

# reporter



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**COVER PHOTOGRAPH:** Professor David Bayley spoke on police functions and growth at a seminar which reviewed current police research held at the Institute on 23 August. See story on Page 8.

## Policing political violence

The ways in which terrorism was policed in several European countries were explained to a group of senior police and security officials at a seminar at the Institute on 12 August.

The seminar, 'Policing Political Violence', convened by Institute Criminologist, Dr Grant Wardlaw, coincided with the presence in Australia of Dr Richard Clutterbuck, who has established a world-wide reputation for his research in political violence and terrorism.

His latest book *The Media and Political Violence* examines the role of the media in reporting terrorism and riots.

A distinguished British military officer, Dr Clutterbuck held the rank of Major-General until 1972, when he took up the post of Senior Lecturer in international politics and political violence at the University of Exeter.

Dr Clutterbuck, whose research has been widely published, addressed the closed seminar on: 'Comparative Studies on Policing Terrorism (U.K., German and Italian approaches), and Violent Demonstrations: Causes, Aims, Techniques and Policing'.

He also dealt with the operations of the British S.A.S. and the organisational structure of the Provisional I.R.A.

Dr Clutterbuck discussed police strategies with respect to street riots, demonstrations, industrial disputes, kidnapping and extortion.

Other speakers were: Chief Superintendent Jack Fletcher (Australian Federal Police), who discussed the police response to terrorism in Australia, and Commander Fred Warnock (Victoria Police), whose topic focussed on the Victoria Police policy for dealing with demonstrations and industrial disputes.

At the close of the seminar, Dr Wardlaw presented a paper which examined whether or not there was a role for the private sector to play in countering political violence. ®



Dr Richard Clutterbuck

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# DIRECTOR'S DIGEST

By W. Clifford

A reporter for a Melbourne newspaper, seeking material for an article on crime in the twenty-first century, recently reminded me that in a paper which I delivered entitled 'Criminal Prophecy' in Brisbane in 1976, I had said that Australia would be obliged to consider crime commissions within five years. He complimented me on my foresight – but I feel no satisfaction at all in observing that now, across the country, there is a great and expanding interest in crime commissions, and that they are being supported by all kinds of community groups as well as by a diversity of political organisations.

Indeed I am not a little concerned that there is a tendency to treat them like magic lodestones with which to transform the threat of organised crime. Unfortunately the use of the term 'crime commission' can mean many things – and not necessarily the kind of things which I talked about in 1976 or which I spelt out in a Director's Digest in 1978 (vol. 5, no. 4).

It is disturbing to see the way in which crime commissions are being linked with the control of organised crime as if one necessarily implied the other. The United States has any number of crime commissions and as most people know, it still has a very flourishing organised crime industry which the crime commissions may harass or embarrass from time to time, or which they may even check at certain times or in certain places, but which they are quite evidently in no position to properly control.

In some places a crime commission has been a political exercise, a kind of posturing for the benefit of the taxpayer without any appreciable effect on the amount of organised crime in the area. Elsewhere their public hearings have merely served to make the television viewers more conscious of their own constitutional rights to silence.

Even where they have been

most effective it has been because the legislative powers were those which could only be exercised with a political consensus – so the political make up of the commissions were designed to provide this. Therefore, Australia would have to avoid all such kinds of impotence and window-dressing which merely increased bureaucracy to enable people to think that 'something is being done'.

The police want a crime commission, but very often this means that they are seeking a body that will have greater powers than they have to deal with organised crime. What are these greater powers? Phone-tapping, access to tax records, access to bank accounts, powers of temporary detention or to sequester property as ill-gotten gains.

Does this really require a commission to be brought into operation in highly-selective cases or could they not be entrusted to the present authorities with appropriate judicial supervision? The danger of their being abused may be just as great with a commission as with the present crime prevention services. It is very important to ask therefore what the functions of a crime commission are intended to be.

Whenever the control of organised crime is being considered, it is the investigative powers of a crime commission which are being stressed. But if the crime commission is to be a properly constituted investigative body, then it either has to be secret or public in conducting the enquiries.

If it is secret, then the possibility of all kinds of abuse cannot be overlooked. This is true even if it is to be merely 'confidential' and to operate in a surreptitious way. If the privacy of the investigation is to be little more than that at present observed by the police in making their enquiries, then the question of whether you really need the commission has to be faced.

If on the other hand it operates openly, publicly, with the possib-

ility of media coverage for the witnesses that it subpoenas, then there is a real danger of 'trial by association' and the denial of all the human rights which the civil liberties organisations are so concerned about.

After all, when appropriate evidence has been obtained, there is no reason why a defendant cannot be brought before the proper courts, and if better legislation is indicated – perhaps on the lines of the RICO legislation in the United States and Canada, then courts can deal with the matter as effectively as any commission. If it is to enquire into the behaviour of police officers, politicians and others within the criminal justice system, then again the choice of privacy or publicity has to be made.

The difficulty about the commission being properly investigative is that this could become its main function, and the final outcome is simply another extension of law enforcement with greater powers and perhaps with an unjustified extension of bureaucracy – an extension which could well cost a lot more than the possible savings on the amount of crime prevention.

It is for all these reasons that the proposal made in the Journal of this institute in 1978 was something entirely different. The crime commission suggested was one which would have the major task of coordinating the criminal justice services in each state, and ultimately be a representative body at the national level.

This body, composed of judges, police, correctional officers, academics, politicians, and the representatives of the general public, would be essentially designed to retool our existing systems to enable them to cope more effectively with the crime of the next century. This is an enormous task anyway and a very necessary one, and in the course of performing that task the commission would be in a position to plan economically and

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# Whose responsibility?

Who should accept responsibility for mentally ill offenders in custody was the subject of a seminar held at the Institute in June.

Planned by senior legal officer, Mr Ivan Potas and research criminologist, Dr Grant Wardlaw, the seminar sought agreement on which system should accommodate and treat such people and which dispositions were best able to cope with convicted prisoners who became mentally disordered in prison.

Dr Wardlaw said that in defining groups it was necessary to maintain the most important distinction between those who were technically not guilty of an offence and those who were convicted.

He said that there was no justification at any time for holding in prison those unfit to plead or those found not guilty by reason of insanity, and that as far as possible they should be cared for by the mental health system. However, convicted prisoners were the responsibility of the prison system.

'It is ethically indefensible to incarcerate a person found not guilty by reason of insanity in a maximum security prison and treat him/her in such a manner as is indistinguishable from what we call punishment for the convicted offender', he said.

Dr Wardlaw offered six major dispositional alternatives: a centralised psychiatric prison; small psychiatric units attached to major prisons; regional forensic psychiatric centres; secure units at regional psychiatric hospitals; a centralised psychiatric security hospital; or a prison system that provides no psychiatric services except diagnostic ones and uses general community psychiatric facilities.

He said that a large number of variations on each of these suggestions was possible and an ideal system may well involve some mix of all of them.

Dr Wardlaw's opinion, expressed later, was that the systems would be best served if specialised small units in prisons dealt with the

convicted criminally insane and similar units in hospitals treated those found not guilty.

According to Mr Potas the place where mentally ill offenders were sent often defined the treatment they were given, therapeutic under the auspices of mental health departments, or punitive under the auspices of prison departments.

'The simple dual model, hospital for the mad, prison for the bad, would be satisfactory if it were not for the fact that some mentally ill persons were also designated criminal, and some criminals were also labelled mentally ill', he said.

In the opinion of Mr Potas, the main justification for building special institutions within prisons must be resolved by reference to problems of security and treatment in conventional institutions.

The argument in support of special institutions is that hospitals are unable and/or unwilling to provide adequate security for the containment of dangerous offenders, and conventional prisons were totally inappropriate environments for treating mentally disordered offenders.

However it had been said that to send a person to a special psychiatric prison was the least efficacious and most problematic

means of dealing with mentally ill offenders because it labelled the accused both 'mad' and 'bad'.

Mr Potas said that while both the criminal justice and the mental health systems used their powers to detain persons in order to protect the community, both systems acknowledged that the excessive use of enforced detention was undesirable.

Changes had been made over the years which had led to the adoption by mental health authorities of an open door policy which encouraged as far as possible the treatment of mentally ill persons in the community.

On changes in attitude towards imprisonment, Mr Potas said that some sentencing alternatives designed partly to mitigate the harshness of imprisonment had not prevented many from going to prison.

It was also suspected that measures such as periodic detention and community service orders were sometimes used in lieu of some other non-custodial sanction such as probation rather than imprisonment.

With prisons being less inclined to take people and with mental health authorities tending to treat more patients in a community setting there was the so-called



From left to right: Mr M. Scandrett-Smith, Assistant Director (Treatment Services), Department of Corrective Services, Adelaide, (foreground); Dr Grant Wardlaw, Australian Institute of Criminology; Dr D. Schwartz, Senior Psychologist, Special Care Unit, Long Bay, Department of Corrective Services, New South Wales; and Mr P. Priest, Department of Correctional Services, Adelaide

displacement effect whereby as mental hospital populations went down, prison populations went up.

Mr Potas referred to the concern of the sentencer with the protection of the community and pointed out that there were strict limits to sentencing powers. An offender may not be sentenced to preventive detention unless there are laws — special legislation — to that effect. In other words, a sentence must first be thought of as having a punitive limit.

Mr Potas contended that it was perhaps time to 'sever our conservative notions on what imprisonment should be and provide a variety of regimes, institutions or facilities to which persons requiring treatment could be sent. There would not then be two choices, mental health or imprisonment, but rather several different types of imprisonment and in the case of the mentally disordered offender, a prison environment that best suited his or her needs.'

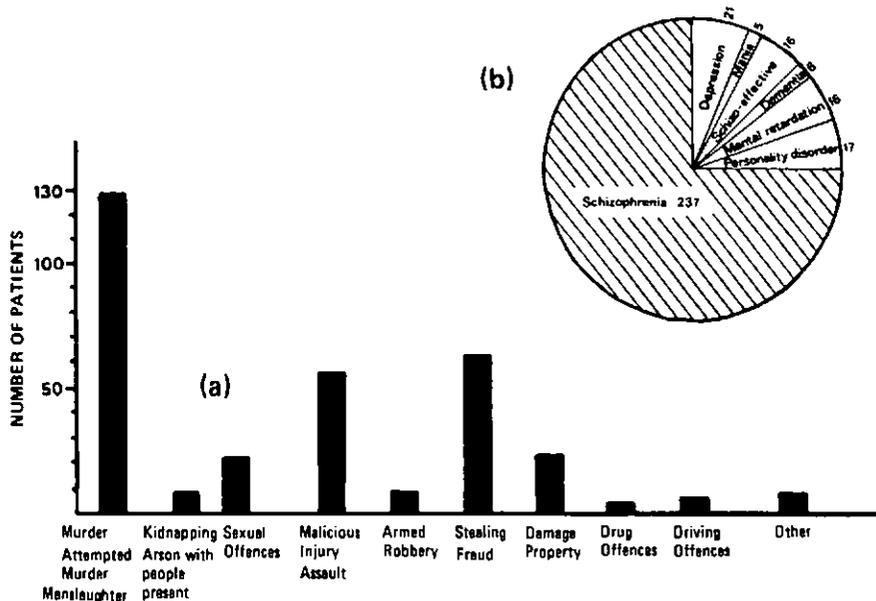
## TREATMENT MODES

The advantages and disadvantages of various facilities for the care of mentally ill offenders was examined by Dr L. Darcy, Medical Superintendent of Morisset Hospital.

He mentioned that while treatment was attempted in a variety of ways throughout the world, it was generally agreed that mentally ill offenders should be separated from prisoners and cared for by trained psychiatric staff in a suitable environment.

The three major models were:

- 1 A maximum security unit on the grounds of a psychiatric hospital staffed by health workers only.
- 2 A maximum security hospital unit within a prison setting, heavily dependent on prison officers for security.
- 3 A maximum security unit within the grounds of a psychiatric hospital staffed jointly by health workers and prison officers.



Dr Darcy presented to the seminar the above diagrams showing the numbers of patients in Morisset Hospital and (a) the crimes they committed and (b) the illness from which they were suffering. He said: 'The impression of the general public that criminal psychiatric units are full of schizophrenic murderers does not seem to be far from the truth.'

Security was briefly discussed and it was concluded that hostage taking rather than escape was now the main worry of both Health and Corrective Services Departments.

The advantages of a well staffed psychiatric unit within a prison included early detection and treatment, good liaison and continuity of care. The closeness of health personnel to prison officers was seen as a disadvantage as this might encourage a custodial rather than a therapeutic approach.

In the opinion of Dr Darcy the range of services and treatment of a psychiatric hospital had several advantages which might not be so readily available in the prison system.

For example, patients could be moved to various wards, have supervised and later unsupervised parole of the hospital grounds, take part in supervised outings, and perhaps later be allowed to live in the community.

Another advantage was that patients were able to mix with non-prisoners and have unlimited visits from relatives.

Management was discussed and it was pointed out that unlike staff in a psychiatric hospital who held the view that prisoners were sick people in need of care, prisoners

were usually considered by prison officers to be where they were as a punishment.

Recognition by the Department of Social Security of the premise that a person was innocent until proven guilty had allowed those who had not yet come to trial because they were unfit to plead or had been found not guilty of the offence on the grounds that they were mentally ill at the time of the offence, to receive social welfare benefits while they received care in hospital.

These benefits were not available to sentenced prisoners who were receiving psychiatric care.

## TREATMENT IN N.S.W.

A separate paper by Dr Darcy reviewed the case of the mentally ill offender in New South Wales.

It was explained that patients from the prison system were treated for their problems in much the same way as non-offenders with the exception of group discussions and private conversations with therapists.

Levels of safety were maintained by encouraging nursing staff to allow patients to express their feelings verbally which made it less likely that the patient would

become physically aggressive.

Dr Darcy explained at length the procedure for the transfer of mentally ill offenders from the prison system to a psychiatric hospital, and detailed the provisions of the amendment to the Social Security Act, 1980.

## BEHAVIOUR

Mrs Sue Wynne-Hughes attempted to identify the 'mentally ill' offender in custody and to highlight the problems associated with their management and placement.

Mrs Wynne-Hughes, Supervisor, Classifications, Department of Community Welfare, Victoria, identified the different categories of persons who may present as 'mentally ill', and concluded that the behavioural overlaps of the various categories made it difficult to formulate specific policies for specific groups of prisoners.

One exception was the category of patient which 'acted out' behaviour in an attempt to manipulate the system.

This type of person was easily identifiable to management and was generally assessed as not being mentally ill.

The delivery of psychiatric services to prisoners was discussed and it was stressed that in terms of the philosophy that imprisonment was designed to deprive a person of liberty, where imprisonment was considered the only suitable option, the prisoner had a right to appropriate psychiatric treatment available in a secure custodial setting.

She stressed that psychiatric attention should be equal to that available in the community and be available contingent on need not seen as a privilege.

Mrs Wynne-Hughes supported the establishment of a facility under the correctional umbrella using the 'prison hospital' model.

Ways in which legislation governing the mentally ill offender tended to create its own problems were illustrated, and it was con-



Dr K.P. O'Brien

cluded that present difficulties could only be alleviated by legislative and administrative changes.

Mrs Wynne-Hughes summarised that imprisonment should only be used for managing serious offenders and that prisoners should be sentenced on legal grounds and not for psychiatric treatment as a compulsory aspect to the sentence.

## SPECIAL CARE UNIT

The Special Care Unit at the Long Bay Complex of Prisons was developed to deal with some of the inmates previously held in the Observation Unit at Long Bay. Mr A.V. Bailey, Commissioner, New South Wales Corrective Services Commission and Dr D.M. Schwartz, in a long and detailed paper, explained the history and philosophy behind the establishment and operation of the Unit.

The Unit is designed as a

therapeutic community to help those people within a crisis situation, which is characterised by an acute anxiety state, depression, atypical aggressive gestures or suicidal threats or gestures. As well, it was intended that a small number of life-sentenced prisoners who were approaching the end of their sentences should be admitted in order to give them a program to help define their post-release objectives. It was not intended for inmates with severe mental illness.

The concept of a therapeutic community was explained as a style of management and a philosophy of caring representing an attempt to reduce formality and humanise relationships, share input in the decision-making process by means of group discussion and consensus taking, provide maximum communication throughout the therapy setting and reduce to a minimum the hierarchical system commonly found in institutions

and social organisations.

The staff were carefully selected since it was essential that the therapy involved the prison officers. It was hoped that the staff later returning to normal duties would have more highly developed professional skills and insights than before.

The paper by Mr Bailey and Dr Schwartz described in detail the working methods of the Unit:

- (a) Admission procedures, officer and inmate participation.
- (b) Therapeutic program, small and large group therapy.
- (c) Self-assessment as therapy.
- (d) Enforcement of communal responsibility.
- (e) Staff development.

## CANADIAN PERSPECTIVE

Dr K.P. O'Brien, Director of Forensic Services, Hillcrest Hospital, Adelaide explained how mentally abnormal offenders were managed in Canada. Medical services for offenders in Canada fell within the jurisdiction of Provincial powers.

The concept of regional psychiatric centres was born in 1973 following a recommendation for the establishment of a chain of maximum security penitentiaries/hospitals.



Dr P.K. Mulholland, Deputy Director of Psychiatric Services, Department of Health, Brisbane



Foreground from left to right: Mr G. Murgesan, Deputy Medical Superintendent, Rydalmere Hospital, N.S.W.; and Dr L. Darcy, Medical Superintendent, Morisset Hospital, N.S.W.

They were a radical departure in the provision of psychiatric services to Federal prisoners in Canada who earlier had had to depend on Provincial mental hospitals for treatment.

The Regional Psychiatric Centres provided a variety of treatment programs, but therapy was terminated as soon as the inmate left the penitentiary system, whether fully released or paroled.

Under Canadian law, those found unfit to plead and those found not guilty on the grounds of insanity were detained for indefinite periods at the Governor's Pleasure. It was explained that discrepancies similar to those which existed in Canada relating to these persons also occurred in Australia, but in America legislation had been introduced or amended in many states which introduced the concept of a maximum period of detainment.

In Canada, those found not guilty by virtue of insanity were held in a psychiatric hospital, unlike the practice in some states of Australia where such persons were held in prison and in effect treated no differently from those convicted of the offence in the first instance.

Dr O'Brien went on to briefly

discuss the controversy of Canada's sexual offender legislation before commenting on the prevalence and importance of Provincial forensic psychiatric facilities.

## DEFINITION

The difficulties of definition of psychopathy were discussed by Dr W.E. Mickleburgh, Director of Mental Health, Capital Territory Health Commission.

In his opinion, an accepted definition was to be found in the International Classification of Disease (9th Revision):

- Personality disorder characterised by disregard for social obligations, lack of feeling for others, and impetuous violence or callous unconcern.
- There is a gross disparity between behaviour and the prevailing social norms.
- Behaviour is not readily modifiable by experience including punishment.
- People with this personality are often affectively cold and may be abnormally aggressive or irresponsible.
- Their tolerance to frustration is

low; they blame others or offer plausible rationalisations for their behaviour which often brings them into conflict with society.

Dr Mickleburgh concluded that two separate types of psychopathic disorder existed; the antisocial personality and the dyssocial personality.

The distinction was that the former suffered from a developmental personality disorder, while the personality disorder of the latter was functional and was often influenced by deviant sub-cultures.

The antisocial person may be considered to have diminished responsibility while the dyssocial character may be considered fully responsible for his actions.

Dr Mickleburgh reviewed causal explanations of the disorder in terms of possible organic, psychological, sociocultural and ethical determinants, and briefly mentioned the legal status of the psychopath.

He then went on to discuss the problems of management of psychopathic individuals and raised questions about where and how they should be treated.

It was suggested that the anti-social psychopath ought to be segregated from other psychiatric patients and cared for in a closed ward of a therapeutic institution.

Admission to a psychiatric ward was unsuitable because the mix of psychotic and neurotic persons was likely to disrupt the therapeutic functions of the ward.

If the dyssocial type needed to be controlled to protect the community, placement in a penal institution was appropriate, it was observed.

Dr Mickleburgh said that treatment by traditional psychotherapy had had a poor success record partly because of the psychopath's general lack of motivation for treatment.

'Conformity with the rules should be required, and discipline should be strict but fair. The

burden of responsibility for his actions should consistently be placed on the patient', he suggested.

Dr Mickleburgh proposed the establishment of a psychopathic research unit in Australia attached possibly to an existing psychiatric hospital and funded by the Federal Government.

## RETARDED NEED RESEARCH

Senior lecturer, Department of Behavioural Sciences in Medicine, University of Sydney, Dr Susan Hayes explained that a retarded person cannot be 'cured' of his affliction although special programs may improve functions.

But a mentally ill person may recover with medication and therapy.

While less than 3 per cent of the population was mentally retarded, more than 5 per cent of the prison population of New South Wales had I.Q.s of less than 70.

In the United States, almost 10 per cent of the prison population was mentally retarded.

There also appeared to be some confusion over who was mentally retarded and who was mentally ill.

She said that an important difference between retardation and mental illness was that the former did not suffer the severe mood changes of some psychiatric illnesses.

Dr Hayes said that the over representation of mentally retarded people in the prison population needed examination to establish possible causal factors.

The fact that more retarded than non-retarded people were convicted of crimes lent superficial cogency to the belief that retarded persons were more criminal by nature.

Retarded people could be described as more prone to commit crimes because of their difficulty in curbing aggressive impulses and their inability to comprehend the outcome of their actions or delay

gratification of needs.

Addressing the question of responsibility, Dr Hayes said: 'Mentally retarded people, not being mentally ill, should not be dealt with under a medical model.'

'Psychiatric treatment or therapy will rarely, if ever, be appropriate for mentally retarded offenders. The emphasis in prevention, imprisonment, and rehabilitation needs to be upon education and social and adaptive skills training,' she concluded.

*Other papers provided were:*

- *'Psychiatrically Disturbed Prisoners and Remandees: New Zealand Problems and Solutions'*, by Mr M. Smith, Director, Planning and Development Division, Ministry of Justice, New Zealand;
- *'Proposed New Queensland Legislation in Relation to Mentally Ill Offenders'* by Dr P.K. Mulholland, Deputy Director of Psychiatric Services, Department of Health, Brisbane; and
- *'The Mentally Disordered Offender: A Pigeon Without a Hole'* by Mr P. Priest, Principal Clinical Psychologist, Department of Correctional Services, Adelaide. ®

## Research grants

The Criminology Research Council is seeking applications for research grants from individuals and organisations for projects likely to produce results of relevance for the prevention and control of crime throughout Australia.

Projects designed to evaluate currently effective measures are particularly invited.

Application forms are available from Registrars of all Australian Universities or from the Assistant Secretary, Australian Institute of Criminology, P.O. Box 28, WODEN, A.C.T. 2606.

# Seminar reviews current police research

Police officers were often forced by circumstances not to enforce the law, Professor David Bayley of the University of Denver, Colorado said at a seminar at the Institute on 23 August.

One of the principal speakers at the seminar which examined police research, Professor Bayley, who has studied policing in the United States for more than 20 years, told criminologists and senior police from around Australia, that police did not avoid enforcing the law, but were often forced to make discretionary decisions.

They were caught between having to make decisions on humanitarian grounds, and the criminal law and departmental procedure.

For example, a well trained experienced police officer would try to reduce the potential for trouble without making an arrest.

How the law would be enforced by police officers attending traffic infringements would depend on how the offender responded.

Professor Bayley explained that young police officers in the U.S. felt that they could not discuss their discretionary powers in public because the public would not understand.

New officers needed to spend informal time with their colleagues to reflect on their job skills.

Professor Bayley, who was on his first visit to Australia declined to comment on Australian police practices.

Professor Bayley is the head of a team researching police functions and growth in several Asian, European and North American countries.

The object of the research study is to find out how the general duties police officer is enforcing

the law in the cities of Boston and Denver.

Professor Bayley said that U.S. police officers did not receive enough training in non-criminal areas and management needed to find out how to impart learning early in an officer's career to establish patterns of response.

## CANADIAN PERSPECTIVE

Recent research had begun to remove some myths and assumptions about the work performed by police detectives, Professor Duncan Chappell told the seminar.

Professor Chappell of the Department of Criminology at Simon Fraser University, British Columbia, Canada, said that the view that a good detective could solve any crime had been challenged by research which now sugges-



Professor David Bayley



Professor Duncan Chappell

ted that much detective work was boring, less demanding than street policing and was undertaken on a hit or miss basis.

He explained that police managers, concerned about Canada's impending new Charter of Rights and Freedoms which promised to effect changes in law enforcement practices and procedures, had responded to the research findings by introducing innovations designed to improve the handling of criminal investigation.

A team led by Professor Chappell which is carrying out a study of criminal investigation for the Canadian Government, has already gathered basic data about current or projected innovations and procedures in several municipal police departments.

Later the team intends to carry out an 'in-depth' study of the criminal investigation process in one or more larger Canadian Police Departments.

Professor Chappell went on to say that although some police were concerned that the Charter of Rights, which is modelled largely on the U.S. Bill of Rights, would

'Americanise' the criminal law and hinder the detection and investigation of crime in Canada, police managers had begun to recognise and grapple with the dilemmas of criminal investigation. ®

Cont. from page 2

socially for the long-term prevention of crime in Australia.

Inevitably this would mean investigating the malfunctioning of the present system, enquiring into allegations of corruption or wastage of resources. Therefore such a commission would have investigative powers which it would use not inquisitorially but in pursuit of better standards of performance.

To avoid a new bureaucracy any servicing staff would have to be recruited from existing criminal justice services (they are not all corrupt and it would be a calumny to suggest that many were. It is also myopic to overlook the fact that most of the scandals investigated so far have been uncovered by the police.) Then there would be a 'sunset' clause to enable governments to rethink the policy of a commission every five years — or to change membership.

Crime commissions are far from being automatic and convenient clamps on our rarified problem of organised crime. Get them wrong now and it will cost a great deal more to get us out of them than it will take us to get in. ®



Participants at the seminar, 'Victims of Crime and Compensation', held at the Institute on 9 August

# Europe lags in victim compensation

A West German authority on victim compensation, Dr Hans Joachim Schneider, describes the 20th century as 'The Century of the Victim'.

Interviewed during a seminar at the Institute on 9 August on the topic of 'Victims of Crime and Compensation', Dr Schneider, a professor of criminology at the University of Westfalia, Federal Republic of Germany, suggested that the 18th century in criminology was the time of the study of offences, and that the 19th was of the personality of the offender.

Dr Schneider, chairman of the executive committee of the World Society of Victimology and consultant to the Council of Europe working on a European convention on compensation for victims of crime believes that the victim was really 'discovered' after the Second World War and that perhaps there should be a United Nations Year of the Victim — not only of crime but also of war.

The professor, who said that Europe was well behind Australia, the United States, Canada and Britain in developing schemes for compensating victims of crime, was concerned that in present criminal proceedings the victim was treated as an object or a mere witness.

He is interested in how to amend procedures to place greater focus on the victim in criminal procedures and in the development of specialist treatment and support services for victims.

Dr Schneider, who was prominent in the formation of the Weiser-ring in West Germany, an organisation devoted to the assistance of victims of crime, explained that although it was financially healthy, one shortcoming was its lack of arrangements for the counselling of victims.

The pooling of information by seminar participants indicated a general dissatisfaction with the amounts of compensation accorded victims of crime in both Germany and Australia.

It was noted however that legislation in Queensland provided for the payment of the maximum grant allowable in respect of each offence suffered by the victim.

During the seminar, the 23 participants from all states and the A.C.T. attended a separate meeting convened by Mr Ray Whitrod, the Executive Officer of the Victims of Crime Service in Adelaide, to discuss the possible establishment of a national organisation to meet victims' needs. ®



Pictured during a break in the seminar on Victim Compensation from left to right: Mr R. Whitrod, Executive Officer of the Victims of Crime Service in Adelaide; Dr Hans Joachim Schneider, University of Westfalia, Federal Republic of Germany; and Mr Colin Bevan, Assistant Director (Training), Australian Institute of Criminology

# New publications

*The Size of the Crime Problem in Australia, (Second Edition)*, is a revised and extended version of a report published by the Institute in October 1979.

Since the release of the first edition, the author, David Biles has compiled two more years of data so that 16 years of data over the period 1964-65 to 1979-80 are now available.

The tables and graphs in the report represent the most comprehensive picture of the incidence of reported crime in Australia so far available.

The publication considered seven categories of crime: Homicide, Serious Assault, Robbery, Rape, Breaking and Entering, Motor Vehicle Theft and Fraud, Forgery and False Pretences.

For each offence a graph shows the Australian rate per 100,000 of the population over the 16 year period, and another graph shows the average rates for the same period for each state and territory.

A statistical table is also included for each offence which shows the actual numbers of offences reported, together with the rates per 100,000 of the population for each state and territory for each of the 16 years.

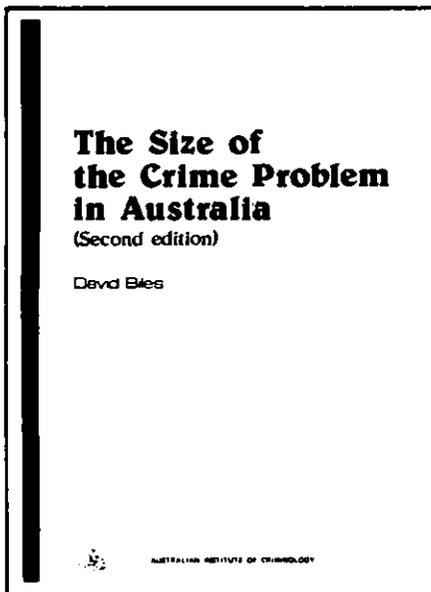
From these tables, crime rates for each state and territory can be readily identified.

The author found that there had been a significant increase in crime in most categories since 1964-65.

There is no evidence in the publication that would justify panic or a demand for ever harsher penalties being imposed on the small proportion of offenders who are detected and convicted.

Mr Biles concludes that what Australia needs is a cool and rational appraisal of the current crime problem and the identification of strategies and approaches to the prevention of crime which can be shown to be effective.

Copies of *The Size of the Crime Problem in Australia, (Second Edition)*, are available from the Publications Section of the Institute free of charge.



In the introduction to his publication *Evaluation in the Criminal Justice Services*, Mr William Clifford describes evaluation as necessary and useful but warns that it could entice the unwary into dogmatics and should therefore be approached with a healthy dash of cynicism.

Imagination was needed to climb outside the mathematical or economic parameters of evaluation from time to time to get a more realistic appreciation.

The author points out that these drawbacks are not arguments against evaluation — only arguments for making it more sensitive to the human condition which could never be appreciated in economic terms alone.

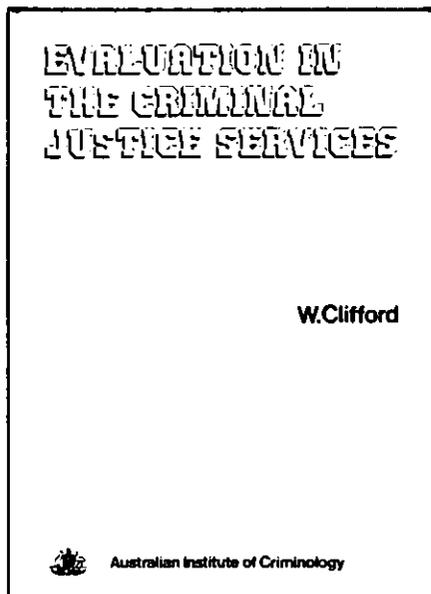
It was important to examine objectives before evaluating the criminal justice services.

For example, the degree of criminality in a society, the amount of repression, the fear of crime, the sense of security, the extent of justice and the appropriateness of reformation or retribution are all concepts not easily brought within the confines of evaluation.

Mr Clifford said that rather than discard them or abandon the idea of evaluating them, the task should be to reconcile them to an extent which would be useful for policy making.

Because evaluation thrived on quantification, goals and more particularly objectives needed to be measurable.

Copies of *Evaluation in the Criminal Justice Services* are available from the Publications Section of the Institute free of charge.



# BOOK REVIEWS

## THE MAN THEY CALLED A MONSTER

By Paul Wilson

Cassell Australia

150 Pages — \$7.95 (soft back)

Reviewer: NEIL McCONAGHY, Professor of Psychiatry, School of Psychiatry, University of New South Wales

This book is a typical production of what I have come to think of as the authoritarian left. Like its counterparts on the right, such as the Reader's Digest, it relies on anecdote to appeal to emotion rather than to reason. The title could be found on an article of either persuasion, the content differing merely in that the products of the authoritarian left support virtually unconditionally the views of minority groups, those of the right the establishment.

The subject of the book is Clarence Osborne, 'a small 61 year old man (who) had, over a 20 year period, sexually related to at least 2,500 boys before he voluntarily decided to leave this earth'. On the first page we are told that 'the Australian media uniformly described him as this country's greatest sex monster and newspaper headlines shrieked their disapproval at his activities'. Later we are informed that two Brisbane newspapers had headlines in which they referred to him as a monster. On the second page the first anecdote typical in its poor writing and sexually titillating allusions of the Reader's Digest approach, is introduced: 'Standing 180cm. tall, with long blond hair and sun-tanned from numerous encounters with the golden beaches (sic) of the Surfers Paradise region, James clearly would have stood out as he hitchhiked. . . .'

Wilson terms the physical and emotional expression of affection between an older man and a youth Greek love. He states in relation to Osborne, that 'in Greek love relationships generally far more than sex is involved'. He later asserts 'it is quite clear that a substantial proportion of the boys

who had long-lasting relationships with Osborne did so because they lacked intimate and affectionate relationships with their own family'. As far as can be told these generalisations are based on findings from 12 (possibly quite atypical) partners of Osborne who agreed to being interviewed by Wilson. Though Wilson does say that the small number interviewed makes it hazardous to generalise, he shows no awareness of this hazard when he makes these and other generalisations. Wilson continues, 'there can be no doubt from the material available in this case, that Osborne provided affection and security — no matter how tenuous that security might have been'. Yet was Osborne's relationship with the boys of emotional significance? Earlier Wilson quotes Osborne as saying that 'whenever I want to stop a boy coming around, I just let him into the house and talk to him and don't give him any sex at all'.

Wilson's apparent unawareness of such contradictions is further shown in his discussion of masculinity and homosexuality. He states that 'our notions of masculinity and femininity do not flow from our sexual organs but come instead from the socially constructed stereotyping about the appropriate behaviours that go with being a man or a woman'. He continues that recent research 'suggests that cultural forces are leading many adolescents and adults to reject traditional sex roles and adopt emergent ones. These roles. . . involve an integration of both masculine and feminine characteristics inside the one person'. Wilson here, appears to approve of this trend. Yet only a few pages earlier is this panagyric concerning Osborne's relationships with his partners.

'Here, bathed in the warmth of physical attentiveness, the boy would forget the loneliness of his homelife. . . The boys — indeed, I would suggest that most boys — would assume that at last they had found a man who really was

interested in them. Why else would he listen to them so carefully, stimulate them so delicately and generally make them feel so good? And all this was done without their basic masculine identity being threatened.'

Later Wilson makes the surprising assertion that 'many of the boys considered Osborne to be a saviour of their masculinity'. He also states that 'Most of the boys were very careful not to define themselves as homosexuals and Osborne went to great lengths to ensure that they did not see themselves in that way'. Yet earlier he quotes Osborne's explanation as to why the youths did not tell their friends or parents about their sexual activities: 'They are not going to tell their friends because they do not want to be thought of as poofsters'. He also quotes Osborne as saying 'as the lad leaves the car he will say 'I hope I've helped in some way. What have you made of me? Am I a dirty bastard? Do you think I'm a freak?''.

Wilson states, 'It is worth reiterating that the boys who saw Osborne did so for non-monetary reasons'. In a report of an interview with one of the 12 men seen by Wilson, the man states, 'I asked him for some money'. Admittedly this may not have been the reason for the relationship. On the other hand if it was, the man may well have not wished to admit this even to himself.

The crucial question of course is whether sexual relationships between older men and young boys have a harmful effect on the subsequent development of the boys. It is understandable that there is no evidence that can conclusively answer this question given the need for research studies using appropriate controls for such boys and long-term follow-up. Wilson states that 'it seems that in the case of Clarence Osborne there is no scientific evidence to suggest that in the vast majority of cases — perhaps as many as 99 per cent of them — negative consequences

would have resulted from the relationship that developed'.

Wilson seems to be accepting that 25 boys did suffer negative consequences.

Presumably, Wilson wrote this book with the aim of assisting 'the community in dispassionately considering the issues involved in man-youth relationships'. His style of writing may be justified on the basis that he hoped to reach a much wider audience than an academic one. However, his frequent generalisations based apparently on his sample of 12 of the 2,500 subjects, his reporting of contradictory data and his reliance on anecdotal evidence will not aid the community to achieve a dispassionate attitude. A recent book *Father-Daughter Incest*, is described by the publisher as rejecting 'the emergent view that incest is fundamentally harmless and showing through revealing personal accounts, the tremendous emotional pain victims suffer'. Wilson, by uncritically accepting the reports of victims that they did not suffer from sexual experience, equally gives validity to the reports of those who have said they did. Many paedophiliacs I have interviewed have stated their belief that their paedophilic behaviour was due to their being themselves seduced in childhood by an older man. This may be true. Other negative or indeed positive consequences may result from such experiences. However, while the community is prepared to rely on the conclusions of the victims and more commonly their relatives concerning the effects of such sexual activities, the painstaking research necessary to validate these conclusions will not be widely supported. Wilson's book, though possibly attempting to achieve some balance by substantiating the viewpoint of the paedophiliac rather than the establishment, does nothing to advance the sophistication of the community as to the need to subject anecdotal evidence to careful scrutiny and where possible, evaluate it in the

light of scientifically-based knowledge.

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#### BRITISH PERSPECTIVES ON TERRORISM

Edited by Paul Wilkinson  
London: George Allen & Unwin, 1981

195pp. — \$14.95 (paperback)  
\$ 29.95 (hardback)

Reviewer: GRANT WARDLAW,  
Criminologist, Australian Institute  
of Criminology

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The British experience in dealing with terrorism in a number of contexts — in the colonial setting, acts of international terrorism committed in the United Kingdom, and the continuing conflict in Northern Ireland — has resulted in a measured response to the problem which provides a worthy model for other democracies to study. The volume under review, which brings together some of the views of leading British researchers and officials, reflects the sort of thinking that has resulted in the evolution of the British response to terrorism.

As might be expected, a major focus is on Northern Ireland, with four out of the 10 essays dealing with various aspects of Irish terrorism. Maurice Tugwell provides a thought-provoking analysis of the development of the politics and propaganda of the IRA, in particular the extent to which the theory of 'asset to liability shift' has guided the IRA's strategy of trying to convince the British public that the cost of remaining in Northern Ireland is too high. Other papers examine public opinion and the Provisional IRA in Northern Ireland, and IRA leadership problems. A former British Home Secretary, Merlyn Rees, provides an outline of the British legislative response to terrorism. This latter contribution, however, is the weakest in the collection, being but a very brief, non-critical descriptive survey.

Two of the most interesting

papers are those by Frank Gregory and Richard Clutterbuck. Gregory provides an excellent overview of the British police response to terrorism, placing particular emphasis on the difficulties of policing political violence in a democratic society. The problem of both politically and criminally motivated hostage-taking is one variant of terrorism which poses problems for an increasing number of individuals, particularly business personnel and diplomats. Richard Clutterbuck's essay provides a good overview of the development of kidnap and ransom insurance as one response to this problem. His conclusions should provoke some thought as to the respective roles of police and private organisations in dealing with kidnaps and extortion attempts.

Although the primary focus in this book is on Britain, the international dimension has not been ignored. Jillian Becker, well-known for her masterly work on the Baader-Meinhof gang, analyses their group mentality in an instructive piece which might provide a point of departure for analysis of the thought of other groups. Clive Aston gives an insightful overview of the course of the debate in the United Nations of the UN Convention Against the Taking of Hostages, which leaves one rather pessimistic about the utility of international legal measures against terrorism. Finally, Paul Wilkinson provides a comprehensive set of suggestions, mostly at the level of regional cooperation, for governments to consider incorporating into their anti-terrorist efforts. These suggestions are worthy of serious consideration by all democratic nations, although I fear that some will inevitably founder on the hard rocks of reality.

In summary, this collection of essays provides a readable and reasonably comprehensive introduction to British thought on terrorism which will be of interest to all who work in the field of political violence.

# STATISTICS

## Australian prison trends

By David Biles  
Assistant Director (Research)

During the period May 1982 to July 1982 the numbers of prisoners in most jurisdictions decreased markedly. The most significant decrease occurred in New South Wales. The numbers of prisoners in all States and Territories for July 1982 with changes since April 1982 are shown in Table 1.

Table 1 — Daily Average Australian Prison Populations July 1982 with Changes since April 1982

	Males	Females	Total	Changes since April 1982	
N.S.W.	3,288	132	3,420	—	172
VIC.	1,747	52	1,799	+	1
QLD.	1,601	45	1,646	—	12
S.A.	791	17	808	+	22
W.A.	1,321	61	1,382	—	27
TAS.	222	4	226	—	5
N.T.	260	12	272*	—	58
A.C.T.	39	1	40**	—	8
AUST.	9,269	324	9,593	—	259

- \* 6 prisoners in this total were serving sentences in South Australian prisons.  
\*\* 35 prisoners (including 1 female) in this total were serving sentences in New South Wales prisons.

Table 2 shows the imprisonment rates (daily average prisoners per 100,000 population), for July 1982. The national rate of 63.3 compares with 65.6 found in April 1982. This is the lowest national imprisonment rate found since January 1978.

Table 2 — Sentenced Prisoners Received, Daily Average Prison Populations and Imprisonment Rates by Jurisdiction — July 1982

	Sentenced Prisoners Received	Prisoners	General Pop. * '000	Imprisonment Rates
N.S.W.	575**	3,420	5,299	64.5
VIC.	286	1,799	3,990	45.1
QLD.	256	1,646	2,422	68.0
S.A.	Unavailable	808	1,330	60.8
W.A.	338	1,382	1,331	103.8
TAS.	43	226	430	52.6
N.T.	59	262	130	209.2
A.C.T.	—	40	230	17.4
AUST.	Unavailable	9,593	15,161	63.3

- \* Projected Population to 30 June 1982 (subject to revision).  
\*\* Comprising 352 Fine Defaulters and 223 Sentenced Prisoners.

Table 3 — Total Prisoners and Remandees as at 1 July 1982

	Total Prisoners	Prisoners on Remand	Percentage of Remandees	Remandees per '000 of General Pop.
N.S.W.	3,434	609	17.7	11.5
VIC.	1,809	172	9.5	4.3
QLD.	1,665	112	6.7	4.6
S.A.	810	127	15.7	9.5
W.A.	1,358	95	7.0	7.1
TAS.	238	11	4.6	2.6
N.T.	274	21	7.7	16.2
A.C.T.	41	6	14.6	2.6
AUST.	9,629	1,153	12.0	7.6

## Probation and parole

Compiled by Ivan Potas,  
Senior Research Officer

The following table provides the number and rates of adult persons on probation and parole as at 1 July 1982.

Table 1

	General Pop. <sup>1</sup> '000	Probation <sup>2</sup> Number	Rates <sup>4</sup>	Parole <sup>3</sup> Number	Rates <sup>4</sup>
N.S.W.	5,299	9,034 <sup>5</sup>	170.5	2,367 <sup>6</sup>	44.7
VIC.	3,990	2,999	75.2	964	24.2
QLD.	2,422	3,062	126.4	353	14.6
S.A.	1,330	2,400	180.5	240 <sup>7</sup>	18.0
W.A.	1,331	1,613 <sup>8</sup>	121.2	607 <sup>9</sup>	45.6
TAS.	430	1,379 <sup>10</sup>	320.7	58	13.5
N.T.	130	236 <sup>11</sup>	181.5	93	71.5
A.C.T.	230	147	63.9	33	14.3
AUST.	15,162	20,870	137.6	4,715	31.1

1 Projected population as at 30 June 1982 (subject to revision).

2 Only those under actual supervision are included in these data.

3 Unless otherwise stated, licencees are counted as parolees if supervised. An attempt has been made at excluding from the data non-criminals, such as Governor's pleasure detainees (or their equivalent), but this has not always been possible.

4 Rates are calculated per 100,000 of the general population.

5 Includes 369 persons released from the juvenile jurisdiction, an unknown percentage of whom would now have attained adult status. A further 554 persons were subject to Community Service Orders in New South Wales. Some of these are included in the Probation figures.

6 Includes 293 licence holders. Note that this includes 40 'short-term licencees' released during the month of May.

7 South Australia also advises that a further 162 persons were supervised in prison, and a further 38 persons received voluntary supervision by the Parole Service in the community.

8 In Western Australia there was a total of 182 persons subject to Community Service Orders. Of this total 140 are included in the probation statistics because they were also placed on probation. Note therefore that only 42 were subject to Community Service Orders without probation.

9 In Western Australia at the relevant date, it is advised that there was a total of 689 pre-parolees.

10 In Tasmania 159 prisoners released from prison and then placed on probation are included in the data. However, 112 juveniles also subject to supervision by the Probation Service are excluded.

11 In the Northern Territory the probation figure includes 5 persons who were also subject to Community Service Orders.

## Juveniles under detention

By John Walker,  
Senior Research Officer

After the metamorphosis announced last quarter we have another change — this time of authorship — owing to the departure of Dr Mukherjee on an 8 month scholarship to Winnipeg, Canada.

Numbers and rates for 30 June 1982 are generally marginally lower than for the previous quarter. It is not known if this is due to seasonal factors or merely random fluctuations. Rates are now calculated on the 1981 Census results which show slight falls in most age-groups in the 10-17 year range from the estimates previously obtainable from the Australian Bureau of Statistics.

Definitions of terms used in the table can be found in the March 1981 issue of the Reporter.

# Happenings

Table 1 — Persons Aged 10-17 in Juvenile Corrective Institutions as at 30 June 1982

	Total		Detention Status		Reasons for Detention	
	M	F	Not Awaiting	Awaiting	Offender/Alleged Offender	Non Offender
N.S.W. n	551	95	475	171	575	71
r	156.4	28.3				
VIC. n	239	69	247	53	189	111
r	85.0	25.7				
QLD. n	94	13	57	50	88	19
r	57.3	8.3				
S.A. n	67	4	48	23	71	0
r	72.4	4.6				
W.A. n	154	13	145	22	167	0
r	161.6	14.4				
TAS. n	17	6	23	0	21	1
r	53.7	19.7				
N.T. n	8	3	10	1	8	3
r	88.9	34.5				
A.C.T. n	13	4	15	2	15	2
r	76.5	24.5				
AUST. n	1,143	207	997	322	1,113	206
r	109.6	20.8				

Note: Rates are calculated on June 1981 Census figures recently available from the Australian Bureau of Statistics.

## Asian and Pacific series

Compiled by David Biles,  
Assistant Director (Research)

Correctional administrators in the countries listed below have supplied the basic information which is incorporated in the following tables. The footnotes contain a number of explanations that should be borne in mind when making comparisons between countries. For countries marked \* the data refer to 1 October 1981; for countries marked \*\* the data refer to 1 January 1982.

Table 1 — Total Prisoners as at 1 April 1982

	Males	Females	Total	Populations	
				('000)	Rate <sup>1</sup>
Australia <sup>2</sup>	9,518	360	9,878	15,016	65.8
**Canada <sup>3</sup>	9,949	112	10,061	24,105	(41.7)
Fiji	867	16	883	634 <sup>4</sup>	139.3
Hong Kong	5,110	173	5,283	5,207	101.5
**Japan	50,805	1,862	52,667	117,057	45.0
Macau	281	7	288	400	72.0
Malaysia	12,651	292	12,943	14,000	92.5
New Zealand	2,499	112	2,611	3,135	83.3
Papua New Guinea	4,083	222	4,305	3,601	119.6
*Philippines	14,685	210	14,895	50,000	29.8
**Singapore	2,436	58	2,494	2,410	103.5
*Sri Lanka	10,373	355	10,728	14,750	72.7
Thailand	71,561	3,588	75,149	47,000	159.9
Tonga	101	2	103	99	104.0
**Western Samoa	157	4	161	156	103.2

<sup>1</sup> Per 100,000 of population.

<sup>2</sup> Australian statistics in this table are based on the daily average number of prisoners for the month of March 1982.

<sup>3</sup> Federal prisoners only.

<sup>4</sup> Includes 10 civil prisoners.

## WORK TRANSITION SCHEME

Three year-10 students from St Edmund's College in Canberra participated in a work experience program at the Institute from 23-25 August.

Under the supervision of Senior Research Officer John Walker and Librarian Mary Gosling, the boys prepared computer data for calculating imprisonment rates, were shown various computing techniques, and performed several tasks in the J.V. Barry Memorial Library including processing catalogued material, checking in returned loans, and preparing serials for binding.

The students were also briefed on the functions of the Institute's Publications and Training Divisions.

At the completion of the program, the Institute's Assistant Secretary Bill Miller reported on the effectiveness of the program.

Miss Pat Robertson, a Librarianship student at the Canberra College of Advanced Education was involved in an earlier work experience program held at the Institute over the period 5-23 July 1982.

## INTERNATIONAL VISITORS

A senior police officer and a renowned criminologist from overseas paid informal visits to the Institute in August.

Patrick Che-To Yeung, a Chief Inspector in the Hong Kong Police Force, and Professor Shlomo Giora Shoham arrived on 30 and 31 August respectively.

Earlier, Mr Che-To Yeung had attended a Forensic Science Congress in Sydney.

Professor Shoham, of the Faculty of Law, Tel Aviv University, was educated in England (University of London and Cambridge) and later at the Hebrew University in Jerusalem where he was awarded the LL.D. in Criminal Law and Criminology.

Professor Shoham has held academic positions both in the United States (at Ohio State University and the University of Pennsylvania) and in Israel, where he is involved in many research projects.

A recipient of the prestigious Sellin-Glueck Award in 1977, Professor Shoham has published more than a dozen books and over 100 articles.

## GRANT FOR STUDY OF SCHOOL TRUANTS

The Criminology Research Council at its meeting in Sydney on 7 September made the following grants:

- \$18,872 to Dr Garry Coventry, Head of Research of the Victorian Institute of Secondary Education to undertake a study of the dynamics of truant behaviour in secondary schools with a view to assessing the extent to which school truants contribute to the crime problem.

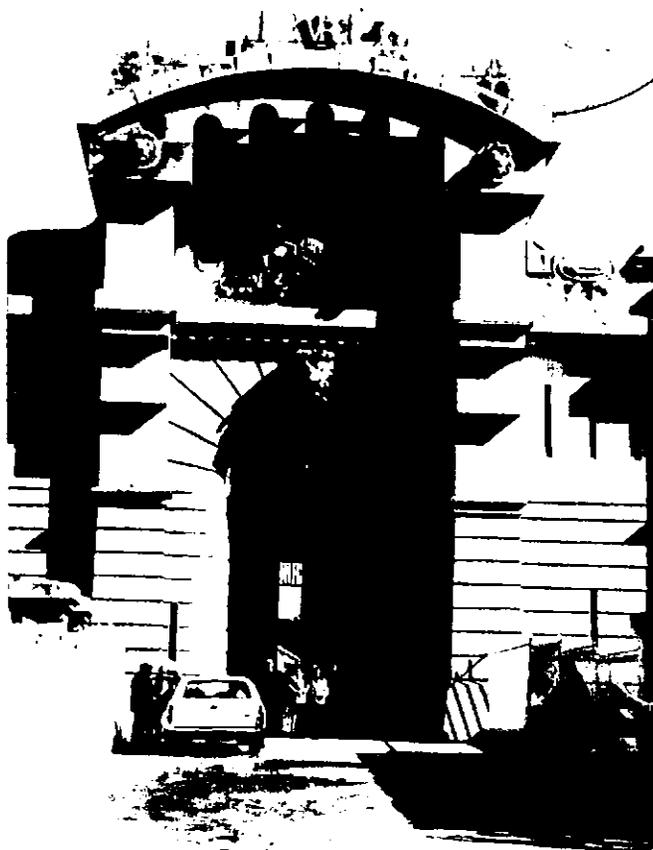
- \$3,500 to the South Australian Offenders Aid and Rehabilitation Services for a study of residents' reactions to the establishment of an Aboriginal halfway house in an Adelaide suburb.
- \$6,970 to Mr Mark Brennan of the Riverina College of Advanced Education for a study of the literacy skills of a sample of Victorian prisoners.
- \$8,500 to the New South Wales Bureau of Crime Statistics and Research to complete a study of homicide in New South Wales over the period 1969 to 1979.

At its meeting the Council also received two detailed reports of completed research. These were a study of New South Wales police recruiting and training procedures by Dr Gerry McGrath and a study of adolescent offending in a remote South Australian Aboriginal community by Ms Maggie Brady.

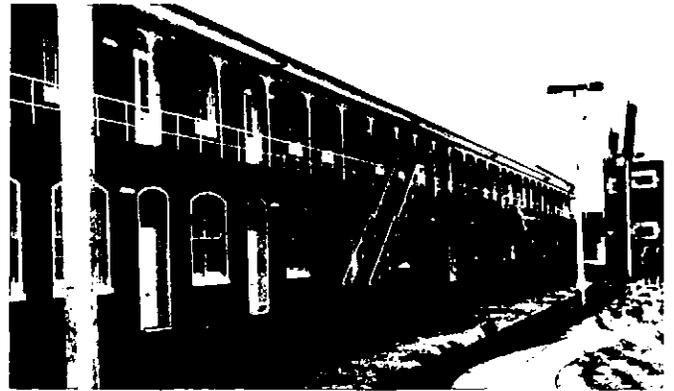
#### PRISON RE-OPENED

Bathurst Jail which was first built in 1820, was re-opened on 6 August.

Present at the re-opening were the Assistant Director (Research), David Biles, and the Assistant Director (Training), Colin Bevan of the Australian Institute of Criminology.



Main entrance - Bathurst Jail



The industrial wing at Bathurst Jail

Rebuilding began in 1979 after much of the prison was destroyed by inmates during the riots of 1974.

The jail, rebuilt at a cost of about \$12 million consists of four wings, a reception block incorporating a medical clinic and a chapel, workshops, a sports ground, a services block, a kitchen, a laundry, and a store.

The rebuilt jail has single accommodation for 209 maximum security prisoners and space for more than 60 medium security prisoners.

Prisoners are to be brought in gradually from other maximum security prisons.

The re-opening of the jail was attended by about 200 people at the invitation of the New South Wales Corrective Services Minister, Mr R. Jackson.

Mr Jackson said at the re-opening that maximum-security prisoners would be allowed out of their cells for three hours longer than at present and that under the new management planned for the jail, prisoners would be encouraged to work at jobs including clerical tasks and various trades.



Pictured at the re-opening of Bathurst Jail (foreground), Mr Rex Jackson, Minister for New South Wales Corrective Services and (background) Mr Gerry Hay, Governor, Bathurst Jail

The Australian Institute of Criminology regrets that reductions in funding and staff of the J.V. Barry Memorial Library have resulted in the *Information Bulletin of Australian Criminology* ceasing publication. Volume 9, No. 1, then, is the last in this series.

# PUBLICATIONS

## PROCEEDINGS OF TRAINING PROJECTS

- Seminar for Librarians in the Criminal Justice System* – \$2.00 (70c)
- The Conflict of Security and Rehabilitation in the 1970s* – \$1.70 (70c)
- Crime Prevention and the Community – Whose Responsibility?* – \$1.80 (70c)
- The Magistrates' Court 1976: What Progress?* – \$2.50 (\$1.20)
- Penal Philosophies and Practice in the 1970s* – \$2.65 (\$1.20)
- Planning and Policy for Crime Control Personnel* – \$2.45 (\$1.20)
- The Police Role in Juvenile Delinquency* – \$2.10 (70c)
- Legal and Law Related Education in Australia* – \$2.00 (\$1.20)
- Children's Rights and Justice for Juveniles* – \$2.00 (70c)
- Armed Robbery in Australia: Research, Information and Preventive Considerations* – \$3.60 (\$3.60)
- David Biles (Editor)  
*Review of Australian Criminological Research* – \$2.75 (\$1.20)
- Maureen Kingshott (Editor)  
*Alcohol and Crime* – \$3.60 (\$1.20)
- Jocelynn A. Scutt (Editor)  
*Violence in the Family* – \$3.00 (\$3.60)  
*Rape Law Reform* – \$4.00 (\$3.60)
- C.R. Bevan and A.J. Watt  
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