Daliluna –
A Practical Manual for Capacity Building of Human Rights Trainers in Iraq

Translated Excerpt from the Arabic Version

Developed within the framework of the InWEnt Training of Trainers (ToT) Course

in cooperation with the Ministry of Human Rights of the Republic of Iraq and the

German Institute for Human Rights

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Preface InWEnt

Today, sixty years after the United Nations General Assembly adopted the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, most countries have human rights embodied in their constitutions. It has become the norm to express a commitment and make reference to human rights. However, there are often inadequate measures in place to defend those rights and there are major challenges when it comes to protecting them in countries whose state structures and institutions are still being created. In such situations, it is important not only to provide effective mechanisms to prevent and punish human rights violations but also, particularly, to make police and penal service employees aware of the need to guarantee human rights in their day-to-day work.

It was for these reasons that Germany's Federal Government was happy to comply with the Iraqi government's request for capacity building measures to promote Iraqi security professionals' knowledge and awareness of human rights issues. The German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development entrusted InWEnt – Internationale Weiterbildung und Entwicklung gGmbH with the task of delivering the "Promotion of Human Rights in the Iraqi Police Sector and Penal System" programme. InWEnt has conducted the programme in close cooperation with the Iraqi Ministry of Human Rights and with the support of the German Institute for Human Rights (DIMR) since 2005. On the training programme, Iraqi professionals and managers have deepened their knowledge of human rights and learned how to enforce them even in difficult conditions during their work. The InWEnt programme also promoted knowledge-sharing on human rights questions between the Iraqi side and German stakeholders and organisations.

At the suggestion and with the support of the Iraqi Ministry of Human Rights, the present Practical Manual for Capacity Building of Human Rights Trainers in Iraq, in Arabic, became a core component of the programme. It reflects the results of several training courses and workshops in Germany and Egypt and is tailored to the specific needs of human rights trainers working with the police and penal services in Iraq. In addition to sections concerning human rights issues, the manual also includes guidance on how to convey knowledge and to plan, implement and evaluate training courses.

Where human rights are violated, peace and social cohesion are at risk and have to be painstakingly rebuilt and strengthened step by step. Human rights education, which begins by addressing individuals' convictions and attitudes, has a central part to play in that rebuilding process. Such education is only made possible by the dedication of individual people – those who actively impart the information and those who absorb it in order to pass it on to others later.

So I should like to take this opportunity to say a special "thank you" to the Iraqi Ministry of Human Rights. My thanks also go to the Iraqi course participants from the ministries of justice, interior, defence, labour and social affairs and human rights. They invested a great deal of effort in defining the key content of the trainer manual and drawing up numerous contributions and exercises for the manual, with the authors' support.

The result, I am pleased to say, is the first hands-on manual on human rights education to be published in the Arab-speaking world.
I hope this publication will quickly win a large audience within the Iraqi institutions and beyond. I would like to wish all of its users every success in their valuable work.

Dr Sebastian Paust

Chief Executive Officer
InWEnt – Internationale Weiterbildung und Entwicklung gGmbH

Preface Iraqi Ministry of Human Rights

In spite of the existent differences between the numerous cultures, ethnic groups and religions in Iraq, all of them agree upon the universality of human rights. Each human being, irrespective of where he or she lives, has to have the benefit of the same basic rights. Although the international charters and declarations stipulate this, there is a discrepancy between reality and theory, so that intensive efforts and the sincere willpower of society are needed to realises these principals in everyday life.

Being the Minister of Human Rights, one part of my tasks is to follow up the situation of detainees and prisoners, which has given me the opportunity for major control and thus to assess the performance of Iraq regarding its human rights obligations towards those who have been sentenced to prison by virtue of state law.

It's obvious that the execution of international charters and obligations as well as national Iraqi laws are supposed to be applied first of all to the administration that needs to be convinced of these principals. It will be a very long way until we achieve satisfactory fulfilment of our obligations in human right issues.

This printout is the first national manual targeted at implementing the sanctioned international standards concerning prison reform and administration by national law. This handbook was composed through the mutual cooperation and efforts of InWent, expert trainers, and an elite group of employees working at the Ministry who have gathered profound experience in the field of controlling and inspecting prisons. They have put together their experiences in this field in order to harmonise national standards with international standards in a manual that we hope will find acceptance among international organisations and authorities in charge of prison administration. It can be deemed a step forward in implementing the standards of human rights.

The biggest challenge of the human soul is to succeed in abstaining from what is indecent.

We hope that our achievement in the field of implementing human rights is significant.

Wejdan Salem
Minister of Human Rights in Iraq

About the Human Rights Trainers Manual DALILUNA and the Translated Excerpt in English

DALILUNA - The Arabic Human Rights Trainers Manual

DALILUNA is the first Human Rights education manual in Arabic designed especially for use in practical training sessions. The handbook was developed within the multipliers programme "Promotion of Human Rights in the Iraqi Police Sector and Penal System" that was carried out from 2005-2010 by InWEnt – Capacity Building International and supported by the German Institute for Human Rights (DIMR) as an implementing partner.

Employees of the Iraqi Ministry of Human Rights and other ministries participated in this training programme in which they deepened their knowledge of Human Rights and learned how to enforce them under the difficult conditions that arise in their work.

The programme's participants encouraged and inspired the development of this manual by defining thematic priorities and contributing commentaries and exercises. In this manner a practical handbook for Human Rights trainers was generated that addresses the challenges of the Iraqi police sector and penal system, taking the cultural context into notable consideration.

DALILUNA includes contributions relating to all Human Rights topics, that are currently of special concern in Iraq, such as the prohibition of torture, capital punishment, discrimination and gender justice. Furthermore, the handbook contains instructions for knowledge transfer methodology – from the planning stage to implementation to the evaluation of training courses within the field of Human Rights. By combining these theoretical and practical aspects, the manual fills a gap in Iraq and the entire Arabic-speaking region, a gap that could not have been filled by another collection of texts or a mere theoretical approach. The exercises have proven valuable in practical training experience in Iraq. The manual is recommended to all those who are involved in the area of Human Rights – in Iraq as well as in other Arab countries.

The translated Excerpt in English

The English excerpt of DALILUNA provides comprehensive examples from DALILUNA for all those who are engaged in Human Rights promotion within and beyond the Arabic world. The excerpt offers insight into the efforts and accomplishments of the programme "Promotion of Human Rights in the Iraqi Police Sector and Penal System" achieved jointly by all Iraqi participants and InWEnt. Rather than summarizing the content, the excerpt seeks to

– give an overview of the logical structure of DALILUNA and the subjects treated
– present selected chapters from each of the three parts
– demonstrate the different methods applied and working models used.

The English excerpt was created particularly for distribution as working material for national and international organisations worldwide that are active in the field of Human Rights. We would certainly appreciate its dissemination and use. As it is a work in progress, feedback is always welcome.

Downloads

The complete version of DALILUNA in Arabic and the English excerpt can be downloaded from the following website:

http://gc21.inwent.org/ibt/en/modules/gc21/ws-FLEXhandbookirak/info/ibt/index.sxhtml

List of Icons used in this Manual

Gender Icon

Duration Icon

Number of Participants/Trainees Icon

Distribution Form Icon

CD Icon

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First Part: Training Courses:
Planning, Implementation and Evaluation

1   Programme Planning and Design

Goals	Contents
Planning	Introduction to and training on mind maps as one method of course planning.
Design	Introduction to and training on course design methods, including the goals, content, timing of units and methods applied in the course.
Programme	Introduction to and training on the creation of a course programme.

1.1   Course Planning

In course planning, one must consider the following elements:
– Subject matter: Specify the subject addressed in the course.
– Goal: Set the desired goal. The goal can be defined as the desired difference in a participant's level before and after the course.
– Contents: Specify contents that are implementable and appropriate to the subject matter and goal.
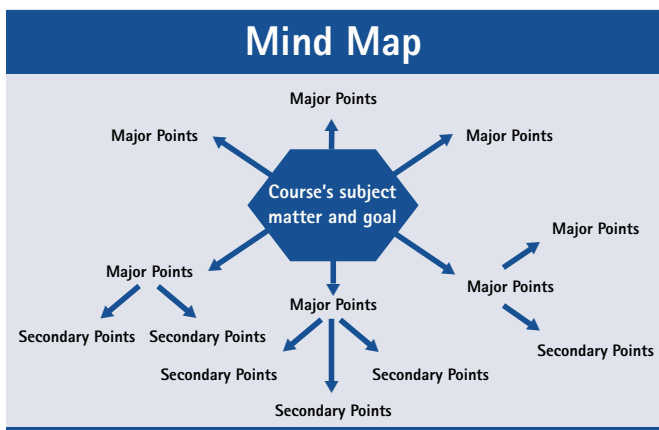
Figure 1: Mind Map (Alaa Boutros©)

A mind map can be deigned to outline the subject matter and the major points of the course as shown in the figure above. It can also have different major and secondary points in accordance with the main goal of the course.

Course Design
To design a course, we begin with dividing the course into different units, taking into account the coherence and logical sequencing of course units and components that will best serve its goals.
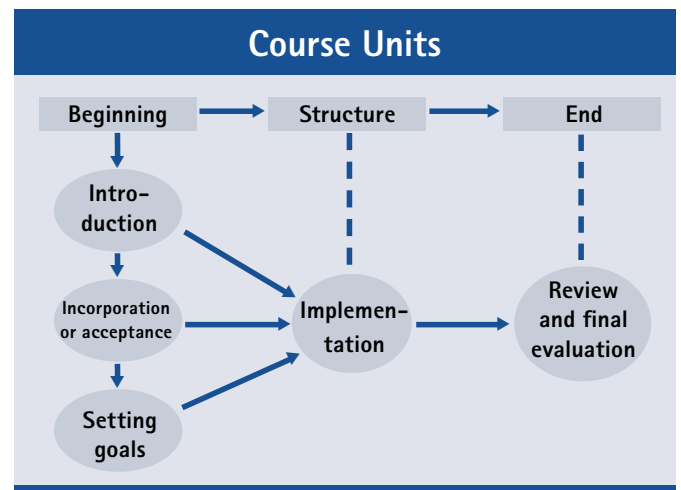
Figure 3: Alaa Boutros ©

– Divide the course into equal units.
– Set breaks between the units.
– Specify the content for each unit.
– Specify the execution method of the contents of each unit. These include activities, presentations and films.

The figure below outlines course design:

Training Course Planning Model			
Course Title			
Trainer's Name			
Unit	Goal	Content	Method
Break			
Lunch Break			
Break			

Figure 3: Alaa Boutros ©

2 Methods of Execution

Contents	Goals
Various methods	To become familiar with the various methods of execution
Factors impacting method selection	To gain the ability to choose the appropriate method for training and target groups
Pros and cons of each method	To achieve balance in course design and management

This section reviews the various major methods of course delivery. These intellectually stimulating methods are suitable for adult education and can deeply impact participants in human rights courses. This section will also outline the pros and cons of each method.
– Lectures
– Open discussion
– Brainstorming
– Working groups
– Method 5-1-4
– Individual work
– Case analysis
– Text reading and analysis
– Facilitation cards
– Cartoons and images
– Acting and role play
– Activities
– Films, videos and slideshows
– Refreshing activities

2.1 Methods

Lectures
In a lecture, the trainer discusses a certain theme or subject that he/she has previously prepared.
Pros: The trainer can provide participants with extensive information in a short period of time. This method is used to shed light on a specific subject.
Cons: Limiting participation to listening often causes parti-cipants to forget a large portion of the delivered information.

Open Discussion
Together, the trainer and the participants analyse a certain subject. The trainer's task is to keep discussion on the right track and to pose questions that help analyse the major facets of the subject at hand.

Pros: This method promotes participation and expression of opinions, helps participants shape their thoughts and ideas and enhances their persuasive and analytical abilities. Open discussion also presents and clarifies the information as well as the different aspects of and opinions about the concerned subject.
Cons: This method is time consuming. It further requires trainers to allow and encourage participants to express their opinions while simultaneously providing a balanced view between their contributions.

Brainstorming
The trainer raises a certain subject by writing a question on the flipchart and asking participants to express their comments or answers in one word or short sentence. All comments and answers are written on the flipchart and the subject is then discussed.
Pros: This method engenders a high level of participation and enhances participants' expressive abilities by allowing them to give short comments and express diverse thoughts and ideas about the concerned subject.
Cons: This method is time consuming. It further requires that participants be able and highly motivated to make contributions.

Working Groups
This method entails creating working groups and assigning each group to a specific issue. Groups must then analyse the issue, present their opinions and potential solutions to problems.
Pros: This method teaches confident collective communication and encourages individuals to propose innovative solutions.
Cons: This method is time consuming. It also relies on the motivation of the individual working groups.

Method 5-1-4
The trainer divides participants into groups and then notes on a flipchart one or several connected questions about a specific subject. Each group is assigned to one question. The trainer then asks each group to answer this question in one word or a simple sentence within a specific period of time and without discussing the question among themselves. Each group member writes his/her answer on the flipchart without discussion with the rest of the group or the other groups. Finally, the trainer hangs the flipcharts and discusses them along with the participants.
– Number 4 refers to the number of groups.
– Number 1 refers to the one idea or opinion.
– Number 5 refers to time in minutes (five minutes).
The trainer may change these numbers, i.e. the time and number of groups and ideas, as deemed suitable to the training and the desired objective.

Pros: This method allows trainers to obtain different and diverse ideas in a short time, and enables participants to express their opinions in concise and precise terms.

Cons: This method requires that trainees be sufficiently educated and able to express their thoughts concisely in writing. It also demands flipcharts and a room that can accommodate flipcharts which so they are clearly seen by all participants.

Individual Work

Each participant works independently from the rest of the group through either theoretical or practical materials – e.g.

Pros: This method ensures a high level of positive participation and information retention while simultaneously allowing all group members full participation.

Cons: This method may not encourage joint and collective work and it does not train participants in presentation, dialogue and persuasion skills.

Case Analysis

This method entails theoretical analysis of human rights issues or real cases and encourages participants to search for hypothetical solutions.

Pros: This method promotes full participation for all group members and presents a case or a hypothetical problem that mimics real life situations.

Cons: This method is time consuming and requires trainers to have preparation skills. It further requires that participants be able to read and carry out sound analysis. In other words, this method requires that trainers and participants possess advanced analytical skills.

Text Reading and Analysis

In order to analyse and successfully understand a text, readers need to follow a specific technique based on knowing the author's name and background information as well as tackling the text and interpreting its symbolism. Through training, readers gain considerable accumulative experience in understanding and evaluating texts.

Pros: This method encourages participants to think analytically, read critically and form personal opinions about written materials rather than considering all textual material as uncontested truth. This method trains participants in identifying and expressing solutions and alternatives in writing.

Cons: This method is time consuming and requires trainers to have preparation and text selection skills. It further requires that participants possess the desire and the aptitude to read and focus for long periods of time. In other words, this method requires trainers and participants to have advanced educational and cultural skills.

Facilitation Cards

Training courses are never conducted without facilitation cards, which are an important visual aid. Participants concisely write their opinions on these cards as a title or key to a certain subject. The cards are then hung and pinned to a board. This allows participants to form a general concrete picture about the subject prior to addressing it in working groups or open discussion.

Pros: This method enables the presentation of major ideas in a tangible manner. It also allows arranging or rearranging of facilitation cards on the board in such a way that serves the purpose of presentation.

Cons: This method requires several pin boards (typically movable on wheels) on which to hang facilitation cards. The training room must be large enough to accommodate a relatively large pin board. In addition, trainers must have the skill to utilise facilitation cards to explain the presented ideas.

Cartoons and Images

Cartoons and images are important and effective in training. Through a few drawn lines, cartoons can communicate ideas to participants, whereas images can touch their hearts. By using this method, trainers can show images about the subject at hand, ask participants to comment in writing on each image and then present them to the whole group. Trainers can also show a cartoon and ask participants to describe their feelings and opinions. Trainers may, as a further step, ask participants to try to design their own cartoons on the same subject.

Pros: The method ensures speedy and easy access to the hearts and minds of participants. It communicates valuable and meaningful ideas in an entertaining and attractive way.

Cons: Cartoons and images must be suitable to the subject at hand. Cartoons must also be skilfully produced, not repetitive, clear and pleasing to the eye. They must also take the participants' setting into consideration.

Acting and Role-play

Some participants play certain roles while the rest of the group observes and evaluates.

Pros: This method is a good application tool particularly with regard to different actions and reactions. It also helps participants overcome their fear of certain situations.

Cons: This method requires participants with high self esteem and trainers with advanced skills to create roles and prepare the participants before the role-play exercise. Moreover, this method is difficult to use with participants of high ranking positions.

Films, Videos and Slideshows

This method relies on visual aids such as film screenings or video presentations to communicate substance.

Pros: This method offers an attractive and non-traditional way of drawing the attention of participants and provides visual representation of the subject or the case in question.

Cons: This method requires equipment that may not be available in some cases. It also requires trainers to be well-prepared and capable of innovation.

Refreshing Activities

This method involves a game or activity that may or may not be related to the course's goal or content. These are simple activities trainers resort to when participants are feeling bored or tired. These could also be used during the training to prepare participants before addressing an intellectually intensive subject.

These activities must suit the participants' age group, health condition, professional status and gender in order to avoid any embarrassment participants may feel while participating in certain activities.

There are two types of refreshing activities:

Physical activities: Activities that require physical effort. These may be as simple as trying to walk straight with a pen balanced on one finger, or may require more physical effort like the musical chairs activity.

Mental activities: Activities that require mental effort and seek to entertain participants and refresh their minds. These are suitable for participants of all age groups and include puzzles and building certain shapes with a certain number of matches.

Pros: This method adds joy and delight to the course, lifts the morale of participants, creates intimacy between participants and reinvigorates them physically and mentally.

Trainers may want to designate simple prizes in order to spur participants to take part in these activities.

Cons: Trainers may encounter difficulties while conducting such activities; one participant may, for instance, have a health condition that does not permit him/her to take part in the activity. Participants' gender or professional status may prevent them from taking part in activities. Trainers must not force participants to take part in these activities.

Trainers must prepare all the supplies needed for such activities beforehand as part of their course preparation.

Interactive Activities

Interactive activities are activities closely related to human rights subjects through which participants deal with information on human rights issues. These activities mostly rely on three different techniques:

– **Body movement of participant**
  The individual movement of each individual as in activities: "Bingo" and "Bowling Pins".

– **Group movement in the room**
  The movement of all participants according to certain rules associated with human rights subjects as in activities: "No Equal Powers, No Equal Opportunities", "Rights or Privileges?", "Discrimination and Exclusion", "Dialogue and the Guillotine". Unlike verbal expression, the designed movement of the group during training is more expressive of social phenomena such as repression and disability. Moreover, participants live these emotions more deeply and strongly during training.

– **Guided discussions in working groups**
  Participants are divided into small working groups to discuss an issue with a direct or indirect connection to human rights as in activities: "News Bulletin of the Year Two Thousand Something", "Red or Blue", "Ideas in Pictures", "Say it All in a Proverb".
  These activities are distinguished by the fact that their connection to human rights subjects is not immediately obvious. For example, an activity such as "Say it All in a Proverb" seems as if it is irrelevant to human rights. What is important in this context is how trainers can assist working groups in discovering and understanding this connection.

Handling Interactive Activities

Interactive activities are not fixed and can be modified and tailored to suit target groups and serve the goal sought by the trainer.

For instance, the goal of activities such as "Bingo" is to introduce participants to each other and begin the discussion on human rights. However, the activity can be modified to serve another goal, such as introducing participants to each other and beginning discussion of international or regional conventions on torture prevention.

When modifying an activity such as "Bingo", the questions must remain short and open-ended because closed-ended questions (e.g. Do you or do you not agree with...? In what year...? Who is...?) do not help develop dialogue and discussion.

It is also possible to change the title of the activity or the way it is carried out. The activity may be conducted while participants are seated if they are elderly or of high ranking leadership positions. Participants may use a word other than "Bingo" or use gestures instead of words. The same applies to the other activities. The cartoons or images activity can be used to discuss women's rights, torture prevention or the rights of the child as long as the trainer selects a corresponding cartoon or image. Similarly, activities such as "Rights or Privileges?" or "A Girl's Life Story" can be used

for subjects such as the rights of the child, the rights of persons with special needs or refugee rights. Activities such as "Dialogue and the Guillotine" can be used to argue about different issues including torture prevention and gender equality.

The novice trainer is advised to conduct the activities as outlined without any modifications. After novice trainers gain proper experience, they may modify and upgrade the activities.

Factors impacting selection of the appropriate method[1]

The methods applied in training courses are diverse and the selection of one method over another hinges on different factors, including:

– Course participants.
– Course supervisor.
– Course objective.
– Course content.
– External circumstances.
– Course sponsor or organiser.
– Movement and balance.

When reviewing a method, we may want to utilise the form below to highlight the most important points and information trainers need such as the method's title, number of participants, manner of execution, required supplies as well as execution difficulties and obstacles.

Trainers must realise that flipcharts must remain present and visible throughout the training course, as their role does not end after the writing or presentation takes place. Their presence throughout the course creates a special atmosphere for the educational process and concurrently helps participants retain learned material. The boards constantly remind participants of the written points and material and help create linkages between the information delivered throughout the entire course.

Training Course Planning Model	
Method Title	
Goal	
Execution: **A. Steps** **B. Surrounding** Surrounding Circumstances Number of participants Time Venue Required supplies	
Supervisor Notes (Difficulties/side effects)	
Special instructions on method execution	

Figure 4: Alaa Boutros©

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1 According to Knoll, 2007

3 Evaluation and Follow-up

Contents	Goals
– Feedback – Johari Window – Rules, means and forms of soliciting feedback – Models of feedback questionnaires	– To recognise the significance of feedback and identify the rules, means and forms of soliciting feedback – To understand the relationship between course objectives and evaluation at different levels – To recognise the vital relationship between communication and feedback

3.1 Feedback

The term "feedback" is derived from the realm of cybernetics; it refers to the study of control and communication in living organisms and machines. Among the major concepts in cybernetics is the closed loop concept.

In the domain of communication, feedback refers to the information conveyed by others in response to a speaker's behaviours and actions. The information and signals that others convey influence the speaker.

In training courses, feedback is the mirror that reflects the course's positive and negative aspects whether in relation to the trainer, the participants or the sponsoring organisation. This helps to evaluate the course's success and subsequently to introduce changes and modifications.

Through feedback, trainers can judge the extent to which the course's units and sections resonated with the participants and identify those which should be modified or dropped. On a personal level, feedback enables trainers to discover the strengths and weaknesses in their performance and conduct as course trainers.

For participants, soliciting feedback provides an opportunity to practice positive expression and review their views, positions, and the extent to which the course influenced and benefited them.

For the organisation, evaluations, particularly written evaluations, are crucial to gauging trainers' efficiency, the course's success and the extent of participants' benefit.

Feedback can be described as support or assistance provided by the sender to the recipient who may decide whether to accept this assistance or not.

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2 Source: http://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Johari-Fenster

3.2 Feedback and Communication with Others
Johari Window

Feedback provides an opportunity to compare how we see ourselves with how others see us. Through such comparison, people can identify how their behaviour influences others and the level of the others' acceptance of and reactions to such behaviour. Therefore, feedback constitutes one crucial tool that assists trainers in judging a course's level of success and their role as trainers, enabling them to improve and modify their performance as trainers in the future or change course content or plan. One tool that assists in conducting such cmparisons is the Johari Window. The name "Johari" combines the names of Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham, the two sociologists who introduced this window model in 1955 to clarify and facilitate the comparison process.

A Johari Window shows the four personality quadrants as follows:[2]

(A) Arena: Known to self and known to others.	(B) Blind Spot: Unknown to self but known to others.
(C) Façade: Known to self only.	(D) Unknown: Unknown to self and unknown to others.

Quadrant (A) Arena

The Arena quadrant represents behaviours and abilities of which we and others are aware, i.e. the public area of personality.

Quadrant (B) Blind Spot

The Blind Spot quadrant represents behaviours or particular traits which we possess or practice and that others are aware of, but that we ourselves are unaware of. This area often covers explicit or implicit expressions stated by dress, facial expressions or tone of voice, e.g. trainers who speak very fast or pronounce words unclearly, trainers who wear excessive makeup or trainers who use facial expressions and hand gestures in a certain way. This area is very much related to our general appearance and the impression the group forms of us.

Quadrant (C) Façade

The Façade quadrant is the secret or concealed area which we know about ourselves but that we hide from others. This area includes desires and weaknesses. For instance, trainers who believe they lack competence in discussion groups attempt to

hide this perception from participants and to avoid disclosing it to them.

Quadrant (D) Unknown

The Unknown quadrant is that side of us that neither we nor others know about. It may include hidden talents and potentials. For example, one may have a musical talent but has never played any musical instrument and so this person and others are unaware of this talent.

Feedback is closely associated with quadrants (B & D). Through comparing the way we perceive ourselves and the way others perceive us, we can narrow the area unknown to us, which leads to improvements and positive change.

3.3 Soliciting Feedback in Arab Societies

Feedback in Arab Societies
Respect and Authority
Fabrication
Compliment or Disparage
Feedback
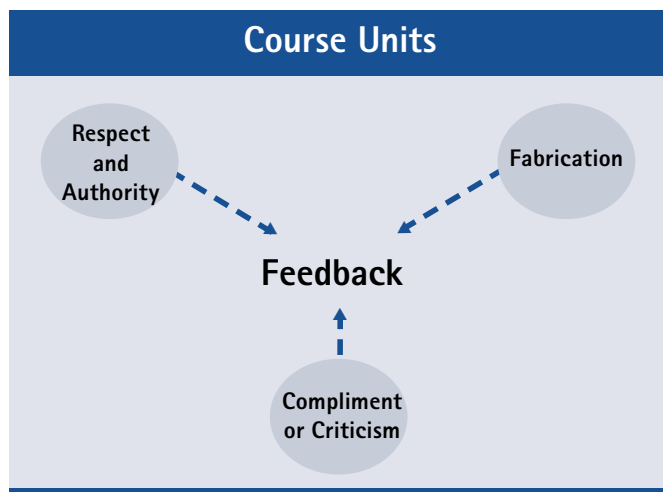
Figure 5: Alaa Boutros ©

Concept of Patriarchy

The concept of respect and authority in the context of the relation between teachers and students or trainers and trainees often takes a different character than it does in communities advocating for equal rights where the concepts and rules of soliciting feedback have evolved.

In Arab societies, the relationship between teachers and students resembles to a great extent the relationship between a father and his children, in that children would not interrupt or criticise their father. Throughout schools and levels of education, students look to their teachers as if they know everything, only state the truth and may not be debated. Occasionally, this affects feedback and its effectiveness. The fact that fathers or teachers believe in this relationship pattern and that there is no real possibility to change it because the authority and the relationship are predetermined makes the process of soliciting feedback from students or children all the more difficult.

Compliment or Disparage

Some people in Arab societies tend to make compliments every now and then especially to superiors, guests and older people. This habit casts its shadow on feedback solicited about the courses, in that trainers occasionally receive comments from participants such as "everything in the course was excellent and the only thing that was not perfect was the heat outside". The opposite side of such compliments are disparaging comments based on personal qualities which, though rare, are possible. If a participant disapproves of the trainer for reasons irrelevant to the course such as the trainer's age, social status, religion, ideology or affiliations, the participant's opinion will assume a sharp and unrealistic tone projecting numerous negative points onto that trainer and the course.

Fabrication of Baseless Positive or Negative Sides

During evaluation, participants may inadvertently fabricate positive or negative points so as to appear, for example, as if they have been entirely engrossed in the course. If most of the participants express their opinions and make comments, some participants may feel pressured to provide an opinion or to comment.

To address these difficulties, trainers should take the following into account:

– Identification of specific aspects for evaluation (e.g. content, course duration, methods employed, etc.).
– Avoiding general questions such as: What do you think of the course?
– Trainers must themselves observe feedback rules and procedures in order to provide a role model in practice.
– Explaining to and training participants on the sound rules of feedback.
– If course duration is more than one day, soliciting feedback regularly through the flashlight method is recommended in order to train participants on this process during the course. This will also ensure regular unloading and release of stress before it accumulates and affects all course elements.
– Trainers should try to read between the lines since participants sometimes only cite positive elements. For those participants, the negative sides may be those they did not cite or talk about. Trainers must therefore inquire specifically about the unstated elements and seek participants' opinions about these.

3.4 Feedback Rules

The process of soliciting feedback is often difficult and tricky, as no one desires for others to change the image he/she has of themselves. Many people find it difficult to express their views and needs to others. Therefore, it is important to set up rules for senders and recipients of feedback.

Rules for Feedback Senders (Trainees)

Feedback should:

– Not entail an analysis of the other's personality.
– Focus on specific situations and events and their impact on the speaker without accusing or judging others
– Describe the impressions of the sender as an individual, who does not speak for the whole group and uses the singular pronoun "I" rather than "We".
– Be an expression of the sender's feelings and needs rather than a punishment for the recipient.
– Not indicate the negative aspects of the course only, but also the positive ones. The sender should start by citing the positive and then the negative aspects. The sender may use a method referred to as the "Sandwich" whereby the sender cites a positive point then a negative point then a positive one.
– Focus on the performance rather than the personality of the recipient.
– Express ideas and personal feelings without personalisation. For example, instead of saying "you are not sensitive", the sender should say "this action did not consider my feelings or needs."
– Aim to deliver information rather than change the personality of the recipient.
– Focus on changeable actions. There is no use, for example, in pointing out to a person that his/her tone of voice is sharp, since the recipient cannot change that.
– Be given by the sender upon the recipient's request in order to ensure high level of feedback acceptance.
– Be given following the event in question and before the recipient or the others forget the circumstances of that event so as to ensure feedback is beneficial.
– Take into account the academic and cultural level of the recipient.
– Be concise and clear.

Rules for Feedback Recipients (Trainers)

– The sender's feedback is not necessarily true and it reflects a personal point of view. We must not believe everything we are told.
– The recipient listens to and does not interrupt the sender but asks for explanations.
– Feedback should be considered a good opportunity to improve and should not be taken as an insult or defamation. Should

trainers receive criticism irrelevant to the course but rather made inappropriately about their person, they must stop it immediately.
– Feedback is an opportunity for trainers to observe their personal feelings: Is it anger, desire for revenge or embarrassment? Through such feelings, recipients learn much about themselves and their internal reactions.
– The recipient should thank the sender upon the receipt of views and comments because the sender responded to and interacted with the recipient.

The process of soliciting feedback is not a contest that ends with winners and losers. Furthermore, the recipient should not proceed to give excuses to the sender or immediately respond to or attack him/her.
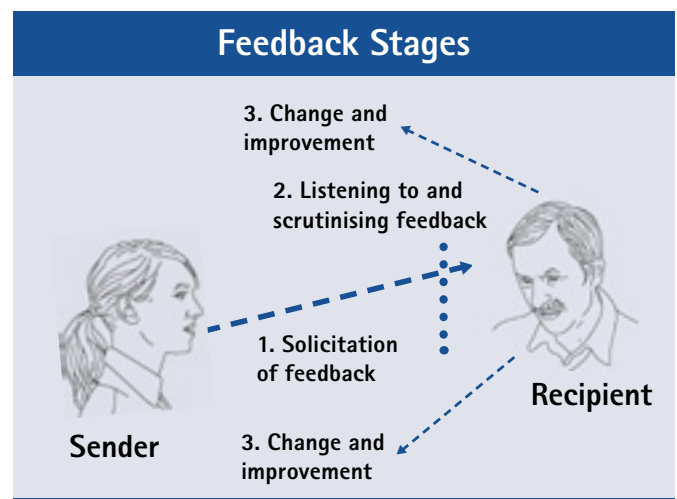
Figure 6: Alaa Boutros ©

Forms of Soliciting Feedback

There are numerous ways to solicit feedback from others. Selecting the appropriate method depends on several factors including, for example, course objective and nature, characteristics of participants and the dominant culture.

Feedback is solicited in several ways, including:

– Orally by citing the positive and negative aspects of the training course.
– By using visual aids such as writing on flipcharts.
– In writing by filling out questionnaire forms.

4 Training Analysis: Challenges and Difficulties in Training Courses

Contents	Goals
– Elements of the training course. – Challenges associated with each element. – Methods of addressing challenges facing trainers.	– To understand the training course, its various elements and the difficulties and challenges trainers face. – To become familiar with ideas and solutions that help trainers address challenges.

From the outset, trainers ought to view the difficulties and challenges they face as an opportunity rather than a problem. It is through our response to challenges and difficulties – which we often overcome – that we can improve ourselves as individuals and trainers. It is through these difficult situations that we can discover our strengths and give way to new ideas and creations while searching for proper solutions.

To meet the various challenges, trainers must possess the following four qualities: Trustworthiness, Competence, Persistence and Good Leadership.

Difficulties seldom occur when trainers prepare well for the course and possess the above mentioned qualities. However, when they do occur, trainers' knowledge of how best to act will enable them to lead difficult situations successfully and competently.

4.1 Types of Challenges and Difficulties
– Discussion becomes unproductive due to non-objective comments or condemnation of the ideas of others.
– The group of participants is very large.
– Some participants attempt to dominate the discussion or lead the training in another direction.
– The presence of participants belonging to a certain sect, group or city covered by the topic of discussion.
– Passive participants and lack of participation in activities.
– Some participants leave the room because they are affected by the subject matter being discussed.
– The topic affects a participant because of a previous personal or family member experience.
– Interruption of discussion by questions, criticism or comments unrelated to the subject at hand.
– Participants express resentment towards the topic, method, training or even the trainers them-selves.
– Passive resistance such as humming, side conversations, making noise with seats, preoccupation with a newspaper, asking off-topic questions or spewing sarcasm.

– Disputes and scuffles take place between group members.
– Participants attempt to circumvent learning by systematically objecting to the idea or topic of discussion.
– Inflexibility in dialogue and non-acceptance of or lack of respect for the opinions of others.
– Participants lack self-confidence and refrain from expressing their personal views to the trainer.
– Use of a loud voice to deliver one's opinion, which may silence others' opinions.
– Lack of freedom of expression as a result of the language of violence in the country.
– Participants are forced to attend the training course.
– Some participants digress from the roles set for them or exaggerate when role playing and acting.

4.2 Difficulties and Course Elements[3]
We can better identify and address difficulties when we identify the parties taking part in the training. These are shown in the figure below:

Training Course Elements
External Circumstances
Trainer
Assistant Trainer
Participants
Group
Subject
Course Elements
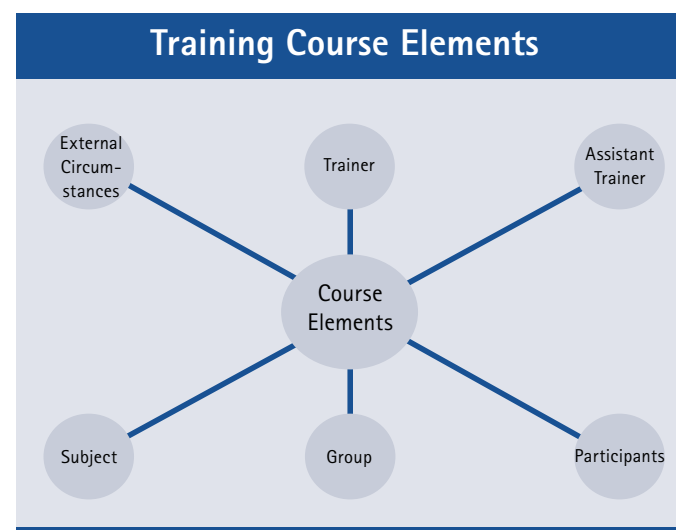
Figure 10: Alaa Boutros©

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3 According to Bönsch & Zach, 2006

Accordingly, we may face difficulties:
– With one participant.
– With the group.
– Because of disputes between group members.
– Because of all or some participants' disapproval of the course subject.
– With the associate trainer.
– With external circumstances.

Difficulties with one participant

Generally, participants have no desire to interrupt or disturb the course intentionally or in bad faith, but there may be reasons which lead them to do so. It is difficult for the trainer to recognise these reasons, which could be related to any circumstance. For example:

– Participants are resentful because their superior at work sent them to attend the training course against their will.
– Participants had a terrible experience with a previous course.
– Participants want to test the trainer's competence before they trust him/her.
– A superior of a participant is also taking part in the training and wants to prove himself/herself in front of that participant.
– Participants by virtue of their position, age or sex want to play the role they are used to playing outside the training course.
– Some men find it difficult to accept a woman leader. This manifests sometimes in training courses, particularly those designed for policemen, in the form of rejection of the woman trainer. If there are two trainers, one male and one female, the male trainer will be more accepted, whereas the female trainer will be rejected or ignored.
– The opposite might happen if the course participants are women and the trainer is a man. In this case, the male trainer will be rejected because of his gender.

To address these situations, a trainer must from the outset:

– Agree with the participants on the rules and obligations that must govern the training course.
– Immediately point out transgressions of these rules, never condoning such behaviour.
– Attempt to understand the reasons behind a participant's transgression of the rules either from the participant's comments or private conversation during the break. The trainer must also explain the desired conduct expected from the participants.
– Explain to the difficult participant politely the limits and rights he/she is entitled to as a participant rather than trying to placate him/her. Attempting to appease the difficult participant may lead him/her to continue such behaviour, which would negatively affect the entire group.

– Not interpret participants' actions as an attack directed against him/her personally. This is to ensure that trainers do not lose their calm, which may affect their efficiency and the confidence of the group.

Difficulties with the group

There are two types of challenges a trainer could face with the group:

I. The group is passive and not interacting with the training

If the group is being passive and not interacting with training, the reason could be that the group is participating in the course against its will. In this case, the appropriate action to take is as follows:

– Discuss the situation with the group and show understanding for the group's position.
– Present the topics in a smooth fashion and draw the attention of participants by diversifying the methods and aids used in the course.
– Let the group know that the information presented in the course will be personally beneficial to them, and that the course is an experience they may need later on in life.
– Create an atmosphere of excitement and activity during the course.

II. The group is not satisfied with the trainer's performance

The group could grow dissatisfied with the trainer's performance if the trainer fails to control a difficult participant who does not abide by the agreed rules or limits. This could cause the group to lose confidence in the trainer or result in the difficult participant leading all or part of the group instead of the trainer, which means that the trainer has lost control.

Other reasons may include:

– The trainer is new to training.
– The group has extensive experience.
– The group believes it is more qualified than the trainer because of its qualifications or age.

Hence, trainers must describe their capabilities and expertise from the outset and clarify that the course is an interactive experience among the participants themselves and between the participants and the trainer. This does not mean that trainers give up their leadership responsibility.

Training objectives and content being different from what the participants expected is yet another important reason for dissatisfaction among participants. This situation could take place if trainers fail to detail from the outset the course's goals, content and process, or if they do so but fail to ask the participants about their goals and expectations and how compatible these are with the course objectives and expectations. Finally, trainers

may detail the course's goals and ask participants about their goals and expectations but fail to explain that some of these goals and expectations cannot be addressed in the course. Therefore, trainers must, from the beginning, describe the course objectives and content; fully acknowledge the goals and expectations of participants and specify which points will be addressed during the course and which will not and why.

Disputes among group members

During training, it is possible that a dispute develops between two participants. For instance, if the group feels there is a participant the trainer cannot control, the group – or one member – may take it upon itself to reform this participant. When the group fails, it blames the trainer. This takes us back to the difficult participant who constantly tries to dominate or lead the course. Methods for handling such behaviour are discussed under "difficulties with one participant" above.

Before the training course begins, one participant may disagree with the rest of the group or with another participant. This disagreement could then begin to take shape during the course,[4] and could cause a split in the group.

Therefore, from the beginning of the course, trainers must:

– Not condone any violation.
– Ensure transparency and mutual respect when discussing disagreements.
– Not side with either party but show understanding to both parties.
– Establish rules to avoid disputes during the course.

Difficulties because of the subject matter of the course

Difficulties in this context arise for two reasons:

I. The subject of the course, in whole or in part, does not interest the group. In this situation, the trainer must follow the same steps used to deal with passive groups as explained earlier.
   However, if the lack of interest is only in a certain portion of the subject matter and occurs because most of the participants had already received this training in another course, the trainer must exhibit flexibility by replacing the section in question with parts and activities from the alternative materials he/she prepared ahead of the course.
II. The subject of the course touches participants on a personal level. In this case, the trainer should:
– Address the subject gradually. In courses about human rights, for instance, it is not recommended to address the issue of torture right from the start because it might touch a certain

participant personally. This participant needs time to build confidence with the rest of the group and the trainer before discussing this subject.

– Formulate a prior perception of the circumstances of participants before the course starts.
– Not force a participant to take part in any activity or discussion if the participant does not want to.
– Approach thorny issues such as torture, rape and capital punishment cautiously and sensitively.
– Use an alternative activity when he/she feels the situation is on the verge of exploding.
– Give participants short breaks.
– Not allow offensive comments or allow slandering that hurts the feelings of any participant.

Difficulties with the associate trainer

Generally, administering the training course with two trainers enhances the participants' experience and ensures successful execution, especially when the course is attended by a large number of participants. Both trainers assist each other and provide greater potential to attend to the participants' needs. Furthermore, the amount of information and expertise that two trainers offer is definitely greater than that offered by a single trainer.

Nonetheless, a dispute may arise between the two trainers as a result of their disagreement about certain issues or the course plan, or as a result of competition between them or lack of commitment on the part of either of them to time constraints or the outlined programme subjects.

Therefore, the first step towards avoiding most difficulties that are likely to occur between trainers is to jointly prepare, plan and specify duties and tasks before the course is held. The following questions may help to avoid these difficulties:

– What are the course contents, programme and methods?
– Which parts and activities will each trainer lead?
– Is the distribution of tasks and responsibilities balanced?
– What are the strengths of each trainer (e.g. dialogue management, aptitude for drawing, preparation of visual aids, etc.)? Do these strengths manifest in the distribution of tasks?
– Are there any gestures or movements agreed upon and used between both trainers to exchange opinions and information (e.g. the trainer looks at his/her watch if the time allocated for the unit is up, the trainer holds a pen in his/her hand to signal that he/she wants to talk, etc.)?
– How will we act if we disagree?
– Are there certain actions one trainer does that the other finds inappropriate (speaking for long turns, interrupting the other trainer or dominating the training, etc.)?
– How can the two trainers support each other during the course?

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4 When the dispute is serious and is likely to escalate, the trainer could seek mediation help from a specialist in dialogue management and conflict resolution in an attempt to reach a solution that all concerned parties accept.

Answering these questions will help to avoid difficulties. Nevertheless, should such difficulties continue to arise, the trainers must discuss them privately during breaks or at the end of the day.

If the trainers cannot reach a solution, an experienced neutral third party can be called to manage the dialogue, suggest solutions and help resolve the differences.

Difficulties arising from external circumstances

Trainers cannot ignore external circumstances and their impact on the functioning of the training course. It is natural, for example, that participants in a training course on human rights become preoccupied if a neighbouring country was invaded a day earlier. In this situation, the trainer must start the course by:

–   Asking participants how they feel and think about what happened. The trainer must ensure an adequate space is given to participants to express their thoughts and feelings and be wary of the discussion evolving into a dispute splitting the group.
–   Showing understanding of the participants' feelings and views.
–   Switching roles and encouraging participants to propose how to proceed with the course.

4.3 Target Groups

Members of the police and workers in adult prisons constitute a special target group considering the nature of their work and their crucial role in protecting human rights. The trainer must take into account several factors, including the nature of the group being trained and the laws governing its duties, responsibilities and rights. Training needs and course content will vary according to the target group and its specific circumstances. The following are some different factors, including nature of work and work environment as well as training needs of certain groups working in law enforcement.

Police
Nature of Work
Maintaining security and order through law enforcement and combating all forms of crime. (For more details on the police establishment.)

Work Environment
The society at large, including individuals and oversight bodies within the police establishment and oversight committees outside this institution such as parliament, civil society organisations, media, the judiciary and others.

Training Needs
–   General principles of human rights at the international and national levels.
–   Laws governing the work of the police.
–   Powers and limits of members of the police and the potential consequences of abuses of power.
–   Introduction of the bodies exercising oversight over police work and their powers.
–   Introduction of the hazards of abuse of power and its negative impact on society, both on the personal level and on the professional performance of the police.
–   Awareness of the role of the judiciary in the administration of justice.

Training Objectives
–   Empowering members of the police at various levels to perform with a high degree of professionalism based on respect for human rights and national laws.
–   Empowering members of the police to transform the police establishment into a community police force

Prison & Detention Centres Personnel
Nature of Work
Personnel in prisons and detention centres conduct surveillance and supervision of prisoners or detainees to protect them from themselves and others. They also follow up on the physical and legal conditions of inmates, and provide all necessary supplies to meet the health requirements inside detention centres. Moreover, they assist social workers with regard to probing the inmates' social and psychological well-being and design special programmes for the rehabilitation of inmates.

Work Environment
Work at detention centres takes place usually in a charged and tense atmosphere and entails dealing with:
–   Persons deprived of liberty.
–   Families of detainees during family visits.
–   Oversight bodies inside and outside the correctional establishment (such as the Ministry of Human Rights, Office of the Public Prosecutor, civil society organisations, media, etc.).
–   The judicial system.

Training Needs
–   General principles of human rights at the international and national levels.
–   Law governing the administration of Iraqi prisons; its contents and the obligations the law decrees for correctional guards.
–   Introduction to oversight bodies and mechanisms.

– Introduction to the rights and duties of correctional guards under the Prison Act No. 151 of 1969, as amended.
– Introduction to the judicial system and its role in the administration of social justice.

Training Objectives
– Educating prison personnel and raising their awareness of the principles of human rights in order to enhance the protection of detainees' rights under relevant laws and ultimately curb the incidence of abuse.
– Adopting the principle of transparency in the work of prison administrations.

Prison & Detention Centre Inspectors
Nature of Work
Prison and detention centre inspectors supervise the work of and conditions in existing government law enforcement institutions. They also play an important role in raising awareness and education in the field of human rights.

Work Environment
Prison and detention centre inspectors usually work in a hostile atmosphere that entails dealing with:
– Members of the police.
– Correctional guards.
– Social workers and health personnel.
– Other government agencies providing various other services.
– Partners in oversight and supervision, including the media and civil society organisations.
– The judiciary and its role in the administration of justice.

Training Needs
– Introduction to national and international laws and mechanisms as well as oversight techniques such as monitoring and documentation.
– Inspectors' powers and obligations as well as training on report writing.
– Legal frameworks governing the work of target groups and partners in the field of oversight and supervision.

Training Objectives
– Empowering inspectors to properly employ national and international laws in their work and to defend human rights.

Clearly, these characteristics distinguish between target groups in general terms. However, each group of trainees has its own characteristics such as age, job position, rank and educational level. For example, the training material presented to a high ranking academic figure or senior administrator must differ in terms of form, presentation, content and delivery from that offered

to other trainees, because individuals holding such high positions are most likely to possess an adequate amount of information qualifying him/her to fill that post in the first place. Nonetheless, this rule has exceptions. Selecting the appropriate method or activity is closely linked to all the factors mentioned above. The age factor, for example, would make it difficult to choose some of the methods for trainees above the age of 40. In contrast, the "List of the Ten Needs" activity makes an appropriate choice for this age group. The same reasoning applies to different professional statuses, levels of education and personality types.

4.4 A Quick Look at the Performance of Successful Trainers

Trainers must always take into account that they are human rights trainers rather than professors of law conducting academic work or political activists affiliated with a certain party or sect. In terms of professional performance, trainers must always focus on the following:
– Preparing well.
– Explaining the programme and agreeing on the importance of respecting time constraints and outlined plans.
– Constant diversification of course execution methods.
– Flexibility in course management and preparing alternative activities to be used where needed.
– Accurate selection of activities and ensuring that they suit the trainees.
– Respecting and open-mindedly accepting all views expressed during discussion.
– Using visual aids and documenting information throughout the training.
– Attending to the needs and feelings of all participants during discussion and activities.
– Ensuring that no pressure is placed on the trainees because of their participation in the course.
– Paying attention to breaks as an important course component.
– Encouraging participants to express their opinions and actively take part in the course, and providing adequate time and a reassuring atmosphere.
– Creating an atmosphere of excitement and activity.
– Not pressuring participants to embrace a certain opinion, perform a particular role or participate in training that may cause them psychological pain.
– Focusing on the action rather than on the person.
– Using sport and refreshing activities during courses to help invigorate the participants, lift their morale and avoid monotony and stress.
– Focusing the training on the psychological and human side of trainees.
– Using comprehensible language and a clear voice.

Second Part: Training on Human Rights: Selected Topics

1   Dialogue and Communication

Contents	Goals
Meaning of dialogue.	To gain the ability to analyse dialogue processes.
Uses and goals of dialogue management.	To introduce dialogue management methods.
Responsibilities of the dialogue manager and the difference between trainers and dialogue managers.	To introduce the uses and goals of dialogue management.
Dialogue management steps and visual aids.	To gain the ability to execute a dialogue management process.
Nonviolent communication.	To gain the ability to analyse and avoid violent communication.

Figure 11: Alaa Boutros ©

Human beings cannot avoid communication; even when one wants to live in seclusion, that person sends a message of his/ her desire to stay away from others. Human beings are constantly communicating through speech, facial expressions, movements and even their apparel. A clergyman, for example, tells us about his function and belief through his attire.

Communication is not limited to sending information but involves reception and understanding of information sent by others.

Effective sending of information helps others understand us well. Similarly, effective reception helps us understand others well. Effective understanding helps produce appropriate responses and reactions.

Trainers must listen to course participants and use, at the same time, clear and easy-to-understand communication tools. Good communication during the course achieves the goal, while poor communication leads to course failure even if the goal and content of the course were positive.

Dialogue and communication assume one of the following three modes:
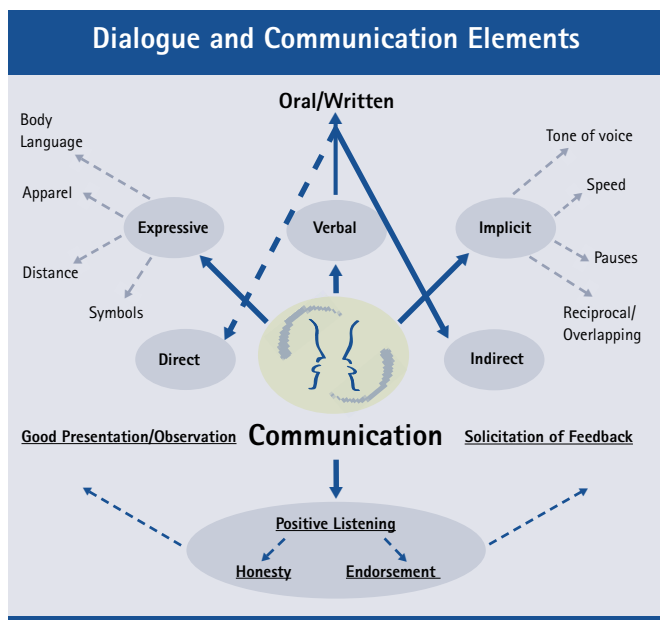
Implicit Mode	Expressive Mode (Body Language)
Voice level/speech speed/ enunciation/reciprocity/one-sidedness/interruptions..	Facial expressions/hand and eye movement/physical contact and proximity/apparel.

Verbal Mode:

The use of language and vocabulary is vital for the self expression of both individuals and groups. A given word in English may create a different impression when used in a different language. Moreover, we are able to form an image of a person, his social background, educational level and mental state through his vocabulary and linguistic abilities.

Expressive Mode:

Body expressions or language is an important tool with which the trainer can judge the functioning of the course. The trainer must pay attention to participants' movements and postures. These are signals that participants may use to indicate fatigue, a desire to move or rest, or rejection of the idea under discussion. However, it is preferable to ask the participant before judging the meaning of such signals.

Also, trainers must pay attention to the signals they themselves send to participants whether through their clothing, body language, facial expressions or sitting and standing postures.

Implicit Mode:

Through the tone of voice, we can determine relationships between people. A tone can be commanding, imploring, sarcastic, timid or friendly. The different ways in which a statement is expressed lead to different interpretations and meanings of that statement. Trainers must ensure that their tone of voice is clearly heard by all participants and is lively and friendly rather than monotonous.

1.1 The Four Sides Model

The four sides or four ears model designed by German psychologist Friedemann Schulz von Thun outlines the different messages carried in each piece of communication relayed between the sender and the receiver.

Every statement made by the sender contains four messages. The significance of the statement depends on one of these messages. The receiver, on the other hand, has four ears; therefore, the receiver may assign to that statement a different significance other than that intended by the sender; a case that often leads to disagreement or misunderstanding.
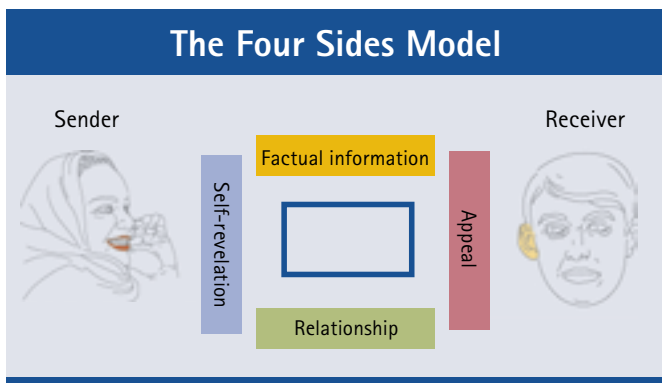
Figure 12: Alaa Boutros ©, according to Schulz von Thun (Schulz von Thun, 1981)

2 Discrimination

Contents	Goals
Stereotyping and generalisation.	To understand the social and individual elements that are catalysts for discrimination.
Definition of discrimination.	To gain an accurate understanding of discrimination from a human rights perspective.
Types and forms of discrimination.	

2.1 Stereotyping and Generalisation
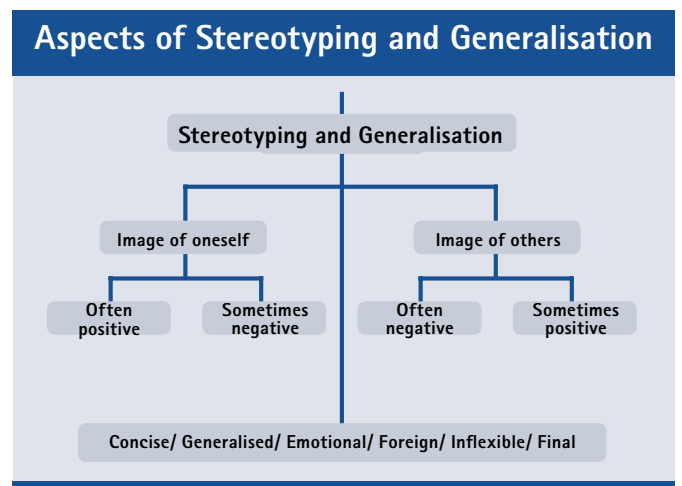
Figure 15: Alaa Boutros ©

Stereotyping is the product of a concise, simplified, generalised and final mental image of an individual or group, which becomes a model that is generalised and used to judge and accordingly deal with people or groups.

Examples of Stereotyping

Arabs are generous; women are emotionally fickle; pretty women are stupid; Muslims are terrorists; Egyptians are funny; European women are blond; Jews have long pointed noses.

Characteristics of Stereotyping

Stereotyping is a simplified and superficial image that an individual has of others. A stereotype is also exaggerated, generalised and indivisible.

Stereotyping often involves a positive image of the group to which the stereotyping individual belongs, and a negative image of other groups.

Mental images are activated by means of a word or a picture. It is sufficient, for instance, to mention the word Christian or Muslim to conjure up the stereotyped mental image of either group complete with the characteristics assigned to each.

Stereotyping is a result of poor education and lack of openness to others. It is often orally expressed in a manner that does not allow for discussion or by means of proverbs and popular sayings.

Functions of Stereotyping

Stereotyping helps reduce disputes and disagreements among members of the same group thanks to their unanimous opinion. Stereotyping is a system used to identify members of different groups. It holds that members of a given group must believe in and defend its stereotyped images as a way to prove that they belong to that group.

Dealing with Stereotyping

- One must be cautious when dealing with those who practice stereotyping because they view their personal thoughts as part of their identity rather than knowledge.
- Those who practice stereotyping are often inflexible and stubborn and tend to impose their thoughts. It is difficult to directly influence their opinions regardless of available evidence because their stereotyped opinions are based on emotions rather than personal experience.
- Those who practice stereotyping lack the essential sensibility to distinguish between their personal opinion and the opinion of the group to which they belong.

Trainers can best deal with those who practice stereotyping by giving them a chance to speak, listening positively and then analysing the pros and cons of their opinion as well as conflicting opinions. This encourages change. However, change does not occur overnight.

Origins of Stereotyping

People acquire stereotypes from family during their upbringing, from implicit and explicit messages conveyed by the media and from school and the surrounding society. Stereotypes are not a product of personal experiences. People who practice stereotyping are often searching for sources and models that confirm and support their stereotypes.

Stereotyping could be a step towards discrimination. People who lack confidence and a good sense of their own self-worth look down on those who belong to other classes or groups in order to compensate for this feeling. It is because of this superiority that stereotyping may evolve from sheer ideology into discrimination practiced against others.

2.2 Discrimination

Discrimination in law means unjust and inequitable treatment with no objective reason. Examples include preventing daughters from attending schools while encouraging male children to do so, and legally denying women or minorities the right to vote, to run for office or to become a judge or state president.

Discrimination is banned by all human rights conventions on the basis of the fundamental fact that all human beings are equal in dignity and therefore all forms of discrimination amongst them are prohibited. Article 2 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights states the following:

"Each State Party to the present Covenant undertakes to respect and to ensure to all individuals within its territory and subject to its jurisdiction the rights recognised in the present Covenant, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status."

Types of Discrimination
Racial discrimination

Racism differentiates between peoples on grounds of their race and colour. This differentiation results in the provision or denial of rights and privileges. Ancient civilisations knew racism. One example of racism in history is Al-Shu'ubiyya during the Abbasid Caliphate.

Article 1 of the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (1965) states:

"In this Convention, the term "racial discrimination" shall mean any distinction, exclusion, restriction or preference based on race, colour, descent, or national or ethnic origin which has the purpose or effect of nullifying or impairing the recognition, enjoyment or exercise, on an equal footing, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural or any other field of public life."

Racial discrimination is often practiced against minorities and societies' most vulnerable groups.

Throughout history, racism has been one of the gravest perils facing humanity. Countless wars were waged and men and minorities were massacred or oppressed because of racism. Thousands of massacres took place in Germany, Iraq, India, Bosnia and Sudan in recent times. Racial discrimination is often mixed with other types of discrimination, such as religious discrimination. It is difficult to eliminate such mixing because some individuals and groups base their discrimination on opportunistic concepts or concepts founded on religious interests, which allows them to practice such discrimination as if it were a religious order.

Discrimination based on national origin and citizenship

Many immigrants or descendants of different origins are racially discriminated against in host countries by society members and institutions alike. This phenomenon can be found in many societies, and all societies are suspected of practicing racial discrimination.

Gender discrimination

In some, not to say most, societies, gender discrimination is practiced at work, in employment and with respect to political and personal rights, which leads to violence against women.
The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) (1979) clearly sets the procedures that states must take to diminish or eliminate discrimination against women. States parties to the Convention including most state members in the Arab League committed themselves to taking reform steps appropriate in the context of their respective societies.

Religious and sectarian discrimination

Sectarian discrimination based on religious belief and discrimination between Muslims, Christians and Jews is prevalent in many societies. In addition, discrimination is practiced among followers of the same religion based on their sects including, for example, discrimination between Christian Protestants and Catholics in Ireland. The Thirty Year's War in Europe stands out as historical evidence. Discrimination also exists among Muslim followers of the Shiite and Sunni sects in certain societies, and among Jewish denominations.

For example, prisoners belonging to a certain religious sect may be subjected to sectarian discrimination by being obliged to undertake tasks viewed as menial or extremely exhausting by other prisoners. They may also be discriminated against by being grouped together in a very small space incommensurate with their number in contrast to other prisoners.

Discrimination based on political or partisan affiliation

Some societies discriminate between people based on their political and partisan affiliation. Such discrimination entails that members of a particular party or political movement receive privileges that are not available to members of opposing parties and political movements.

Discrimination against persons with disabilities

Discrimination may be practiced against people with physical or mental disabilities. Many societies are indifferent to this group of people who cannot lead a normal daily life. Therefore, people with special needs may be discriminated against in employment even if they are fully capable of undertaking such employment exactly like other people. Moreover, they are sometimes subjected to verbal humiliation and inappropriate treatment.

The new Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) reaffirms that all human rights also apply to people with disabilities.

Age discrimination

In some societies, young people find less job opportunities because employers favour older people who are supposedly more stable and experienced and express fewer objections to work conditions. The elderly also find less job opportunities. For example, 41 % of the unemployed in Germany are aged 50 and over.

Tribal discrimination

This type of discrimination entails that members of a particular tribe or clan receive social and political privileges at the expense of other tribes or clans.

Class discrimination

The poor face discrimination in society whether in the context of the treatment they receive or the opportunities available to them to obtain education, participate in activities or do certain jobs. This situation regenerates poverty for the next generations. The poor are even often discriminated against by the police who might not act seriously to protect or redress them when their rights are violated. Police officers might themselves discriminate and perpetrate violence against the poor.

Street children are another group subjected to class discrimination. They regularly face violence and rejection with no one to take care of them because they come from destitute families. The killings of street children by police in Brazil are an example of this discrimination.

Linguistic discrimination

Language is the container for individual and collective thinking. The use of adjectives or words that offend others, whether intentionally or unintentionally, reinforces and promotes discriminatory practices.

Examples of such offensive use of language include calling people of African origin Negroes and people with special needs invalid or retarded. In Egypt, for example, a person may be described as a trash collector to belittle that person because of his behaviour.

Therefore, careful use of language is crucial to avoiding linguistic discrimination.

Forms of Discrimination

Discrimination assumes the following forms:

Intentional and unintentional discrimination

Discrimination practiced by individuals or institutions against an individual or a group may or may not be intentional. Examples of unintentional discrimination include one's use of an offensive

word without harbouring hatred or racism, such as the use of the word "crippled" to describe people with special needs, and the use of the word "Negro" to refer to a person of African origin without the intent to offend.

It is worth noting that offensiveness in the use of the word "crippled" lies in the fact that this word renders the condition an inherent quality of the person it describes and part of his/her identity. Therefore, it is preferable to say "person with a disability", in which the disability becomes only an attribute of the condition suffered by that person rather than part of that person himself.

Direct and indirect discrimination

Discrimination and racist behaviour is direct when one is insulted or ill treated because of their colour, profession or religion, when a restaurant or a store refuses to let in certain nationalities or sects, or when a job advertisement requests that only men apply when women can fill the same position and do the job as effectively as men. Indirect discrimination occurs when circumstances appear normal while they actually involve discrimination, such as when polling stations lack access for people with disabilities to enable them to cast their votes, or when a school, university or public department lack restrooms for women.

These cases involve indirect discrimination because they deny the groups mentioned their political, social or human rights.

Individual and Institutional Discrimination

Individual Discrimination	Institutional Discrimination
Racist slogans	In legislation
Physical attack	Employment
Avoidance	Media and the press
Antilocution	Education
Neglect	Health and medical treatment
	Police
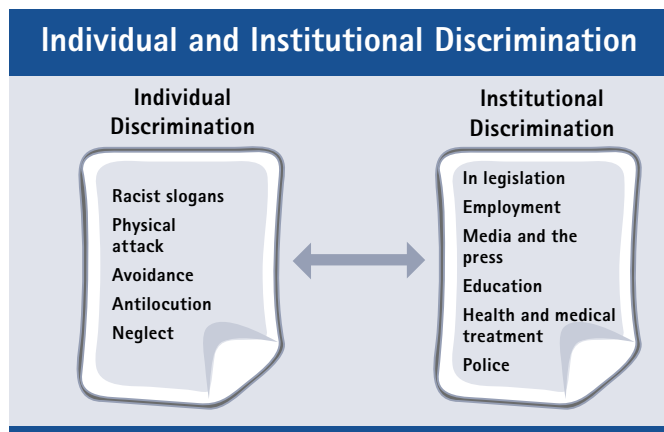
Figure 16: Alaa Boutros ©

Besides the discrimination individuals may practice against those of different affiliations or from the opposite sex, one may be discriminated against by institutions or government agencies through certain rules and laws. Examples include denying women the right to vote or assume certain positions such as that of a judge or university professor.

Compound Discrimination

An individual may be subjected to several forms of discrimination simultaneously. Bosnian and Rwandan women were subjected

to physical violence and rape because they were women and because of their racial origin and religion. This multiplied form of discrimination is termed "compound discrimination." In order to combat all types of discrimination, trainers must not only present the legal provisions on human rights but must also explain how discrimination takes place and its mechanisms. ⚦

Allport's Scale of Prejudice and Discrimination
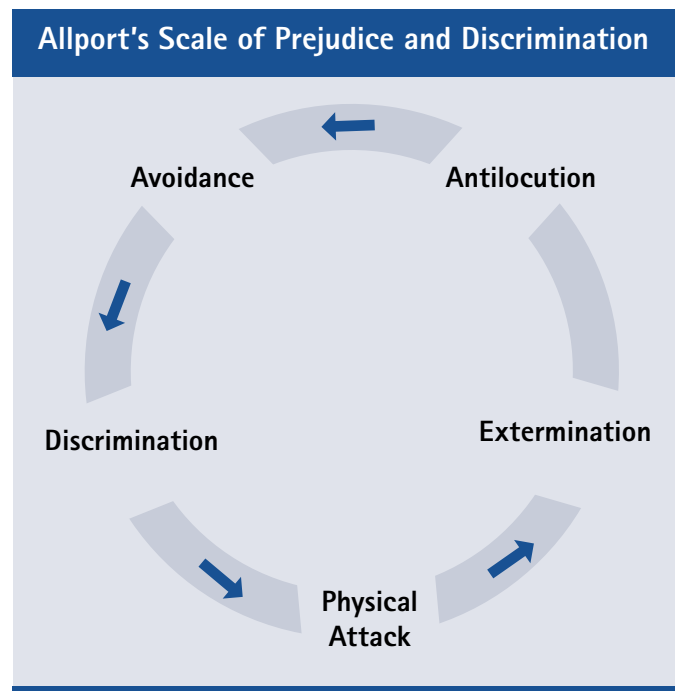
Figure 17: Alaa Boutros ©, according to Allport (Allport, 1954)

Allport's Scale of Prejudice and Discrimination

Allport's Scale of Prejudice and Discrimination is a scale developed by psychologist Gordon Willard Allport to demonstrate the escalation of prejudice and discriminatory practices:

Antilocution: a negative description of certain groups or individuals; it might be implied or even expressed in the presence of those groups or individuals.

Avoidance: individuals belonging to a particular religion, profession or sex are avoided even if that entails a personal loss for the avoider. For example, a Muslim person walks a long way to buy a commodity from a Muslim shopkeeper instead of buying the same item from the Christian shopkeeper next door, and vice versa.

Discrimination: discrimination is the wish to exclude from society individuals belonging to one group on religious, professional, tribal or political grounds by driving or forcing this group to live isolated from the rest of the society or in places, neighbourhoods or cities specifically designated for them.

Physical attack: as racist sentiments rise, individuals start to physically attack other groups. For example, neo-Nazis attack or kill a foreigner for no reason but his different skin colour.

Extermination: racism culminates in the extermination of a particular sect or race. Examples include the extermination that took place under Adolf Hitler's Nazi rule as well as the atrocities in Bosnia, Rwanda and Darfur.

Reasons for Discrimination

Various factors lead to discrimination, which is often practiced against the weakest segments in the society. Such factors include:

– A negative personal experience with a member of a particular sect generalised to all members of that sect.
– Long-ignored historical disputes and conflicts among sects may be used in the media to attain political aims, which would exacerbate conflicts.
– Struggles over power, political conflicts or economic problems.
– Media and education as a fundamental factor in shaping one's opinion and images about others.

Countering Discrimination

– Repealing laws and procedures that uphold discrimination whether verbal or otherwise, direct or indirect.
– Raising society's awareness about the perils of discrimination and racism.
– Encouraging anti-racism activists and civil society organisations to promote the culture of human rights and respect of others.
– Qualifying trainers specialising in anti-racism and human rights, and holding courses and training sessions for individuals.
– Encouraging corporations and companies to hire individuals and groups vulnerable to discrimination.
– Designating jobs for people with special needs and considering their needs when designing buildings, streets and sidewalks.
– Documenting instances and cases of discrimination and opening offices to receive complaints.
– Devising and coordinating a comprehensive plan to fight discrimination.

Positive Discrimination

Discrimination is generally negative. However, another type of discrimination called "positive discrimination" constitutes an attempt to overcome negative discrimination by establishing rules that help eliminate it. For instance, a company may decide to employ an equal number of men and women, or allocate a certain number of positions for persons with special needs.

Banning the sale of alcohol and cigarettes to those under the age of 18 is not discrimination because it guarantees their protection. Therefore, measures and special procedures taken to protect a group or an individual from abuse or discrimination based on their colour, race or religion do not constitute discrimination as long as they do not give these groups privileges or preferences over the rest of the society.

5 Prevention of Torture and Cruel Treatment

Contents	Goals
– Prevention of torture in international law and Iraqi legislation. – Effects of torture on vic-tims and others. – Reasons for torture.	– To identify the reasons for the absolute prohibition of torture and the sources of this prohibition. – To understand the effects of torture, how to prove its occurrence and address its consequences. – To understanding the social causes that encourage the practice of torture.

In order to prevent and combat torture, one must be familiar with the relevant laws and legal and procedural obligations and take into account the social factors that promote cruel treatment. Therefore, training in torture prevention aims to create a conviction that all forms of torture and cruel treatment are absolutely unacceptable, inhumane and are detrimental to the victim, the society as a whole and even the perpetrator of torture. This subject must be approached carefully since torture has a strong presence in Iraq. Many Iraqis have either suffered from torture directly or have relatives or friends who have gone through this experience. Hence, the trainer must observe the participants to assess their needs and ability to discuss the subject in-depth.

5.1 Prevention of Torture in International Law

The Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (CAT), adopted by a resolution of the UN General Assembly in 1984, is the most important document issued in this regard. The Convention defines torture as "any act by which severe pain or suffering, whether physical or mental, is intentionally inflicted on a person for such purposes as obtaining from him or a third person information or a confession, punishing him for an act he or a third person has committed or is suspected of having committed, or intimidating or coercing him or a third person, or for any

reason based on discrimination of any kind, when such pain or suffering is inflicted by or at the instigation of or with the consent or acquiescence of a public official or other person acting in an official capacity. It does not include pain or suffering arising only from, inherent in or incidental to lawful sanctions"[5] (Article 1). The Convention imposes several legal obligations on states parties:

– To take effective legislative, administrative, judicial or other measures to prevent acts of torture. No exceptional circumstances whatsoever may be invoked as a justification of torture (Article 2).
– Not to expel, return or extradite a person to another state where there are substantial grounds for believing that he/she would be in danger of being subjected to torture (Article 4).
– To ensure that all acts of torture are offences under their national criminal laws and to render these offences punishable by appropriate penalties which take their grave nature into account. The same shall apply to an attempt to commit torture and to an act by any person which constitutes complicity or participation in torture (Article 4).
– The offence of torture shall be deemed an extraditable offence. States parties shall afford one another judicial and investigative assistance (Articles 8 – 9).
– To limit the use of solitary confinement, to use only the areas officially designated to receive detainees for detention, to keep records of the location and time of detention and interrogation as well as the names of those present and the names of detention centre administrators and to ensure that the detainee has access to lawyers, doctors, relatives and friends (Article 11).
– To ensure that education and information regarding the prohibition against torture are fully included in the training of law enforcement personnel, civil or military, medical personnel, public officials and other persons who may be involved (Article 10).
– To ensure that any statement which is established to have been made as a result of torture shall not be invoked as evidence in any proceedings, except against a person accused of torture as evidence that the statement was made (Article 15).
– To ensure that their competent authorities proceed to a prompt and impartial investigation, wherever there is reasonable ground to believe that an act of torture has been committed in any territory under their jurisdiction (Article 12).
– To ensure in their legal systems that the victim of an act of torture obtains redress and has an enforceable right to fair and adequate compensation (Articles 13-14).
– To ensure the initiation of criminal proceedings against persons accused of committing any act of torture and to apply

appropriate penalties in accordance with the law if the charge is duly proven (Article 7).

Under the Convention, a position for a special rapporteur as well as a treaty committee were established. The Committee is tasked with monitoring states parties' implementation of the Convention by examining the initial reports that states parties submit during the first year of accession as well as the periodic reports they submit every four years. The Committee studies each report in the presence of the representative of the respective state party and forwards its comments and inquiries to that state. The Committee may include these comments in its annual report to the General Assembly of the United Nations. The Committee also examines documented information including, for example, civil society reports. If well-founded indications prove that torture is systematically, regularly and widely practiced in the territory of a state party, the Committee may designate a team of one or more of its members to investigate this information. In agreement with the state party concerned, the team may visit its territory to meet with the victims, their families, witnesses, responsible government bodies and judicial and investigative authorities. The team then submits its findings to the Committee which, in turn, transmits these findings to the concerned state party requesting responses to its queries, ques-tions, observations and comments. After consultations with the concerned state party, the Committee may include in its annual report a summary account of its procedures (Article 20). The Special Rapporteur's visits to the states parties concerned are conducted in a similar fashion.

The Convention includes three articles governing the complaint process:
– According to Article 21 of the Convention, states parties may recognise the competence of the Committee to receive and consider communications to the effect that a state party claims that another state party is not fulfilling its obligations under this Convention.
– Article 22 of the Convention cites an additional competence to receive communications from or on behalf of individuals, provided that they have exhausted all available domestic remedies and that the communication is not considered an abuse of the right of submission of such communications or incompatible with the provisions of the Convention. In a written letter, the Committee brings to the attention of the state party, which recognises the Committee's competence to receive and consider communications, its violations of the Convention's provisions, and requests that the state party respond within six months to its queries, comments and observations regarding the communication in question and the domestic remedies taken by that state to redress the victim and prosecute the perpetrators.

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5 This section is based on an article by Akram Ogla Dawood Al Magdei (Iraqi Ministry of Human Rights).

– Article 13 grants individuals the right to complain to the competent local authority, which must promptly initiate an investigation to verify the validity of the claim. This authority must be authorised, neutral, impartial and highly professional.

The overall process of ensuring the ability to lodge complaints in torture crimes involves the following actions:
– Granting victims the chance to express their rejection of and dissatisfaction with their treatment.
– Alerting the concerned authorities to the offence committed within their institutions by their personnel.
– Encouraging the authorities to investigate the validity of claims and bring the perpetrators of the crime of torture to justice.
– Proving that a crime of torture occurred and ensuring no loss of evidence as a prelude to bringing those responsible to justice.
– Redressing and fairly compensating the victims.
– Addressing and eliminating human rights violations in the concerned state.

The inability to file complaints and investigate has adverse consequences since this situation creates impunity for offenders. This impunity constitutes an obstacle for the victims, their families and society, which in turn causes a chronic obstacle for human rights.
The Optional Protocol to the Convention against Torture governs the establishment of an independent commission to monitor all detention facilities. This mechanism is crucial since it is closer to the situation on the ground than any other international body. Periodic surprise visits play a significant role in preventing torture. Other important methods include the medical examination of detainees upon detention and release by an independent physician.

5.2 Iraqi Legislation on Torture Prevention

Iraqi legislations are in many aspects consistent with the principles established in the Convention against Torture. Iraq's current Constitution stipulates in Articles 15, 19 and 37 that "every individual has the right to life", "fair treatment in judicial and administrative proceedings", "liberty and dignity of man are safeguarded" and "all forms of psychological and physical torture and inhumane treatment shall be prohibited. Any confession coerced by force, threat, or torture shall not be relied on. The victim shall have the right to compensation in accordance with the law for material and moral damages incurred."
Article 333 of the Penal Code in force stipulates that "any public official or agent who tortures or orders the torture of an accused, witness or informant in order to compel him to confess to the commission of an offence or to make a statement or provide information about such offence or to withhold information or to give

a particular opinion in respect of it is punishable by imprisonment or by detention. Torture shall include the use of force or menaces." The Code of Criminal Procedure states in Articles 127 and 218 that investigators are not permitted to resort to illegal methods in interrogating the accused, and invalidates confessions and statements coerced by torture, intimidation, inducement or illegal means. This indicates that national legislations do criminalise and penalise torture even though Article 333, according to the Ministry of Human Rights, requires rewording and amendment so as to sanction a severer punishment for torture perpetrators considering that torture is a heinous crime that reflects the serious criminality of the offender and aims to impair and humiliate the accused or the convict, destroy their mental and physical capacities and insult their human dignity.

5.3 Effects of Torture

One of the central aims of torture is to reduce an individual to a position of extreme helplessness and distress that can lead to a deterioration of cognitive, emotional and behavioural functions.[6] Thus, torture is a means of attacking an individual's fundamental modes of psychological and social functioning. Under such circumstances, the torturer strives not only to incapacitate a victim physically but also to debilitate the individual's personality. The torturer attempts to destroy a victim's sense of being grounded in a family and society as a human being with dreams, hopes and aspirations for the future. By dehumanising and breaking the will of their victims, torturers set horrific examples for those who later come into contact with the victim. In this way, torture can break or damage the will and coherence of entire communities. In addition, torture can profoundly damage intimate relationships between spouses, parents, children, other family members and relationships between the victims and their communities.
The psychological effects of torture on the victim are numerous and well known. They range from the loss of self-confidence and sense of security to introversion and phobia to depression and occasionally suicide.
In all cases, torture for the victim is a physically and psychologically traumatising experience and is the most common cause of post-traumatic stress disorder and secondary trauma that affects the family members or other individuals very close to the victim.

Definitions: Brief medical descriptions of the most prominent effects of torture
Trauma: Is caused by a severe or violent event or series of events with strong, harmful and life-threatening consequences to the patient. Confronting and overcoming traumatic events requires

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6 Text is based on training material by Dr. Mohamed Mandour and the Istanbul Protocol..

extraordinary effort. If not promptly and effectively contained and addressed, this event may result in personality changes, a chronic illness, intense fear, helplessness or horror. Such events seriously disrupt a human being and threaten their lives to such an extent that the various methods of defence fail to assist him/her in coping. The difference between physical trauma and psychological trauma lies in the time factor.

– The effects appear in the psychologically traumatised person some time after the traumatic experience, whereas there is no time lag in the case of physical trauma as the victim feels pain immediately after being physically traumatised.
– Nervous trauma is not the result of one particular incident but rather a result of many of the above mentioned factors.

Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD)

There are two factors that render a particular event traumatic: (1) Threat of death or serious injury to the person or someone else, or (2) An overwhelming sense of fear and helplessness. A significant number of those exposed to traumatic events will also suffer from post-traumatic stress. The two main psychiatric disorders associated with torture are PTSD and major depression.

Secondary Trauma

Secondary trauma includes family members, social workers, humanitarian staff and psychologists' reactions to psychological stress.

It is a widely held view that torture is an extraordinary life experience capable of causing a wide range of physical and psychological suffering. Most clinicians and researchers agree that the extreme nature of the torture event is powerful enough on its own to produce mental and emotional consequences, regardless of the individual's pre-torture psychological status. The psychological consequences of torture, however, occur in the context of personal attribution of meaning, personality development and social, political and cultural factors. For this reason, it cannot be assumed that all forms of torture have the same outcome. For example, the psychological consequences of a mock execution are not the same as those of a sexual assault, and solitary confinement and isolation are not likely to produce the same effects as physical acts of torture. Likewise, one cannot assume that the effects of detention and torture on an adult will be the same as those on a child.

Even with specialised treatment, recuperation from post-traumatic stress may require a long period of time, possibly decades. Even when someone is fully recuperated, the potential for stress to return remains. Therefore, centres engaged with the treatment of torture survivors are crucial to the healing process and encourage stress patients to complete the required phases of treatment. Physician-patient trust is a fundamental prerequisite for successful treatment; therefore, attending physicians – regardless of their medical expertise – should possess a holistic concept for approaching their patients. This concept helps in understanding the patient's psychological background, and if not utilised, future stress relapse becomes likely.

In many countries where torture is practiced on a wide scale (e.g. Iraq), thousands of torture survivors and large numbers of people affected by secondary trauma can be found. However, given the fact that torture primarily aims to spread fear and terror, sustain an incumbent tyrannical regime and coerce society into submission and compliance, one cannot consider the effects of torture on individuals only. The practice of systematic torture has long-term effects on collective social behaviour. Just as the individuals who have been subjected to torture need to overcome their trauma, society as a whole also needs to overcome the adverse consequences of torture.

Interview with Mr. Salah Ahmed, Berlin Centre for the Treatment of Torture Victims, May 2007

How does the Centre work with people suffering trauma?
First we need to define trauma. Trauma is a sudden event that affects adults and children alike, ruins their lives and causes, most prominently, nightmares, fear, depression and nervousness, all of which are psychological problems that, if neglected, may aggravate the patient's condition and lead to psychological illnesses that are difficult to treat.
Here in **the Berlin Centre**, we rely on scientific foundations and noble human values to help patients out of their psychological crisis. We utilise mechanisms designed to:
– Earn patients' trust and become familiar with their life backgrounds.
– Respect patients and deal with them as human beings with dignity and as valuable contributors to society.
– Listen to patients and give them close attention, showing a genuine desire to resolve their problems and reminding them of their responsibilities and the fate of their children, families, friends and loved ones.
– Provide treatment in stages and frequent sessions without rushing to achieve the desired results.

What are the stages of illness a victim experiences?
Trauma causes extreme nervousness. If a person is not strong enough and does not attempt to find a solution in treatment or elsewhere, his/her condition will worsen and become hopeless. The interconnected elements of a person's psychological state resemble links in a chain: fear and insomnia caused by nightmares, for example, develop into intractable insomnia that causes a person to constantly feel fatigue and pain from head to toe. The patient then enters into an abnormal state in which they are angry at everyone

and curse family members. Over time, everyone loses the desire to deal with this person. This person remains alone, is eaten from inside by psychological problems, is controlled by depression and may consider suicide to salvage himself/herself. Alternatively, this person may suffer from the inability to concentrate at work because of fatigue, and may end up losing his/her job and everything else. Some people start using alcohol and numerous types of drugs and become addicted to them, destroying themselves in the process. The only solution in these cases is to seek medical and psychiatric treatment.

What symptoms should prison staff be aware of in this regard?

There are prisoners who suffer from lack of sleep, constant headaches, anxiety, fear, or depression or are unwilling to mix and talk with people. These are abnormal conditions for the healthy prisoner. If the psychological condition taking place after a traumatic experience extends beyond the normal time limit, then the case must be treated. People have the potential to address many cases themselves without seeking help; however, there are cases that require attention and treatment. It is therefore necessary to train correctional staff in this regard and to staff correctional facilities with resident psychiatrists. Psychiatrists are naturally aware of the differences between the treatment of children and that of adults.

Workers in this field encounter situations that cause them psychological suffering. Addressing such situations is the key to eliminating this suffering quickly and without having it affect their work. Neglecting these situations, however, harms professional competence. This does not only apply to prison workers but also to all persons interacting with victims of human rights violations.

5.4 Evidence of Torture

It is difficult to prove that torture has occurred because it takes place behind closed doors and the resulting trauma may not manifest immediately or be physically visible on the victims. Therefore, interviews with victims and medical diagnosis by specialists are among the most important ways of proving the occurrence of torture.

Interviewing victims of torture during inspection of places of detention

Earning trust is a matter of paramount importance. Never betraying that trust, even unintentionally, is even more important. All precautions should be taken to ensure that detainees are not putting themselves at risk. Tortured detainees should be asked whether they consent to the use of information and the manner of its use ("informed consent"). The inspector is obliged not to disclose any information without the consent of the person concerned. Detainees may refrain from granting permission to use their names, for example, for fear of retaliation. It is imperative that inspectors commit to keeping the promises they make to detainees.

The circumstances under which the interview takes place are very important. Therefore, the interviewer must make sure to provide the best circumstances possible. The location of the interview affects the interviewee's sense of trust and his/her level of calm. Interviews conducted with people who are still in custody and perhaps still in the hands of torturers will be completely different from those conducted comfortably in private in a safe facility outside the location of detention. Interviews must be conducted in private to the greatest extent possible in order to obtain adequate information and also observe the sensitivity of the topic.

Other important points to consider:
– Grant sufficient time and organise the interview well, including introducing yourself and your role and explaining the purpose of the interview.
– Strike a balance between the need to obtain a useful report and to respect the needs of the interviewee.
– Show empathy with the interviewee's experiences and cultural or sexual background in order to reduce re-traumatisation factors during the interview.
– To encourage the interviewee to talk, it is recommended that you ask open-ended questions (Unlike: "Did something happen to you?") and use these as much as possible.
– Avoid leading questions, i.e. questions which suggest the answer you want such as "Were you tortured?"
– Start with less sensitive subjects and then make your questions more specific in light of the information given to you.
– As much as possible, avoid using lists (i.e. lists of topics or questions, as discussed later), as they can lead to errors when

list items do not precisely match the experience of the interviewee.

– Listening to the interviewee is more important than asking questions. If the interview consists of only a long series of questions, no information will be obtained beyond the answers to those questions. Asking questions intensively may bring back to the interviewee the memory of the interrogation method used during torture.

– Be careful not to coerce the interviewee into talking about any form of torture if they feel uncomfortable doing so.

– Give the interviewee the opportunity to request breaks, stop the interview at any time and even quit the interview entirely if their feeling of discomfort becomes unbearable. Give the interviewee the opportunity to set a later date to resume the interview.

– Remember that an inconsistent claim does not necessarily mean it is false. Inconsistency may be a result of the interviewee's confusion or inaccurate understanding of questions. To overcome this problem, you may repeat the same question but in a different way.

Several psychological factors may prevent access to sufficient information to prove the occurrence of torture. Torture survivors may have difficulty recounting the specific details of the act of torture. In addition, memory disorders, the inability to concentrate or difficulty concentrating, and suppressing painful memories are part of post-traumatic stress disorder. For example, solitary confinement and enforced isolation may result in the separation of detainees from reality and create a sense of alienation from others; hence, they may not be responsive during the interview, which leads to inaccurate results (e.g. to downplay or sometimes deny the torture that has occurred). The torture strategy is designed to make victims offer mistaken information that leads to confusion in terms of time and place.

Medical Examination 🏳️‍⚧️

Conducting specialised medical examinations is crucial to detecting and proving the act of torture. Numerous books have been written specifically for this purpose, including a book published by the University of Essex that focuses on documenting torture cases. Also, a reference guide entitled the "Istanbul Protocol" was designed for the use of clinicians and medical assistants. This manual is comprehensive, covering all related international and regional standards and mechanisms in force in the first chapter, the standards related to the work of medical staff in the second chapter and the legal investigation of torture in the third chapter. The remaining chapters outline the means and techniques used to prove the act of torture or other forms of degrading treatment. Among these fundamental methods is conducting an interview with the tortured person and documenting the various psychological and physical marks of torture. This manual is an important tool for medical staff working inside and outside of detention centres and inspectors maintaining oversight over these centres.

5.5 Famous Scientific Experiments

Milgram Experiment, 1963

Milgram conducted his famous experiment on obedience and authority figures in the 1960s. In this experiment, one volunteer plays the role of a teacher who asks questions and punishes the student if the latter gives a wrong answer. The experimenter explains that this punishment will help the student stop making mistakes and learn quickly, and that it is an experiment to serve science and humanity. The punishment is an electric shock that starts with 45 volts and increases by 15-volt increments for each wrong answer until it reaches 450 volts. Before the experiment begins, the teacher is given a 45-volt electric shock as a sample of the shock that the learner would receive. Whenever the teacher is hesitant to inflict punishment, the experimenter uses four verbal prods in this order:

1. Please continue.
2. The experiment requires that you continue.
3. It is absolutely essential that you continue.
4. You have no other choice, you must go on.

A wall separates the teacher from the student. With each wrong answer the student gives, the teacher pushes the button and gives the student an electric shock. The end result was shocking; 62% of the volunteers reached the maximum 450-volt electric shock. The first volunteer to decline to complete the experiment stopped at 135 volts.

Milgram performed variations of the experiment, including one variation in which the teacher hears the student screaming (audio recording), another in which the teacher sees the student (actor) through a glass wall or is in the same room as the student. In the latter case, 30% of teachers continued to punish the student throughout to the maximum limit.

Replicating the experiment in different countries yielded similar results, indicating that the results represented a human phenomenon and was not restricted to a particular society.

Below are the results of the experiment:

– 85% demonstrated complete obedience at the beginning of the experiment.
– 54% demonstrated complete obedience despite the protests of the actor playing the student's role.
– 98% thought that the student was truly in pain.
– 15% thought that the student had died.
– 70% thought that the student had lost consciousness.
– 5% thought that the student had not been harmed.

- 2% expressed willingness to exchange roles with the student.
- 40% did not feel stress during the experiment.
- 75% held the experimenter totally responsible during the experiment, refusing to take any responsibility for their actions.

According to Milgram, the four factors that may help render an individual obedient to authority are:
- The person has been raised since birth to obey parents and not to talk back.
- The person has been trained in blind obedience at school or university.
- The person is regularly reminded at work that obedience is essential to business success.
- The obedient person is promoted and rewarded at work.

Milgram arrived at the conclusion that individuals in general are affected by authority and will undertake actions against their convictions under such pressure; actions that may amount to torture or even murder.[7]

Stanford Prison Experiment, 1971
Twenty four volunteers were selected and divided by drawing lots to play the roles of prisoners and guards. One group wore prison uniforms with assigned numbers, and the other group wore police uniforms. The experiment was conducted in a vacant prison under typical prison conditions.

On the first day, the volunteers began to learn and live their roles as prisoners and guards. On the second day, the first riots broke out, with prisoners tearing off the numbers sewed to their uniforms and shutting the doors of their cells. In response, the guards used fire extinguishers to spray prisoners and end their rebellion. From that point onward, the guards began to scorn and humiliate the prisoners. On the third day, the experiment began to take a dangerous turn, as one prisoner was taken to the hospital for trauma symptoms. At night, some guards attempted to commit sadistic acts against the prisoners, thinking surveillance cameras were unable to tape them. These events required the intervention of supervisors occasionally to stop the experiment to prevent such violence. After six days, the supervisors halted the experiment, which was planned to last for two weeks. This decision was due especially to the fact that the supervisors themselves felt they were biased towards the guards in their attempts to suppress the prisoners' rebellion.[8]

Based on both experiments, the practice of torture against others is founded either on individuals' obedience to or influence by authority figures or on individuals' sadistic nature, or perhaps both.

5.6 Effects of Torture on Perpetrators
As outlined above, the effects of torture manifest in victims, but what about the perpetrator of torture? Psychological symptoms such as insomnia, depression and occasionally impotence appear in perpetrators of torture. Among the most celebrated books tackling this issue is "The Wretched of the Earth" by Frantz Fanon, in which he presents his experience in treating torture victims and perpetrators of torture during the Algerian War of Liberation. A well-known example of the effects of torture on torturers themselves comes from the reign of former Nicaraguan dictator Anastasio Somoza when street children were rounded up and trained by the Revolutionary Guards to torture political opponents. After Somoza was out of power, those individuals who had been trained since childhood to commit acts of torture were sent for psychiatric treatment in Sweden. The treatment was later discontinued because it did not yield any success. Many of those adult torturers described a sense of internal emptiness and inability to feel emotions.

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7 Sources: Milgram, S. (1974): Obedience to Authority. McGraw-Hill, http://www.wernersplace.com/obedience2.htm, 2Fjournal. pone.0000039#s4%http://www.plosone.org/article/fetchArticle.action? articleURI=info%3Adoi%2F10.1371

8 Source: http://www.prisonexp.org

5.7 Section Review

Main Points	– Torture aims to destroy the humanity of a person, and entails grave psychological and physical consequences for torture victims and their families. Torture also causes direct harm to the perpetrator of torture and to society as a whole. – Torture is absolutely prohibited. – Some necessary means to prevent and combat torture do exist and include the prohibition of torture by law, regular inspection of places of detention and guaranteeing the right to lodge a complaint of torture. – Training members of the police, detention centre employees and physicians and psychiatrists in human rights contributes effectively to the prevention of torture.
Appropriate Activities	– Bowling Pins – Dialogue and the Guillotine – The Closed Circle – Prison Visit – A Visit to the Juvenile Detention Centre – When You Return to Work – Puzzles – Personal Values – What Do You Think? – Trial – Who Placed the Bomb? – Citizens and Public Service
Primary Sources	– The United Nations Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment, http://www1.umn.edu/humanrts/arab/b039.html – Optional Protocol to the Convention against Torture and other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment, http://anhri.net/docs/undocs/protocol2.shtml – Istanbul Protocol, www.ohchr.org/Documents/Publications/training8Rev1ar.pdf – The Torture Reporting Handbook (University of Essex), www.essex.ac.uk / Torturehandbook / ... / thb-arabic-no-diagrams.pdf

Important Articles from Anti-Torture Conventions

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights
Article 5: No one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.

The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
Article 7: No one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment. In particular, no one shall be subjected without his free consent to medical or scientific experimentation.

The United Nations Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment

Article 1: For the purposes of this Convention, the term "torture" means any act by which severe pain or suffering, whether physical or mental, is intentionally inflicted on a person for such purposes as obtaining from him or a third person information or a confession, punishing him for an act he or a third person has committed or is suspected of having committed, or intimidating or coercing him or a third person, or for any reason based on discrimination of any kind, when such pain or suffering is inflicted by or at the instigation of or with the consent or acquiescence of a public official or other person acting in an official capacity. It does not include pain or suffering arising only from, inherent in or incidental to lawful sanctions.

Article 2: Each State Party shall take effective legislative, administrative, judicial or other measures to prevent acts of torture in any territory under its jurisdiction.
No exceptional circumstances whatsoever, whether a state of war or a threat of war, internal political instability or any other public emergency, may be invoked as a justification of torture.
An order from a superior officer or a public authority may not be invoked as a justification of torture.

Article 4: Each State Party shall ensure that all acts of torture are offences under its criminal law. The same shall apply to an attempt to commit torture and to an act by any person which constitutes complicity or participation in torture. 2. Each State Party shall make these offences punishable by appropriate penalties which take into account their grave nature.

Article 10: Each State Party shall ensure that education and information regarding the prohibition against torture are fully included in the training of law enforcement personnel, civil or military, medical personnel, public officials and other persons who may be involved in the custody, interrogation or treatment

of any individual subjected to any form of arrest, detention or imprisonment.

Each State Party shall include this prohibition in the rules or instructions issued in regard to the duties and functions of any such person.

Article 11: Each State Party shall keep under systematic review interrogation rules, instructions, methods and practices as well as arrangements for the custody and treatment of persons subjected to any form of arrest, detention or imprisonment in any territory under its jurisdiction, with a view to preventing any cases of torture.

Article 13: Each State Party shall ensure that any individual who alleges he has been subjected to torture in any territory under its jurisdiction has the right to complain to, and to have his case promptly and impartially examined by, its competent authorities. Steps shall be taken to ensure that the complainant and witnesses are protected against all ill-treatment or intimidation as a consequence of his complaint or any evidence given.

Article 14: Each State Party shall ensure in its legal system that the victim of an act of torture obtains redress and has an enforceable right to fair and adequate compensation, including the means for as full rehabilitation as possible. In the event of the death of the victim as a result of an act of torture, his dependants shall be entitled to compensation.

Article 15: Each State Party shall ensure that any statement which is established to have been made as a result of torture shall not be invoked as evidence in any proceedings, except against a person accused of torture as evidence that the statement was made.

Article 16: Each State Party shall undertake to prevent in any territory under its jurisdiction other acts of cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment which do not amount to torture as defined in article I, when such acts are committed by or at the instigation of or with the consent or acquiescence of a public official or other person acting in an official capacity. In particular, the obligations contained in articles 10, 11, 12 and 13 shall apply with the substitution for references to torture of references to other forms of cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.

6 Rights of the Child: Juvenile Justice

6.4 Important considerations in interviewing children

Each child is different from the next. Older children can concentrate for shorter periods compared to adults. They also find it difficult to understand and respond to complex questions. The following tips help you interview children and avoid causing them harm or shock.

– Take sufficient time to introduce yourself and what you do.
– Explain the purpose of the interview, what you plan to do with the information, the confidentiality level that you can guarantee and what assistance you can or cannot provide.
– Let the child feel he is in control of the interview: ask for his permission to write down notes, explain that he is not obliged to answer all the questions and let him know that he can ask questions or take a break to rest if he needs to.
– Avoid interviewing children in custody so as to protect them from retribution, reduce the possibility that they might exaggerate in relating facts in order to "show off and draw attention," and avoid the possibility of their relating facts that create confusion and a feeling of shame and humiliation. If you plan on interviewing a large number of children, it might be useful to introduce yourself and what you do to the entire group before you move on to conduct the interviews individually.
– Begin with "easy" questions in order to make the child feel comfortable during the interview and to build confidence (these questions include: How old are you? Do you have brothers and sisters? Have you ever attended school? What grade have you finished?) Such information may become useful later on. Being aware of the fact that the child is illiterate, for example, helps you gauge the extent of his understanding of written rules in the detention centre or the content of his written confession.
– Ask simply worded questions, and ask one question at a time. Question techniques include asking the child to tell you what happened from the beginning until the day on which the incident (the detention, beating or torture) took place, or to describe an ordinary day ("Tell me what you did yesterday. When did you wake up? What happened next? And after that?").
– Avoid asking suggestive questions such as "have the police tortured you?" Instead, ask "how did the police treat you?" Or "can you tell me what happened when the police arrested you?"
– Open-ended questions are effective with children. These include:
    – What's the worst thing in your life?
    – What's the worst place here?
    – If you could change one thing here, what would it be?

- If you knew that someone you know will be brought here, what advice would you give him?
- Young children can find it particularly difficult to measure the passage of time. Therefore, use holidays, weather conditions or other known events in order to estimate the dates (e.g. "was that right before Ramadan?" "Was it right after the explosion in the market?" "Was it two weeks after school had started?" "Was it during that World Cup match between such and such teams?")
- Ask questions in different ways, but not in a contradictory way, to verify important information:
  - "I might be mistaken / it seems that I don't remember correctly, but I thought that…"
  - "I'm confused… can you help me understand why…"

- Do not forget to ask the child to draw a depiction of an important incident or the layout of the detention centre. These pictures help point out the location of punishment rooms, or places where the detainees feel unsafe. The pictures can be used to relate an incident or event.
- Some children refuse to talk directly about an incident that was shocking to them. In this case, the incident can be discussed with them as if it had happened to someone else. Try to reword your questions: "what happens if someone breaks the rules here? Do you know anyone who broke the rules? Can you tell me about him?" This also helps to reveal the identity of other detainees you could interview.
- Change the subject or suggest taking a break if the child becomes antsy or uncomfortable during the interview.

Qualifications of the employee specialised in visiting detention centers

Education	Law Sociology Psychology General medicine	Knowledge of internationally and nationally recognised principles of human rights

To possess the following qualities:

A. Impartiality B. Integrity C. Professionalism D. Flexibility E. Accuracy	F. Experience

Tools to use

- Monitoring violations
- Documenting violations through:
- A. Recorded interviews
- B. Photographs and voice recording
- C. Hearing witnesses
- D. Reviewing data, records, and files collected by prison administration
- E. Interviewing managers and supervisors of detention centre, including medical staff and social councillors

- Preparing reports
- Issuing recommendations to concerned authorities
- Following up on the implementation of recommendations

Best Regards,
The First Group

- Do not assume that children understand and use the same vocabulary you use. Ask the child to describe places and people even if the child uses the same vocabulary. For example, the child tells you that the "judge told me that," in which case the interviewer may ask "where were you when that happened? And how did you know that he was the judge? What was he wearing?"

- Try to conclude the interview by addressing a less important and less sensitive topic – "do you have any questions you would like to ask me?" What do you want do after you leave this place?"

Good practices: improving core issues in juvenile justice

The amendments that Egypt introduced in 2008 to the Children Act are promising although they have not been effected yet. These stipulate the establishment of child protection units to safeguard children against falling into the juvenile justice system and improve the guarantees available to them in the system. The amendments also raise the legal age for criminal liability, require the presence of lawyers to defend children who may face imprisonment during interrogation and trial, introduce community service as a substitute for incarceration and impose criminal sanctions on personnel who incarcerate children with adults.

These amendments reflect the comprehensive efforts exerted by the National Council for Childhood and Motherhood and non-governmental organisations to persuade judges, the public prosecution and the police that addressing problems by imposing lesser punishments will yield better results for children and will reduce the workload of cases handled by the police and judicial system.

In the case of Iraq, it is vital that a change in legislation and its enforcement occur along with an improvement in the security conditions in order to allow for the detention of children as a last resort and for the shortest period of time possible. The amendment should offer effective alternatives for incarceration, giving public prosecutors and judges more options in cases of juvenile delinquents, and should enable the police, social workers, public prosecutors and judges to handle cases faster and ensure the possibility of hiring lawyers. It is hoped that Iraq pays attention to problems of ill treatment and exploitation during incarceration by prosecuting responsible officials, develops protection systems to prevent children from becoming delinquents and facilitates juvenile delinquents' social reintegration.

7   Human Rights in Police Work

Contents	Goals
Torture prevention, non-discrimination, women's and children's rights. Daily police work: General frameworks, obstacles, administrative and leadership requirements. The challenges faced by the Iraqi police. The requirements for qualifying the police force in the field of human rights.	To recognise the human rights resources relevant to police training. To understand the special qualifications that police personnel must possess as well as common reaction patterns. To become acquainted with community police and their characteristics. To understand the different implications and the impact of human rights training on the police in accordance with the leadership hierarchy.

Taking all human rights conventions into consideration enables the identification of a framework for the objectives of qualifying and progressively training the police force in the field of human rights. Moreover, this process allows for the identification of patterns in the areas of torture, prohibition of racial discrimination, women's and children's rights, and the requirements for a general overview of police conduct.[9]

7.1   The Absolute Prohibition of Torture[10]

The absolute prohibition of torture is at the core of the international system of human rights protection. Torture is considered the worst affront to human dignity in that the powerless and helpless victim is subjected to abuse at the hands of agents directly or indirectly representing the state.

9   The following discussions are based on excerpts quoted from a study conducted by Gunter Schicht (Schicht, 2007) Qualification and Progressive Training of Police Personnel in Human Rights Issues. Berlin, the German Institute for Human Rights. We thank the author for his permission to use the material. The study was prepared by the creators of this manual for translation. Contemporary and Arabic resources were added where available. To render the material reader-friendly, all the resources, which were mostly in German, were removed from the footnotes. To refer to the resources found in the original German text, see: http://files. institut-feur-menschenrechte.de/437/polizeistudie_07031_www_ES.pdf

10   All relevant laws and conventions found in the selected texts are available on the CD attached to this Guide.

The nature of police work essentially places members of the police, on a regular basis, in intense situations that make them susceptible to violating the prohibition of torture and inhumane or degrading treatment. Further, in the course of their daily duty to prevent danger and prosecute criminal acts, the police are compelled to detain individuals and deprive them of their liberty, use force in certain instances and extract information within a limited timeframe. In this context, the disciplined respect for laws becomes a daily challenge in real-life situations.

The absolute prohibition of torture is entrenched in Article (5) of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Article (7) of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, Article (3) of the European Convention on Human Rights and in the general comments on the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (20 and 21/ 1992) which clearly define the requirements for training the police and educating them in human rights matters.

The primary international agreement on the prohibition of torture is the United Nations Convention against Torture, which states that: *"Each State Party shall ensure that education and information regarding the prohibition against torture are fully included in the training of law enforcement personnel, civil or military, medical personnel, public officials and other persons who may be involved in the custody, interrogation or treatment of any individual subjected to any form of arrest, detention or imprisonment."* (Article 10-1).

7.2 Prohibition of Racial Discrimination

On a daily basis, a countless number of people are alienated, excluded, humiliated and even assaulted for actual or alleged reasons related to their physical characteristics or ethnic or cultural backgrounds. Alongside the practices of ordinary people, there are still state agents who attract attention with their racist ideology and practices; the police are no exception. Racist stereotypes are not only prevalent amongst some individuals, but also form an informal element of institutional mentality. All human rights treaties and instruments prohibit discrimination conclusively. This prohibition is entrenched in international law in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Articles 2 and 7). The efforts to prohibit discrimination culminated in 1965 in the adoption of the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination.

The importance attached by the Anti-Discrimination Committee to police training and education is evidenced by the issuance of separate General Comments (13/1993) on this issue. For instance, state employees tasked with law enforcement and police duties must receive intensive training to ensure that they respect and safeguard human dignity while performing their duties; and protect and defend the rights of all individuals without discrimination on the basis of race, colour, nationality or ethnicity. Finally, the Committee appealed to competent authorities to review and improve police training. The General Comments demands

the establishment of a "Code of Conduct for Law Enforcement Officials who exercise police powers" (see below).

Anti-Discrimination Committee General Comments No. (31/2005) address the prevention of racial discrimination in the criminal justice system. The comments outline indicators that detect any racially discriminatory practices within the criminal justice system and the dimensions of such practices. The indicators include:

– A very high percentage of individuals belonging to discriminated-against groups are victims of violence in general and police violence in particular,
– Shortage or insufficiency of information about the conduct of criminal justice system personnel towards members of discriminated-against groups.
– High rates of involvement in criminal activities among the groups vulnerable to discrimination, especially in misdemeanours and crimes of drug trafficking and prostitution which are interpreted as an expression of alienation from and inconsistency with the society,
– Only a minute percentage of the members of the discriminated-against group work in the police force and other fields of the justice system.

7.3 Women's Rights

Women's rights are of key importance to police work. This importance is upheld within the police force by developing the police institution and in daily police work that involves dealing with women in varied roles and contexts. As for the first point, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) prohibits all forms of discrimination against women, including for instance the discrimination women face in their careers (Article II). This Article dictates the adoption of all the measures necessary to eliminate discrimination against women in the workplace, and the provision of women with the same opportunities available to men: educational opportunities, job selection and promotion, etc. Therefore, the police as an institution should take the necessary steps to provide equal opportunities to female members of the police force. In accordance with Article (4) of the CEDAW, it is possible to adopt temporary special measures aimed at accelerating de facto equality for women in all walks of life. General Comment No. 25/2004 issued by the CEDAW Committee discusses how to develop applicable strategies for the institutional development of the police. The police force must be aware of women's rights in its daily course of work: for example, in relation to violence against women.

The varied forms of violence practiced on a daily basis worldwide against women and girls, leading to their death or endurance of physical and psychological damage, are considered the most severe forms of discrimination. The CEDAW stipulates that all states parties must adopt effective measures against all forms of

discrimination against women in general, and against trafficking in women for prostitution in particular. This aspect of the Convention is also relevant to police work .

7.4 Children's Rights

The concept that children have rights is relatively recent from a historical perspective. It is a fact that all human cultures have adopted and continue to adopt ways to protect and raise children as they are the natural continuum of generations. However, regarding children as legal persons remains exceptional for the most part.

Police work must primarily and comprehensively recognise children's rights and protect children not only as victims. In their dealings with children, members of the police must take into consideration the psychological and physical needs of children, as some children panic in the presence of police. Any physical or psychological harm to children could result in long-term physical or psychological effects. Thus, members of the police must deal with children cautiously and responsibly, avoid coarse treatment and ensure the best interest of the child at all times.

There are General Comments pertaining to the Convention on the Rights of the Child, including General Comment No. 4/2003, which demands that states parties train and monitor their police to ensure they do not resort to institutional violence against children and youth. In addition, the Convention provides that states parties adopt measures to train and educate the police to ensure that they possess a basic understanding of children's rights.

7.5 Basic Principles of Police Work

In their course of duty, the police are forced to restrict people's rights on a daily basis. This entails a special responsibility. The UN documents and instruments introduce general requirements for police conduct. Despite the fact that such requirements are only non-binding recommendations, the two Treaty Anti-Discrimination and Anti-Torture Committees refer to them constantly.

Code of Conduct for Law Enforcement Officials adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1979

The Code of Conduct has eight chapters that form an integral part of the education and ongoing curricula designed to train members of the police force to:

– Fulfil their duty of serving the community and protecting it,
– Respect and protect human dignity and maintain and uphold the human rights of all persons,
– Use force in accordance with the principle of proportionality,
– Maintain the confidentiality of information,
– Prohibit all acts of torture or other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment,

– Ensure the full protection of the health of persons in their custody,
– Abstain from committing any act of corruption,
– Respect the present Code and remedy any violations thereof.

"The Basic Principles on the Use of Force and Firearms by Law Enforcement Officials" (which was adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1990) focus on the moral, psychological and physical competence of members of the police. Article (20)provides that: *"In the training of law enforcement officials, Governments and law enforcement agencies shall give special attention to issues of police ethics and human rights, especially in the investigative process, to alternatives to the use of force and firearms, including the peaceful settlement of conflicts, the understanding of crowd behaviour, and the methods of persuasion, negotiation and mediation, as well as to technical means, with a view to limiting the use of force and firearms."* Hence, this Article does not only specifically provide for educating police in human rights, but also in other concepts that must be included in the police training curricula.

The European Code of Police Ethics

The European Code of Police Ethics was issued at the level of the Council of Europe in 2001 (see attached CD). Any of the latest editions of this Code is an adequate source for the various legal systems outside the European Union. In addition to focusing on the need for qualifying and training members of the police in ethics and human rights, there are comments on some of the Code's Articles that allow for their adaptation for use in other societies. As part of its activities in support of human rights, the Council of Europe initiated in 1997 a programme called "Police and Human Rights 1997-2000" to reinforce awareness of human rights amongst the police forces of EU member states. The fundamental outcome of this Programme was a Guide entitled: "Is Your Institution an Entity that Defends Human Rights?" This Guide is a good reference for police training.[11]

7.6 Basics of Police Work

In order for police training courses to be effective, human rights trainers with no background in police work must be introduced to the basics of police work.

The Cop Culture and the Police Culture

Novice members of the police find themselves in an intense encounter with the so-called "Cop Culture". According to Janette Chan's notion, the cop culture is a collection of common

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11 The complete English text is available on the attached CD along with excerpts translated to Arabic.

values and views that cops pass on from one generation to the next.[12] The behaviour of members of the police in the conduct of their duties is governed to a great extent by the cop culture, which primarily consists of functional practices; i.e.: said practices must be suitable to allow members of the police to "perform their job well" according to their own personal understanding and that of their colleagues'. In addition, said practices must, theoretically at least, meet the requirements of the "Police Culture". The cop culture is the opposite of the police culture, which is the official culture of the police establishment and is essentially characterised by its adherence to the law. The police culture is also the culture of the administrators and the "cops who carry out mental police work", and is a bureaucratic culture with many rules and procedures.

The police culture sets the rules that govern the practices of the police force. These rules are increasingly at odds with a reality full of complications and contradictions, and are naturally inapplicable for the most part from the perspective of the police who "do their job physically". If the police abide by the said rules, they will become incapable of acting or constantly confronting challenges.

The cop culture is acquired in different ways. One essential way is observing the 'examples'- i.e. observing the practices of senior and seasoned colleagues, and then copying their practices. Informal ways of learning play another major role including the influence of respected figures, stories and the behavioural patterns observed. The psychological state of the group is crucial to the adoption of the cop culture. The group demands that its members maintain its values and customs and then adopt the essence of said values and customs. Failure to do so will trigger the risk of losing the solidarity offered by other group members and becoming alienated. In police operations, such a risk may endanger one's life since the police recruit will need the full support of his/her colleagues in critical situations. The willingness to support colleagues, which may entail putting one's life at risk, is one of the distinct characteristics of the cop culture. This willingness manifests in instances such as the radio dispatch of an attack on members of a police force. In this case a timely response from backup teams to offer support to fellow colleagues takes place on a wide scale. Therefore, a police recruit is faced with tremendous pressure to integrate with the group and accept its customs.

Adopting the behaviours of other colleagues is natural and eventually becomes inevitable; a situation that complies with the essential requirements of psychological learning. Should the opportunity present itself to learn from the pattern of conduct unfolding before their eyes (imitation of colleagues) in complicated

situations in which police recruits are under pressure to succeed in their work,, this learning method would be preferred because it is spontaneous. The goal behind qualifying and training the police in human rights issues is to give novice members of the police the skill needed to critically reflect on the cop culture, rather than eliminate it.

The Culture of Admitting Errors

Like any other individual, members of the police must take responsibility for their actions, even the criminal ones. This does not contradict the police institution's culture of admitting and learning from errors. The culture of admitting errors means that the police acknowledge that errors are possible, rather than describing them as disgraceful and condemnable events. Thus, the culture of admitting errors also entails the willingness to adopt different positions, followed by a research and discussion process that should not be carried out on the basis of chain of command, nor should it generally aim to punish or take disciplinary action. Rather, such a process should ensure collective learning in order to improve future performance.

Police Leadership and Administration

The police leadership and administration make decisions pertaining to strategic issues, operations, the logistics of task execution, the deployment of the police force, etc. These decisions depend on the laws, the internal policy guidelines of the state and the facts available at the time as the basis for evaluating the situation. However, the leadership and the administration have very flexible discretionary power in decision-making, which only enhances their influence. The conduct of leadership affects subordinate police personnel, and since the police culture cannot provide sufficient guidance in practical matters, law enforcement personnel will construe this culture in a manner consistent with the cop culture. It follows that the subsequent actions of the leaders will either endorse or invalidate this interpretation. An example of such endorsement is when the leadership justifies, without any prior knowledge, actions carried out by members of the police during their execution of an assigned operation, even if the actions of those police personnel are not consistent with the facts. It should be noted here that "effacement and cover-up by the leadership" constitutes a serious problem from a legal perspective. To that end, two strategies are typically used: forbidding disclosure of a certain incident, and minimise the incident by limiting responsibility for it to certain people (individual actions). Because of these two strategies, such violations are not considered actual problems for the institution of the police; and here lies the danger of deep-seated unethical practices that violate human rights.

In terms of the risk of violating human rights, the conduct of police leadership and administration has conclusive impact on members of the police. The frustration of members of the police with the

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12 Chan, Janette B.L. (Chan, 2003): Fair Cop: Learning the Art of Policing. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.

conduct of their institution is a significant cause of misconduct. The causes of frustration among members of the police include:

– Their recognition of their low rank in the chain of command,
– Their very low salaries,
– The bureaucratic and unrealistic reactions of their superiors and their conflicting instructions,
– Their feeling that their superiors intentionally assign them to "fatal" missions, and use them to demonstrate their leadership skills,
– Their feeling that their opinion and skills are not duly appreciated,
– Their assignment to tasks on which they have not been briefed and which they consider arbitrary,
– Their feeling of stress on the job,
– Their frustrating enormous workload.

In addition, there are other causes of frustration that the police institution has no hand in but, at the same time, does not address, including one's feeling that one's work is pointless, the resulting feelings of injustice and the need for revenge.

The absence of a culture of admitting errors and learning from mistakes is yet another cause of frustration. This absence is characterised by the inadmissibility of errors, which creates, in turn, a culture of doubt and fear. Further, bureaucratic penalties are still prevalent as the reaction to professional misconduct, which often results in the loss of self-respect and possibly respect for others. Generally speaking, the points listed above can be perceived as faults in the culture of the police institution. For the most part, leadership based on partnership and cooperation is nothing but a flashy slogan. As a result of all of this entire situation, members of the police force grow sceptical of their superiors, and the reverse is true to some extent.

Patrol Police

Patrol police represents the branch that widely carries out classic police work, i.e. preventing hazards and combating crime through direct pursuit. In addition, patrol police extends several services to citizens and other governmental departments (legal assistance) and is in direct contact with citizens. Every interaction between patrol police and citizens can either be positive or can equally result in a conflict and cause frustration to both parties, which may eventually lead to one party infringing on the other's rights. In the beginning, the multitude of cases on which the police are to operate must be considered. The fact that these cases are sometimes unclear or vague must also be taken into consideration. There is an extremely thin line between justified intervention and misconduct that could develop into violations. For instance, if an arrest requires that an individual be handcuffed, a violent execution may constitute a harmful act conducted while on duty, as handcuffing must be done with the minimum amount of force

possible. Also important is the individual's ethics, which must include being mindful of the feelings of others. A problem can be noted in this respect in that the treatment and value standards are those of the members of the police, who are mostly men aged between 20 and 40 and dressed in police uniforms.

The belief that the person on the opposite side is entirely "different" would lead – in the context of contact between the police and citizens – to miscommunication and misunderstanding regardless of whether the police were working with victimised children or women or with people with a different religious background or lifestyle.

In most cases, police tasks are accompanied by a great amount of tension and lack of clarity. Therefore, members of the police must analyse the components of complicated cases in the shortest time possible in order to act accordingly. The fact that members of the police encounter dangerous situations that could cause their death is something that is always on their minds, and is indeed a matter to which we must give considerable attention. Undoubtedly, professional solidarity and cooperation amongst members of the police in such situations are an essential element on which the cop culture is founded. This solidarity is further strengthened as many members of the police believe that the public does not understand them. The awareness of these dangers may lead to their overestimation, hence giving way to misconduct, especially after specific situations in which members of the police are killed or injured, such as terrorist attacks. This constant state of scepticism is referred to as paranoia (psychosis).[13] Added to paranoia is the fear that some members of the police develop from their experiences as victims. Fear produces hesitance to take action, which may in turn lead to excessive use of force.

Special Police Units

Special police units are group-oriented, which diminishes the spirit of individualism (and subsequently increases the risk of dispersing responsibility). On the other hand, the resemblance with the military could evoke the inherent military conduct patterns and strengthen the perception that the person confronting the police is an "enemy" that must be "fought". Whether these risk factors are under control, or whether they have a negative impact is an issue connected to the police leadership and culture. Hence, the prevalent atmosphere differs in units of similar structures according to the impact of police leadership. Another critical factor active in these units is the status their members enjoy as experts. The advanced qualification and retirement into the shell of secrecy lead to the belief that "we" are the "experts; and we know what is right, and success shall give us the privilege". The implications of such views can be seen clearly in rejecting criticism, underrating

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13 Or what is commonly referred to as paranoia and distrust, a case which makes a person very paranoid of others.

risks and developing a very selective view. These factors can increase the potential for misconduct.

Criminal Police

The criminal police have a special status, and in many societies they are highly educated and conduct their work, to a great extent, inside their offices. Therefore, they are often called "brainy smart police" and are regarded by the types of police mentioned above as part of an upper-level bureaucracy. This perception is created by the fact that uniformed police often undertake missions for criminal police (e.g. arrests) as well as the arrogant manner by which the criminal police treat their uniformed colleagues. On the other hand, the work of criminal police involves a certain degree of field work such as working at crime scenes and conducting searches. Moreover, it is often the case that the members of the criminal police interact directly with the public, as in instances of interrogating witnesses and suspects. Such interactions often take place in circumstances more appeasing than those found on the streets.

The interrogation process in the context of criminal policing involves a special type of risk that may lead to professional misconduct. Interrogators are often alone in the interrogation room with the person being interrogated and are working under pressure to succeed in solving the case as expected of them, i.e. investigating the case, finding incriminating evidence and storing said evidence in a safe place. In many cases (assault, crimes against decency, property related misdemeanours) the physical evidence is unavailable, and so the only chance to solve the case is through questioning the suspect. The enthusiasm of the interrogators and their disregard of the law may cause them to go beyond the limits of legitimate questioning methods and resort to the use of threats and force. Some members of the criminal police believe that suspects undergoing interrogation deserve to be beaten because of their "conduct". Generally speaking, interrogators assume that it is impossible to prove their misconduct or prosecute them accordingly. Cases that involve a special risk in terms of potential violations are those in which the police and the interrogators deal with persons suspected of committing heinous acts (such as terrorist attacks) or with individuals in possession of additional pertinent information, e.g. information about the behind-the-scenes masterminds of crimes or information about planned attacks.

Authority – Frustration – Aggressiveness

Most members of the police wish to maintain their authority and would viciously resist any attempt to undermine this authority, which is an undisputable matter from their traditional perspective of the role of the police. In addition, their mission often demands that they impose such authority. The police often give more value to their authority and self-proclaimed prestige in comparison with others (e.g. the prestige of the elderly, women, or prestige accorded to social status). Further, the police feel an infinite need to impose such authority. Often, police interactions with the public tend to be negative. In the event of a citizen's actual or alleged transgression of the authority of the police, the police demonstrate a trend to initiate a counterattack against that citizen. This trend often leads to disputes that may bring into question the legitimacy of police requirements, competence and conduct. Moreover, the dynamics of such situations may escalate from a rational dispute into an emotional confrontation, and then, into a personal dispute leading ultimately to a violent conflict.

In this regard, it must be noted that frustration often leads to aggressive tendencies. The various sources of frustration in daily police work and their implications are outlined above. Depending on the nature of the individual, losing self-control may be very dangerous and the aggressive tendency may explode in the face of the person on the opposite side. It should be noted, however, that episodes of anger and frustration do not always affect those causing the frustration and it is not a rare case that third parties are caught in the middle. It is also possible that the aggressive police officer will enjoy this conduct, given the fact that every person has a dormant potential to derive pleasure from and savour in acts of aggression or oppression made possible by possessing power and authority over others. In this regard, lethal conflicts may arise, particularly in cases in which a police officer is hostile towards a citizen and continues to feel satisfied with that conduct although subsequent assessments of the situation by that officer and others demonstrate the inappropriate nature of that conduct. The police officer may think that admitting the occurrence of an error could be demeaning to him/her, triggering the urge to compensate which could, in turn, lead to another violation. Therefore, members of the police must learn to control urges more than laymen.

Dealing with violent and traumatic experiences

Dealing with violent and traumatic experiences or "painful experiences" is another challenge the police face. Members of the police from all categories do not often receive any support when dealing with post-traumatic syndromes. Despite the society's deep-seated patriarchal customs that provide that a "man must endure", research has found that painful experiences resulting in emotional distress and exhaustion can lead to malpractice because of hesitation and uncertainty, which may eventually cause mishaps in professional conduct. Generally, members of the police do not discuss among themselves topics such as how to overcome exhaustion or handle difficult situations that cause emotional distress. It has been noted in the United States and Europe that the process of handling and adapting to situations that cause emotional distress and traumas without professional help often creates an inclination towards sarcasm, depression and alcoholism. Such outcomes affect personal behaviour and

may cause serious setbacks and even the disappearance of boundaries between legitimacy and illegitimacy, police officers and criminals.

Prosecution and the Principle of Public Right
(the Principle of Mandatory Reporting/ the Principle of Legality)
Numerous legal systems require that police officers officially report any criminal act they become privy to, and state that failure to perform said duty could lead to criminal accountability on grounds of obstructing the course of justice. These provisions pertaining to the principle of public right ensure legal security and aim to avoid abuse by the state. It should not be left to state employees to decide whether or not certain people will be prosecuted for committing punishable acts. On the other hand, the principle of public right obliges members of the police to always report any misconduct committed by their colleagues, which makes it more difficult to follow any other effective methods in dealing with simple misconduct.

Many social studies point out that conceptions and stances do not change until after a long-term recognition and awareness process has taken place. Fear of disciplinary measures and criminal proceedings most likely implies a destructive impact on the reporting process since fear generates suppression, implicit support and cover-up, which in turn may cause any ongoing investigation to fail. Consequently, it becomes impossible to sanction criminal penalties because of the lack of evidence or because the violation is considered minimal. Many situations lead to the suspicion that the public prosecutor's office prefers to cover up violations. In addition, authorities may close a criminal case in order to officially assert their innocence and claim that there is no problem or issue.

In truth, the topic of prosecution is not handled in a transparent manner. This could lead to criminal prosecution later and ultimately give way to potential blackmail. For example, a superior notices a young subordinate applying handcuffs tightly and attributes this to lack of experience, but when an experienced colleague, clearly motivated by racism, commits the same violation, the superior threatens criminal penalties. However, the seasoned officer points to the incident involving the young subordinate and threatens to file a report against the superior accusing him/her of obstructing the course of justice.

Therefore, the provisions that are supposed to maintain the police's commitment to the principle of public right render it relatively harder to handle professional misconduct among police ranks in different situations. Hence, the key task that rests with the police administration and the process of training the police in human rights is to encourage and facilitate the review of professional misconduct in police work in order to enable colleagues to discuss critical cases and work together at finding solutions.

"The Wall of Silence"
Members of the police are still inclined to cover up the misconduct of their colleagues. During investigations conducted in this respect, members of the police have persistently claimed that they have not seen or heard anything and have even falsely testified in order to exonerate their colleagues. Such a mutually practiced trend of cover-up among colleagues even includes covering up criminal acts committed while on duty. The motive for cover-up is the belief that there is no need to subject colleagues and oneself to criminal prosecution over nonsense. In addition, the cop culture plays a role: colleagues who attribute violations to other colleagues violate the allegiance of loyalty and unconditional solidarity.

Finally, failure to embrace the culture of admitting errors and learning lessons from committed mistakes – as previously stated- also contributes to covering up colleagues' misconduct. It is not unusual for members of the police to be encouraged to hold their tongues and give a false account of events. The "Wall of Silence", like corruption, reproduces itself, and is extremely difficult to eliminate once established. Whoever remains silent once has no option but to continue to remain silent; otherwise, he/she will be subjected to criminal prosecution on the charge of obstructing the course of justice while on duty. Some countries use internal complaint mechanisms that are also employed, for example, to combat corruption.

7.7 Conditions and Challenges Facing the Police Establishment and Community Police in Iraq

From a socio-psychological perspective, perhaps the most distinctive feature of Iraqi society is the vast gap resulting from the lack of trust between citizens or society at large on the one hand and the security establishment (law enforcement) on the other.[14]

Cumulative and residual effects have resulted from transforming the security establishment, especially the police force, into an oppressive institution instead of maintaining its original role as a servant of the people, especially during dictatorships. The police force was and continues to be (to a lesser extent) the object of society's scorn and rejection. In general, police work in Iraq faces the following challenges and obstacles:

– Mistrust: Cumulative legal violations, abuse and a negative reputation.
– Social rejection: Given the lenient criteria for appointment in the police force, those with poor academic qualifications are motivated to join.
– Lack of cooperation: Citizens' reluctance to provide information to members of the police.

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14 Source: This text until the "Skills of the Community Police" is cited from the website of the Iraqi Ministry of the Interior, http://www.moi. gov.iq/com-police.htm, and was written by Mr. Abdalsada Oda Ghadeb Al Sudani (the Iraqi Ministry of Human Rights).

– Security situation: Inability to improve the security conditions experienced by both citizens and the police.
– Social culture: Seeking solutions from family and tribe without seeking intervention from formal entities, which are considered foreign.
– Bad behaviour of some members of the police.
– Lack of legal protection guarantees for members of the police.
– Low level of awareness among the police of the importance of their work.

Even if the performance of the police is limited by the factors listed above, there are still positive and promising aspects that show interest in developing the establishment and improving its performance. Advisory meetings are scheduled between police officers and community members: citizens, institutions, entities, civil society organisations, etc. These meetings represent the first step toward identifying social and security issues. Afterwards, the administration of each security department within its respective jurisdiction will review the outcome of these meetings and work to find suitable solutions to the problems at hand. These meetings will include communication with:
– Members of provincial and municipal councils.
– Notables and citizens,
– Representatives of civil society organisations.

The role of the aforementioned entities involves:
Participating, in their social capacity, with the police in marking social events and national festivals and celebrations, as this would further strengthen the positive relations between the security establishment and society.
– Honouring citizens and organisations who collaborate with the security forces in return for their contributions to the success of security strategies and plans,
– Visiting the sick, the elderly and those injured in terrorist attacks and traffic accidents and raising their morale.
– Providing facilitated services for the elderly, people with special needs and widows and helping them fulfil their needs,
– Analysing the public's wishes and views regarding the Ministry of the Interior collected through media and communication outlets and field surveys.

Therefore, community police can be defined as a public security force that plays an intermediary role between the security establishment (police stations) and the society's institutions and elites. The mission of community police is to communicate and interact with the society in order to achieve the greatest partnership possible between the police and society towards assuming security responsibilities in accordance with the concept of inclusive human security. In other words, community police is an interactive and communicative intermediary between the police (the security

establishment) and society, aiming to engender close cooperation between security personnel, thinkers, intellectuals, educators and the organisations and members of society to ultimately create a cultural environment of social security.
In order to overcome the difficulties and problems that harm the reputation and efficiency of the police, community police must develop their ability to:
– Promote the principles of citizenship, democracy, social peace and human rights under the framework of the rule of law. These principles involve consolidating awareness of human values, national unity, tolerance, coexistence and fighting destructive racist and discriminatory values.
– Improve social and humanitarian work within the police establishment to promote convergence and a reciprocal relationship between police and community members, highlight the social role of national police in serving the people and open channels of communication between the police and society to boost trust and positive interaction.
– Reinforce the concepts of honesty, integrity and patriotic devotion at the individual and collective levels as an auxiliary factor for achieving security.
– Ease the burden on police stations through the resolution of minor incidents that can be solved without filing a formal report.
– Provide psycho-social support to victims of crimes, serious accidents and terrorism and contribute to remedying the after-effects of crime and terrorism.

The preventive measures adopted by community police include:
– Involving all segments of society in assuming civil security responsibilities and removing the psychological barriers citizens face when dealing with the police.
– Seeking objective and practical solutions to social problems by motivating the community to take part in rectifying wrongful practices. Providing early intervention mechanisms and addressing and solving social issues and problems amicably so as to increase the chances for tolerance among the conflicting parties, especially in cases of neighbourhood, domestic and school violence as well as disputes between neighbours.
– Developing work mechanisms for "friends of the police" and volunteering in the security field.
– Early detection of those cases that are particularly prone to delinquency and taking precautionary measures.
– Dealing with cases that do not reach the police (shadow crimes).
– Offering social and psychological services to those affected by crime, indigent persons and those prone to delinquency.

Other helpful activities include:
– Offering regular counselling and guidance to parents and students regarding school dropout and to children and the homeless prone to delinquency.
– Providing temporary housing services to women and children.
– Providing services to strengthen social cohesion, including in the fields of domestic disputes and violence, child abuse, poor upbringing and juvenile delinquency.
– Combating school violence.
– Filing reports and offering help in serious accidents that result in the loss of one or more family member, fire and traffic accidents, etc. Contributing to monitoring human trafficking, prostitution and drugs.

Skills of Community Police

In addition to demonstrating high patriotic and human values and professional discipline, members of community police forces must work to acquire the skills of working with community members, most importantly the ability to persuade and communicate without resorting to violence and the ability to manage conflicts. Members of community police forces must also extend their positive attitude and unlimited will to all components of the social spectrum without any prejudice. They must also be flexible in dealing with others without stereotyping or tiresome bureaucratic procedures. In short, the police, both as an institution and as individual members, face serious and varying challenges that affect all levels. Therefore, the following important recommendations regarding the Iraqi community police must be considered:
– Increase citizens' participation in reinforcing neighbourhood security and identifying the needs of society at the security level.
– Ensure pervasiveness of societal security.
– Publicise the achievements and successes of the police and draw a new vivid image of the security institutions in people's minds.
– Introduce the culture of admitting errors in the police establishment and the popular culture.
– Raise awareness among members of the security establishment about their legal, ethical and professional responsibilities.
– Consolidate the concepts of human rights and community police in society and among members of the police.

7.8 Tips for Human Rights Training

As mentioned above, qualifying police in the field of human rights is established in international law and demanded by the nature of police work. For effective police qualification in the field of human rights, the following points must be taken into consideration:

– Discussing the cop culture, its components and implications in a candid manner, and incorporating that culture into the different topics of the training curricula rather than approaching this topic separately, which may result in its marginalisation and neglect by the trainees. Moreover, the trainees must be introduced to methods that enable them to acquire the cop culture in an interactive and critical manner while continuing to respect the law at the same time. Addressing the cop culture extensively helps trainees better understand the police. This can be achieved through the participation of a trainers' team in the training session. For example, a trainer with training background alongside a psychiatrist or human rights expert could conduct the training.
– International conventions and instruments on human rights render training in human rights mandatory for all members of the police, both male and female. Hence, the subject of human rights must be treated as a key component in training courses designed for all target groups. Attending these courses must be obligatory, especially when it comes to professional promotion. In order to achieve a sustainable effect, it is essential to choose staff representing all levels to participate in the training courses.

First Level in the Chain of Command: Team Leaders

The first level of command is the most important target group. This group would consist of team leaders, leaders of working groups and taskforce commanders who are in close contact with the practical realities. This contact makes them well qualified in the eyes of their subordinates, in addition to being responsible for leadership Thus, it is necessary to develop a customized programme for this level of leadership rather than random activities or seminars.

Below are some suggestions on how to train this target group:

Motivation: To motivate police members to participate in the training, their interests must be taken into account. To this end, general incentives can be used like: good service performance, obtain citizen satisfaction, achieve a friendly working environment among colleagues, avoid causing problems to the team and achieve superiors' satisfaction.

Increased level of awareness: Educate the trainees about the special status of human rights that may be, for them, nothing more than a bunch of meaningless slogans. Activities related to the professional experiences of the trainees are more preferable here.

Awareness of special responsibility: Promote the trainees' awareness of their special responsibility as superiors who assume responsibility on behalf of their colleagues. This point should be used to motivate them.

Enhance available capacities: Instead of complaining about specific shortages, trainees must realise the resources available to police members to adopt a human rights-sensitive approach, and enhance these resources and capacities as part of the leadership work (knowledge of human rights, the art of being considerate, communication skills, ability to deal with people from other cultures, tolerance, etc.)

Awareness of potential problems: Discuss with trainees examples of human rights violations and other forms of professional misconduct on the part of the police, as well as their reasons and contexts. In this regard, topics such as the cop culture, the wall of silence and corruption play a central role. The purpose behind this discussion is not evaluation but learning critical thinking in order to effect the necessary changes.

Development of strategies: Trainees are to develop methods and techniques to perform services in a manner consistent with human rights. This process is related to a behavioural approach based on carefully considered psychological foundations and aimed at creating opportune working conditions and interacting with others through partnership and cooperation. Objectives can be set with the help of the European Council's guidebook "Does your institution defend human rights?" The conclusion can take the form of personal work plans that include short-term and mid-term sublevel objectives to be discussed at a later stage.

The Role of Leadership Forces

Leadership forces play a central role. On the one hand, this group needs to acquire knowledge of human rights and, on the other, to be aware of its responsibilities and that of others in applying human rights standards in police stations within their jurisdiction, as well as ensuring that their subordinates act in accordance with these standards.

Concepts and Techniques of Training:

Police leadership forces HR training should feature the following implications and techniques:

– Knowledge of human rights protection systems: This knowledge qualifies police leadership to enlighten their subordinates about the importance of human rights, and provide them with the needed support to implement such rights. Protecting and defending human rights must become an objective for police conduct. Such objective must be clearly defined to correspond with practical reality. The interactive methods described in this guidebook cannot be applied to leadership groups from the security sector. Even in theoretical courses ("lectures"), the instructor must involve the target group as much as possible and ask them to join in opinion-exchange debates.

– Human rights training may be linked with the training concepts in modern management. Such concepts revolve around organisational development and human resources development and management in order to improve the organisational structure of the police institution, enabling it to continuously interact with its environment in an appropriate manner. The most important task is qualifying the police as a service-oriented institution and as a community police force whose primary feature is its consideration of human rights. Further, leadership forces' behaviour should be ideal in order to motivate employees to follow their example. Application of a leadership style based on partnership and cooperation is imperative, and should not remain a mere slogan. Such a style is based on values that include respect; appreciation; dealing with work affairs in an honest and critical manner based on partnership; placing the information at everyone's disposal without concealing any of it; sense of responsibility and mutual trust; communicating with workers; setting objectives; creatind a suitable environment for the culture of admitting errors and learned lessons. These elements are the 'key' to qualification and they define the features of a.wise leadership culture. Modern management concepts almost negate classical understandings of leadership hierarchy based on the 'command and obedience' principle. Therefor, training in the field of human rights in its wider sense for leaders training in modern management, seeking to diminish the underlying motives for frustration stemming from the institutional organisation itself. Frustration, as explained abov, is a risk factor that leads to violations of human rights.

– The content of training courses must aim to bring commanders closer to the level of practical situations in order to bridge the gap between the institutional culture and the cop culture. Commanders can only handle such situations effectively after they have become extensively and closely acquainted with them. To this end, the findings of scientific research must be presented during training courses. The commanders must be willing to hear the voices that describe the concrete reality (e.g. the results of written activities collected from members of the police or members of the first level of command).

– Training tailored to commanders must include an introduction to their responsibility to communicate with the public. The institution's declared positions are required to show the commitment of its administration and personnel to human rights and show their self-esteem and self-criticism. Higher authorities, when communicated with, must be encouraged to bring their directives into compliance with human rights. Should the orders coming from the higher authority to carry out certain tasks (e.g. to disperse a demonstration) be inconsistent with human rights, the commanders must discuss the matter with that authority. If the commanders have serious and justified doubts, they should decline to carry out such orders.

Trainers' Training Courses

The role of trainers in polices schools and academies is crucial to qualifying police recruits. Trainers take responsibility for the accuracy of specialised information and employing appropriate training methods. In addition, the influence of a trainer's personality and the compatibility between his/her aspirations and conduct are important factors for the success of the training process.

.... To achieve the appropriate consideration to human rights issues and questions in all of the training material, instructors' awareness of the following issues must be increased:

– Have human rights issues been integrated into the studying material?
– Have the selected topics and their size been optimised?
– How can human rights topics be discussed profoundly in an efficient manner?

To clarify, let's discuss the following two examples that seem to be irrelevant to the subject of human rights. The first example is taking fingerprints as a criminal investigation technique. Taking someone's fingerprints may be done in a fashion that would make that person feel as if he/she were an instrument in the hands of the police. However, this technique can be performed after explaining the process to the concerned person simply and by using the minimal essential terminology, in a respectful manner. The second example is from the athletic qualification field: when two people wrestle to overpower and restrict each others' movement using physical strength, this may constitute a violation of each others' rights. In this event, the trainers can view the sport as a mere policing technique, or, otherwise, inform the trainees of the relevant legal and ethical dimensions.

Even training in the methods and techniques can be considered as part of human rights education in the wider sense of the word. This includes:

– Showing respect to trainees,
– Empowering individual trainees to make decisions,
– Working in a motivational way guided by the most recent modern psychology research and studies,
– Acting on the basis of experience and practical reality,
– Working in a considerate manner to the interests and needs of trainees.

Mere presentation of international standards (lecturing) to trainees demanding that they accept a certain position (theorising) is ineffective and does not produce results. It is therefore preferable in the early stages of the training to resort to role-playing (simulation), which is closer to reality. Finally, human rights training will not automatically change the behaviour of trainers, but rather motivate them to learn and think which will ultimately yield behavioural changes.

7.9 A Quick Overview

Essential Message:

– The training and qualifying of the police in the field of human rights is an obligation provided for by International Law.
– The training and qualifying of the police in the field of human rights is a way to improve police performance.
– The training and qualifying of the police in the field of human rights should include designating different contents and methods in accordance with the different ranks of members of leadership involved.

Suitable Activities:

– The Opposite Direction
– Bowling Pins
– Bingo
– Text Analysis
– Honouring Ceremony
– Privileges or Rights?
– Dialogue and the Guillotine
– The Closed Circle
– Transparency and Trust
– When You Return to Work
– Say but Don't Say
– Musical Chairs
– What Do You Think?
– What Would Happen If...?
– Who Placed the Bomb?
– The Difficult Mission
– Citizens and Public Service
– News Bulletin of the Year Two Thousand Something

Original Resources:

– The International Covenant on Civil and Social Rights; The Convention against Torture; The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights; The Convention on the Rights of the Child
– The Anti-Discrimination Committee: General Comment No. 31/2005
– http://www.ohchr.org/english/bodies/cerd/docs/GC32Rev_En.pdf
– The European Council [2006c]: the 'Police & Human Rights' Programme: http://www.coe.int/t/e/human%5Frights/police
– The International Police Standards –– The European Code of Police Ethics, the Ministerial Committee of the European Council, 2009, in Arabic:
– http://www.dcaf.ch/publicnations/kms/details.cfm?lng-en&id-95671&navi-5m

Third Part: Practical Applications

1 Training and Activities

1.1 The Opposite Direction

Activity Title	The Opposite Direction
Application Field	Generally, useful in human rights courses, especially with regards to controversial topics that ensue from substantial differences in views such as women's rights, prevention of torture, death penalty or the situation of minorities.
Type of Activity	Interactive, engaging, competitive.
Objective	Acquire successful communication skills, which are based on the objective persuasion of others.
	15-20 participants
	90 minuteS
How to Implement?	The trainer prepares cards in the following manner: On some cards, the trainer writes down the arguments in favour of a certain topic and on another equal number of cards, he writes down the arguments against said topic. On one card only, the trainer writes the (pitch argument to be used in persuading the participants) or (target to be persuaded). All cards are to be placed in sealed envelopes. Afterwards, the trainer divides the participants into two groups and appoints one of the participants as a listener (the person to be persuaded). The trainer, then, distributes the cards to the participants randomly. After the distribution and opening of the envelopes, the trainer asks the participants to sit on two opposing sides, i.e. one represents the supporters and the other the opponents while the listener sits up front in between the two groups. Subsequently, the first participant from the supporters group presents his argument, which is in turn counter-debated by a participant from the group of opponents and so forth, giving room for dialogue between the two groups to discuss the arguments that were put forward. After all cards are discussed, the trainer asks the listener whether he/she reached a decision that supports either of the two views, provided he/she gives the reasons behind such a decision. The listener then moves to sit with the group that was successful in persuading him/her. The trainer may present the team that was able to persuade the listener, and the listener that proved to be capable of listening to varied arguments, with a simple prize. Example: The ctrainer writes on the first card (supporters): "Educating women helps in building society", and on the second card: "A working woman helps reduce man's economical burdens". The trainer writes on the first card (opponents.): "Educating women leads to their failure at home", and on the second card: "While doing her job, a woman would require more clothes which in turn would create more expenses". And so on...
Training Materials	Cards, envelopes, a simple prize.
	After the debate, the participants shall discuss, review and analyse the outcome of the debate.
Source	Dheyaa Kareem Tuama Mohammed

1.11 Rights or Privileges?

Activity Title	Rights or Privileges?
Application Field	Useful in the field of women's rights or in the field of gender discrimination.
Type of Activity	Engaging, interactive
Objective	Participants should realise the impact their gender has on their situation, their personal freedom and on the opportunities available to them whether at professional, personal or social levels.
	10-30 participants
	30-90 minutes, depending on the nature and the intensity of the dis-cussion.
How to Implement?	Participants stand on a horizontal line and the trainer asks that they imagine that they are all men. The trainer then proceeds to make certain statements (see Distribution Form below); when the participant believes that the statement suits him as a man, he should step one step forward then return to the starting point. This continues until all the statements on the Distribution Form are exhausted. In the next part of the exercise, the trainer asks all participants to imagine they are all women. Repeat steps. The trainer may use this activity for refreshment or to approach the topic of women's rights or gender issues; or even to conclude to an exercise on gender. The intensity of the exercise, its duration and evaluation thereof de-pend on the progress of the training day.
Training Materials	Distribution Form : Rights or Privileges? Important: A large room should be available
	The activity may be conducted based on the real gender of the participants (women assume the role of women, and men assume the role of men), or participants may even exchange roles whereby men assume the role of women and vice versa. In the first scenario, the risk lies in the affirmation and confirmation of the reality the participants live: Men are afforded more opportunities than women. In the second scenario; however, there is a risk of mockery and ridicule; especially considering the nature of the Iraqi society and culture. Therefore, we recommend that the exercise is conducted as explained above under "How to Implement?" even if this requires more time in comparison with the aforementioned scenarios.
Source	Anna Würth and a group of Iraqi participants.

Distribution Form

- My colleagues at work think that I got my job on the basis of my qualifications not my gender.
- My promotion is dependent upon my efficiency and not my gender.
- The possibility of my being exposed to sexual harassment at my place of work is very weak and I am not intimidated by that possibility.
- Even in the event where I cannot fully care for my children (due to the time factor), my manhood/ womanhood will remain whole.
- It is natural for me to have a job even if I have children.
- The representatives elected to represent me are of my gender, especially the ones in high positions.
- Should I desire to meet a senior official, he/she will definitely be of my gender.
- When I was young, I received more support to go out and do activities than my sisters/brothers had.

- When I was young, there were many children's programmes that presented a positive and effective outlook on heroes of my gender.
- If I watch TV or read the newspapers, I will see, daily, many people of my gender in an extensive manner.
- A lot of the opportunities I am given in life are because of my charm.
- Many think that my decisions are always balanced irrespective of the nature of my body or of certain days in the month.
- Clerics in all major religions in the world are of my gender.
- If I were married, the household chores would be divided between us in a manner where the other would do the majority of the chores, especially the wearisome ones.
- As a divorcée, there is a big chance that my second marriage will be to a person younger in age, even if I was over 35 years old with kids.

1.24 What Do You Think?

Activity Title	What do you think?
Application Field	Useful for units involved with torture prevention and safeguarding prisoners' rights and for prison inspectors.
Type of Activity	Interactive, persuasive
Objective	Increase trainees' awareness and experience with regards to handling torture prevention and cruel treatment issues.
	6-30 participants
	20-60 minutes
How to Implement?	The trainer distributes "What do you think?" questionnaire to the participants and asks each participant to answer the questions, individually, within ten minutes. The trainer, then, discusses the answers with the participants where the participants explain their choice of answer to the questionnaire. (See Distribution Form below)
Training Materials	"What do you think?" Questionnaire
	The trainer may divide the participants into groups where each group discusses and decides on answers, and then presents and explains its choice of answers. Afterwards, the entire group moves on to discuss the questions in the questionnaire and their answers. It is useful in this exercise for the trainer to try to limit his/her role to managing the debate between the groups to give the participants a chance to practice debate, persuasion, self-criticism and sharing experience amongst themselves.
Source	The concept is borrowed from: Shiman, David (1999): Teaching Human Rights. Denver, CTIR, p. 140.

Distribution Form: What Do You Think?

Tick (✔) or (✗) against each question below:

Question	Answer
Interviews with individuals who are still in custody do not differ from those conducted in private in a safe external facility.	
It is evident that many prisoners have been tortured in a particular place but they all refuse, out of fear, to allow the investigators to use their statements. Using the prisoners' statements to ensure torture prevention is not considered a betrayal of the prisoners' trust.	
There are many apparent contradictions and inconsistencies in the statements of a person who alleges to have been subject to torture. Therefore, the allegation is false.	
Torture, especially sexual torture, is a very sensitive topic that may not be discussed before a follow-up visit or even the visit after.	
Listening to a person is more important than addressing questions to him/her.	
The outcome of interviewing a person who was subject to rape is the same, whether the interviewer was a man or a woman.	
If a person shows lack of interest and unresponsiveness to the interviewer, the interviewer may deem that said person does not have a genuine story and hence end the interview.	
Even if the person being interviewed or visited shows evident resistance to giving information about what happened to him/her, the interviewer must do his/her utmost best to obtain sufficient information as this will assist in protecting the person from his/her assailants.	
All people respond to torture in the same manner. Thus, the interviewer must use the same techniques or entries when interviewing victims of torture.	

Imprint

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