many foreign national are imprisoned for drug smuggling which carries a long sentence (HMIP, 2006).

A Community Development Programme with BME prisoners and foreign national prisoners at HMPs High Down & Downview was reported on (Southside Partnership, 2008). This found that prior experiences of stigma, and services which demonstrate a lack of cultural sensitivity (understanding of issues affecting BME groups), decreases the willingness of these groups to engage with professionals.

Language difficulties, immigration concerns, distance from home preventing appropriate resettlement work, increasing isolation and access to public funds can be a barrier to the provision of appropriate support to foreign nationals (HMIP, 2006; Southside Partnership, 2008).

2 Screening for social care needs

Current practice

This review focuses on screening processes within the prison. Nevertheless, Lord Bradley (2009) stressed the importance of the identification of needs at an early stage in the criminal justice system and good information transfer between criminal justice agencies.

Screening processes on reception into prison are predominantly focused around identifying risk to self and others. The short-term prisoner will arrive with their Prisoner Escort Record (including a risk assessment). They receive a Cell Sharing Risk Assessment and the initial healthcare screen, usually conducted by a member of the healthcare team. This is then followed by a full healthcare assessment within a week (NOMS, 2010b).

The healthcare screening tool (Grubin *et al*, 2002) covers physical health needs, medication, previous diagnoses or treatment for mental health issues, self-harm, and drug and alcohol misuse in the four weeks prior to custody. In his review, Lord Bradley (2009) found that: *"Although the general consensus is that it the current screen is an improvement on previous ones, there is concern that it is not being properly implemented, particularly the second part, and so is still not identifying all those with mental health problems. There is also criticism that the screen does not contain a learning disability element, and HM Chief Inspector of Prisons, among others, has called for this to be amended."*(p.101)

Durcan (2008) observed that reception screening could be a challenge to resource due to a large volume of new receptions. The mental health element is described as 'minimal' and prisoners could be unwilling to discuss mental health problems and other issues: *"They described screening interviews as rushed and that sometimes the staff (including healthcare staff) did not appear interested or sympathetic. More often than not the prisoners were tired and hungry...They just wanted to return to the holding cell."*(p.28). Frequently prisoners said they did not wish to reveal any vulnerability in the prison environment. These views were echoed by those prisoners participating in our focus group.

Prison Service Order 2300 mandates that resettlement needs be assessed as part of the induction process, including maintaining or securing of accommodation and employment on release; maintaining family ties; benefits entitlements and outstanding debts; offering new receptions the Basic Skills Agency screening test; a CARAT (Counselling, Assessment, Referral, Advice, Through-care services) assessment for prisoners identified by self, staff or healthcare as having a drug misuse problem and continuity of healthcare (HM Prison Service, 2001). However, it is clear from the National Audit Office prisons survey, discussed below, that this does not happen in all prisons.

The Basic Skills screening test covers literacy and numeracy skills. Potential housing needs are identified by the Housing Needs Initial Assessment used in all local prisons, completed within four working days of arrival, Although prisons can use variations on the form (HM Prison Service, 2005; NOMS, 2009). In addition individual prisons may have developed their own screening tools for this group. In HMP Durham, new receptions receive an immediate needs screening, followed by a more detailed screening when housed on the induction wing (appendix V). Screening is then often followed by detailed assessment from specific organisations working within the prison; for example, the CARAT assessment for those with substance misuse problems which covers a range of social care needs.

In some cases short-term offenders may have an OASys (the Offender Assessment System) assessment, although currently Offender Managers are only required to conduct these for prisoners sentenced to 12 months or more (Ministry of Justice, 2009). This detailed assessment covers the range of social care needs that we have identified although its focus is only on needs that are offending-related, in order to assess likelihood of re-offending and risk of serious harm. It should also be undertaken by a trained professional and is resource intensive. However, there is a tick-box self-assessment that accompanies this.

In their report on short-sentence prisoners, the NAO (2010) found that: *"Most prisons have screening tools to gather information about incoming prisoners' immediate and longer-term needs. Assessments vary in terms of the breadth and depth of information sought and are almost always repeated when prisoners move to another prison. In addition, they are often repeated by different professionals working within prisons."* (p.19) Stakeholders highlighted that frequent repeat short-sentence prisoners were subject to the same assessments on every new sentence.

The NAO surveyed 98 prisons, achieving 91 responses; these 91 prisons hold around 90% of the short-sentence prisoner population. The results suggest that in over 80% of prisons, the vast majority (at least 90%) of short-sentence prisoners are surveyed for drug or alcohol addiction, physical health needs, mental health needs, accommodation, employment, literacy, numeracy and poor English. This does not mean that in 80% of prisons all of these needs are surveyed, but that for each need 80% of prisons survey the vast majority of short-sentence prisoners for this need. Additionally, in over two-thirds of prisons, at least 90% of short-sentence prisoners are assessed for benefits (77% of prisons), debt and other finances (67%), academic/vocational skills (79%), learning difficulties (69%) and relationships, family and children (67%). However, only 42% of prisons survey the vast majority (at least 90%) of short-sentence prisoners for needs around attitudes, thinking and behaviour, and only 30% for gambling addiction, although this did not emerge as an issue in this review.

Screening and assessment must be meaningful and followed by sentence planning. Prisoners interviewed by the NAO commonly expressed the view that assessment was not being translated into action, while Ofsted (2009) were concerned that Basic Skills Assessments were being undertaken to meet prison service targets and not to inform prisoners' learning. Additionally, the stakeholders interviewed as part of this review explained that although social care needs might be identified as part of the CARATs assessment, there was not always a systematic mechanism for support to be accessed.

Horizon scanning

NOMS has developed an electronic Basic Custody Screening Tool as part of Layered Offender Management which covers needs associated with the reoffending pathways and will follow the prisoner as he/she moves between prisons. It was due to go live in Yorkshire and Humberside in April 2010 (NAO, 2010) but as far as we are currently aware from our programme of interviews, introduction of this tool is not imminent in the North East.

The Learning Disability Screening Questionnaire developed by MacKenzie & Paxton (2006) is currently being piloted by Offender Health in three prisons, including HMP Durham. This easy-to-use tool has seven components: ability to tell the time; read; write; whether the prisoner is living independently; has a job; has had previous contact with learning disability services; has had special schooling. This tool has produced results in the 'expected range' and Offender Health has expressed the intention to extend the use of this tool (Freeman, 2009). However, Loucks (2007) highlighted the danger of identifying needs in this area without the facilities to address them.

Potential screening tools

A number of self-report screening tools could be used to better identify depression and anxiety in prison populations, with both the General Health Questionnaire-12 (GHQ-12; Goldberg & Hillier, 1979) and the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scales (HADS; Zigmond & Snaith, 1983) being used with prison populations. A recent study conducted at HMP Wandsworth suggested that (when compared with GHQ-12) HADS was effective in identifying emotional distress in male prisoners (Krespi-Boothby, 2010). Additionally, the Standard Assessment of Personality – Abbreviated Scale (SAPAS; Moran *et al*, 2003) was used by Stewart (2008) to screen prisoners for possible personality disorder. Although there is an argument for including a more detailed screen for mental health problems within the healthcare assessment, including these is outside the scope of our social care needs assessment tool.

There are also a number of brief assessment tools designed for use in the field of mental health (particularly with adults with severe and enduring mental illnesses) to assess social care needs. For example, the Camberwell Assessment of Need Short Appraisal (CANSAS; Slade *et al*, 1999) assesses 22 domains of health and social needs, including accommodation, company, money and benefits. However, to work most effectively these needs should be assessed by both the client and those who have considerable knowledge of their home situation. Even following adaptation, this is unlikely to be successful in a prison context.

The Manchester Short Assessment of Quality of Life (MANSA; Priebe *et al*, 1999) is used to assess the quality of life in patients with mental illness. It asks the client to rate their satisfaction with a number of highly relevant life areas; overall, employment, financial situation, friendships; leisure activities; accommodation; personal safety; living situation; sex life; relationship with family; health and mental health. Some of the questions might be adapted for use with this group.

Other screening tools are available to identify specific needs (e.g. the Herth Hope Index; Herth, 1992). However, detailed screening for each need individually would make the resulting process untenably long. Screening tools also require the client to engage in the process honestly, something which may not be possible given the aforementioned problems with screening in the prison environment.

3 Good practice

As part of this review into good practice at meeting the identified needs, the evaluations of a number of successful projects have been considered to determine key themes emerging across the projects. Included were projects that target short-sentence prisoners (Lewis *et al*, 2003; Maguire & Raynor, 2006; PA Consulting Group & Ipsos MORI, 2007; Accendo, 2010; LCJB, 2010), as well as those working with offenders more generally (Skodbo *et al*, 2007; Hedderman *et al*, 2008; Park & Ward, 2009; Schinkel, 2009; Together Women, 2009; Jacobson *et al*, 2010) and people with multiple support needs.

In addition, research to determine successful interventions (for the most part, defined as a reduction in re-offending) have been included (Harper & Chitty, 2005; Barefoot, 2007; Everitt & McKeown, 2007; Joliffe & Farrington, 2007; Rosengard *et al*, 2007; Allen, 2008; Hughes, 2010), as well as a number of previous studies by Revolving Doors in which offenders with multiple needs discuss what they want from a service (Braithwaite & Revolving Doors' National Service User Forum, 2009; Moore & Nicoll, 2009; Revolving Doors, 2010). Finally, reviews of provision for short-sentence prisoners within prisons in England and Wales have also been considered (Ofsted, 2009; NAO, 2010). Other research considered within this review is referenced where relevant.

A number of key themes emerged around how best to meet the social care needs of this group which are discussed in more detail below.

Making the best use of the time available

Given the limited period for which many short-sentence prisoners are in custody; much of the guidance and good practice examples demonstrate opportunities for making the optimal use of imprisonment. Early assessment of needs, attempts to engage the prisoner and sentence planning are all key; one short-sentence prisoner participating in an action research project at HMP Everthorpe emphasised that *"they've got to get you before your eyes shut"* (Moore & Nicoll, 2009, p.18).

The NAO recommended streamlining processes to allocate prisoners to education, work and other activities, while Ofsted highlighted the need for meaningful individual personal development plans for short-sentence prisoners and the provision of intensive courses in basic-skills and life-skills (Ofsted, 2009; NAO, 2010).

Addressing immediate problems and maintaining existing support

First night services, as well as providing emotional support, can provide an invaluable resource at meeting immediate practical needs; letting family members know where the prisoner is and liaising with families over more complex issues (Jacobson *et al*, 2010). They could also provide a similar function, where necessary in liaising with an employer.

This should be followed by referral to appropriate services within the prison who can meet other pressing needs; for example, research around the London Resettlement Pilot (PA Consulting Group & Ipsos MORI, 2007) highlighted that accommodation issues need to be addressed early in prison. Similarly, closing and re-starting benefits and addressing debt also require early intervention; the NAO (2010) highlight a scheme where prisoners are enabled to make regular repayments to their housing debt, but this takes 13 weeks to complete and so must be started early. Achieving any of this requires the provision of effective and adequately resourced housing, employment, education and financial advice services within the prison, which take into account the high levels of need (Ofsted, 2009; NAO, 2010).

The prison should make considerable efforts to maintain family contact, such as family days in child-friendly environments which encourage meaningful contact between parent, partner and child (Barefoot, 2007). HMP Low Newton has commissioned a family worker post.

Motivation, self-esteem, confidence and re-engagement

The research suggests that addressing immediate practical problems in isolation is likely to be insufficient for many short-sentence prisoners. Allen (2008) reviewed successful interventions to reduce re-offending with short-term recidivist prisoners. He highlights the lessons of the Resettlement Pathfinders and the 'desistance' literature (Lewis *et al*, 2003; Maguire & Raynor, 2006), emphasising the importance of addressing motivation in custody to increase capacity and willingness to make and sustain practical changes.

The 'FOR A Change Programme', developed as part of the Resettlement Pathfinders, has a clear base in motivational interviewing (Miller & Rollnick, 2002). This aimed to improve prisoners' motivation by helping them to set clear goals. Although it is not possible to separate the affects of the programme from other aspects of support given, those Pathfinders that delivered the programme in most cases achieved significantly higher levels of positive change in attitudes, beliefs and self-reported life problems, as well as higher levels of continuity of contact (Maguire & Raynor, 2006). This motivational work should not be restricted to custody; Allen concludes that "*evidence supports a three stage motivational model comprising motivational contact while in prison, action planning for release and intensive support in the community*" (p.1) This highlights the importance of 'through the gate' support (see below).

Other forms of intervention appear to have the potential to engage prisoners, provided the duration of imprisonment is sufficient to complete the programme. A comprehensive literature review of the evidence-base around arts interventions in the criminal justice system was conducted by the Unit for the Arts and Offenders, Centre for Applied Theatre Research (Hughes, 2010). This found that, despite the paucity of much of the available research, there was still evidence that arts-based interventions in custodial settings, such as drama and dance programmes, have been shown to work. They can enhance motivation, change attitudes to offending, improve thinking skills, self-esteem and self-confidence. Given the long waits for offending behaviour programmes (NAO, 2010) these may offer a way to intervene in a limited time-period.

Arts-based interventions also offer the potential to reengage offenders in learning, particularly where courses included basic skills qualifications or other forms of accreditation such as the *Getting Our Act Together* pilot, which involved drama-based approaches to improving literacy skills. Other interventions develop particular life-skills such as Safe Ground's drama-based parenting programme. Arts-based interventions can also decrease social isolation by helping prisoners learn new activities, develop new friendships and improve their ability to form relationships.

Signposting to external organisations

Where interventions to meet needs cannot be started or completed in custody, contact needs to be made with community-based organisations for release. This requires the prison and organisations working within it to have good knowledge of, and relationships with, external organisations such as local employment opportunities (Ofsted, 2009).

Good quality information about other services should also be provided to prisoners. The 'FOR A Change Programme' involved a marketplace of outside organisations that could help the short-sentence prisoners on release "*in accordance with the long-standing observation that the appointments most likely to be kept on release are those arranged before release*" (Maguire & Raynor, 2006, p.30).

This should not be restricted to meeting practical needs; community organisations that offer support around bereavement, loss to adoption, rape, domestic violence and childhood sexual abuse should be identified and prisoners helped to access these services where need has emerged. Registration with a GP is likely to be crucial if more complex counselling needs are to be met and is vital for continuity in healthcare; Lord Bradley (2009) highlights a local practice in Hull which accepts referrals from the prison and has good links with substance misuse services.

'Through the Gate' support

Continuity of care across the prison and community boundary and immediate support on release from prison, repeatedly emerged as crucial features for supporting short-sentence prisoners. The Drugs Interventions Programme (DIP) focuses on continuity of care throughout the criminal justice system by ensuring provision is linked from arrest, to imprisonment and back into the community (Skodbo *et al*, 2007).

St Giles Trust's 'Through the Gates' service aims to visit and assess clients pre-release in custody, meet them on the day of release (often at the prison gate) and offers support in subsequent weeks (Park & Ward, 2009). Similarly, in New Hall prison, a Together Women Project (TWP) worker is based full-time within the prison to address needs pre-release and increase engagement post-release (Hedderman *et al*, 2008; Together Women, 2009). However, one stakeholder highlighted that although many such services were available in the North East, short-term funding could mean that the service ends just at the point when it was operating effectively.

Brokerage and advocacy

Support services on release can play a vital role in advocating on behalf of the client and brokering access to other services. St Giles Trust's 'Through the gate' support workers offer intensive support around access to benefits and housing, achieving impressive outcomes in both areas (Park & Ward, 2009). The recruitment of a private sector procurement worker was considered an important contribution to the housing outcomes.

Again, a good knowledge of and relationship with other organisations is crucial. The evaluation of the Adults Facing Chronic Exclusion pilots described how a successful three-way relationship had to be developed between the client, the support worker and other external organisations. Successful services were able to advocate on behalf of clients without appearing critical of external organisations (Cattell *et al*, 2009).

Mentoring

Allen (2008) concludes that high levels of pre-release contact (addressing both practical and motivational issues) should be followed by post-release mentoring that offers pro-social modelling. Mentoring has shown great popularity in work with offenders and considerable promise, although some of the research studies with the most robust methodologies do not demonstrate the same reductions in re-offending as other studies (Jolliffe & Farrington, 2007).

Mentoring offers the ex-prisoner a positive role model, as well as someone to provide support and encouragement when faced with inevitable setbacks. Several projects notably St Giles Trust's 'Through the Gate' project and the Scottish, Routes Out Of Prison (ROOP) project offer a peer-led model, with both employing ex-offenders as support workers/'life coaches' (Schinkel *et al*, 2009). This aspect of the services was commonly appreciated by their clients.

High quality relationships

Throughout all the research, the key to successful interventions appeared to be a trusting, positive relationship between the client and the support worker. This was emphasised by service staff where interviewed, and was a common feature of what service users wanted and respected from a service (Braithwaite & Revolving Doors' National Service User Forum, 2009; Moore & Nicoll, 2009; Revolving Doors, 2010). Maguire & Raynor (2006) stress the importance of this in maintaining motivation, highlighting the increased responsibility that people feel towards delivering on promises made to someone with which they have an established relationship.

Holistic support

A common problem voiced by people with multiple needs is that they receive a fragmented response from services characterised by interventions targeted at isolated needs, poor inter-agency communication and signposting (Rosengard *et al*, 2007). A review of what works in corrections undertaken by the Home Office, describes an "*emerging consensus that a multi-modal approach to interventions is likely to be the most effective way of treating offenders*" (Harper & Chitty, 2005, p. xi).

The Together Women project offers an excellent example of this, offering a one-stop-shop addressing both practical and emotional needs (Together Women, 2009). This includes help with housing, employment, benefits and life skills, childcare facilities and assistance with transport; but also counselling services, mentors and a focus on empowerment.

Case management

For short-term offenders with complex needs clear case management, both in prison and in the community, was vital. Not having an active Offender Manager, it often appears that no one takes responsibility for a client's care and for co-ordinating the response of a number of agencies. The Lewes2Brighton service provides support to the most entrenched short-sentence prisoners, with long histories of substance abuse, rough sleeping and offending (Accendo, 2010). The Project Coordinator adopted the lead agency role initially, sometimes leading on multi-agency meetings and engaging extensively with a range of services and the client. Ultimately the lead agency role is handed over to an appropriate agency in the community, although in some cases following extensive post-release involvement. Similarly, the Diamond Initiative, providing support to short-sentence prisoners from high-offending boroughs, operates a case management model, with some evidence of success (LCJB, 2010).

Positive Activities

When asked how they would spend a 'personal budget' in a way that would make the most difference to them, the short-sentence prisoners interviewed at HMP Everthorpe suggested a variety of work-related activities such as driving lessons and training in trades such as plumbing (Moore & Nicoll, 2009).

Social activities are also important; in addition to the other services that it provides, the Together Women project (Together Women, 2009) offers a number of social activities, such as breakfast clubs, and an opportunity for social interaction between both 'offenders' and women who have not offended. In the focus group held as part of this review, the male prisoners stressed how they would like a similar facility, which offered them a chance to make new friendships, keep busy and provide each other with support.

Women only spaces and BME-specific services

Finally, all those interviewed for the Together Women evaluation (Hedderman, 2008) – stakeholders, staff and the women themselves – highlighted the importance of a women-only space given the histories of many of the women, which include abuse, rape, domestic violence and prostitution.

For BME prisoners, research identified the need for culturally-sensitive services (Southside Partnership, 2008) and to "*ensure that there is an appropriate range of resettlement services available to reflect the ethnic and religious composition of the prison population*" (PA Consulting Group & Ipsos MORI, 2007, p.40). Additionally, provision of information in other languages and the use of translation services is an important factor in meeting the needs of foreign national prisoners (HMIP, 2006).

4 Next Steps

Following this review, a tool to screen for the identified social care needs has been developed (appendix I). It is designed for use by all prison staff. Detailed notes on the thinking which informed its development are available in appendix II. The following areas will need to be considered as part of the next steps of the implementation process.

Risk of Duplication and Fragmentation

Short-sentence prisoners already undergo a range of screening and assessment processes, as evidenced by the review and through stakeholder interviews. Appendix IV illustrates that whilst each of these addresses a specific area of need, no single screening process addresses the full range of health and social care needs. The implementation phase will need to consider how the use of the tool can avoid duplication and also the fragmentation of screening and assessment across a range of processes.

Timing of Screening

Our review suggests that prison reception processes can be rushed and or characterised by busy stretched staff and tired, anxious arriving prisoners. The implementation phase will need to consider whether reception is the most appropriate time to screen for social care needs or whether screening should be completed once the reception and induction process has been completed and the prisoner is more settled within the prison.

Challenges and Risks of Screening for Trauma

The literature and ex-prisoners described an understandable reluctance to expose vulnerability in the prison environment and raised strong concerns about the efficacy of screening processes to identify 'vulnerabilities' in the prisoner. Ex-prisoners also identified clear risks associated with asking questions around past experiences of trauma in a screening process following which the prisoner is immediately taken to their cell. Consequently, some of the need areas identified in the review are not covered within the screening tool (although some proxy indicators are used). Both the literature and ex-prisoners expressed a preference for this information to be gathered as part of a subsequent assessment in the context of a trusting staff-client relationship. The implementation phase will need to consider how and if this important information could be safely and effectively captured within the prison context.

Pathways to Support

The literature revealed a rich range of services offering support to short-sentence prisoners and potential pathways to support (Appendix III). There is however, considerable variation in the availability of non mandated services within individual prisons. The next phase of the work will need to consider how pathways to address needs can be addressed within individual prisons including the brokering of links with a range of community services who may be able to provide appropriate support.

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APPENDIX I

Draft Screening Tool for social care needs of short-sentence prisoners

1.	Name		
2.	Prison Number		
3.	Do you have problems understanding spoken English?	Y	N
4.	Have you been in prison before?	Y	N

ACCOMMODATION NEEDS – some of this is covered within the HNIA			
5.	What type of accommodation did you have prior to coming into prison? (Please tick)	No Fixed Abode (go to 11) Staying with friends Staying with relatives Hostel Council Housing Association Privately rented Owner Occupier Other	
6.	Can you return to this accommodation on release?	Y	N
7.	If N, do you have other accommodation for your release? (Go to 11)	Y	N
8.	If Y, are you responsible for paying the rent on this accommodation?	Y	N
9.	Is rent being charged on this accommodation at present?	Y	N
10.	Do you receive housing benefit for the property?	Y	N
11.	Is the property occupied at the present? By who?	Y	N
12.	Are there any issues about the property's security?	Y	N
13.	Do your belongings need securing?	Y	N

Draft Screening Tool for social care needs of short-sentence prisoners

14.	Do you currently have rent arrears?	Y	N
15.	Is there any information that the prisoner needs to tell Housing Staff that he has not already told them? (If 'Y' then contact Housing Officer and note below.)	Y	N
Comments Accommodation Needs:			

EMPLOYMENT, ENTERPRISE, LEARNING AND SKILLS			
16.	Prior to coming into prison were you in employment? If 'N' go to question 17.	Y	N
17.	Will you be able to keep your job while in prison?	Y	N
18.	Do you need contact to be made with your employer?	Y	N
19.	Would you like advice on looking for a job?	Y	N
20.	Do you feel that you need help with reading or writing?	Y	N
21.	Would you like to undertake any learning or skills training either in prison, or in the community?	Y	N
22.	When did you last cook yourself a dinner?		
Comments Employment, Enterprise, Learning and Skills:			

Draft Screening Tool for social care needs of short-sentence prisoners

FINANCE			
23.	Do you need any help or have any problems with any of the following benefits? (Explain further in the 'Comments' section below.)	Jobseekers allowance	
		Income Support	
		Incapacity Benefit	
		Pension	
		Working Families Tax Credit	
		Child Benefit	
		Other	
24.	Do you have a bank account?	Y	N
25.	Do you have problems budgeting your money?	Y	N
26.	Were you struggling with money problems prior to prison?	Y	N
27.	Are you concerned about your money situation on release?	Y	N
28.	Is there any information that the prisoner needs to tell Benefits Staff that he has not already told them? (If 'Y' then contact the Benefits Staff and note below.)	Y	N
Comments:			

Draft Screening Tool for social care needs of short-sentence prisoners

THINKING SKILLS AND OFFENDING BEHAVIOUR				
29.	Are any of these a problem for you?	Understanding other people's feelings	Y	N
		Keeping to my plans	Y	N
		Dealing with people in authority	Y	N
		Being bored	Y	N
		Losing my temper	Y	N
		Doing things on the spur of the moment	Y	N
		Repeating the same mistakes	Y	N
		Getting violent when annoyed	Y	N
		Making good decisions	Y	N
		Mixing with bad company	Y	N

FAMILY, SOCIAL SUPPORT AND EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING			
30.	Do your family know that you are here?	Y	N
31.	If N, do you want them contacted to know that you are here?	Y	N
32.	Were you caring for any children before you came to prison?	Y	N
33.	If Y, who is looking after them now?		
34.	Is there anyone you would like a visitor's information pack to be sent to?		

Draft Screening Tool for social care needs of short-sentence prisoners

35.	Do you need help to maintain contact with your family or friends?	Y	N
36.	Is your contact with your children restricted by a Court Order?	Y	N
37.	Are any of your children in the care of social services or the council?	Y	N
38.	Do you have relationship or family problems that you would like support with?	Y	N
39.	Have the police been called to your house in the last year because of a fight?	Y	N
40.	Are you happy with your social life?	Y	N
41.	Were you in local authority care as a child?	Y	N
42.	Were you excluded from school as a child?	Y	N
43.	Did you attend a special school?	Y	N
44.	Have you ever been in the armed forces, including the army, navy, RAF or Royal Marines?	Y	N
45.	Are any of these a problem for you prior to custody or now? (Tick if yes in the main box)	Prior	Now
		Worrying about things	
		Feeling depressed	
		Feeling stressed	
		Being lonely	
Not having a partner			

APPENDIX II

Rationale for Screening Tool Questions

Broad area of need	Specific area of need	#	Questions	Source	Comments
		3	Do you have problems understanding spoken English?		
	Increased information and support re. prison	4	Have you been in prison before?		
Accommodation	Background	5	What type of accommodation did you have prior to coming into prison?	Questions adapted from the former HMP Durham First Night, Induction and Initial Assessment (now replaced with a less comprehensive tool); some supplementary questions have been added on the basis of identified need areas.	Questions related to accommodation, ETE, finance and some family questions were created on the basis of the needs identified in the review. A former screening tool used by HMP Durham (now replaced) covered many of the needs areas and consequently many questions have been taken from this, although supplementary questions have been added where appropriate. These were trialled with the former short-term prisoners.
	Expected release situation	6	Can you return to this accommodation on release?		
	Homelessness	7	If N, do you have other accommodation for your release?		
	Maintaining housing	8	If Y, are you responsible for paying the rent on this accommodation?		
	Maintaining housing	9	Is rent being charged on this accommodation at present?		
	Maintaining housing	10	Do you receive housing benefit for the property?		
	Maintaining housing / security	11	Is the property occupied at the present? By who?		
	Loss of belongings	12	Are there any issues about the property's security?		
	Loss of belongings	13	Do your belongings need securing?		
	Vulnerability to eviction / difficulties re-housing	14	Do you currently have rent arrears?		
		15	Is there any information that the prisoner needs to tell Housing Staff that he has not already told them? (If 'Y' then contact Housing Officer and note below.)		
Employment,		16	Prior to coming into	Questions	

Rationale for Screening Tool Questions

Broad area of need	Specific area of need	#	Questions	Source	Comments
Education and Training			prison were you in employment?	adapted from the former HMP Durham First Night, Induction and Initial Assessment (now replaced with a less comprehensive tool); some supplementary questions have been added on the basis of identified need areas.	
	Maintaining employment	17	Will you be able to keep your job while in prison?		
	Maintaining employment	18	Do you need contact to be made with your employer?		
	Finding employment	19	Would you like advice on looking for a job?		
	Literacy / numeracy	20	Do you feel that you need help with reading or writing?		
	Education and training	21	Would you like to undertake any learning or skills training either in prison, or in the community?		
	Life skills	22	When did you last cook yourself a dinner?		
Finance		23	Do you need any help or have any problems with any of the following benefits?	Questions adapted from the former HMP Durham First Night, Induction and Initial Assessment (now replaced with a less comprehensive tool); some supplementary questions have been added on the basis of identified need areas.	
	Benefits				
	Financial exclusion	24	Do you have a bank account?		
	Budgeting	25	Do you have problems budgeting your money?		
		26	Were you struggling with money problems prior to prison?		
	Money worries	27	Are you concerned about your money situation on release?		
	28	Is there any information that the prisoner needs to tell Benefits Staff that he has not already told them?			
Thinking Skills and Offending Behaviour		29	<p>Are any of these a problem for you? -</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Understanding other people's feelings - Keeping to my plans - Dealing with people in authority - Being bored - Losing my temper - Doing things on the spur of the moment - Repeating the same mistakes - Getting violent when annoyed - Making good 	Questions extracted from the OASys self-assessment	The self-assessment form is intended to supplement and contrast with the extensive OASys assessment that is conducted by the Offender Manager in order to add to information regarding risk of harm and re-offending. This is an unvalidated extension of its use which raises a number of concerns around: (a) offender self-insight - although there has been some evidence from the review that, at least in some cases, offenders can

Rationale for Screening Tool Questions

Broad area of need	Specific area of need	#	Questions	Source	Comments	
			decisions		recognise the need to improve their thinking skills and change their offending behaviour (Maguire <i>et al</i> , 2000; Lewis <i>et al</i> , 2003; McMurrin <i>et al</i> , 2008); (b) efficacy of a 'tick-box' style assessment - this concern was particularly expressed by the former short-sentence prisoners interviewed for the review who said that the eagerness of both the staff member and prisoner to complete the screening quickly was not conducive to accurate results. This is supported by evidence from Durcan (2008). However, this is likely to be an issue for all screening tools. Finally, although there are specific scales to screen for say, impulsiveness (Eysenck <i>et al</i> , 1985), at all times we have had to find a balance between rigorous and onerous assessment. In this context, it is not appropriate to undertake detailed screenings for every possible social care need.	
Family, Support and Emotional Well-being	Social and Well-being	30	Do your family know that you are here?	Questions adapted from the former HMP Durham First Night, Induction and Initial Assessment (now replaced with a less comprehensive tool); some supplementary questions have been added on the basis of identified need areas.		
		31	If N, do you want them contacted to know that you are here?			
		Childcare	32			Were you caring for any children before you came to prison?
		Childcare	33			If Y, who is looking after them now?
		Maintaining family contact	34			Is there anyone you would like a visitor's information pack to be sent to?
		Maintaining family contact	35			Do you need help to maintain contact with your family or friends?
		Child protection	36			Is your contact with your children restricted by a Court Order?
		Support around adoption / care proceedings / reunification	37			Are any of your children in the care of social services or the council?

Rationale for Screening Tool Questions

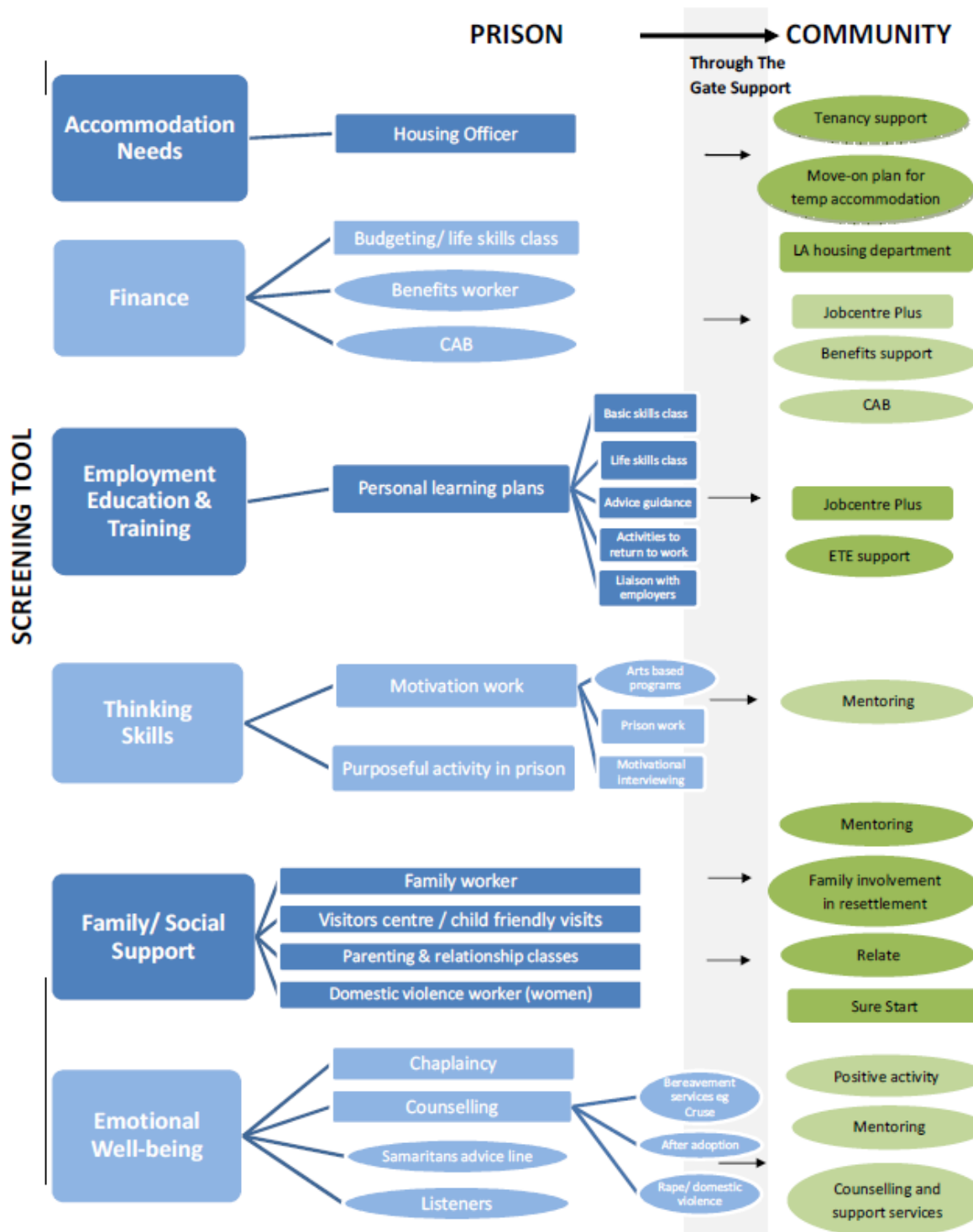
Broad area of need	Specific area of need	#	Questions	Source	Comments
	Family / rel ⁿ problems	38	Do you have relationship or family problems that you would like support with?		
	Domestic violence	39	Have the police been called to your house in the last year because of a fight?		Proxy question, see below
	Social isolation	40	Are you happy with your social life?	Question from CANSAS	Need area identified in review - relevant questions extracted from CANSAS
	Childhood difficulties	41	Were you in local authority care as a child?		Although the review identified a number of specific needs around past traumatic events, there were considerable concerns about incorporating these into a screening tool: (a) efficacy - again, Durcan (2008) and the former short-term prisoners interviewed suggest reluctance from the prisoners to expose vulnerabilities in a prison context where there is a need to appear 'tough'. It was also clear that the reception environment was particularly unsuitable for these questions; (b) risk - the short-term prisoners interviewed were clear that it was not appropriate to raise traumatic incidents from their past in a brief screening and then sending them back to their cell. It was absolutely clear that disclosures about traumatic incidents were most likely within the context of a trusting relationship. These issues should therefore be covered in a more detailed assessment at a later time, following the development of a high quality staff-client relationship. Nevertheless, we have included a number of proxy indicators that could be used to indicate that there may be needs in this area; for the most part, bereavement is not covered.
	Childhood difficulties	42	Were you excluded from school as a child?		
	Childhood difficulties	43	Did you attend a special school?		
Family, Support and Emotional Well-being (cont.)	Social and Well-being	44	Have you ever been in the armed forces, including the army, navy, RAF or Royal Marines?		
	Possible trauma				

Rationale for Screening Tool Questions

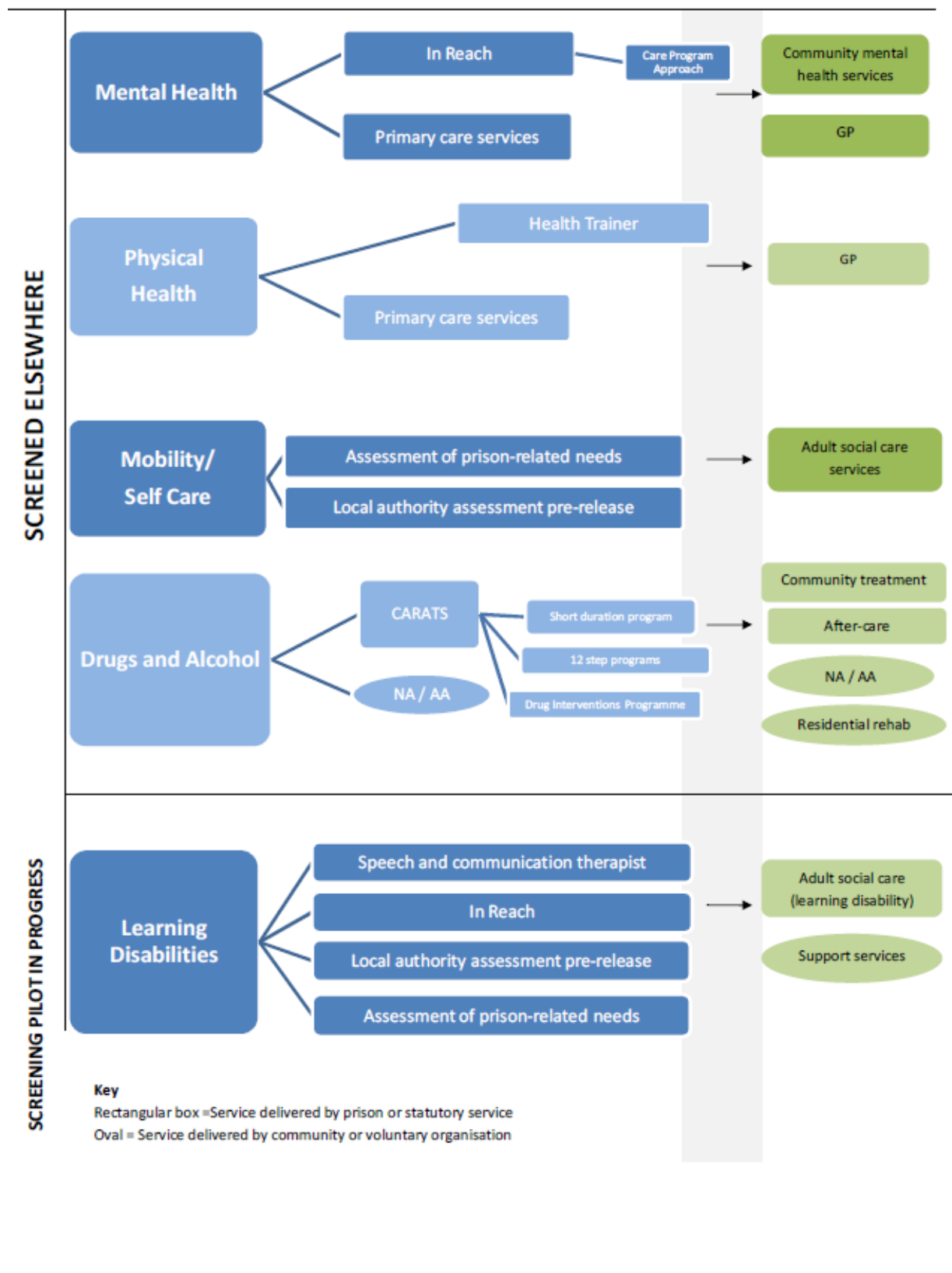
Broad area of need	Specific area of need	#	Questions	Source	Comments
	General picture of emotional well-being: Social isolation, anxiety, depression	45	<p>Are any of these a problem for you prior to custody or now?-</p> <p>Being lonely</p> <p>- Not having a partner</p> <p>- Worrying about things</p> <p>- Feeling depressed</p> <p>- Feeling stressed</p>	Questions extracted from the OASys self-assessment	A number of questions related to emotional well-being are extracted from the OASys self-assessment, to give a broader picture than is currently gleaned from the Grubin healthcare screening - although see mental health section for recommendations regarding the healthcare screening process. These questions have been adapted following the focus group with short-sentence prisoners who emphasised the distinction between emotional problems prior to imprisonment and feeling of anxiety or worry as a result of imprisonment. These may require distinct interventions.
Learning Disability			Not included		Learning Disability Screening Questionnaire currently being piloted looks promising
Mental Health			Not included other than extended self-report questions around emotional well-being		Mental health screening on reception is limited, and researchers participating in the screening process established that by asking some additional questions, a lot can be revealed (Durcan, 2008). We therefore suggest that greater consideration is given to asking about current mental health state, or the use of a specific screening tool such as HADS (Zigmond, Snaith, 1983).
Physical Health			Not included		Recommend detailed social care assessment following disclosure or observation of social care needs related to health conditions, particularly where identified as elderly or disabled in healthcare screening.
Drug and alcohol			Not included: screened in Grubin <i>et al</i> (2002) and followed by detailed CARAT assessment / DIR		

APPENDIX III

Suggested Care Pathways



Suggested Care Pathways



APPENDIX IV

Audit of Prison Screening (All prisons)

Pathway	Need	All Prisons Screening				
		Grubin 1	HNIA	Basic Skills Agency Screening Test (PSO 2300)	Grubin 2 General Health Assessment	DIR (Assessment)
Source		Grubin <i>et al</i> 2002	PSO2350	PSO2300	Grubin'02	NTA
	Prisoners covered	All	All (Local)	Voluntary	Some	Some
Accommodation	Homelessness	Notes history	Y		N	Y
	Sustaining existing home	N	Y		N	Y
	Rent Arrears	N	N		N	Y
	Securing belongings	N	Y		N	Y
ETE	No Employment	N	N	N	N	Y
	Preserve current empl.	N	N	N	N	Free text
	No qualifications	N	N	N	N	N
	Learning difficulty	N	N	?	N	N
	Low literacy	N	N	Y	N	N
	Low numeracy	N	N	Y	N	N
Finance, benefits & debt	Financial exclusion	N			N	Vague question
	Low Income	N			N	Vague question
	Benefits application	N	HB only		N	Vague question
	Debt	N			N	Vague question
	Financial management	N			N	Vague question
	Finance gap on release	N			N	Vague question
Thinking / attitudes / behaviour	Self efficacy/agency	N			N	N
	Motivation	N			N	N
	Impulsivity	N			N	N
	Anger management	N			N	N
	Other offending behaviour needs	N			N	N
Families	Childcare needs	N			N	Y
	Relationship maintenance	N			N	N
	Family problems	N			N	N
	Social Isolation	N			N	N
	Negative peers	N			N	N
	DV perpetration	N			N	N
Emotional		N			N	N

Audit of Prison Screening (All prisons)

Wellbeing	Bereavement Childhood abuse Hopelessness / fatalism Institutionalisation	N N N N			N N N N	N N N N
Health						
Mental health	Immediate risk to self Severe mental illness Other mental health problems	Y Y Y if diagnosed			N N N	Y vague vague
Physical health	Long Term conditions Health advice Social care needs e.g. Mobility Learning Disability	Y Y N N N			Y Reg. Disabled Y Y Disability/ special needs	Y Y Y Y Disability/ special needs
Substance misuse						
Drugs	Problematic use Intravenous drug use Non-problematic use Related health problems	Y Y Only methadone, benzodiazepines & amphetamines Y			N N N Offered screen	Y Y Y Y
Alcohol	Alcohol	Y			N	Y
Other	Armed forces	N			N	N
Women's pathways	Childhood victimisation Domestic violence Sexual violence Exploitative relationships Pregnancy	N N N N Y				

APPENDIX V

Audit of Prison Screening (HMP Durham) Case Study

Pathway	Need	Example - HMP Durham					First Night, Induction and Initial Assessment	Immediate needs assessment	Custody Plan Initial Assessment (no longer used)
		HMP Durham - adapted Grubin 1	HMP-adapted Grubin 2	HNIA	Basic Skills Agency Screening Test (PSO 2300)	DIR (Assessment)			
Source		Stakeholder interviews	Stakeholder interviews	PSO 2350	PSO 2300	NTA	Stakeholders	Stakeholders	Stakeholders
Accommodation	Homelessness	Notes history	N	As previously	As previously	As previously	N	Y	Y
	Sustaining existing home	N	N				N	Y	Y
	Rent Arrears	N	N				N	N	Potentially covered under debt
	Securing belongings	N	N				N	Y	Y
ETE	No Employment	N	N				N	Y	Y
	Preserve current empl.	N	N				N	Y	Y
	No qualifications	N	N				N	N	N
	Learning difficulty	Requests decl.	N				N	N	N
	Low literacy	N	N				Y	N	Requests decl
Finance, benefits & debt	Low numeracy	N	N				N	N	Requests decl
	Financial exclusion	N	N				N	N	N
	Low Income	N	N				N	N	Not specifically
	Benefits application	N	N				N	HB only	Y
	Debt	N	N				N	N	Y
	Financial management	N	N				N	N	Y
Thinking / attitudes / behaviour	Finance gap on release	N	N				N	N	N
	Self efficacy/agency	N	N				N	N	N

Audit of Prison Screening (HMP Durham) Case Study

	Motivation	N	N				N	N	N	
	Impulsivity	N	N				N	N	N	
	Anger management	N	N				N	N	Y	
	Other offending behaviour needs	N	N				N	N	N	
Families	Childcare needs	N	N				Y	Y	Y	
	Relationship maintenance	N	N				N	Info pack only	Y	
	Family problems	N	N				N	N	Offending related	
	Social Isolation	N	N				N	N	N	
	Negative peers	N	N				N	N	N	
	DV perpetration	N	N				N	N	Y	
Emotional Wellbeing	Bereavement	N	N				N	N	N	
	Childhood abuse	N	N				N	N	N	
	Hopelessness / fatalism	N	N				N	N	N	
	Institutionalisation	N	N				N	N	N	
Health	Mental health	Immediate risk to self	Y	N			Informed by Grubia	Y	Y	
		Severe mental illness	Y	N			N	N	Briefly	
		Other mental health problems	Possibly	N			Informed by Grubia	N	Briefly	
	Physical health	Long term conditions		Y	Y			N	N	Y
				Y	Reg. Disabled			Reg disabled	N	Disability ?
		Social care needs e.g. Mobility		Y	Y			N	N	Disability / reduced ability to participate?
				Request's Decl. & info on special schooling	Disability / special needs			N	N	Disability ?
		Learning Disability						N	N	
Substance misuse										

Audit of Prison Screening (HMP Durham) Case Study

Drugs	Problematic use	Y	N				N	vague	vague
	Intravenous drug use	Y	N				N	N	N
	Non-problematic use	Y	N				N	vague	vague
	Related health problems	Y	Offered screen				N	N	N
Alcohol	Alcohol	Y	N				N	vague	vague
Other									
	Armed forces	N	N				Y	N	N

APPENDIX VI

Schedule of Regional Expert Interviewees

Interviews were conducted with the following key stakeholders:

- Wendy Balmain – Deputy Regional Director, Social Care, Department of Health, Government Office North East
- Dr Brian Docherty - Medical Director, Durham Cluster of Prisons
- Rachel Tones - Healthcare Team, HMP Durham
- Tracey Smith - Mental Health Team, HMP Durham
- Elaine Hunneysett - Head of Offender Management , HMP Holme House
- Julie Dhuny - Regional Commissioner for Offender Health
- Melanie Earlam - Regional IDTS Lead, National Treatment Agency
- Paul Alderton - Prison Governor secondee, Regional team
- Steven Wells - Resettlement Manager, HMP Durham
- Bronia Banecki - Head of Resettlement, HMP Low Newton
- Professor Rob Allen – Criminologist and Associate, International Centre for Prison Studies, Kings College (conversation regarding key reading)

