

reporter

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Participants at the Institute's Criminology Research Conference included (clockwise from left) Dr Sally Leivesley, Dr Gerry McGrath, Mr Ian Dobinson, Professor Chuck Reasons, Mr David Biles and Ms Janet Chan (story page 2.)

AUSTRALIAN INSTITUTE OF CRIMINOLOGY QUARTERLY

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reporter

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Institute Insight

When I became Director of the Institute just over a year ago, I decided not to take up my predecessor's custom of contributing a regular column about Institute work to the *Reporter*. The main reason was that I hoped Institute work would soon be able to be disseminated more effectively and thus better able to speak for itself. To a degree, I believe this hope has been fulfilled — most notably by improved and more timely publications, by the resumption of *Infobull* and by the arrangement to make the CINCH database available through AUSINET.

However, some activities are necessarily hidden from view. The editor has asked me to expound upon them somewhat. Let me start with a general category which seems to be growing — submissions to inquiries, committees and the Government itself. Five recent such submissions concern: the format of a National Crimes Authority; what to do about the Costigan Report; video-pornography; S.P. bookmaking; and the Drug Summit. If there is a common theme in these submissions, it is that of trying to combat the hysteria which seems to have become so prominent in the national debate about crime.

Thus, the Institute has counselled strongly that, whatever the response to the increasing availability of video-porn in Australia, it should not proceed on the unsustainable basis that, phenomenologically, such material begets crimes of sex and violence. Again, we have tried to draw the Government's attention to the inherent limits of the law enforcement/higher penalties approach to heroin abuse. We have strongly argued, also, that Costigan's database is, *per se*, a threat to the proper balance between state and citizen, and that it should be drastically culled and cleansed

before being turned over to other law enforcement authorities. And, finally, the Institute has tried to get governments to understand the nature of the interdependence between off-course S.P. and on-course bookmaking, and understand that by destroying one they would, in fact, be destroying the other and possibly the racing industry itself.

I cannot really claim that we have always succeeded in removing even one tenth of the hysteria from the crime debate, as it reaches governmental level. Indeed, I write this on the very day that the Federal Government finally succumbed to the year-long orchestrated hysteria about the so-called Age Tapes, thus throwing away in an instant years of accumulated societal wisdom about law enforcers not being above the law. (The same day, it will be recalled, the Irish Supreme Court reminded us in the Trimbole appeal that the fruit of the tainted tree remains itself tainted — a correct and courageous decision.) Australia will rue the day that the forces of rumour, smear and hysteria prevailed in this way.

In some of its other 'behind the scenes' activities, the Institute is assured of a better hearing — for example, in its preparation of papers for the seventh U.N. Conference on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders, or in its participation in various meetings of Correctional Administrators and Ministers.

However, when all is said and done, it will always be by our public activities that, rightly, we will be judged. These, in turn, are to a degree, a function of our resources — about which the bureaucratic battle, it seems, is never-ending.

R.W. Harding
Director

New Minister

The Minister responsible for the Australian Institute of Criminology is now the Right Honourable Lionel Bowen, Deputy Prime Minister and Attorney-General. Mr Bowen has been Deputy Prime Minister since 11 March



The Right Honourable Lionel Bowen, Deputy Prime Minister and Attorney General.

1983 and also Minister Assisting the Prime Minister for Commonwealth/State Relations and Vice President of the Executive Council. He was appointed Minister for Trade on 11 March 1983 and held that portfolio until the federal election in December 1984, after which he was appointed Attorney-General.

The main features of Lionel Bowen's political career are a lifelong membership of the Australian Labor Party, a background in local and State government politics, and wide ministerial experience in the Federal Parliament during the 1972-75 period including responsibility for key pieces of legislation and extensive work in foreign and trade relations.

In 1973, Lionel Bowen led the first Australian Parliamentary delegation to the Peoples' Republic of China and was the first representative of the new Labor Government to meet the Chinese

leadership following the establishment of diplomatic relations.

After the Labor Party left office in 1975, he became Labor's Shadow Attorney-General and was heavily involved in the Citizens for Democracy campaign for constitutional reform. In 1976, he proposed and drafted a new Constitution for Australia, a document that incorporates a Bill of Rights.

On 22 December 1977, Mr Bowen was elected Deputy Leader of the Federal Parliamentary Labor Party. In 1981 he became Shadow Minister for Foreign Affairs and travelled widely in that capacity.

As Deputy Prime Minister and Minister for Trade, Mr Bowen visited a number of countries, including Japan, Canada, the United States, the Middle East, Cyprus, China, New Zealand, Brazil and Italy.

We hope to feature an interview with Mr Bowen in a later issue.

Criminology Research Conference

A conference at the Institute from 19 February to 22 February brought together researchers from all over the country to discuss their work on prisons, crime statistics, police matters, domestic violence, child abuse, white collar and corporate crime, and a wide variety of other subjects associated with crime in Australia.

David Biles, Deputy Director of the Australian Institute of Criminology, welcomed the researchers.

The format and organisation of this seminar are similar to those conducted in 1979, 1981 and 1983, but this one is considerably larger as there are 48 speakers listed on the program compared to 37 last time.

Unfortunately, the very full program for the seminar will not allow us any time to discuss a number of very important matters which should be of interest or perhaps concern to all researchers in criminal justice. For example, I am at this stage unclear as to the impact on research of the proposed legislation on privacy. Some people have suggested to me that one consequence of the proposed legislation would be that access to criminal records or prison records would not be allowable for research purposes, even with the names removed, without the permission of each and every offender! If that were the case, there would be obvious difficulties for such established exercises as the National Prison Census, as well as many other projects. This is an issue which I am sure most of us would like to see clarified as a matter of some urgency.

Another related issue, perhaps less urgent, that I would have liked to have time to discuss is the question of whether or not there is need for a code of ethics for criminological researchers. I am aware of the fact that the National Health and Medical Research Council now uses a very formal and extensive questionnaire to assess the ethical implications of all research projects that it funds and most major research organisations in the medical field have established their own ethics committees for this purpose. We have no such structures or procedures in the field of criminal justice but we may be required to move in this direction in the future. Perhaps at a later seminar we may discuss this issue at some length.

Also, if time allowed, there is an on-going need I believe for all of us to grapple with the nagging questions of: where is criminological research going, what are the priorities, how should we ensure its relevance, and how can we build stronger bridges between researchers and policymakers? I will not take time to even hint at answers to these questions at this time, except to say that criminology is currently enjoying a period of modest revitalisation. This is a happy contrast to the last research seminar in 1983 when in my opening remarks I referred to criminology as 'going through hard times'. This Institute has experienced an increase in staff over the last year or so and the Criminology Research Council has an agreed schedule to increase its resources over a period of three or four years. I also note that there have been staff increases in a number of related research bodies at the State level.

Even though some progress is clearly being made, and hopefully the quality as well as the quantity of research have both improved in recent years, there are still gaping

holes in our knowledge that need to be filled. Most obviously there is an enormous gap in our knowledge about the incidence of crime in this country. Despite two national crime victims surveys conducted by the ABS, and despite the heroic efforts of Dr Mukherjee to make sense of the plethora of incompatible data collections, no-one in this country can confidently answer the simple question: Is crime currently increasing, and if so, where, by how much and for what offences? The shameful fact is that we as criminologists in 1985 know less about the incidence of criminal behaviour in this country than we did in 1980, and that was little enough, when the Bureau of Statistics ceased publication of its statistics of selected crime on a national basis.

The emphasis was on methods of research rather than results, and speakers did not have prepared papers but spoke in specific terms of their projects from very short notes. Several of these summaries follow.

STUDY OF HOMICIDE

Alison Wallace, N.S.W. Bureau of Crime Statistics and Research

In 1981, the New South Wales Bureau of Crime Statistics and Research embarked on a study of homicide. The aims of the study were to examine the pattern of homicide in New South Wales over a fourteen year period from 1968 to 1981. The study was concerned to analyse the characteristics of the offenders, of the victims and of the relationship between them. In short, it aimed to answer the question 'who kills whom in New South Wales, and in what circumstances?'

Several methodological problems were encountered early in the study. Although to some extent the analysis of homicide patterns is fraught with the same kind of methodological difficulties which attend the analysis of other offence patterns, there are some additional problems peculiar to the study of homicide that must also be addressed. Problems of definition had to be faced, and the choice of data source justified. Depending on the particular chosen stage in the criminal justice system (i.e. arrest, trial, conviction), different record systems generate different study populations and hence potentially different conclusions regarding homicide patterns. The extent of unreported crime was also considered.

Methodological problems were also encountered in analysing some of the study's results, in particular temporal trends. The official homicide rate at any particular time in a single jurisdiction can be affected by a number of considerations, including changes in legal definitions, improvements in data collection techniques, increased police efficiency and detection capabilities. Considerations quite outside the crime itself, may also affect the incidence of homicide. Improved levels of skill and medical techniques, for example, may lead to fewer people losing their lives as a result of an assault.

Using data from two previous studies on homicide in New South Wales, trends in the relationship of victim to offender in family homicides were analysed over a period

of 49 years from 1933 to 1981. In doing this, it was important to examine both change in the relative *proportions* of different types of homicide (as defined by relationship of victim to offender) and change in the *rate* of occurrence of these homicides. It was found that the *proportion* of spouse homicides, the major type of family killing, has increased over the last 49 years. However, the *rate* of such killings has not increased. The increasing proportion of family killings involving spouses occurs by reason of a decline in another type of domestic homicide, those involving children.

UNEMPLOYMENT AND CRIME

John Oliphant, South Australian Office of Crime Statistics

The relationship between unemployment and crime has been the subject of considerable research. Despite this, and the fact that to many people the relationship seems self-evident (the South Australian Office of Crime Statistics has regularly been publishing figures that show that some 70 per cent of people appearing before the courts for break and enter offences are unemployed), the results of the research have largely been inconclusive.

The South Australian Unemployment and Crime Study aims to resolve some of this uncertainty. Two C.E.P.-funded staff based in the Office of Crime Statistics are currently nine months into a twelve month research project.

The first priority has been to identify why existing research has been so unsuccessful. A major problem is that much of it has adopted a purely statistical approach. Such studies are often based on the hidden assumption that it is possible to isolate discrete factors 'causing' crime, and that these can be seen as minor variations within a constant structure. They ignore the possibility that social structure itself may be the most important factor in explaining crime.

Thus our research, while empirically oriented, is also concerned to put the information collected into a more adequate theoretical context. This means returning to some basic questions: why does crime occur? and why does a society have unemployment?

There is a whole variety of explanations for the incidence of crime: the concept of 'damaged' individuals, absolute and relative deprivation theories, opportunity theories, sub-culture theories and so on. Each of these explanations has been employed effectively by criminologists for various types and levels of crime.

These explanations for crime seem to point to certain characteristics of social structures that lead to a higher incidence of crime (such as wider gaps between the rich and the poor, the growth of opportunities, populations living outside the normal framework of law and order, etc.). Furthermore, comparisons between different countries show quite different patterns of crime. This seems to suggest that the social structure of a society is a major determinant of the pattern of crime. Thus if the structure of a society changes, then the pattern of crime is also likely to change.

Many of the explanations for the growth of unemploy-

ment in Australia seem to indicate that changes of a permanent and structural nature are taking place. The crucial question is whether these changes are leading to the development of a social structure that is likely to have a higher incidence of crime.

Features of Australian society in 1985 include wide income gaps between the rich and the poor, concentrations of unemployment in particular geographical areas and within particular socio-economic groups, the growth of the number of people suffering from long-term unemployment, and a substantial fraction of the community living in conditions of poverty — while the majority of Australians still enjoy high standards of material affluence. There is almost a second society developing within Australia — the characteristics of which are poverty, and material and social deprivation.

This has led to the hypothesis that the changes in the social structure of Australia associated with unemployment are leading to the growth of precisely those characteristics of society that are identified as contributing to higher crime rates.

In order to test these theories, we have embarked on two empirical studies. The first utilises police records in a study of 1,000 persons apprehended for break and enter offences during the calendar year 1983. The second is a detailed survey of about 400 unemployed people based on written questionnaires and interviews.

The break and enter study is a relatively conventional empirical one that seeks to establish the profiles and career paths of offenders. The study has come up with a whole potpourri of offending patterns that seems to lend support to the variety of different explanations for crime mentioned earlier, and certainly does not point to a single, tidy theory that explains the incidence of this offence. However, what the study is able to do more positively is to provide a detailed picture of the profiles of offenders and, in particular, identify those characteristics that occur most frequently. The study will not conclusively prove the theories we are proposing. However, it will demonstrate that what we are saying is consistent with empirical information on known offenders.

The unemployment survey is a much more qualitative one and seeks to complement the first study. One of the primary objectives of the unemployment survey is to search for any evidence that may point to the emergence of a 'second society' within Australia. The survey has focused chiefly on the *attitudes* of unemployed people; and these are crucial if we are to understand what is happening.

If we accept that low crime rates stem from a society in which the vast majority of the people conform to the rules of that society, then we may hypothesise that the key to lower or higher crime rates is people's *belief* in the system. Thus if the attitudes of unemployed people towards the rules of society are changing, as the results of our survey seem to suggest, then this may have critical implications for crime rates in the future.

The survey has also attempted to collect detailed information about the offences that unemployed people may have committed. In particular, details have been sought about the minor offending into which unemployed people may have been drawn (covering the purely technical

offences such as giving inaccurate information to the Department of Social Security, through to minor offences such as shoplifting). The importance of this minor offending may be considerable, particularly when coupled with the growing phenomenon of long-term unemployment. The significance of this is not that it may constitute some sort of new crime-wave, but it is the implications that this may have for people's attitudes.

If the results of our research indicate that normally law-abiding people are being forced by economic circumstances to become involved in systematically breaking the rules of society, then we may hypothesise that this will contribute to the long-term erosion of the values of the society. If our survey finds that people are becoming accustomed to breaking the rules regularly as a matter of day-to-day living; if, as the preliminary results of the research seem to suggest, those people are coming to regard the law as nothing more than an obstacle to be avoided, then it is perhaps reasonable to suppose that those people are unlikely to conform to the values of the system.

We are working on the theory that the sorts of changes in attitudes, or breakdown in values, to which this refers will not occur simply at the level of the individual, but rather, are more likely to occur within families, groups or whole communities. Furthermore, we would assume that these processes will not happen quickly, but will take place over long periods and over generations (because of the effect of socialisation, or lack of it, the impact of such changes is likely to be greatest on the children in these families or communities). These theories may seem alarmist but the empirical facts concerning long-term unemployment and the concentration of unemployment in particular communities show that the situation exists; and the results of this unemployment survey suggest that the changes in attitudes are already occurring.

The conclusions of these studies are not straightforward or obvious, because the changes to which they refer will not happen instantly. The process of socialisation is a lengthy one, and similarly, will take some time to be eroded.

Our report will attempt to make some practical suggestions as to what might be done to ease the situation. The primary objective of such suggestions would be to help people stay within the system, rather than driving them out of it.

However, the most valuable achievement of the study is probably that it has helped to identify the severity of some of the problems that are developing in Australian society and thus indicate the sorts of areas that require further investigation. The next phase would seem to be that of action-oriented research, so that some specific policies can be developed to confront this crisis.

SHOOTINGS OF POLICE OFFICERS

Bruce Swanton, Senior Research Officer, Australian Institute of Criminology.

According to admittedly indifferent Interpol data, Australia, while not the most dangerous terrain in the world for public security officials, is far from being the

safest. Popular sentiment among street police officers in the eastern states is certainly consistent with that view, feeling the workplace is tough and getting tougher. Among those dangers faced is that of being shot.

Such views require objective examination.

My remarks today comprise a very brief statistical description of police officer shootings within Australia, together with comments on those data and some views concerning further research. The data described were collected in the course of a comprehensive study of shootings and bombings of police officers.

During the period 1964 to 1983 inclusive, a total of 88 shootings of police officers *qua* police officers occurred in all mainland states and Northern Territory. The annual average of such shootings was 4.40 and the 20 year rate per 100,000 police officers was 9.58. Data do not indicate a significant increase in the shooting rate during recent years. Although there was only one year in which no shooting occurred, the number of shootings in any one year, mercifully, was never great; a fact which happily confines statistical treatment to simple description. Frequencies ranged between one and ten per year. Seventy one (80.7 per cent) shootings were non-fatal and 17 (19.3 per cent) were fatal. Similarly, seventy one (80.7 per cent) of the shot officers were uniformed and 17 (19.3 per cent) were either plain clothes or criminal investigation branch officers. Forty eight (55 per cent) shootings were by means of rifle, 22 (25 per cent) were by rifle and the remaining 18 (20 per cent) shootings were by handgun. Three officers were shot with their own weapons, two by pistol and one by rifle.

Twenty eight (39 per cent) shootings occurred between 9 pm and 3 am, 18 (25 per cent) occurred between 3 pm and 9 pm, 17 (24 per cent) occurred between 9 am and 3 pm, and eight only took place between 3 am and 9 am. Percentages relate to the 71 cases in respect of which times are known.

Twenty six (30 per cent) shootings occurred in relation to disturbance calls, of which 'domestics' are a subset. Making certain assumptions, it seems domestic disturbances accounted for about ten (11 per cent) shootings. Attempt arrest associated with 14 cases (16 per cent) and burglary related calls with eleven (13 per cent).

Officers possessing between three and seven years service inclusive appeared to be at greatest risk from shooting, being mostly in the age group 26 to 38 years inclusive.

Viewing these data by jurisdiction, we find Victoria Police experienced the largest number of shootings, 31, over the period; although not the greatest number of officers killed. New South Wales Police ranked second with 29 shootings and Western Australia followed with eleven. South Australia Police and Queensland Police experienced six shootings each, while Northern Territory Police sustained five shootings. Neither South Australia Police nor Northern Territory Police suffered an officer killed.

In terms of shootings per 100,000 of sworn agency strength, Northern Territory Police (71.59) experienced the highest rate. Western Australia (27.87) ranked second with Victoria (25.70) third. New South Wales (18.25) and South Australia (12.71) came fourth and fifth respectively. Queensland (8.73) ranked lowest but sustained three

fatalities. In terms of killed to wounded officers, Queensland rated least well with a 1:1 ratio.

Contrary to general American experience but, consistent with the general Canadian experience, 31 (35 per cent) of shot officers were not in company with other police officers at the time of their shooting. Fifty seven (65 per cent) shootings occurred when officers were in company.

The mercifully few frequencies, as already mentioned, inhibit statistical analysis. Correlations of shootings with factors such as forcible felonies, offences against the person, male population 16-25 years old, unemployed males 19-60 years old, motor vehicle registrations, police strengths and police expenditure, etc., are therefore contra indicated. Even so, this broad description is not without value as it does at least permit officers, as well as their managers and trainers, to assess at least one threat to their safety in impartial terms. Also, it provides bases for hypotheses which can be tested both prospectively and comparatively.

VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN IN CANBERRA

Dr Suzanne Hatty, Senior Research Officer, Australian Institute of Criminology and
Dr Rosemary Knight, Capital Territory Health Commission

Violence perpetrated by a male against a female sexual partner, usually labelled 'domestic violence', particularly if it occurs in the private domain, has been described as 'a crime of momentous proportion'. Indeed, the social cost of this physical abuse is exorbitant for both those directly affected, and for those whose involvement is marginal.

It is important to recognise that violent acts directed at a female partner should not be conceptualised as distinct from physical aggression inflicted by a male beyond the sphere of the family. There is no doubt that the structural inequalities inherent in society promote the use of intersexual violence. Indeed, the systematic use of violence against women may be viewed as a form of social control. Psychological studies of the aggressor confirm that these men are highly likely to be dominant and sexually possessive in the relationship with their partner. Often, this stance assumes the proportions of pathology. Also, the professed police reluctance to intervene in a 'private' transaction is consistent with a belief in the concept of a woman as the perpetrator's property. Members of the judiciary manifest a similar reticence to process offenders who commit violent acts against a female partner, especially if the latter is a spouse.

Although there has been a proliferation of theories seeking to account for the genesis, maintenance and distribution of male violence against a female partner, three models appear to dominate the literature. These may be sequentially described as the attitudinal, behavioural and sociodemographic accounts. The first of these focuses upon the psychological characteristics of the male aggressor and the female victim as interpreted within the pattern of violence displayed (mental and physical abuse). The second model incorporates an examination of the behaviour of the

participants, particularly as this reflects the dynamics inherent in the relationship and is translated into contact with external agencies. The third model emphasises the importance of sociodemographic variables in the enactment of violence against a female partner.

The current study was commissioned by the Australian Law Reform Commission (domestic violence reference) as an adjunct to the investigation of current legislation in the A.C.T. (1984). A detailed questionnaire was constructed in an attempt to gather as much information as possible about the occurrence of violence in the A.C.T. In addition, the questionnaire was designed to maximise the possibility of the comparability of results between various Australian jurisdictions.

Victims' responses were analysed using, firstly, descriptive statistics and, secondly, logistic regression analysis. Employing the latter technique, the three models outlined above were fitted on *a priori* theoretical grounds; the predictive power of each model was assessed. The regression analysis indicated that the probability of violence occurring within a recent time-frame was a function of victim's marital status, type of violence inflicted and the degree to which the victim sought police intervention and medical treatment. Analysis of the data utilising descriptive statistics confirmed trends already evident in the literature, for example, the finding that the violence is both frequent and long-term in nature. In addition, it was found that there was victim conflict concerning police intervention, and a tendency to dissatisfaction with police response when such intervention occurred. In contradistinction to some of the literature, it was found that the occurrence of violence directed at a female partner was not related to low socio-demographic status. However, a central finding to emerge concerned the victim's negative emotional reaction to the lack of public acknowledgement given to the phenomenon of intersexual abuse in the private domain. The women experienced an increased degree of victimisation in the absence of open dialogue; one woman stated:

Canberra is like a small town; someone always knows someone else who knows you or your family. I'm afraid that if anything is said, or help sought, it could affect my husband's career. Then everyone suffers.

HEROIN USE AND CRIME

Ian Dobinson, N.S.W. Bureau of Crime Statistics and Research

The study of heroin use and crime is confounded by unique methodological problems. Although such studies are in their infancy in Australia, much can be learned from the U.S. experiences, especially with regard to the errors made by researchers in that country.

The two areas that relate not only to such errors but also to the main methodological problems are:

1. The measurement of usage behaviour and criminality, and
2. the relating of findings to an overall user population.

In March last year I delivered a paper to a seminar held here at the Institute which was an overview of a study conducted by the Bureau on the relationship between drug use

and property crime. Many questions relating to the above two areas were raised by that seminar.

When looking at research done overseas, it is first noticed that there is a complete lack of consistent conceptual definitions and measurement devices. Such a situation has made the comparison of studies difficult if not impossible.

The most common method used to collect the data in the study of drug use and crime has been self-report, through face to face interviewing. Accordingly, such data is initially subject to the limitations of memory recall, the willingness of the subject to divulge truthful information and the operation of expectancy biases within the context of the interview. Notwithstanding, it is contended that self-report is by far the most efficient means of obtaining the relevant information.

ABORIGINAL JPs

Annie Hoddinott, Planning and Research Officer, W.A. Prisons Department

Since the proclamation of the *Aboriginal Communities Act* 1979, various Aboriginal communities in the North-West of Western Australia have been administering their own justice within the framework of the Act. Basically, the Act makes provision for the independent and responsible management of judicial matters in these Aboriginal communities.

The continuing high rate of Aboriginal representation in West Australian prisons has been of real concern to the Prisons Department for a number of years. It was determined that the Aboriginal Justice of the Peace Scheme would be investigated to see if it had any influence on the rate of Aboriginal imprisonment.

The research began at La Grange in the Kimberley region of Western Australia. This location was chosen for several reasons. Firstly, it was felt that Aboriginal Justices of the Peace at La Grange, having been responsible for administering their own justice for five years, would be more familiar with some aspects of the evaluation than other communities. Secondly, it was envisaged that Aboriginal Justices of the Peace may be of real value in terms of suggesting possible improvements to the existing system. The La Grange system was compared with the administration of justice at other communities. A multi-faceted approach was taken to allow for a wider overview and to illustrate other problem areas. The scheme had not been evaluated since its implementation in 1980.

The research focused on the effectiveness of the existing Aboriginal Justice of the Peace Scheme and addressed problems that have arisen since the implementation of the Act. The evaluation examined the Aboriginal Justice of the Peace Scheme as a whole and also focused on two communities, one participating in the scheme and one operating in the mainstream of European Judicial Law.

The specific objectives of the evaluation were to:

1. Evaluate the communities which use the Aboriginal Justice of the Peace Scheme with regard to:
 - a. effect on imprisonment rates;
 - b. current use of imprisonment compared with

other sanctions; and

- c. trends in the type of offences for which people were imprisoned.
2. Evaluate the understanding of the European judicial system and the Aboriginal Justice of the Peace Scheme in participating and non-participating communities.
3. Determine the effect which the operation of the Aboriginal Justice of the Peace Scheme has had on traditional Aboriginal law and culture.

The research was both qualitative and quantitative in approach. The qualitative data included traditional anthropological participant-observation techniques and key and informant interviewing. The quantitative data was collected from court records at Broome and Derby.

Statistics were collected for a seven year period and encompassed seven communities. Variables collected included:

- a. data charged;
- b. offender identification;
- c. offence;
- d. date of offence;
- e. date heard;
- f. plea entered;
- g. sanction;
- h. whether legally represented;
- i. presided by J.P. or Magistrate;
- j. whether time to pay was granted; and
- k. whether the offender was imprisoned on default.

The main value of the research will be to provide information regarding the effectiveness of the Aboriginal Justice of the Peace Scheme and its impact on the rate of imprisonment of participating members. This information will be valuable for assessing policy options and programs to reduce the rate of Aboriginal imprisonment in Western Australia.

Further, conclusions will be drawn regarding the general level of understanding among Aboriginal communities of the Justice of the Peace Scheme and the mainstream of judicial law. An integral element of this is whether tribal law has been strengthened or weakened since the inception of the scheme.

Within this framework, the research will also indicate whether the terms of the *Aboriginal Communities Act* are in fact pertinent or in need of revision.

The fieldwork was conducted in the Kimberley region of Western Australia from July to December 1984. The project was funded by the Criminological Research Council and the Western Australia Prisons Department.

POLICE SELECTION AND PERFORMANCE

Stephen James, Doctoral Student, Criminology Department, University of Melbourne

Our increasing knowledge of the complexity and diversity of contemporary policing has highlighted a range of problematic topics within police management which have been insufficiently researched and understood. How one rank-orders these problems is a matter of perspective, but a strong case can be made that personnel evaluation decisions should rank high, both in terms of their

importance to the management of police organisations, and because of the lack of systematic knowledge we have concerning their legitimacy and effectiveness. It is a simplification to assert that an organisation's capabilities depend directly upon the qualities of the personnel who perform that organisation's duties. Many other factors impinge upon the totality of a police department's operations. Nevertheless, it is obvious that the nature of policing is determined in large part by the nature of police personnel. And in turn the nature of police personnel is determined in large part by management decisions regarding who should be accepted for police duties.

In a sense, *selection decision-making* imprints upon the police organisation the broad personnel features which characterise a police department. Selection decisions thus reflect the self-image of the department, in terms of those characteristics considered necessary for general police work. On the other hand, *performance evaluation* reflects the department's conception of appropriate characteristics for particular police duties. Such evaluation represents the transition from a general and rather abstract notion of police suitability to one concerned with the specific operation of police roles. The two procedures, selection and performance evaluation, are conceptually linked, but are usually conducted in different ways under different parameters.

There are two broad questions which should be addressed to these decision systems: 'how do they work?' and 'how well do they work?' Neither of these questions is straightforward, especially the second, but the answers should be considered vital to management. The writer's work over the last few years has been an attempt to unravel these answers in a necessarily limited but hopefully informative manner.

The aims of the research are concerned with identifying consistencies in both selection and performance evaluation decision-making, and then identifying consistencies between these two forms of decision-making. This strategy provides a series of answers to questions of 'how things work'. In addition, it helps provide limited answers to questions of 'how well things work' on two levels. On the first level, the absence of identifiable consistencies in either

decision-making system must be considered a debit point against effectiveness. On the second level, the absence of identifiable consistency between the two decision-making systems must reflect upon either or both systems, if we accept the premise that selection decisions ought to be anchored in conceptions of appropriate performance.

As interesting and as relevant as the answers to these questions might be, the above strategy as it stands lacks an external reference point by which we can judge the broader relevance of personnel decision-making. Such a reference point is notoriously difficult to come by in police research, given the diversity of police functions and the lack of effective indices of police performance. However, given that conceptions of 'character' and 'behaviour' play so large a part in such key decision-making systems as selection interview ratings and performance ratings by superiors, it seems reasonable to adopt as a reference index an independent measure of 'what a person is like'. A standard personality assessment device is one such appropriate measure.

The present study involves the longitudinal investigation of two samples of police recruits inducted into the Victoria Police in 1978 and 1980 respectively. Both samples were drawn from larger samples of recruit applicants. All applicants within the sampling periods were administered the California Psychological Inventory (CPI), which plays no part in selection decisions. The 1978 sample contains approximately 200 successful recruits from 500 applicants, while the 1980 sample, which was drawn as a validation sample, contains approximately 50 successful recruits from 170 applicants. In addition to CPI data, biographical, selection and performance evaluation data are available for the samples.

To date, consistencies (and inconsistencies) have been identified in the selection procedures for the 1978 sample. This material has been reported at length in the writer's M.A. thesis, and selected aspects appear in a recent journal article.

I am currently involved in analysing the data from the validation sample, and intend in the near future to begin on the performance data for both samples.



Over fifty people attended the Criminology Research Conference.



Dr Don Weatherburn

Youth Crime in Australia



Dr Satyanshu K Mukherjee

Dr Mukherjee analysed Australian arrest statistics for the four population groups: men, women, boys and girls. He said that the most significant change in Australia during the last two decades had taken place in the arrest rates of girls under 18.

'For serious assault, arrest rates of girls are slightly higher than those of adult women. However, arrest rates of girls for this offence became more pronounced when compared with arrest rates for boys.'

The girl to boy arrest ratio went from 1 to 25 in 1964 to 1 to 7 in 1982-83. This represented a very significant finding and needed to be investigated fully, Dr Mukherjee said. It was possible that this situation reflected major changes in youth culture since the 1960s which had considerably minimised sex-differentiation in roles, behaviour and attitudes. Also for the offence of robbery the arrest ratio of girls to boys changed dramatically, from 1 to 19 in 1964 to 1 to 7 in 1982-83.

Early results of a study of serious assault cases in New South Wales, currently being carried out by Dr Mukherjee, and studies of violent offences in the United States showed that the youngsters tend to use firearms much less often than their adult counterparts.

Dr Mukherjee suggested several changes in the methods of collection and publication of crime statistics so that our understanding of crimes by various age-sex groups in the population would be improved.

Dr Mukherjee's concluding remarks on youth and society are quoted in full below.

'In concluding, I wish to deal with the following:

1. a response to the awkward and impertinent question I posed at the beginning of this address,
 2. list 'causes' of 'increasing' youth crime as observed by numerous scholars, researchers, law enforcement personnel, politicians, the media, etc.,
 3. my views on factors that we should investigate.
1. I asserted at the beginning of this presentation that the situation pertaining to criminality and resources to contain

Dr Satyanshu K. Mukherjee, Senior Criminologist with the Australian Institute of Criminology, spoke in January at the University of Western Australia 1985 Summer School on 'Young Australians — What Future?' as part of the International Youth Year.

Dr Mukherjee pointed out that available statistics, undoubtedly inadequate for assessing youth crime, suggested that the rate of increase of serious violent offences by youth was no greater than that of violent offences by adults.

He said that if the adult population were separated in terms of young adults (18 to 21 year olds) and the rest, statistics would show that the rate at which the young adults were arrested for homicide, rape, serious assault and robbery, was several times the rate of youths and the rest of the adult population.

Using the most recent statistics from Australia and overseas, he said that offences committed by the young were generally far less serious, both in terms of injury inflicted and value of property stolen/damaged, than those committed by young adults and older adults.

One reason why the myth about increasing youth crime persisted was the way the statistics are presented. Careful analysis of these statistics from Australia and overseas very clearly showed that youths tend to commit crimes in groups, Dr Mukherjee said. His study of break, enter and steal offences in Sydney strongly supported this finding.

ever increasing violence and theft has remained fundamentally unchanged during the last 100 years or so. I admit this is a particularly harsh judgment. Let me submit to you my reasons. In the area of criminal policy and criminological research it is extremely difficult to find a document which can convincingly show understanding about crime and measures to combat it. And if any research has been able to do this it is rare to find the effectiveness of such measures. Most findings of research and reports, on the other hand, tend to take a very cautious view and effectively suggest that more research is needed to come up with concrete solutions. Let me quote from a recently published book, J.Q. Wilson (ed.) *Crime and Public Policy*:

All of the authors of these chapters share at least one view, and that is of the importance of careful research and evaluated experiments in designing a crime control strategy. We share it not because we ourselves are researchers, eager for more grants and richer data, but because we have seen how often things that 'everybody knew' to be true proved to be untrue, or at least questionable.

In the next paragraph the same author says:

If the reader learns nothing else from this book, he or she should have learned that the acquisition of sound knowledge about the effects of crime control policies, while expensive, is a good deal less costly than the prolonged commitment to error.

I do not disagree with either of the views but I will not hold my breath for a profound breakthrough. A fundamental fallacy in our approach to social issues has been ethnocentricity. Furthermore, whenever the tasks seemed daunting we have shirked our responsibilities. We have learnt enough and we should be able to accept the fact that under the present social and economic system we cannot effectively deal with crime. Why not consider re-ordering our society? Maybe we do not desire crime problems to disappear; not only thousands and thousands of jobs would disappear resulting in an increase in unemployment, but also we may not be able to pat our backs and rejoice in being good as opposed to evil.

Crime, youth crime in particular, has been found to be associated with a host of factors. While most of the associations over the years remain unchanged, perhaps a new factor has been added in recent years and that is 'technology'. Traditionally, crime has been found to be associated with the family, the school system, the economy — unemployment and inflation, neighbourhood, demography, baby boom, role of the police, opportunity structure, etc. It is not possible here to discuss these in any detail. These deal with our entire social and economic system. In this connection let me quote from a U.S. Presidential Committee report, entitled *Youth: Transition to Adulthood*:

When ours was still an agrarian society, the needs of youth were necessarily subordinate to the economic struggle, and the rudimentary occupational requisites permitted them to be brought quickly into adult productivity. The dominant institutional settings within which they grew up were the home and workplace. Choices in the occupational sphere were few: the future roles of the children were generally well-exemplified by those of parents. In short, the task of socialization was resolved by early and continual interaction with the parents and nearby adults.

The situation has changed substantially in the twentieth century. Home and parents were the main influences on a child's growing up. Today, this is not at all true. This situation has thrown the youth in situations in which he/she obtains numerous different experiences and influences. Abiding by one set of rules as against others has been made complicated by such changes. There is something also lacking in our societies nowadays. In earlier days, a youth could relate to someone, there existed certain role models; today it is difficult to find a 'hero'.

Youths of today are more knowledgeable than their counterparts were a decade or so ago. This is not necessarily because they are more intelligent but because of the tremendous amount of information that they receive. Through the media they know more about our government, our leaders, the economic system, national policy, and so on. Theoretically, these provide a much better opportunity for kids to pick a role model. On the contrary what do the youth see and read:

- corruption in politics — maybe only a few politicians are corrupt but the headlines do not instill confidence and respect in politicians;
- judges charged with misbehaviour — there goes confidence in the most respected of professions;

- corruption in police;
- medical practitioner charged with medifraud;
- media tycoon alleged to be involved in organised crime;
- rugby league chief indicted for misuse of funds;
- union chief charged with violence;
- solicitor's trust fund account questioned;
- accountancy fiddles;
- child pornography;
- youth unemployment rate one in four;

This list can go on and on.

3. Increases or decreases in crime do not occur simply in response to a stimulus, for example, the nation's criminal justice policy, or the archaic school system, or changes in the family. It is necessary, therefore, to examine the non criminal justice sectors in order to offer a constructive life for the youth and thereby reduce youth crime. I recommend the following be investigated:

- (i) **Raising the school leaving age to 17.** Although this will imply further restriction on the freedom of youth, this suggestion is made in response to two structural changes: changes in the family and changed and changing requirements of the workforce in the remaining part of the 1980s and beyond.
- (ii) **Increasing subsidy for tertiary education.**
- (iii) **Increasing unemployment benefit for those 18 and over to enable them to lead a respectable life style.** An overwhelming majority of unemployed youth are unemployed because of the limitations of the contemporary economic system. There is, therefore, no justification in victimising the youngsters for something in which they have absolutely no role, and in which they are not even consulted. However, imaginative programs can be developed to make use of the unemployed youth.
- (iv) **Lowering the age of retirement.** The present economy may require a significant and sustained boost to reduce unemployment, particularly those of the youth. The government's move to encourage early retirement is a move in this direction. It may be possible to tie the age of retirement to the unemployment rate. Otherwise it is likely that society would create a group who will remain unemployed for life — the longer one is unemployed the fewer are his/her chances of obtaining employment.
- (v) **Developing appropriate machinery to consult and seek opinions of youth in matters affecting their future.**

FORTHCOMING EVENTS

- **Burglary Seminar**, to be held in Brisbane, 24 to 27 June 1985
- **Diversion Seminar**, August 1985
- **Probation and Parole Workshop**, to be held at Bundanoon, September 1985

CINCH Online

CINCH (Computerised Information from National Criminological Holdings), the Institute's online database, has been in existence since 1976. It was implemented as part of the Institute's overall commitment to the dissemination of Australian criminological information. The information was stored on the CSIRONET CDC CYBER 76 computer using the INFOL storage and retrieval package and was only available inhouse to the Institute staff.

An agreement has been made between the Institute and ACI Computer Services to mount CINCH on the AUSINET computer network. CINCH will be available as a public access file on 1 May 1985. Initially the data will be comprised of 1982-85 journal articles and monographs. Material not indexed during the suspension of the *Information Bulletin of Australian Criminology* will be available online. Eventually the data stored on the CSIRONET computer will be converted to STAIRS format and the database will contain material from as early as the 1920s to the present, including indexed documents comprising books, research reports, government documents, conferences, working papers, conference papers, theses, statistical publications, analytical chapters in books and journal articles.

The CINCH database when it is fully mounted on AUSINET will contain criminological references from major Australian legal and criminological journals dating back to their first issue. For example, the *Australian Law Journal* from v.1 1927/28- , *Sydney Law Review* v.1 1953- , *Federal Law Review* v.1 1964- , *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Criminology* v.1 1968- , and so on. Only those items deemed to have criminological interest were selected, but there is a tremendously rich source of historical and archival information readily available there.

The 'Recent Publications' section of the *Information Bulletin of Australian Criminology* will continue to be published. It will be the printed byproduct of the CINCH database and both will be updated quarterly.

To get an online search done, users can contact their state library, university library, or government department library as appropriate. The National Library of Australia also conducts computer searches. Access to AUSINET can be arranged through these library channels or by contacting ACI Computer Services, P.O. Box 43, Clayton, Victoria, 3168. Telephone (03) 544-8433.



Mr Leigh Baker, ACI Computer Services, Professor Richard Harding, Director Australian Institute of Criminology, Ms Nikki Riszko, Librarian, J.B. Memorial Library and (standing) Ms Hazel Williams, ACI Computer Services, at the signing of the agreement.

Costigan: publicity and crime

Dr John Braithwaite, formerly a research criminologist with the Australian Institute of Criminology and until recently a holder of a Criminology Research Council grant, collaborated with Mr Brent Fisse of Adelaide University to write The Impact of Publicity on Corporate Offenders, published in 1983. Royal Commissioner Frank Costigan, Q.C., referred to their book in his final report. Dr Braithwaite comments.

No-one can doubt the service the Costigan royal commission has done in cleaning out the bottom-of-the-harbour tax evasion industry. Yet it would be a mistake to accept the conclusion of Costigan's final report that his success in exposing these evildoers to public contempt can be repeated on the drug trade — every politician's favourite target for a crackdown on crime.

The reason we feel compelled to attack Costigan's recommendations on using public exposure to control crime is that the royal commissioner has relied in part upon our book *The Impact of Publicity on Corporate Offenders*, to justify his proposals. After three pages of quoting this book, the royal commission concludes:

This proposition [use of publicity to control corporate crime] applies with equal strength to the enforcement of laws against individuals involved in organized crime, a fortiori those involved in drug trafficking. Is there, then, merit in developing a proposal which has as its main thrust the *exposure* of drug traffickers? (Volume 5, p. 156).

Commentators shocked at how far Costigan goes on the exposure question are often themselves guilty of an over-reaction. Some have even suggested that investigative commissions should not name wrong-doers unless there is enough evidence for a criminal prosecution against the person. Our legal system has never taken the dictum that people are innocent until proven guilty to preclude findings of wrong-doing against individuals by inquiries not conducted under criminal rules of procedure.

Wendy Bacon has attacked the hypocrisy of some civil libertarians who have adopted this position (*National Times*, 9-15 Nov., 1984). When the Nagle royal commission found on the balance of probabilities that bashings had occurred in the NSW prisons system and named those responsible, 'civil libertarians applauded his findings', she says. She goes on to point to the general support for the Beach report in which 30 Victorian police officers were named for misconduct but not subsequently convicted. 'Similarly, there was no cry from civil libertarians when in 1979 Justice Woodward rejected Robert Trimbole's explanation that his assets were the results of gambling wins and named him as the head of the Griffith drug industry'. Bacon lists many other examples. One of the more telling is the Street royal commission — telling because it blackened one reputation (by finding against former Chief Magistrate Farquar) and cleared another (that of Premier Neville Wran). It is often forgotten that reports that name people can rehabilitate reputations as well as savage them. Australia will be taking a tragic step if, in an overreaction to Costigan, the view is adopted that people should only be named for wrong-doing when there is enough evidence for a criminal conviction. Morality often expects more of people, particularly those in high public office, than the standards of the criminal law. Consider the mini-public inquiry into the Bill Allen affair. For all the opprobrium directed at the former top NSW police officer, there was no evidence to sustain a criminal conviction. Was this damage to Allen's reputation therefore unjust? Was no useful purpose served by the inquiry? The answer to both



Dr John Braithwaite

questions is No. As a potential police commissioner, Allen was found on the balance of probabilities to have placed himself in a situation where he could be compromised by major criminals. It is clearly in the public interest to prevent someone in this position from becoming police commissioner.

There is undoubtedly some justification in Wendy Bacon's claim that those who took offence at Kerry Packer being named, without having shown the least concern for the naming of Trimbole and many others, may be guilty of an imbalanced deference to the civil liberties of the ruling class.

However, we disagree with her claim that 'What is not acknowledged by those who attack Costigan is that what he has been doing is just what royal commissioners have traditionally done'. Costigan has gone beyond what royal commissioners have traditionally done in two respects. First, Costigan rejects any need to grant individuals natural justice before being named in a royal commission report. These rights, he says, need only be preserved for the criminal trial process. Second, Costigan advocates publicly exposing individuals suspected of drug trafficking even where there has been no finding to this effect by an open public inquiry.

The first contention is extreme indeed. Without discussing any of the breaches of natural justice claimed by Mr Packer and rejected by Mr Costigan, it is plain that for Mr Packer loss of his television licences on the strength of a finding of misconduct against him in the Costigan report could well be a more serious consequence than any sanction imposed following a criminal conviction. In *The Impact of Publicity on Corporate Offenders*, we showed that adverse publicity can be a very powerful and effective sanction, and made a number of suggestions for ensuring that it be used responsibly. For example:

Much can and should be done to minimize the risk of smear tactics. The Canadian Law Reform Commission has recommended that investigatory committees of inquiry should not report allegations of misconduct by

any person until reasonable notice of the proposed allegations has been given, along with adequate opportunity to be heard in reply; this is in line with the example set by the *New Jersey Commission of Investigation Act*. Likely targets of adverse publicity should also be given power to call and examine witnesses and, at the committee's discretion, to cross-examine witnesses.

In our book, we analysed adverse publicity directed at corporations. We point out that public companies have weaker claims on rights to privacy and silence than do private people. Hence all the safeguards against the abuse of the public exposure power that we advocate, and which Costigan rejects, become much more necessary if private people rather than public corporations are the targets.

Second, we would hold that our conclusions about the potency of social control by public exposure do not apply 'with equal strength to the enforcement of laws against ... drug trafficking'. We were able to demonstrate the impact of publicity on a range of corporate offenders. With drug offenders, there is no such empirical evidence, only Mr Costigan's speculation. Moreover, there is reason to suspect that some standover men can benefit from publicity which enhances the credibility of their threats.

The basic reason for our scepticism is much more fundamental. There is much research showing that white-collar crime can be deterred. Costigan's own success at deterring bottom-of-the-harbour tax evasion bears this out. With drug offending, the criminological research evidence points in the opposite direction — no matter what we do, the drugs keep coming in and people keep using them.

When the demand for an illegal product or service is price inelastic, demand will always be satisfied. Heroin addicts will consume heroin even if they have to steal \$1,000 a week to maintain the habit. Knocking some suppliers out of the market by denting their reputations will only result in others taking their place. Some small dealers will become bigger; other newcomers will enter the market to satisfy the unfilled demand. At most, the strategy will drive up the price of the drug as dealers seek compensation for the extra risks they run. The higher price might deter some new users, but if demand is price inelastic among existing addicts, they are likely to commit more crime to sustain their habits.

Fortunately for the criminal justice system, there are not many areas where crime satisfied a price inelastic demand for a service. Knocking out one bank robber does not have the effect of causing the bank to search for a new robber as a replacement.

The economic realities of drug markets mean that the level of drug abuse in Australia is likely to be as unresponsive to control by public exposure of pushers as it has been to control by imprisonment. This is why most criminologists in Australia do not support spending more and more millions on drug enforcement and why so many favour free availability of hard drugs on prescription for registered addicts.

The point to be stressed here is that there is no justification for selling out civil liberties in pursuit of a drug control policy that can never justify the trade-off. By contrast, with

corporate crime a trade-off can be defended, though not one as oppressive as Costigan's.

Costigan's proposal on targeting is this:

9.005 ... The successful criminal will have acquired substantial wealth. That wealth necessarily is the product of income illegally obtained. It is the 'unexplained' nature of that income which should be the focus of investigation. The acquisition of it needs to be the subject of both tax assessment and public exposure (Volume 5).

Costigan's recommendation for achieving the above is to set up a taxation investigation tribunal. This would expose villains by public inquisitions into how they acquired their wealth. For the purposes of tax assessment, they would be forced in public to reveal where their money came from.

9.017 It would be very difficult to restrict the work of the Tribunal to that generated by those tax investigators working on cases where criminally-sourced income was suspected. The answer to this would be to restrict the class of person who might make application to the Tribunal to those appointed specifically to investigate those matters . . . (Volume 5).

Costigan proposes to achieve the above by allowing applications for public inquisition only by a 'Special Tax Investigator (Crime)'. In other words, it will exclude any case other than one where the public is asked to accept that here we have a crook the state has been unable to nail on any wrong-doing other than his tax affairs. The public will suspect that the respondent is a drug offender. Indeed, this seems to be what Costigan intends. Drug pushers will be reviled by their neighbours and friends. Yet at the same time Costigan suggests that the tribunal's powers should extend 'not just to drug trafficking but to organized crime generally . . . Whether his income comes from drugs or some other villainy therefore matters not' (Volume 5, 9.015).

In some ways this is worse than public exposure of wrong-doing by a royal commission that grants the targets no rights to natural justice. Costigan is advocating public exposure of suspects on the basis of the unaccountable judgement of one person (the special tax investigator) who, following unspecified procedures, believes that the target is responsible for unspecified wrong-doing. The prime goal is to stigmatise drug traffickers, but the procedure runs the risk of indiscriminately tarring all kinds of so-called 'villains'. There is no provision for requiring the special investigator to state his reasons for suspecting villainy or even what type of villain the target is alleged to be.

Admittedly, the target can clear his name by showing that his income is legitimate, even if it was income concealed from the tax commissioner. His name would then be partially cleared. But if he refused to reveal the sources of his income in public so as not to betray a business confidence or to cover up some more minor villainy, the effect would be to have the public assume that the target was probably a major drug dealer.

It seems to us that there is nothing wrong with a fairly conducted public inquiry that finds against tax offenders so as to hold them up to public scorn. However, using a tax inquiry to display people for disapproval over matters unrelated to tax, where these matters have not been examined by fair process, is unconscionable.

Both the Costigan position that adverse publicity should be directed at alleged offenders following investigations that deny them natural justice and the 'Costigan backlash' that says inquiries should never name individuals as wrongdoers on the grounds of 'innocence until proven guilty' are extreme. Maintaining integrity and efficiency in our major institutions requires that it remain possible for public inquiries to name people as responsible for impropriety, incompetence, or wrong-doing without any particular reference to the possibility of criminal liability. A society that places total reliance on the criminal law for social control to the neglect of informal social control commits itself to a tunnel-visioned legalism.

In all the public debate about publicity and crime we should also bear in mind that sunlight does not work only or primarily as a disinfectant against individual wrongdoers. More important is the value of open inquiries in exposing rotten institutions, in the way the Nagle commission exposed a violent prison system. Mr Justice Wood-

ward's royal commission into the meat substitution racket was a success because it led to the reform of an industry of enormous importance to the Australian economy. This success was not so much achieved by prosecution as by exposing the corrupt relationships among some meatworks managers, meat inspectors and police officers.

Similarly, Costigan's major achievement has been to open public eyes to the dubious practices of union officials, tax advisors, bankers, and others. We share Costigan's disappointment that the National Crime Authority has not been set up to be an open inquiry into corruption and other institutional malaises. A crimes authority that conducts all of its hearings in private and which does no more than quietly gather evidence for prosecutions will be treating individual symptoms to the neglect of systemic diseases. Bankrupt institutions are best controlled by the democratic process of public scrutiny.

Note: This article is adapted from an earlier article which appeared in *Australian Society*, January 1985.

And, in brief ...

Prosecutorial Discretion

It has been said that all of the decisions that have to be made by those with a responsibility for the conduct of criminal cases, by far the most important is the initial one as to whether or not a charge should be preferred. A wrong decision either way can have disastrous consequences

Questions such as whether or not to prosecute; how prosecutorial decisions are made; the types of decisions available (e.g. diversion programs); and how they in turn affect the decision-making process were discussed during a three-day national conference held at the Australian Institute of Criminology from 7-9 November, 1984.

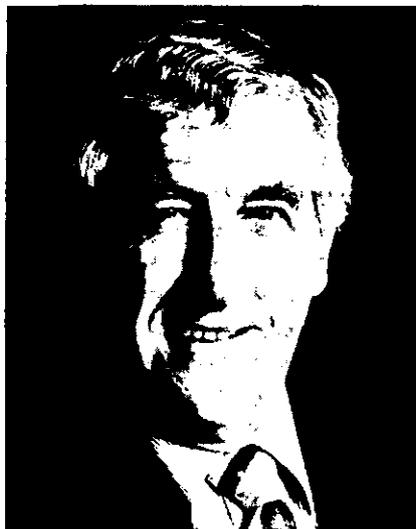
The proceedings of this conference, edited by Ivan Potas, a criminologist with the Institute, are available for \$6 from the Publications Section.

Social Change and Juvenile Delinquency

Papers presented at a conference held in 1984 on the subject 'Social Change and Democracy' are now available, free of charge.

The papers were delivered to the conference by Professor Richard Harding, Professor Dr Gunther Kaiser, Dr Satyanshu K. Mukherjee, Inspector O.V. Lloyd, and Dr David Thorpe.

Regents' Lecturer



Mr David Biles, Deputy Director of the Australian Institute of Criminology, has been appointed Regents' Lecturer at the Irvine Campus of the University of California, for the period 14 October-8 November 1985.

Mr Biles will incorporate this appointment within his 13-week study leave period from August to November this year.

As Regents' Lecturer, a 'position established to bring distinguished persons to the campus in order that they might add to and enrich university life', Mr Biles will participate

in seminars, colloquia, informal consultations with students and faculty members, and may be invited to address classes at the university.

He will speak of the Australian Institute of Criminology, and more specifically, increase the University's awareness of victimology and differential incarceration in Australia.

Research Grants

The Criminology Research Council is interested in supporting research projects which are likely to make a contribution to the prevention and control of crime in Australia. Projects of an evaluative nature designed to throw light on measures which are effective are particularly invited. However, funding is not necessarily confined to such projects, and any proposal of sufficiently high quality will be considered.

The Council, whose annual budget is at present \$150,000 a year, meets four times each year and applications may be submitted at any time.

Application forms may be obtained from:

The Assistant Secretary
Australian Institute of Criminology
P.O. Box 28
Woden, A.C.T. 2606.

BOOK REVIEWS

COMPUTERS IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT

By William G. Archambeault and

Betty J. Archambeault

Anderson Publishing Co., Cincinnati, Ohio. 1984.

186pp.

Reviewer: JOHN WALKER, Senior Research Officer,
Australian Institute of Criminology.

This 185 page volume is written as an introduction to computers for persons involved in the administration of criminal justice from police to corrections. It has several faults, being too American, too concerned with micro-computers as opposed to mainframes, and rather too susceptible to the ravages of time. For example, the authors often mention small U.S.-made microcomputers which are not on the Australian market and so the point they are making is sometimes lost, and their willingness to refer to actual existing machines makes me wonder whether, unless the book is itself biodegradable, it will be of any value in say five years time. However, that is the bad news.

The style and content are much more appropriate to the sorts of 'feature' articles printed by newspapers on the occasion of Business Machine Expos than to a book, but given the likely audience, this is probably not a bad idea. It is user friendly (i.e. not overly technical), contains manufacturers' names, addresses and even current (1984 U.S. dollar) prices, and describes the various forms of both hardware and software in fairly day-to-day language. The outlook is decidedly practical (for example, 'Dot Matrix printers are the most noisy'; 'Clean the heads on your disk drive regularly') and the emphasis is on applications which are of increasing appeal in 1985 (for example, 'Computer Assisted Instruction' in education) rather than those of accepted use such as accounting or personnel records.

The book is divided into five chapters:

1. Computers in Criminal Justice — An Overview
2. Data-Based Information Management Applications
3. Computer-Assisted Organisational Communication: Information Networking, CAW, Telecommunications, Applications
4. Computer-Assisted Instruction (CAI): Theory, Applications, Issues
5. Emerging Criminal Justice Issues in Computer Technology

There is also a useful glossary of selected terms and a bibliography.

If you are even remotely contemplating putting a micro on your office desk this book is not a bad buy. If you are not thinking of introducing computers into your area, it is probably an essential book to buy, because without blinding you with compujargon, it might open your eyes to applications you have not dreamt of. Remember, we are talking of machines that cost less than some office photocopiers these days, so most areas of criminal justice agencies can justify the expenditure. All you need is the need.

POWER TO PUNISH: Contemporary Penalty and Social Analysis

Edited by David Garland and Peter Young

Heinemann Educational Australia, Melbourne, 1984.

238pp, \$14 paperback, \$32 hardback.

Reviewer: SIMON BROWN-GREAVES, Senior
Psychologist, Office of Corrections, Victoria.

Power to Punish contains a collection of essays by contemporary European and American criminologists and sociologists which have as their unifying link controversial discussions of the theoretical, empirical and political bases of penalty. As a starting point, the editors point out that this is a text for teaching, which aims to provide background and explanation in an area that has previously lacked a systematic analysis. While not primarily a manual for practitioners, the subject area includes many topical analyses for Australian readers, for example, Andrew Scull's provocative and thoughtful chapter which provides an examination of community corrections. This chapter should be compulsory reading for those involved in the planning and development of alternatives to institutionalisation. It challenges our basic assumption that removing offenders from institutions must be a good thing and provides a stimulating approach to the political aspects of this current trend.

In fact, the consideration of political factors and their influence on policy making penalty is central to most chapters in this book. Stanley Cohen gives a lucid account of the discrepancy between words and action in the criminal justice system. As with most members of the 'critical criminology' school (quite a number of whom are represented in this volume), Cohen's attack on many accepted current practices is both strongly worded and provocative.

Cohen outlines three contrasting models of correctional change, caricatured as 'uneven progress', 'benevolence gone wrong' and the 'mystification' model, (alternatively known as the 'it's all a con' view of prison reform). He proceeds on a fascinating historical review of trends in reform from the 'nothing works' or pragmatist approach, through the 'disillusioned liberalism', the 'anti-professionalism' school of the 60s, (notably the anti-psychiatry model) to the new behaviourism of the recent era.

These stages are also effectively caricatured, nonetheless the reader is provided with further food for thought, and is required to question his/her involvement in reform in the criminal justice system.

Other chapters deal with topics such as a re-examination of the criminological theories of Durkheim (David Garland) and Foucault (Barry Smart), especially with regard to the relationship between punishment and imprisonment. These chapters provide thoughtful argument which effectively questions the content of two long-standing and valuable contributions to social theory.

Peter Young, in his chapter on 'Sociology, the State and Penal Relations' examines the political use (and abuse) of the penal system and traces the spectrum of changes which occurred in the nineteenth century to differing political ideologies, especially the development of the reform/

rehabilitation ideology and the development of a central bureaucracy responsible for the penal system.

Thomas Mathieson, a respected Norwegian sociologist, examines the problems of process involved in developing new policy in the criminal justice system, pointing out the need for a systematic and *integrated* approach, rather than the current selective and piecemeal adoption of individual programs.

This is an area that will be of interest to all those who work within the government sector, and many of the problems outlined by Mathieson will be familiar to the reader.

To return to the beginning, the book starts with an introductory chapter by the editors, Garland and Young: 'Towards a Social Analysis of Penality'. This chapter sets out the subject matter of the book in some depth, outlining definitions of punishment and social control and introducing the reader to some of the philosophical approaches to be encountered later in the book. This is a useful discussion, and one which is only fully appreciated as one moves through the myriad of philosophical and theoretical discussions contained in other chapters. The book's finale is the sole female contribution: Pat Carlen's 'On Rights and Powers: Some Notes on Penal Politics'. This is a fitting chapter to finish with, and it examines a range of issues, from the question of who has the right of power to punish through to problems associated with de-mystification of the criminal justice system.

One criticism relates to the complexity of the language used in much of this collection. The reader will need a solid background in politics, sociology and philosophy to fully benefit from the essays. This does not detract greatly from what is a scholarly and provocative volume of essays examining topical areas of criminology. The reader may not agree with many of the points raised (in fact some of the authors do not agree with each other) but they are certain to trigger much debate, and, in the area of policy development in penality, this is only a good thing.

Overall, a useful background volume for those interested in, or currently working in, the criminal justice system.

EMERGENCY POWERS

By H.P. Lee

Law Book Company, Sydney, 1984. 334pp. \$50
(hardback)

Reviewer: GRANT WARDLAW, Senior Criminologist,
Australian Institute of Criminology.

Discussion of emergency powers frequently takes place in an atmosphere of debate about alleged abuses of human rights. The granting or exercise of special powers to police and security authorities, or to the military, in order to deal with threats to the established order is, indeed, often associated with abuse of these powers. And, of course, it is in precisely these circumstances that complaints against abuse are least likely to be fairly investigated (if at all) and the miscreants brought to justice.

These factors make it very important that powers granted to deal with emergencies be used only in the most

extreme situations and that they be written in as precise a manner as possible, including appropriate mechanisms for review and amendment. But perhaps the greatest safeguard against abuse is a public which is widely and accurately informed about such emergency powers as do exist. Only with such knowledge of their scope and intent will pressure groups be able to agitate for any appropriate reforms and will practitioners and citizens alike know accurately the rights and duties embodied in the legislation.

The unfortunate thing about emergency powers legislation is that it is so little known about. This is why a compendium such as Lee has produced is of such value. Although written primarily for lawyers, and thus not likely to attract the attention or interest of the general reader, *Emergency Powers* provides a comprehensive survey of the myriad of emergency legislation existing in Australia. Lee opens with a (too brief) chapter on the need for emergency powers and the definition of 'emergency'. He then discusses in the next two chapters the defence power and wartime emergencies, and the prerogative in relation to emergencies.

It is the following three chapters which provide the 'meat' of the book. The first is a legal analysis of legal powers associated with the maintenance of public order in Australia; particularly detailed attention is paid to the *Public Order (Protection of Persons and Property) Act 1971*. The next chapter provides a conspectus of special powers legislation together with some pertinent comments about minimum standards with which emergency powers legislation should comply and ways of reducing abuse of emergency powers. The third of these chapters is the most important because its subject matter, military aid to the civil power in Australia, is so little addressed in depth. Lee provides a comprehensive treatment of the circumstances in which military aid may be invoked in emergencies, particularly those involving civil violence, and in this context also discusses the vexed question of martial law. This chapter raises again the problems inherent in the currently existing Australian legislation on aid to the civil power which remains silent on the precise powers and duties of soldiers called out in a civil emergency and on the corresponding rights of citizens in such situations. Whatever the negative aspects of the call-out following the Hilton Hotel bombing in 1978, its positive feature was that of drawing attention to these very deficiencies. Framing the appropriate legislation is a complex and time-consuming task, but it is simply unacceptable that seven years after that incident we still have no more satisfactory statement on soldiers' powers and citizens' rights in emergency situations. Lee's analysis alerts us again to the importance of ensuring that such legislation is introduced.

In the final major chapter, Lee considers the scope of judicial review of Australian emergency powers, concluding that the judiciary do retain control over a range of statutory emergency powers and that it is important that this control not be relinquished.

Emergency Powers is a significant addition to the growing recent literature on special powers, public order, and national security in Australia and is highly recommended to those with an interest in these areas.

WHAT IS TO BE DONE ABOUT LAW AND ORDER?

By J. Lea and J. Young

Penguin, Harmondsworth, 1984. 284pp. \$6.95

(paperback)

Reviewer: GRANT WARDLAW, Senior Criminologist,
Australian Institute of Criminology.

The debate about crime and ways of coping with it is often acrimonious and unenlightening. It is generally characterised by simplistic analyses of the problem followed by facile, and, in practice, unsuccessful attempts at solutions. The simplistic approach is frequently a result of the debate being conducted along rather rigid left or right wing political divisions. The right wing, fuelled by inflammatory and exaggerated media coverage of crime, sees staggering increases in crime which can only be halted by severe measures. The left, on the other hand, either applaud crime as a form of proto-revolutionary activity or see the war against crime as a diversion from the class struggle.

It seems clear, however, that neither position produces workable responses which reduce crime to acceptable levels. Much of the left effectively turn their backs on crime, ignoring the reality that it is the working class they claim to champion which in fact continues to bear the brunt of criminal victimisation. By washing their hands of the crime problem, the left abandon the ground to the right wing 'lock them all up' law and order brigade. But the solutions which come out of this camp are harsh, often applied in a biased and discriminatory fashion, and serve only to exacerbate the conditions for and breakdown in social relationships which are themselves an important part of the cause of rising crime rates. Is there, then, no alternative formulation which might provide more effective and fairer responses to crime?

The answer, according to Lea and Young, is a definite 'yes'. It lies in a less extreme and more thoughtful analysis of the crime phenomenon and in a commitment to seek for solutions within a framework of localised democratic community and accountability. Lea and Young call their approach 'left realism', an approach for which they argue a convincing case in this book.

The book opens with a discussion of the question 'Is crime a problem?'. Although arguing from an avowedly left position (the book is one of a series sponsored by the Socialist Society), the authors take issue with much left wing opinion in criminology. They acknowledge, for

example, that in economic terms it is corporate crime which is the greater criminal menace, not street crime. But they insist that the latter must be assigned a high priority because it degrades, harms and affects huge numbers of people directly and because it impacts most severely on the working class and on minority or disadvantaged sections of the population. The general reader, in particular, will find Lea and Young's analysis of the inadequacy of crime statistics and the way in which they are manipulated to give particular impressions of crime a clear and informative introduction. Their alternative interpretations of some of the statistics put a different light on some widely held assumptions, but at the same time show that crime is a serious problem which deserves to be taken seriously. The only criticism I would have of the first half of the book (which is the most impressive) is the author's selective use of statistics. Some theories are (appropriately) debunked by showing how inaccurate are official statistics. But there is a tendency to be somewhat uncritical of similar official figures which support theories favoured by the authors (see, for example, the argument about unemployment and crime on pages 90-91).

Having described the nature of contemporary crime, particularly as it affects the marginal groups in society, Lea and Young turn to analyse how the police have evolved techniques to cope with it. Their description of the drift towards 'military policing' and what it means for police-community relations is particularly worth reading.

What, then, is to be done about law and order? For Lea and Young the priority is to achieve an accountable police force. Starting from the proposition that we need a police force because crime is a real problem, the authors seek to find ways of getting one that will deal adequately and fairly with crime. They argue that democratic control of policing is a necessary prerequisite for efficient and effective policing. Whilst many of their arguments are persuasive, Lea and Young tend to dismiss too readily the more reasoned opposition to some forms of local control of policing and are not precise enough about the forms they would set in place. Nevertheless, the direction they are heading in is clearly the right one in this reviewer's opinion and their arguments will make an excellent starting point for any discussion of police accountability.

For those who want an honest, provocative and refreshing analysis of crime and policing, this paperback will be essential reading.

New Staff

Kerri Rowley joined the Institute in December 1984. Kerri had her own typesetting business for three years before joining the Department of Defence as a graphic designer. Both her graphic design and typesetting skills have been brought to bear on this issue of *Reporter*, which she produced using the Institute's new Itek computer phototypesetter. The Itek is linked to the Institute's computer and word processors. The new arrangement will produce a better *Reporter*.



New Publications

Community Policing

Community Policing, edited by New Zealand police superintendent James Morgan, is the result of a seminar held on the subject at the Institute last year.

International speakers reported on developments in community policing in Singapore, the United States, Japan and New Zealand, while the various initiatives being taken in Australian states were also compared. Community policing in one form or another seems to be the direction for the future, and the implications of this trend need to be understood by all involved with policing. 134 pages.

Community Policing is available from the Publications Section of the Institute at \$4 per copy.

Australian Prison Trends

Australian Prison Trends, Nos 1 to 100 is a compilation, by Institute Deputy Director David Biles and his staff, of the first one hundred monthly bulletins on prison population statistics.

Prison populations from all Australian prisons have been collected on a monthly basis and Mr Biles has been able to use the changes that have occurred over the years to illustrate how it is possible to overcome interstate tensions in this sensitive area. 200 pages.

Australian Prison Trends, Nos 1 to 100 is available free of charge from the Publications Section of the Institute.

Do Juries Understand?

Do Juries Understand? by Ivan Potas, of the Australian Institute of Criminology, and Debra Rickwood, of the Australian National University, was written as a result of experiments carried out to see if the instructions usually given to juries on common criminal matters could be understood by laymen. It was found that instructions were reasonably well understood. More study is recommended.

This publication is available from the Publications Section of the Institute. 59 pages, \$4 per copy.

Prisons in Paradise

Prisons in Paradise: Proceedings of the Fifth Asian and Pacific Conference of Correctional Administrators, edited by Jack Sandry and Marjorie Johnson.

Held in the Kingdom of Tonga last year, the conference covered a range of subjects of common interest to correctional administrators in the Asian and Pacific regions.

Topics included:

The use of technology in prisons.

The role of volunteers in prisons in relation to programs for inmates.

Problems of the physically and mentally handicapped in prisons.

Mechanisms used by various jurisdictions to monitor crime and incident rates in prison systems.

The definition of recidivism.

This publication is available from the Publications Section of the Institute. 183 pages, \$6 per copy.

Developmental Programs for Prisoners

Developmental Programs for Prisoners, edited by Dr Brian M. Noad, is the proceedings of a seminar held in the Institute last October.

The seminar was attended by representatives from the Australian Capital Territory, New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, and Western Australia.

The workshop program included two days devoted to the presentation of papers outlining the situation of developmental programs within each state. Coverage included developmental services in the areas of education, vocational training, recreation and industry. 96 pages.

Developmental Programs for Prisoners is available from the Publications Section of the Institute at \$4 per copy.

Statistics

Australian prison trends

By David Biles,
Deputy Director

During the period November 1984 to January 1985 the numbers of prisoners remained relatively stable in most jurisdictions, but increased in New South Wales. The numbers of prisoners in all States and Territories for January 1985 with changes since October 1984 are shown in Table 1.

Table 1 — Daily Average Australian Prison Populations
January 1985 with changes since October 1984

	Males	Females	Total	Changes since October 1984
NSW	3266	186	3452	+ 179
VIC	1794	96	1890	- 39
QLD	1813	47	1860	- 2
WA	1320	66	1386	- 54
SA	670	29	699	+ 31
TAS	206	5	211	- 56
NT	296	12	308	+ 25
ACT	60	1	61*	+ 4
AUST	9425	442	9867	+ 88

* 48 prisoners (including 1 female) in this total were serving sentences in N.S.W. prisons.

Table 2 shows the imprisonment rates (daily average prisoners per 100,000 population), for January 1985. The national rate of 63.1 compares with 61.7 found in October 1984.

Table 2 — Sentenced Prisoners Received, Daily Average Prison Populations and Imprisonment Rates by Jurisdiction — January 1985

	Sentenced Prisoners Received	Prisoners	General Pop.* '000	Imprisonment Rates
NSW	869**	3452	5428	63.6
VIC	434	1890	4093	46.2
QLD	332	1860	2522	73.8
WA	326	1386	1391	99.6
SA	245	699	1359	51.4
TAS	38	211	441	47.8
NT	130	308	141	218.4
ACT	—	61	251	24.3
AUST	2374	9867	15626	63.1

* Projected Population end of January 1985 derived from *Australian Demographic Statistics* June Quarter 1984 (Catalogue No. 3101.0). Note new population estimates.

** Comprising 483 Fine Defaulters and 386 Sentenced Prisoners.

Table 3 — Total Prisoners and Remandees and Federal Prisoners as at 1 January 1985

	Total Prisoners	Prisoners on Remand	Percentage of Remandees	Remandees/100,000 of Gen. Pop.	Federal Prisoners
NSW	3434	682	19.9	11.8	110
VIC	1906	161	8.4	4.0	53
QLD	1842	145	7.9	5.7	33
WA	1314	103	7.8	7.4	28
SA	669	156	23.3	11.5	13*
TAS	223	9	4.0	2.1	1
NT	286	38	13.3	27.5	11
ACT	52	8	15.4	3.3	—
AUST	9726	1302	13.4	8.2	249

* 3 of the Federal prisoners in South Australia were transferred from the Northern Territory.

Australian community-based corrections data

Compiled by Ivan Potas, Criminologist

The following table provides the number and rates of adult persons on probation and parole as at the first day of November 1984.

	General Pop. ¹ '000	Probation ²		Parole ³	
		Number	Rates	Number	Rates
NSW	5760	9866	171.2	2871	49.8
VIC	4014	3568	88.8	899	22.3
QLD	2530	5078	200.7	553	21.8
WA	1384	1979	142.9	724	52.3
SA	1353	2373	175.3	362	26.7
TAS	436	1554	356.4	83	19.0
NT	137	346	252.5	95	69.3
ACT	240	176	73.3	47	19.5
AUST	15854	24939	157.3	5634	35.5

1 Projected population end of October 1984 derived from *Australian Demographic Statistics* June Quarter 1984 (Catalogue No. 3101.0).

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

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

New South Wales

The probation figure includes 712 persons who were under the age of 18 years at the time of release to supervision. 1726 persons were subject to community service orders, and some of these are included in the probation figure.

The parole figure includes 536 licencees. A new classification of 'after care probationer' was introduced on 27 February 1984. After care probationers are persons released on probation after they have served some time in gaol. As at 1 November there were 292 such after care probationers and these, like licencees, are included in the parole figure, not the probation figure.

The total number of persons under supervision of all types in NSW was 13,637. In this figure, multiple status offenders are counted only once.

Victoria

The parole figure includes persons supervised from interstate. There were 50 persons subject to community service orders and 295 persons subject to attendance centre orders (total 345). A small proportion of these may also be on probation and are included in the probation figure. There were also 160 pre-releases from prison.

Queensland

The number of persons subject to community service orders was 1082. Approximately one third of these were also given probation and are included in the probation figure. In addition, 491 persons received fine option orders.

Western Australia

There was a total of 700 persons subject to community service orders. 403 of these were also placed on probation and are included in the probation figure. Only 297 persons were subject to community service orders without probation and these are not included in the probation figure. There was a total of 790 pre-parolees.

South Australia

The probation figure includes 153 persons who were subject to community service orders.

With regard to parole it is advised that a further 13 persons received voluntary supervision in the community by the parole services. A further 63 prisoners were supervised in prison.

Tasmania

The probation figure includes 133 juveniles. It also includes 21 probationers from interstate. The parole figure includes 16 parolees from interstate. The number of persons having a legal obligation under the work order program (including absconders) was 396 of whom 258 were subject to current supervision orders. 171 of the latter figure were also subject to probation and are included in the probation figure.

Northern Territory

There were 24 persons subject to community service orders. Some of those were also placed on probation and are included in the probation figure. The parole figure includes those on licence.

COMMUNITY SERVICE ORDERS

The following table shows the number of persons and rates per 100,000 of the general population who were subject to community service or work orders (excluding absconders) and including attendance centre orders for Victoria, as at 1 November 1984:

	Number	Rates
NSW	1726	29.9
VIC	50	1.2
QLD	1082	42.7
WA	700	50.5
SA	153	11.3
TAS	258	59.1
NT	24	17.5
ACT	Not applicable	Not applicable
AUST	3993	25.1

Asian and Pacific series

By David Biles,
Deputy Director

Two quarterly summaries are given in this issue. Correctional administrators in the countries listed 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 January 1984; for countries marked ** the data refer to 1 April 1984. For countries marked † the data refer to 1 July 1984.

Table 1 — Total Prisoners as at 1 July 1984

	Males	Females	Total	Populations (‘000)	Rate ¹
Australia ²	9127	364	9491	15745	60.3
Canada ³	11845	156	12001	24105	49.8
*Fiji	638	19	757	634	119.4
Hong Kong	5721	157	5878	5344	110.0
Japan	52408	2281	54689	119740	45.7
Korea (Republic)	48499	2572	51071	40576	125.9
**Macau	538	18	556	400	139.0
Malaysia	13683	262	13945	14800	94.2
New Zealand	2760	105	2865	3200	89.5
*Papua New Guinea	4219	347	4566	3228	141.4
Philippines	14663	210	14873	48100	30.9
Singapore	2656	68	2724	2472	110.2
Sri Lanka	12357	331	12688	15189	83.5
Thailand	80683	4460	85143	50000	170.3
Western Samoa	159	5	164	159	103.1

Table 1A — Total Prisoners as at 1 October 1984

	Males	Females	Total	Populations (‘000)	Rate ¹
Australia ²	9154	388	9542	15829	60.3
†Canada ³	11845	156	12001	24105	49.8
Hong Kong	5711	136	5847	5364	109.0
Indonesia	26607	545	27152	150000	18.1
Japan	52240	2246	54486	119960	45.4
Korea (Republic)	50756	2748	53504	40736	131.3
Macau	562	19	581	400	145.3
Malaysia	14446	297	14743	15300	96.4
New Zealand	2930	130	3060	3251	94.1
†Papua New Guinea	4474	296	4770	3228	147.8
Philippines	14186	210	14396	53200	27.1
†Singapore	2656	68	2724	2472	110.2
Sri Lanka	13001	356	13357	15189	87.9
†Thailand	80683	4460	85143	50000	170.3
†Tonga	97	4	101	103	98.1
Western Samoa	191	4	195	159	122.6

Table 2 — Convicted and Remand Prisoners as at 1 July 1984

	Convicted Prisoners	Remand Prisoners	Percent On Remand	Remand Rate ¹
Australia	8252	1211	12.8	7.7
Canada ³	12001	—	—	—
*Fiji	707	50	6.6	7.9
Hong Kong	5326	552	9.4	10.3
Japan	45112	9577	17.5	8.0
Korea (Republic)	30206	20865	40.9	51.4
**Macau	444	112	20.1	28.0
Malaysia	8784	5161 ⁴	37.0	34.9
New Zealand	2583	282 ⁵	9.8	8.8
*Papua New Guinea	3738	828	18.1	25.7
Philippines	14503	370	2.5	0.8
Singapore	2465	259	9.5	10.5
Sri Lanka	4453	8,235	64.9	54.2
Thailand	69,144	15,999	18.8	32.0
Western Samoa	147	17	10.4	10.7

Table 2A — Convicted and Remand Prisoners as at 1 October 1984¹

	Convicted Prisoners	Remand Prisoners	Percent On Remand	Remand Rate ¹
Australia	8246	1393	14.5	8.8
†Canada ³	12001	—	—	—
Hong Kong	5283	564	9.6	10.5
Indonesia	20089	7063	26.0	4.7
Japan	44888	9598	17.6	8.0
Korea (Republic)	30338	23166	43.3	56.9
Macau	334	247	42.5	61.8
Malaysia	8792	5951 ⁴	40.4	38.9
New Zealand	2800	260 ⁵	8.5	8.0
†Papua New Guinea	4066	704	14.8	21.8
Philippines	14052	344	2.4	0.6
†Singapore	2465	259	9.5	10.5
Sri Lanka	5004	8353	62.5	55.0
†Thailand	69144	15999	18.8	32.0
†Tonga	98	3	3.0	2.9
Western Samoa	177	18	9.2	11.3

**Table 3 — Offenders on Probation and Parole as at 1 July 1984
(in those countries where these options apply)**

	Probationers	Rate ¹	Parolees	Rate ¹
Australia	24503	155.6	5623	35.7
Canada	—	—	7299	30.3
*Fiji	—	—	453 ⁶	71.5
Hong Kong	3443	64.4	3390	63.4
Japan	22613	18.9	7643	6.4
Korea (Republic)	12368	30.5	3,149	7.8
**Macau	—	—	18	4.5
New Zealand	6856	214.3	2209	69.0
Sri Lanka	—	—	125 ⁷	0.8
Thailand	3900	7.8	1789	3.6
Western Samoa	294	184.9	85	53.5

**Table 3A — Offenders on Probation and Parole as at 1 October 1984
(in those countries where these options apply)**

	Probationers	Rate ¹	Parolees	Rate ¹
Australia ⁸	24540	155.6	5760	36.5
†Canada ³	—	—	7299	30.3
Hong Kong	3410	63.6	3496	65.2
Indonesia	—	—	306	0.2
Japan	22374	18.7	8004	6.7
Korea (Republic)	17391	42.7	2794	6.9
Macau	—	—	50	12.5
New Zealand	6777	208.5	2195	67.5
†Papua New Guinea	421	13.0	—	—
Philippines	18161	34.1	31470	59.2
Sri Lanka	—	—	130 ⁷	0.9
†Thailand	3900	7.8	1789	3.6
Western Samoa	245	154.1	56	35.2

Footnotes:

- 1 Per 100,000 of population.
- 2 Australian statistics in this table are based on the daily average number of prisoners for the preceding month.
- 3 Federal prisoners only.
- 4 Includes inmates who are detained on the basis of allegation of facts under Public Order for Prevention of Crime, 1969.
- 5 Includes convicted prisoners on remand awaiting sentence.
- 6 Released to serve Extramural Punishment (343) and Compulsory Supervision Orders (110).
- 7 Released on Licence.
- 8 As at 1 August 1984.

Note: The Republic of Korea is a new contributor to this series. Korean figures as at 1 April 1984 were 48,258 male and 2,530 female prisoners. Of this total of 50,788 prisoners, 20,679 were remandees. There were also 8,671 probationers and 3,217 parolees.

PUBLICATIONS

A new pricing system has been introduced. Many publications formerly charged for have been made free. Where prices are shown they include postage.

BOOKS

- C R BEVAN** (Editor)
Minimum Standard Guidelines for Australian Prisons
December 1978
- DAVID BILES** (Editor)
Crime and Justice in Australia \$6 November 1977
Crime in Papua New Guinea \$4 October 1976
- JOHN BRAITHWAITE**
Prisons, Education and Work \$6 January 1980
- W CLIFFORD**
Plotting and Planning \$6 September 1980
- W CLIFFORD** (Editor)
Crime Prevention Planning: Proceedings of the United Nations
Interregional Course August 1977
Human Rights in the Administration of Criminal Justice: Report
on the United Nations Course September 1978
- W CLIFFORD AND S D GOKHALE** (Editors)
Innovations in Criminal Justice In Asia and The Pacific
\$4 June 1979
- ANDREW HOPKINS**
Crime, Law and Business: The Sociological Sources of Australian
Monopoly Law \$4 May 1978
- SATYANSHU K MUKHERJEE**
Crime Trends in Twentieth Century Australia - (hardback)
\$29.95 October 1981
Age and Crime \$4 July 1983
- SATYANSHU MUKHERJEE, EVELYN JACOBSEN, JOHN WALKER**
Source Book of Australian Criminal and Social Statistics
1900-1980 \$10 September 1981
- IVAN POTAS**
Just Deserts for the Mad \$6 January 1982
- BRUCE SWANTON**
Police Institutions and Issues: American and Australian
Perspectives \$6 September 1979
Protecting the Protectors \$10 February 1983
- J WHELAN, E SEATON, E CUNNINGHAM DAX**
Aftermath: The Tasman Bridge Collapse \$4 June 1976

TRAINING SEMINARS: REPORTS AND PROCEEDINGS

- The Conflict of Security and Rehabilitation of the 1970s
\$4 April 1976
- Crime Prevention and the Community: Whose Responsibility?
\$4 August 1975
- The Magistrates' Court 1976: What Progress? April 1976
- Penal Philosophies and Practice in the 1970s February 1977
- Planning and Policy for Crime Control Personnel \$4 August 1975
- The Police Role in Juvenile Delinquency \$4 May 1977
- Legal and Law Related Education in Australia \$4 May 1980
- Children's Rights and Justice for Juveniles \$4 October 1980
- Armed Robbery In Australia: Research, Information and Preventive
Considerations \$4 August 1978
- C R BEVAN** (Editor)
Retailers as Victims of Crime \$10 April 1983
National Conference on Arson \$10 December 1983
Community Service Orders in Australia and New Zealand
\$4 June 1984
- C R BEVAN AND A J WATT** (Editors)
Probation - Current Positions and New Directions \$4 July 1981
- DAVID BILES** (Editor)
Review of Australian Criminological Research \$4 May 1981
Review of Australian Criminological Research 1983
\$4 May 1983
- P N GRABOSKY** (Editor)
National Symposium on Victimology \$6 May 1982
- RICHARD HARDING** (Editor)
Administration of Criminal Justice in the A.C.T.
\$4 August 1984
- SUZANNE HATTY** (Editor)
Women in the Prison System \$6 October 1984
- MAUREEN KINGSHOTT** (Editor)
Alcohol and Crime \$4 May 1981

- JAMES MORGAN** (Editor)
Community Policing \$4 November 1984
- JANE MUGFORD** (Editor)
Fourth Seminar for Librarians in the Criminal Justice System
\$4 July 1984
- BRIAN NOAD** (Editor)
Developmental Programs for Prisoners \$4 February 1985
- IVAN POTAS** (Editor)
Prosecutorial Discretion \$6 March 1985
- A S REES** (Editor)
Policing and Private Security \$4 May 1983
- JOCELYNNE A SCUTT** (Editor)
Violence in the Family \$4 April 1981
Rape Law Reform \$4 August 1980
Restoring Victims of Crime 1 May 1980
- BRUCE SWANTON** (Editor)
Aborigines and Criminal Justice \$10 May 1984
- JOHN WALKER**
The Use of Computers in the Criminal Justice System
\$4 September 1981

RESEARCH REPORTS

- DAVID BILES**
Car Stealing In Australia: Facts and Figures June 1975
Remand in Victoria: A Review of the Nature and Size of
Facilities Needed \$4 October 1982
Women Prisoners in Victoria: A Review of the Nature and
Size of Facilities Needed \$4 November 1982
Unconvicted Prisoners in Australia: A study of the structure
of remand populations in eight jurisdictions April 1984
- DAVID BILES and GEOFF CUDDIHY**
A Survey of A.C.T. Prisoners in N.S.W. Prisons
\$4 November 1984
- DAVID BILES and MARJORIE JOHNSON**
Australian Prison Trends Nos 1-100 November 1984
- W CLIFFORD**
Echoes and Hopes 1979
Why is it Safer to Live in Tokyo? \$4 September 1980
Aboriginal Criminological Research \$4 May 1981
Cost of Imprisonment in Australia \$4 March 1982
Rights and Obligations in a Prison \$4 July 1982
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