

1 It is time for us all to embrace person-centred language for
2 people in prison and people who were formerly in prison

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 The use of person-centred language is well accepted regarding substance use and infectious
3 disease healthcare and research, and appropriate acronyms have become commonplace, e.g.,
4 “people who inject drugs (PWID)” has mostly replaced phrases like “injecting drugs users”.
5 However, the use of the term’s ‘prisoner’ or ‘prisoners’ remains common. Although less
6 common, terms such as ‘offenders’ and ‘inmates’ are also still used on occasion. This persists
7 despite calls from people with lived experience of incarceration, and fellow academics, to
8 stop using these terms. Given the considerable overlap between substance use, infectious
9 diseases, and incarceration, in this commentary we discuss how they interact, including the
10 stigma that is common to each. We propose that using person-centred language (i.e., people
11 in prison or people formerly in prison) needs to become the default language used when
12 presenting research related to people in prison or people formerly in prison. This is a much-
13 needed step in efforts to overcome the continued stigma that people in prison face while
14 incarcerated from prison officers and other employees, including healthcare providers.
15 Likewise, overcoming stigma, including legalised discrimination, that follows people who
16 were formerly in prison upon gaining their freedom is critical, as this impacts their health and
17 related social determinants, including employment and housing.

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1 *“When we are not called mad dogs, animals, predators, offenders and other derogatory*
2 *terms, we are referred to as inmates, convicts, prisoners and felons—all terms devoid of*
3 *humanness which identify us as “things” rather than as people. These terms are accepted as*
4 *the “official” language of the media, law enforcement, prison industrial complex and public*
5 *policy agencies. However, they are no longer acceptable for us and we are asking people to*
6 *stop using them.”*

7 Eddie Ellis, person who was formally in prison and founder of Center for NuLeadership on
8 Human Justice and Healing

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10 The above quoted letter written in 2007 by Eddie Ellis passionately advocates for the use of
11 person-centred language with regard to incarceration and clearly identifies ‘offenders’,
12 ‘inmates’, ‘convicts’, ‘prisoners’ and ‘felons’ as dehumanising terms (Ellis, 2007). Within the
13 fields of substance use and infectious disease healthcare and research, most of these terms are
14 fairly uncommon, however they are still used. Notably ‘prisoners’ is still commonly used in
15 manuscripts published in leading international journals and abstracts presented at major
16 global conferences. In contrast, the use of person-centred language is common regarding
17 substance use (e.g., people who inject drugs), and infectious diseases (e.g., people living with
18 HIV). Indeed, this language is insisted upon, and in some cases enforced, by many journals
19 and conferences. A major reason for the advocacy of such language is because of the stigma
20 that is all too common regarding substance use and infectious diseases, which adversely
21 impacts on the health and opportunities of people who experience this stigma and related
22 discrimination. Given the considerable overlap between substance use, infectious disease, and
23 incarceration, we suggest that person-centred language should also be used regarding
24 incarceration. In his letter, Ellis goes on to state *“We also firmly believe that if we cannot*
25 *persuade you to refer to us, and think of us, as people, then all our other efforts at reform and*

1 *change are seriously compromised.*” We wholeheartedly agree with this statement. At the
2 heart of this commentary, we ask the question; if we are accepting of and insistent on person-
3 centred language as one means to try and overcome stigma related to substance use and
4 infectious diseases, do people in prison, or people who were formerly in prison, not also
5 deserve this to try and reduce the discrimination that is endorsed by the structural, social, and
6 internalised stigma they continue to face? In what follows, we explore stigma as a concept,
7 discussing the linkage from ancient roots to modern application. We then focus on stigma in
8 relation to infectious disease, substance use, and incarceration. This is followed by an
9 overview of person-centred language, including with regard to incarceration. We close with
10 our thoughts on how we, as a collective body, can further address this within substance use
11 and infectious disease healthcare and research.

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1 **STIGMA, A BRIEF HISTORY**

2 Stigma as a modern sociological concept is oft attributed to Erving Goffman and his work
3 *Stigma: Notes on the Management of Spoiled Identity* (Goffman, 1968). It is important to
4 recognise however that stigma is not a new concept that emerged in the mid to late 20th
5 century. Goffman himself noted that stigma originates from ancient Greece – “*signs were cut*
6 *or burnt into the body and advertised that the bearer was a slave, a criminal, or a traitor – a*
7 *blemished person, ritually polluted, to be avoided, especially in public places*”. Stigma, as
8 per Goffman, is suggested to be a term used to refer to an attribute that is deeply discrediting
9 (Goffman, 1968). Link and Phelan have built on this and conceptualised stigma as requiring
10 five interrelated components; distinguishing and labelling differences, linking labelled people
11 to negative stereotypes, categorisation of “us” from “them”, status loss and discrimination
12 leading to unequal outcomes, and access to power that allows disapproval, rejection,
13 exclusion and discrimination to occur (Link and Phelan, 2001). Building upon this seminal
14 piece, stigma has been recognised as a fundamental cause of population health inequalities
15 (Hatzenbuehler et al., 2013).

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17 More recently, Imogen Tyler focuses on stigma as a practice of exploitation and social
18 control, and frames stigma as a machinery of inequality (Tyler, 2020). This framing by Tyler
19 is potentially most evident regarding incarceration. For example, in *The New Jim Crow*,
20 Michelle Alexander points out that in the United States of America discrimination directed
21 toward people who were formerly in prison is often perfectly legal regarding employment,
22 housing, voting rights, and access to public benefits (Alexander, 2012). In what follows, we
23 provide a narrative overview of the intersection of infectious diseases, substance use,
24 incarceration, and stigma.

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1 **INTERSECTIONAL STIGMA**

2 Many infectious diseases are highly stigmatised including, but not limited to, HIV (Chambers
3 et al., 2015), hepatitis C virus (Paterson et al., 2007), tuberculosis (Daftary et al., 2017) and
4 more recently COVID-19 (Bhanot et al., 2021). HIV, hepatitis C virus and tuberculosis are
5 well recognised to disproportionately affect people in prisons compared to their surrounding
6 communities (Rich et al., 2016). As noted by Rich et al. this is at least partially a result of the
7 criminalisation of drugs, an ongoing legacy of the failed war on drugs. Regarding HIV and
8 hepatitis C virus, enacted stigma, or more simply legalised discrimination, in prisons is
9 shown through the denial of equivalence of care to evidence-based harm reduction including
10 medically prescribed opioid use treatment and needle and syringe programs in many
11 countries (Kamarulzaman et al., 2016). Likewise, despite evidence that hepatitis C treatment
12 is feasible and effective in prison settings, this is still not available in many jurisdictions
13 (Akiyama et al., 2021). Furthermore, the confiscation of other prescribed medicine has been
14 reported by people in prison (Edge et al., 2020). While perhaps more subtle, this is also
15 evidenced with regard to tuberculosis, through the over-crowding of prisons, delayed case
16 detection, and inadequate infection control measures (Dara et al., 2015). These factors are
17 likely what has also contributed to people in prison also being adversely affected by COVID-
18 19 (Franco-Paredes et al., 2020, Oladeru et al., 2020).

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20 Substance use, and particularly illegal substance use, attracts a considerable amount of
21 stigma. It is important to note however a hierarchy within how substances are criminalised
22 (or not) and the level of stigma they attract. For example, there is increasing acceptance of
23 cannabis including decriminalisation and legalisation in several US states, Canada, and a
24 handful of other countries (Hammond et al., 2020, Cerdá and Kilmer, 2017, Cabral, 2017). In
25 contrast, the use of substances such as cocaine, heroin, and methamphetamine remains

1 criminalised almost universally. While these three substances may be consumed in numerous
2 ways, the literature that is available indicates stigma is more common regarding injection
3 drug use rather than other forms of consumption (Luoma et al., 2007, Etesam et al., 2014). It
4 is also generally recognised that stigma related to the hepatitis C virus is primarily driven by
5 the association with injection drug use (Paterson et al., 2007, Treloar et al., 2013) rather than
6 hepatitis C virus itself. This is evidenced more broadly in Australian society with data
7 indicating people hold more negative attitudes towards people who inject drugs than people
8 living with HIV or hepatitis C (Broady et al., 2020). As discussed by Broady et al., this is
9 likely a result of drug use being a criminalised activity, and being a “modifiable” behaviour
10 as opposed to a medical condition such as HIV or hepatitis C. However, this is revealed
11 differently depending upon the situational sub-group context. For example an Australian
12 study found that among people who inject drugs within prison, hepatitis C stigma was
13 common, having the potential to disrupt networks and lead to social isolation (Rance et al.,
14 2020).

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16 Beyond enacted stigma faced while in prison, stigma continues to impact the life of people
17 who were formally in prison in numerous ways. Research from Canada and the United States
18 indicates that people who were formerly in prison may have difficulty in being accepted as a
19 patient by primary care doctors (Fahmy et al., 2018) and difficulty in obtaining housing and
20 employment upon gaining their freedom (Keene et al., 2018, Hu et al., 2020). In their
21 longitudinal qualitative study, Keene and colleagues highlight structural stigma; that is
22 government policy that enables housing to be denied to people with a history of incarceration,
23 including low-income subsidised housing. They also build on their concept of spatial stigma
24 (Keene and Padilla, 2014) in highlighting how people who were formally in prison often have
25 to resort to staying in accommodation such as homeless shelters, which in turn limits their

1 ability to find employment as employers are reluctant employ people living in such settings.
2 This stigma, or more bluntly in some cases legalised discrimination, may result in people who
3 were formally in prison having to live in precarious environments which likely exposes them
4 to an array of adverse health outcomes. This may include an increased risk of acquiring
5 infectious diseases such as HIV and hepatitis C virus (Stone et al., 2018, Arum et al., 2021)
6 and also increases their risk of having a fatal overdose (Farrell and Marsden, 2008, Merrall et
7 al., 2010). Likewise, in order to support themselves, and potentially family members, they
8 may have to engage in activity that increases their risk of adverse health outcomes, including
9 being reincarcerated. It is also important to recognise that incarceration not only impacts the
10 lives of those incarcerated; it also impacts families, and particularly children (Myers et al.,
11 1999) of those incarcerated. These families and children are also likely to experience stigma
12 as a result of their family member, mother, or father being imprisoned (Dawson et al., 2013,
13 Phillips and Gates, 2011).

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15 **LANGUAGE MATTERS**

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17 The words we write or speak have immense power and are part of societal discourse which
18 both influences and is influenced by public policy. We contend that the words we use have
19 the power to respectfully, and accurately, represent people and ideas; they also have the
20 ability to perpetuate ignorance and bias, leading to stigmatisation and discrimination.

21 One approach to reducing stigma within society is the advocacy for person-centred language.

22 We note this may also be referred to as person-first language, however we use person-centred
23 language as this correlates with the broader concept of person-centred care (Entwistle and
24 Watt, 2013, Håkansson Eklund et al., 2019). Person-centred language has its roots within the
25 disability self-advocacy movement that emerged in the mid 1970's after decades of

1 domination by ‘professionals’, who did not always have their ‘clients’ best interests in mind
2 (Wehmeyer et al., 2000). Person-centred, inclusionary language is now broadly advocated for
3 within the American Medical Association Manual of Style (American Medical Association,
4 2020) and by the American Psychological Association (American Psychological Association,
5 2021). Person-centred language regarding infectious diseases is also now well established,
6 the first notion of which is often attributed to the Denver Principles (People with AIDS
7 advisory committee, 1983). These principles are now well-accepted within the healthcare and
8 academic research community and generally have been applied to other infectious diseases
9 such as hepatitis C and tuberculosis (Frick et al., 2015).

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11 With specific reference to substance use, person-centred language and the avoidance of
12 stigmatising language has been advocated for by academics (Zgierska et al., 2021) and
13 government bodies such as Health Canada (Health Canada, 2021). Similarly, despite their
14 own problematic name that we contend may perpetuate stigma, the National Institute on Drug
15 (Ab)use now also recommends the use of person-centred language and has published a list of
16 words to avoid, including ‘abuse’ (National Institute on Drug Abuse, 2021). Other groups
17 have also composed guidelines focused on person-centred language usage by journalists in
18 media reporting on issues related to substance use (Health in Justice Action Lab, 2019, AOD
19 Media Watch, 2021).

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25 **LANGUAGE MATTERS FOR EVERYONE**

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The first challenges to the habit of referring to individuals as ‘prisoners’, or other equally dehumanising terms such as ‘inmates’, ‘felons’ and ‘offenders’ emerged in the early 2000s in the United States, and were led by people with lived experience of incarceration (Cox, 2020). This is also reflected in language policy from mainstream think-tanks working in the ‘criminal justice’ sector (La Vigne, 2016, La Vigne, 2018). Furthermore, the annual conference hosted by the Academic Consortium on Criminal Justice Health in the USA specifies that stigmatizing language be omitted from the proposals and presentations, and suggests a suitable glossary of terms (Academic Consortium on Criminal Justice Health, 2021). The National Commission on Correctional Health Care in the USA also advocates for the use of person-centred language regarding people who are incarcerated (The National Commission on Correctional Health Care, 2021). Similarly, the Australasian Society for HIV, Viral Hepatitis and Sexual Health Medicine language guide also indicates that ‘prisoner’ should not be used (Australasian Society for HIV Viral Hepatitis and Sexual Health Medicine, 2021).

Other groups composed of people with lived experience of incarceration and academics have also discussed the importance of avoiding dehumanising language (Bedell et al., 2019, Tran et al., 2018). Rather than defining people by an experience or one aspect of their identity, Bedell et al. argue that person-centred language is the bedrock for dignity and shared decision making. This is echoed by Tran et al. who remind us that stigma can be created and reinforced by the labels we use. The resultant felt and enacted stigma can lead people to be both excluded from or not seek out required health care. Both Bedell et al. and Tran et al. identify the use of the word ‘prisoner/s’ as problematic. The terms ‘offender’, ‘inmate’ and ‘convict’ are also considered equally devaluating and dehumanising (Tran et al., 2018) and

1 alternatives such as *Person who is Incarcerated*, *Person in Jail* or *Person in Prison* are
2 recommended.

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4 With specific regard to people in prison, the terms used in healthcare and academic research
5 should also recognise the fact that the time people spend in custody is usually temporary and
6 often short lived, therefore being a ‘prisoner’ is an impermanent state. For example, many
7 people in prison in Australia receive a sentence of less than 12 months, and due to the
8 ongoing legacy of colonialism and racial injustice, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders
9 disproportionately receive short sentences rather than non-custodial alternatives (Australian
10 Law Reform Commission, 2017). In a similar manner, mandatory minimum sentencing laws
11 in Canada disproportionately impact Indigenous people, Black people, and other members of
12 racially minoritised communities (Mangat, 2014, Canadian Association of Social Workers,
13 2020). It is worth noting that alleged drug offences constituted 75% of all admissions to
14 federal custody in Canada between 2007 and 2017 based on these mandatory minimum
15 sentencing laws (Department of Justice Canada, 2017). Therefore, the continued use of
16 ‘prisoner’, or other stigmatising terms likely further contributes to stigma and discrimination
17 already faced by people who use drugs due to the automatic association with criminal
18 behaviour within society. Likewise, people who are Indigenous, people who are Black and
19 other racially minoritised communities are over-represented in prisons due to racist policing
20 and prosecution (Banks, 2009). Therefore, we suggest that the continued use of ‘prisoners’
21 will potentially perpetuate ongoing stigma and discrimination faced by these groups in their
22 everyday life.

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25 **“BARRIERS” TO CHANGING THE LANGUAGE WE USE**

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A concern with changing this language is contributing more words to often tight word limits. As people who write journal manuscripts and conference abstracts, we empathise with this concern. If really required, this can be overcome by the use of acronyms, however a common instruction in academic writing is to avoid “non-standard” acronyms. As a result, many academics, peer reviewers, and editors have argued that acronyms for people in prison (PIP) are non-standard, therefore cannot be used in manuscripts or abstracts; we emphatically challenge this notion. As we have already discussed, previously people were referred to as “injecting drug users” – this changed to people who inject drugs (PWID) after years of campaigning by the affected community to advocate for the use of person-centred and non-stigmatising language. Our use of this acronym is no longer questioned; indeed, many of the authors have used it multiple times in published scholarly work. Similarly, the use of “homosexuals” has been replaced by more accurate and inclusive terms such as men who have sex with men (MSM) which is commonly used in academic journals.

So why is the use of people in prison (PIP) not yet de rigor? Likewise, why are we so strongly focused on person-centred language regarding substance use and infectious diseases, but not regarding incarceration? We suggest this is at least in part because people in prison do not have a strong community voice, nor do we routinely seek their input and treat them as partners in research projects. Even when efforts are made to do so, this is often made difficult by prison management and/or government departments responsible for ‘corrections’ and ‘justice’. We contend that this is another way that people in prison are punished, as they are cut off from many forms of communication. The stigma of incarceration can also internalise and stay within for many years, therefore even those people who have returned to the community may not wish to disclose their history of incarceration and may face barriers to

1 speaking up on their own and others' behalf. Therefore, we suggest person-centred language
2 should become the default language used and that terms such as people in prison, and their
3 acronyms if so required, would become widely accepted the more often and routinely they
4 are used in academic literature and conference presentations, or recommended by peer
5 reviewers and journal editors.

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7 It is important to note that people with lived experience of incarceration may choose to refer
8 to themselves and their peers however they wish. This topic has been discussed in
9 considerable detail regarding autism related research with continued discussion as to whether
10 person-first language or identity-first language is more appropriate (Botha et al., 2021,
11 Vivanti, 2020). This also draws parallels with concern about the erasure of sexual identity
12 when the terms men who have sex with men (MSM) and women who have sex with women
13 (WSW) are used (Young and Meyer, 2005). Indeed, the reclamation of gay and bisexual
14 identities is evident with the increasing use of the term “gay, bisexual and other men who
15 have sex with men” and the related acronyms GBM or gbMSM in academic literature. This
16 alludes to the point that the language used in academia, and society more broadly, is
17 constantly evolving and we need to be humble and accepting of this evolution. Even the
18 language used by the first author, someone without lived experience of incarceration, in the
19 initial drafting of this commentary changed following the input from a co-author with lived
20 experience of incarceration.

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22 Some may wonder if the language used by academic researchers is of any concern to people
23 with lived experience of incarceration, as they are rarely in the audience at scientific
24 conferences and too few of them have access to pay walled literature. Indeed, this was a point
25 raised by some of the people with lived experience of incarceration who were involved in the

1 writing of this commentary. While it could not be agreed how much people in prison care
2 about being referred to as ‘prisoners’ in journal articles, it was agreed that the language used
3 by prison officers and the media to refer to people in prison is frequently dehumanising,
4 hurtful, and degrading. Similarly, we contend that prisons are often by design an intentionally
5 dehumanising, hurtful, and degrading environment; and that imprisonment is more often than
6 not an inadequate solution to address decades, or centuries, of racist and classist policies
7 enacted by both ‘left-wing’ or ‘liberal’ and ‘right-wing’ or ‘conservative’ governments
8 globally. This commentary should not be taken as an effort to neglect this reality. Rather we
9 hope that the use of person-centred language may in due course hopefully contribute to a
10 more positive societal discourse that starts to address this.

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12 It is important to note that it remains an open question as to what terminology is most
13 appropriate. The first draft of this commentary as an example used the term people who are
14 incarcerated regarding people who are currently in prison. We ultimately chose to use the
15 term people in prison as this was emphasised by some authors with lived experience of
16 incarceration to be their preferred term. In addition, the focus of our commentary was on
17 research related to people who have received a prison-based sentencing order as opposed to
18 people in jail or people on remand awaiting sentencing. For full transparency, some authors
19 with lived experience of incarceration and their organisations still do use the term prisoners
20 and are primarily focused on the language used post-incarceration and the related stigma and
21 discrimination that continues to occur. As already discussed, people with lived experience
22 can refer to themselves and peers however they wish to. What we suggest is that healthcare
23 professionals and researchers should make a conscious effort to pro-actively ASK people
24 how they would like to be referred to in any subsequent publication of research they are
25 involved in. While acronyms may be used, they are not always required; after establishing the

1 setting i.e., a prison, perhaps we could simply refer to people as participants, or maybe even
2 people? If the opportunity does not present itself to ask this question, we suggest that person-
3 centred language should be the default in research related to people in prison or people
4 formerly in prison.

5

6 **WHERE TO FROM HERE?**

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8 In this commentary we have highlighted how changing the language used in relation to
9 infectious disease and substance use has been used to address the stigma associated with
10 them. The acceptance and promotion of person-centred language is a tool that has been
11 underutilised in efforts to overcome the stigma associated with incarceration. People in prison
12 or formerly in prison deserve to be treated with humanity, and one of the first steps towards
13 this is academic journals, and conferences, requiring person-centred language to be used in
14 research regarding people in prison or people formerly in prison. While we note that the
15 International Journal of Drug Policy, and Elsevier, have a policy on the use of inclusive
16 language, it makes no mention of conveying respect to people who are incarcerated. As a
17 group of co-authors consisting of people with lived experience of incarceration, people who
18 deliver frontline services, prison abolitionists and reform advocates, healthcare professionals,
19 and academics conducting research related to the health of people who experience
20 incarceration, we are calling on the editorial boards, reviewers, and contributing authors of all
21 journals to reflect on their language choices; and especially in relation to work regarding the
22 overlapping issues of infectious disease and substance use.

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24 All journals already have extremely detailed author instructions; the use of person-centred
25 language could easily be added to these instructions including a language guide based on

1 those already cited in this commentary with that from the Australasian Society for HIV, Viral
2 Hepatitis and Sexual Health Medicine being a particularly comprehensive example
3 (Australasian Society for HIV Viral Hepatitis and Sexual Health Medicine, 2021). Although
4 still a minority compared to healthcare providers and academic researchers, people with lived
5 experience of infectious diseases and substance use are slowly being more commonly
6 included as co-authors on publications and as speakers at conferences. Some of these people
7 also have lived experience of incarceration, including co-authors of this commentary.
8 Regardless of lived experience of infectious diseases and/or substance use, further efforts
9 should be made to engage people with lived experience of incarceration in educational
10 sessions for academics and healthcare providers, and as partners, rather than solely as
11 participants, in designing and evaluating health care interventions.

12
13 We recognise that evidence of person-centred language having direct impact on stigma
14 reduction is lacking. This may seem counter-intuitive to our advocacy for person-centred
15 language for people in prison and people formerly in prison, however, this is somewhat true
16 of stigma reduction interventions generally, with mixed results reported (Rao et al., 2019,
17 Kemp et al., 2019). In addition, as we have already discussed, dehumanising language can
18 perpetuate stigma and it is generally accepted that stigma can have a detrimental causal
19 impact on health outcomes (Hatzenbuehler et al., 2013). Therefore, if stigma causes
20 detrimental health outcomes, it perhaps is a reasonable argument that efforts to reduce
21 stigma, including through the conscious use of person-centred language, has a theoretical
22 underpinning. It is also important that the advocacy for person-centred language should not
23 be seen as an isolated intervention. Rather, just as with any well-designed health care
24 intervention, it should be one part of a suite of interventions targeted at multiple levels
25 including individuals, their immediate communities and broader society (Stangl et al., 2019).

1 Likewise, as discussed by Hatzenbuehler et al. and Stangl et al. people often experience
2 stigma for more than one reason. This adds complexity to interventions to overcome and
3 reduce stigma however it is crucial that this be acknowledged and addressed.

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5 There are some areas of incarceration we have not discussed in this commentary. We have
6 focused this commentary on people in prison or who have been in prison as a result of a
7 court-based sentencing decision as opposed to people who have been arrested and jailed
8 and/or are being held on remand, (i.e., pre-trial detention). There is much overlap between
9 these groups and therefore we suggest that any related work among people in jail or on
10 remand should also follow the use of person-centred language. Similarly, we have focused on
11 the adult prison system however we also strongly advocate for and emphasise that person-
12 centred language should be used regarding children who are incarcerated in juvenile
13 detention, which ultimately is just prison for children. Immigration detention is another area
14 we have not touched on in any detail. While there are a multitude of problems with this
15 system globally and no doubt associated stigma, this area is beyond the lived experience and
16 work experience of the authors of this commentary; therefore, we do not feel qualified to
17 provide detailed commentary. This is an area that should be explored further by those
18 working in that field and with lived experience of immigration detention.

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20 While we have focused on the overlap of infectious diseases, substance use and incarceration,
21 we would like to emphasize that we support the use of person-centred language for everyone,
22 including the practice of engaging with research participants to understand what their
23 preferences are regarding how they are referred to in publications and presentations. We also
24 recognise that we did not always use the language we are advocating for here. In a similar
25 manner, we do not suggest that terms such as ‘prisoners’ or similar terms have been used

1 intentionally by our colleagues to perpetuate stigma; as such, we made a conscious decision
2 to not cite examples. However, after critical thought, reflection, and engaging with research
3 participants on this topic, we now prioritise the use of person-centred language when
4 speaking or writing about people in prison or people formerly in prison, and we feel it is time
5 we all take up this practise. It is the intention of this commentary to raise awareness of the
6 need to be self-reflective and conscious about language choice, as the names we use for our
7 potential or actual patient and research populations may either harm or enhance their health
8 and well-being. Throughout history, society has deemed people in prison or people who have
9 formerly been in prison as the lowest of the low; as such we finish with a quote from Nelson
10 Mandela to reflect on; *“No one truly knows a nation until one has been inside its jails. A
11 nation should not be judged by how it treats its highest citizens but its lowest ones.”*

12

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15 have candidly and bravely shared their experiences of prison and their thoughts about how
16 language choices matter for people in prison and people formerly in prison. The senior author
17 particularly wishes to thank her father, who shared his own experiences of incarceration with
18 her, and provided critical feedback on the first draft of this commentary.

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20 The opinions and views expressed within this commentary are those of the individual authors
21 and do not necessarily represent the opinions and views of their affiliated institutions or
22 organisations.

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