



Honourable L. R. Sherman, Minister

**A Report on the
Criminal Justice System
in The United Kingdom,
The Neitherlands
and North Rhine-Westphalia**

67795

Winnipeg, Manitoba

Second Printing June, 1978

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DEPARTMENT OF
~~HEALTH AND~~ COMMUNITY SERVICES
and Corrections
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May 5, 1980

Ms. Christine Lundy
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Dear Ms. Lundy:

With reference to your letter of April 22nd,
I am attaching a copy of the "Report on the Criminal
Justice System in the United Kingdom, The Netherlands
and North Rhine-Westphalia" requested by you.

The first copy is complimentary, although
there would be a charge should you require any further
copies.

Yours truly,



for Eric G. Cox
Deputy Commissioner of Corrections

Enc.
EGC/mt

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MAY 21 1980

ACQUIS

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ACQUISITIONS

THE UNITED KINGDOM

THE HOME OFFICE

The first major task of anybody from Canada being attached to the Home Office in the United Kingdom for a year is to come to grips with the nature, size and extent of this Department's operation. Apart from Immigration, Coroners' Courts, Taxicab Standards and Licences and a whole host of major and minor functions, the Home Office is responsible for all sections of the Criminal Justice System, with the exception of the Courts which come under the Office of the Lord Chancellor.

The administrative machinery to handle this enormous undertaking, in London alone, is spread throughout twenty-nine different buildings and it is no small undertaking to ensure that you get to the right place at the right time to talk to the right person. I was given an office in Romney House which is merely five minutes walk from the Houses of Parliament, and easy walking distance from Horseferry House and 89 Eccleston Square where the Police and Prison administrations are situated.

Romney House was a most suitable place for an office as it accommodated the headquarters for Probation, Parole and After-Care; the Parole Board Secretariat; the Home Office Research Unit; the criminological and penological section of the Home Office Library; and the Private Agency Liaison. This close juxtaposition made for ease of acquaintance and

considerably facilitated communication.

Mention should be made of the rank structure of the Home Office, not because it is so unlike the Canadian system but the titles are different and, because of its sheer size, there are positions which fall somewhere between those with which we are familiar. For example, where we may have a three level structure at the top, the British will have five. These titles are for the purely administrative end of the business, and once you start getting into the technical end of things then it blossoms out even more so that there are, for instance, three levels of Governors, only some of whom run prisons.

At the top of the pyramid is the "Secretary of State for Home Affairs" who may be referred to either as the "Secretary of State" or "Home Secretary". He is not the only Secretary of State as most of the other Ministers charged with portfolios are also Secretaries of State for something or the other. Thus the tendency to refer for clarity sake to the "Home Secretary" or the "Foreign Secretary", but this is not consistent and official stationery can be misleading unless you look at the address quite closely.

The Home Secretary is normally an elected official, and he has three "junior" Ministers who may or may not be elected representatives in Parliament. The Home Secretary

alone, however, is a member of Cabinet.

The senior Civil Service rank is that of "Permanent Under-Secretary of State for Home Affairs" and he is responsible for the total operation of the Home Office. To assist him are a number of Deputy Secretaries in charge of subdivisions such as Prisons, Police, Immigration, etc. etc. who, in turn, administer their area of responsibility through Assistant Under-Secretaries. For example, the Director General of the Prisons Service, who is a Deputy Secretary, has five Assistant Under-Secretaries and together they comprise the Prison Board.

The Assistant Under-Secretaries all have a number of Assistant Secretaries who are the front line senior people bridging the spot where the most elevated bureaucracy ceases and the field operation begins. These Assistant Secretaries are responsible for such things as Security and Control; Manpower and Personnel; Welfare Services (generally what we would think of as Treatment); Remands, Women, Girls and Young Male Offenders (all lumped together under one subdivision); Financial, Administrative and Building; and so on.

Below this group, in a descending order of responsibility but all in the management group, are Principals, Senior Executive Officers, Higher Executive Officers, Executive Officers, Clerical Officers and Assistant Clerical Officers.

THE POLICE

Ever since the late fifties the relationship between the police and the public has been somewhat strained in Western countries, and this is true to some extent in Britain but feelings are more relaxed than either on the Continent or in North America. This is to be seen in the history of demonstrations in London on the one hand, and Paris, Berlin and Los Angeles on the other.

There are probably a number of reasons: the long history and comparative sophistication of the British police in using a conciliatory rather than abrasive response to a situation, their lack of firearms and the more tolerant political tradition. There is also an important constitutional difference between Britain and a number of Continental countries in that the police are still viewed, and view themselves, as servants of the public and subject to common law. Furthermore, they have no special arm like the C.R.S. in France, the Carabinieri in Italy or the Federal Police in Germany, who come under the direct control of the government.

The British police tend to be organized along County lines (although several of the smaller counties have merged their forces in recent years), with several of the large cities having their own force. Of this latter group, London enjoys a unique position and through several of its special units provides a national service.

The Metropolitan Police of London, commonly called the "Met", has a full quota of the total policemen in the country, some twenty thousand out of the ninety thousand, and they are very much a system unto themselves. They have their own bureaucracy at New Scotland Yard which is housed in an enormous new office block in Victoria, a building which interestingly is rented rather than owned.

Ever since Robert Peel set them up, they have been directly under the Home Secretary who appoints the Commissioner, Deputy Commissioner and the four Assistant Commissioners. When they are appointed, the Commissioners give up their police status and become technically magistrates, and they are known as plain "Mister". The Commissioner himself is in a position of almost unique personal power and is subject to inspection by no one. He and the Home Office's chief policeman, Her Majesty's Inspector of Constabulary, are the twin heads of police with no control over each other.

During the time spent at New Scotland Yard, I was introduced to many of its operations and found most informative such things as their intricate Communications System, the radio links with Interpol around the world, the specially constructed Control Centre for those occasions when vast numbers of police are involved in a particular situation, the photographic laboratories and so on, but I was particularly interested in their Crime Prevention

procedures and the Collating System that A2 has developed (Appendix A).

At the time I was there considerable concern was being felt over an amendment to the Police Act which would allow for an independent review of police disciplinary measures. As this is an alive issue in Canada I spent sometime with the staff responsible for Metropolitan Police Disciplinary Procedures (Appendix B) who, to a man, were opposed to the amendment.

I was able to review the day to day functioning of the "Met" through their police stations at Bow Street and West End Central on Savile Row which is responsible for much of London's West End, including the Soho district.

Police training was a subject of particular interest to me, and the time spent out at the Metropolitan Police Training School (it is really four Schools in one) at Hendon was particular worth while. The methods and techniques of training were imaginative and thorough, and they seemed to result in a very quick development of the trainees. Officers were enrolled from all over the world, particularly in the courses offered at the Detective School, and the activities of the Forensic Training Laboratory for the On-the-Scene-of-Crime-Officers smacked of the best traditions of Sherlock Holmes.

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The visit to the City of London Police was arranged through an Assistant Commissioner whom I first came to know during the period he was seconded to the Home Office. (It is a policy with the Home Office to rotate its senior police personnel every two years, bringing in active officers from the field and then returning them to their own Force at the end of that time. This has the obvious advantage of providing a significant number of senior officers with Home Office experience, but prevents these positions from being held by men who have gone stale.)

This visit included a day at The Old Bailey which comes under the jurisdiction of the City Police, and started with a tour of the building which began in the "basement" viewing the Roman Wall upon which is built a part of the original Wall of London upon which in turn, is built The Old Bailey. Newgate Prison was originally situated on the site of The Old Bailey and the original door of Newgate is still stored casually in a room on the way up from the basement.

The machinery to handle this thirty-eight court room building; the marshalling of prisoners, witnesses, barristers, solicitors, clerks, police and jurors; the attending to their Lordships; the feeding of everybody; the taking of money (fines) and the paying out of money (jurors expenses); screening visitors; ensuring the place is cleaned, repaired, heated and/or cooled (the engine room to do this is as large

as that found in an ocean-going liner); dealing with genuine and hoax terrorist threats; moving and housing some of the greatest security risks to be found anywhere; and all under conditions of constant top security was a wonder to behold. The man responsible for this mammoth juggling act is a Chief Superintendent who was kind enough to give me five hours of his time by guiding me on the tour of the building, explaining in great detail points of interest and how the system operates. Not the least of the pleasures that day was to observe the pride this man has in the job that is being done and the love he has for every stone of The Old Bailey.

Underneath this giant Court Building are three levels of a prison holding those who are appearing in Court that day. These prisoners do not stay there overnight but are moved to and from a Remand Prison everyday.

I spent some hours with the City of London Police Training School which has a limited curriculum, as it utilizes the training facilities at Ashford, Hendon and Bramshill as need arises, and it is content to provide only the rudiments of training in its own establishment. Policing, by and large, in the City today seems to be comparatively straightforward compared to the "Met". Their major crimes involve company fraud and their C.I.D. are specially trained for this purpose. A reminder, however, of bygone days when things were more violent are to be found in the Archives

where the relics and exhibits are kept of the Sidney Street siege and the Jack the Ripper murders.

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Among the more valuable experiences that I had in the United Kingdom was the time spent with the Chief Constable of the Devon and Cornwall Police. In a field where a great deal of effort is expended in talking about community corrections, much of it being a waste of time because it has little relevance to what is possible or practical, it was exceedingly stimulating to spend a week with a man who believes in community policing. Chief Constable John Alderson not only believes in community policing, he practices it and he has persuaded a large percentage of his force that this is what is needed and that it can be done.

Rather than seeing the operation of a police force as an entity in itself, he approaches the task from the standpoint of the total criminal justice system. He sees the policeman's job as one of preventing crime rather than of catching criminals, and one morning when we were at the training college attached to his headquarters a young constable with eighteen months experience, back on a refresher course, was relating the details of the arrest he had made of a man committing a burglary. "That's very good", said the Chief Constable, "but how many burglaries have you managed to prevent?" He then spoke for some

minutes on this subject going in turn to each of the ten officers in the class, addressing a few words to each of them and stressing the need to practice prevention.

Significantly, during 1976 in Devon & Cornwall the number of persons charged with traffic offences dropped by five thousand, and there was a reduction of about twenty percent in charges against juveniles.

To sell his ideas on community policing, Mr. Alderson has an extensive regime of communicating with the members of his force and the general public. Each day that I was there we spent some time talking to members of the staff either on the job, over lunch or in the Mess at the end of the day. Likewise, on alternate evenings there was a discussion with people from the community.

On one occasion this involved just an open house situation where the local citizens were invited to take a look around the police headquarters and the training school, to chat with staff and an hour was put aside to listen to and talk with the Chief Constable. The next day we went down to Torquay to address the assembled magistrates and probation officers from the district, and on the following day we met with members of the local Junior Chamber of Commerce who had been invited over to the police headquarters for the evening. I was glad to have the opportunity to participate in these discussions as those taking part were in no way slow

to express their opinions, but I did feel that in each case there was a strong feeling of reassurance by the time the evening was finished that we were all, to a considerable extent, on the same wave length and what was really being aimed at was the preservation of public peace.

In addition to meeting with the citizens of Devon and Cornwall face to face to solicit their ideas and to explain his views on policing, Mr. Alderson makes extensive use of the media, publishes as Chief Constable an occasional paper entitled "Viewpoint", and circulates as widely as possible the attractively produced Annual Report (Appendix C).

An example of what Mr. Alderson sees as community policing is to be found in the Constabulary's project to commemorate Her Majesty's Silver Jubilee this year. The idea is for the police to increase Community Friendship. This is not just police-community friendship but to encourage friendship between all sections of the community - churches, schools, business and civic leaders, police, professional bodies, community and service clubs, young people and old people, sports groups and so on. Each police station is to take on its own project and do what it feels it can do best.

It is Mr. Alderson's feeling that the police are well placed to do this kind of thing as they are representative of all aspects of the community with no "local" axe to grind,

and he is stressing very strongly with his staff the idea that the thing is not to be police-public relations (that may be purely a spinoff) but it is to be the police taking a lead in social reconciliation of the community as an entity. This is a high ideal but I do believe that a large measure of success will be achieved, especially as Headquarters is prepared to provide help and encouragement but it is insisting that the local police station be responsible for developing and fielding its own concept of the project.

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The Police College at Bramshill is the United Kingdom's prestigious police academy and it was my first and lasting impression that it is a mixture of Sandhurst and an Oxford College.

Bramshill provides education for some two hundred and twenty students who are the cream of the crop and who, ultimately, or in some cases, almost immediately, will receive the top policing jobs in Britain or overseas. The Police College claims to exist to provide higher training for the present and future leaders of the police service and it has an interesting motto, Studiis Alitur Auctoritas (Authority is Strengthened by Learning). Every student admitted to the College has to have already proved his or her ability for police work and has given evidence of potential for top responsibility. Leadership, command and management

are the constant themes of all College courses and they are provided always with an appropriate amount of academic content.

The Police College was founded in 1948 but did not move to its present site until 1960. The Bramshill estate is of great antiquity. It is mentioned in the Domesday Book and there was a substantial house on the site in the 14th century. The mansion is a particularly fine example of English renaissance architecture with marked similarities to Hatfield House (of Elizabeth I's fame) and is set in very extensive grounds. The drive up from the main gate to the College must be at least a mile and a half long. There are two lakes on the property (one of which is large enough to sail on), complete sports facilities and extensive modern buildings to house two hundred and twenty students, sixty instructors and about one hundred and twenty maintenance, catering and other staff. All the buildings, both new and old, are fine looking and in good condition and, set as they are in a magnificent pastoral setting some forty miles from the centre of London, provide a particularly enviable environment to encourage learning.

The Police College is controlled by a Board of Governors. The Board, under the chairmanship of the Permanent Under-Secretary of State for Home Affairs, consists of nominees of the Home Secretary, representatives of the County Councils Association and representatives of the Association of Municipal Corporations. The Home Secretary's nominees include senior civil servants,

Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Constabulary, chief officers of police and representatives of the Police Superintendents' Association and the Police Federation. The Board of Governors is assisted by the Police College Advisory Committee, under the chairmanship of Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Constabulary. The committee includes chief officers of police and representatives of the Police Superintendents' Association, the Police Federation, educationalists from outside the Service and members of the College staff.

The Commandant is the Principal of the College, and he is assisted by a Deputy Commandant who is a chief officer of police and acts as Dean of Police Studies, and a Dean of Academic Studies who is a civilian. A Director of Overseas Studies, a former senior officer with command experience abroad, is responsible to the Commandant for the special needs of overseas students.

The Directing Staff consists of police officers and graduate civilians. The police staff, under the Dean of Police Studies, are seconded from their forces, normally for two years, and the civilians, under the Dean of Academic Studies, are appointed on the recommendation of a selection board at the Home Office for any indefinite period. There are sixty instructors, forty of whom are police and twenty civilians. In addition there is a College Secretary, a civil servant, who is responsible to the Commandant for

financial office and domestic services and he is assisted by the College Accountant who is also a civil servant. The College Library, which has some fifty thousand books and is the best library I have seen dealing with the criminal justice system, is in the charge of a fully qualified Librarian who has a number of assistants. In addition to providing a rather idyllic setting for the students to study in, every effort has been made to provide full and adequate staffing.

The College offers an ascending scale of courses calculated to provide higher training at the key stages of an officer's career, from first command to preparation for command of a police force. The College's courses are concerned only with higher training. Recruit, continuation, refresher and specialist training is provided elsewhere. From time to time the College arranges short conference-style courses, but its main effort is put into five courses which are of varying but always substantial length, and all are conducted on a fully residential basis.

The Special Course trains young officers of outstanding promise who have been selected by Extended Interview. Successful completion of the course entitles them to be promoted to the substantive rank of sergeant and, after a year's satisfactory service in that rank, to promotion to the substantive rank of inspector. It is possible for an officer to qualify for admission to this course before the end of his third year of service. The course consists of three terms, each of

four months duration.

The syllabus of the Special Course comprises professional and academic studies. The academic studies include work in history, government, economics, sociology, psychology, international affairs, and English, together with academic studies of police. The professional studies include police duties, criminal law and the courts, road and traffic, community relations, organization, administration and management science, with due emphasis on leadership.

The course is designed to complete on broad foundations the students' basic professional education and to develop wide interests and intellectual ability. Successful graduates of this special course do not attend the inspectors' course and should they be allowed back into the Police College for further training it would be to take the Intermediate Command Course.

The importance of being selected to take this special course by a young policeman can be seen when it is realized that he will likely, through this process, obtain the rank of inspector within four years of joining his force. Promotion to that rank otherwise would take in all probability a minimum of ten to twelve years. Should a student fail this course it is my estimate that his future career in the police could be rather a limited one and that his smart move would be to find alternative employment.

The Inspectors' Course trains officers of the rank of inspector for the responsibilities of the "middle" ranks of the Service. The College course is preceded by one month's local training in force organization, local procedure and local services, and a period of operational duty at an inspector's rank. Selection for the course is made by chief officers of police according to a force quota of places. Some ten percent of the places are filled by overseas officers and the course lasts four months.

The syllabus is based on both academic and professional studies. The academic studies include work in history, government, economics, sociology, international affairs and English, with some academic study of police. The Professional Studies are concerned with the leadership, management problems and operational responsibilities of the middle ranks of the Service. The arrangement of the whole syllabus provides for a central, common body of academic and professional studies in which all participate, and also for smaller groups of students to follow specialized subjects in both the academic and professional fields.

The Overseas Command Course is designed to train senior officers of overseas police forces for the responsibilities of assistant commissioner and above. Its program consists of professional and academic subjects. The course lasts four months and is directed by a former chief officer of an overseas police force, assisted by a senior member of the academic staff.

The Intermediate Command Course is designed to further the development of selected officers in the middle ranks who are considered likely by their chief officers to be fitted for the responsibilities of divisional or department heads. Final selection for the course is by regional boards, according to local quotas. The course lasts four months and includes work in police leadership and command, management science, the social sciences and current police problems.

The Senior Command Course is designed to equip the officers who attend it for the highest posts in the service. Final selection is by Extended Interview. The course lasts four months and is conducted at force command level. It aims to prepare officers for the responsibilities of a chief officer by work oriented to the future problems of the Service in its higher internal management and its relationship with Government and the community. Leadership, command and management science are studied in the widest police context. Senior overseas officers also attend this course.

The College uses a great variety of methods of work, stressing individual and collective participation by students. Each course is divided into "syndicates" of not more than twenty students; each syndicate is constituted to give a cross-section of the police experience of the whole course. The syndicate is supervised by a member of the staff who gives regular individual tutorial guidance as well as directing

collective work.

Lectures and presentations followed by questions and discussion are given by staff and by visitors. Students also lecture to their colleagues on set subjects, thus sharing the results of their research and acquiring practice in speaking. A good deal of work is done in discussion, in small groups, on prepared agenda, in seminar form, and as chairman and committee exercises. There are collective exercises such as business games, role playing, case studies, instructional visits and presentations by student-groups. Much emphasis is placed on providing leadership opportunities throughout the whole course.

Each year a number of officers who have attended the inspectors' course or the special course are awarded scholarships at universities under a scheme which has been in operation since 1964. The College nominates candidates for these scholarships, subject to the approval of their chief officers and police authorities, and if the universities concerned agree to admit the applicants a Bramshill scholarship is awarded. These students receive their full pay and allowances, with assistance being provided with university expenses. Every effort is made to find police accommodation near the university for married officers and their families. Various degree courses are taken under the scheme, including courses in law, history, modern languages, economics, psychology, sociology, administrative sciences and "combined" subjects.

Although the college is the national police college serving the forty-three police forces of England and Wales, it also accepts students from other forces in Britain. It has also acquired an international status which is regularly enhanced by the considerable numbers of students who come from all parts of the world. The great majority are from Commonwealth countries (both the independent countries and the few remaining dependent territories) but also some come from North America and Europe. The college maintains special relationships with police training establishments all over the world and sometimes exchanges staff with them for training purposes. In addition to its primary training function, the college's advice is frequently sought by police authorities in many countries and can in many ways be viewed as something of a clearinghouse for the discussion and deliberation of difficult police problems.

I was most impressed with all that I saw and from my experience would say that it is a training institution second to none. The college's hospitality extends to providing overnight accommodation on the grounds for visitors and during the time that I was there there were a number of other visitors including two law enforcement officers from the U.S.A. They were equally impressed and I would certainly recommend that anybody connected with the criminal justice system and who is visiting England attempt to arrange an invitation to Bramshill.

PRISONS

Good and wise men in every generation have understood that the harsh treatment of prisoners avails nothing. Despite this, it was not until around two centuries ago that the consistent and on-going attempt at prison reform began, much of which had its origins in Britain (Addendum I).

For a variety of reasons much of this drive seems to have been lost since the end of the second World War and a much greater thrust for change is to be found in several of the Continental nations and North America. Nevertheless, the Prison Service in the United Kingdom has many enviable and worthwhile traits, and the orderliness of its operation is most impressive.

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As in other countries, the number of persons being incarcerated in the U.K. is on the increase, despite the wide and increasing use of alternatives to imprisonment.

In July 1975 the prison population in England and Wales (Scotland and Northern Ireland have their own separate systems) reached a then new peak of 40,808. By June 30, 1976, this figure had climbed to a new high of 41,704 which is a fairly modest increase by Canadian standards, but given the severely overcrowded condition in United Kingdom prisons it compounded an already serious problem. This figure included about 1,300

women, and refers to persons remanded or sentenced but not to those in a lock-up. The most significant increases were in the numbers of remands and women prisoners, the latter showing a growth of just over twenty percent compared with the previous year.

The average number of borstal trainees rose by over ten percent to 5,771, and the average population in Senior Detention Centres rose by almost seven percent to 1,246, and in Junior Detention Centres over ten percent to 604. Over one-third of all persons in custody slept two or three in a cell designed for one prisoner.

The number of prison officers recruited during 1975 (1,660 men and 130 women) was a record, but it became necessary to suspend recruitment later to avoid exceeding permitted financial limits. Despite extra staff, however, the pressures of court and escort duties increased significantly at local prisons and remand centres creating particular pressures in these areas.

The Prison Service establishments cost 144 million pounds to run during the year end March 31, 1975. The average cost of maintaining an inmate was about 3,120 pounds compared with about 2,210 pounds in the previous financial year, an increase of forty-one percent. Government requirements to reduce public spending over the next five years have reduced the prison building program by over forty million pounds. Three major

building projects and seven smaller projects have been deferred indefinitely. There are plans, however, to proceed with the construction of a Prison for Men in the North, and the redevelopment of the Women's Prison at Holloway and the Borstal at Feltham. Work is also continuing on two new Prisons, one in Staffordshire and the other in Lancashire, so building has not been stopped altogether. In fact, it is hoped to provide about 5,000 new prison places by 1980.

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I was invited to take part in the annual Prison and Borstal Governors Conference held at the University of York. There were over three hundred persons in attendance, a very concrete example of the size of the system.

Apart from the Director General's and other major speeches, the plenary sessions dealing with current problems were discussed as seen from the points of view of the field on the one hand and H.Q. on the other (a good approach to opening up communication). There was the premier showing of a new public education and training film, which is very worth while seeing.

Special interest sessions were held on Violent Behaviour in Custodial Establishments, Hostages, Strategies for Law and Order, The Handling of Complaints from Prisoners and the Public, The Difficult Prisoner, Industrial Relations, Minority Groups

in Prison Establishments, The Work of Probation Officers in Prisons, and Contemporary Management. The topics were familiar to anybody working in the same field in Canada, and so was the content of the discussion.

At these sessions were a mixture of Governors and Deputy Governors, senior staff from H.Q., the Director General and all the members of the Prison Board, senior police officers from various Forces, and representatives from the Home Office and County Probation staffs. This made for a good mixture of opinion, and the concern regarding some of the subjects, such as the increase of violence in prisons, made for a lively debate. There was, of course, no "package" solutions to anything, but if there had been doubtless it would not have been a problem in the first place.

Occasionally the British take a tough stand on things, and they have had a policy for some time that any prisoner who wants to starve himself to death can. He will not be force fed. One of the questions brought up at the Conference involved the major prison in Northern Ireland which was burnt to the ground, and ten months and one and a half million pounds later is now back in use. When the prisoners threatened to burn it down they were told, "If you burn it down, you'll live in it the way it is." This was no idle threat and it is a policy decision. So far at least this seems to have worked for even the threats to burn the prison down have ceased.

The Prison Staff Training College at Wakefield provides a very extensive range of courses (Appendix D).

During the time that I was at the Prison Training College there were no students in attendance so it was possible to spend the days in talking to the principal and his training staff. I had several group sessions with them, comparing prison systems and matters on both sides of the Atlantic, and I thought the interchange to be particularly frank and useful. I was surprised, however, at the rather extreme reactionary attitudes shared by most of the younger training staff. Older training staff were more liberal in their attitudes and this difference appears to be a reversal of the trend with which we have become familiar in recent years in Canada, and it highlighted for me the inescapable impression picked up both in the United Kingdom and on the Continent that the demand for a greater degree of law and order stems from those persons who are in their twenties and early thirties.

The staff at the training college are struggling with the problem of changing training needs to meet the current changing face of penology, but nowhere did I see any indication that they were having very much success. It seems to be generally recognized that workers in this field need to be leaders rather than managers and as a result much of the management theory devised in the last twenty years is thought to be of little value. Unfortunately, nobody seems to be

quite sure how you prepare and train prison staff to exercise a leadership role that is sufficiently flexible and operable in a volatile community.

As in the police training colleges, prison training is carried out in the U.K. by staff from the field who are brought in on a limited secondment basis (a maximum of four years) and, therefore, teach from the advantage of a person who is familiar with the current practices and realities of operating a prison. This unquestionably helps to avoid the "ivory tower" criticism that is so frequently levelled against staff training offered off-the-job and against the trainers themselves.

It was the feeling of everybody that I spoke to that the only really effective training was that given on-the-job and that the present extensive resources, centred in the three prison training colleges, should for the most part (but not entirely) be redirected to training in each establishment. Steps are planned to move in this direction.

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The Extended Interview Procedure for selecting persons for certain jobs is still used by a number of Government Departments. It had its origin in the "country house" C.A.C.T.M. exercises developed during the War for selecting from the ranks suitable candidates for a commission. As used by the Police and Prison Services it has been modified considerably, with the "country house" atmosphere being

removed and the introduction of a number of personnel selection tests and exercises being introduced.

The particular E.I.P. that I attended was set up to select from among prison officers those who would make suitable assistant governors. The candidates were brought in from all over the country, including Scotland, and together with the assessors lived for three days in quarters at the Prison Staff Training College during which time they were interviewed and examined corporately in groups of six and individually.

The process was a particularly gruelling one, both for the candidates and the assessors, and went on from early in the morning until nine or ten o'clock at night. In addition to the subjective assessment procedures, there were a number of pencil and paper tests and this information was all quantified, as far as it is possible to quantify such data, and the selection was then made upon these results.

The obvious advantage of this procedure is that those making the selection, at the end of the procedure, have a great deal more information in front of them than is afforded to persons making a decision based on the usual forty-five to sixty minute interview. Also, the candidates were given a number of opportunities to show their worth and should they do particularly badly in one area of the exercise they can make up for it in others.

A disadvantage of the procedure is that it is very time consuming and expensive. Furthermore, it is not for the faint-hearted candidate because for those who fail the disappointment, after making so much effort, must be intense, and it was my feeling that a great deal more work was needed to support those who had failed.

The assessors comprised prison governors and psychologists from the Prison Service plus a number from "outside" who were brought in to aid in the process. My wife was invited because of her background with the Canadian Public Service Commission and myself because of my experience working in prisons. Others invited were a Major General from the Royal Marines, the principal of a well known grammar school, Her Majesty's Inspector of Constabulary, and a physicist from the Department of Defence. The obvious purpose of this mixture is to get as broad a base as possible for making the selection.

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Prisoners in the United Kingdom are divided into four categories of custodial risk designated by the first four letters of the alphabet with "A" signifying the top end of the security spectrum.

Prisons to which offenders may be committed directly by a court are known as "local" prisons and they are all closed establishments. The high security risk prisoners are dispersed throughout the system in institutions that

have been made especially secure and these are known as "dispersal" prisons. Of the 114 custodial establishments in England and Wales, 21 are "open" prisons.

Very similar arrangements exist for Remission of Sentence and loss of Remission for misbehaviour as in Canada. Also similar is the operation of Parole.

Prison industries exist but with the exception of Coldingley in Surrey, they do not appear to be as effective as might be hoped. There are not enough worthwhile jobs to go around and in some prisons sewing mail bags is still one of the major activities. Many of the products of the Prison Industries and Farms are utilized by the Prison Service and other branches of Government, but there is a sale of some products on the open market.

Education is the responsibility of the local education authorities but each prison has an education office and several full or part-time teachers. Apart from certain vocational courses given during the day, education is offered in evening classes and through correspondence courses which the prisoner does in his own time.

Medical Services are well developed, and in the large prisons, some of which have a population of 1,500 inmates or more, there is a full medical team even including a full time pharmacist, and a sizable and well-equipped hospital.

Welfare services are the particular concern of the chaplains and assistant governors, but attached to each prison are probation officers on a minimum secondment of two years from the Probation and After-Care Service, and they are responsible for carrying out the normal social work functions.

Prisoners are allowed visits from relatives and they may write letters but on a much reduced scale to that applicable in Canada. There is some variation from prison to prison, but in many cases visiting is limited to an hour a month and letters to one letter a week. If the inmate wishes to write more often than that he must buy his own stationery and postage out of his limited prison allowance. Money may not be left in his account by visitors for this purpose. Canteen privileges, also, are sparse by comparison with those available in Canadian institutions.

Discharge and after-care help is given to each prisoner according to his need and inclination. Home leave of five days is frequently given to prisoners serving sentences of two years and over towards the end of their term of imprisonment. A small number of prisoners serving a sentence of four years or more may be considered for employment outside the institution for the last six months of their sentence. During this period they live either in a special part of the prison or, preferably, in a hostel. They are paid normal wages and from this they support their families and pay their own expenses.

Everywhere I went I was impressed by the Prison Officers of all ranks. They looked smart, carried themselves well, handled the prisoners in a way that was friendly but not familiar, and they were able to explain their job clearly and down to the last detail.

Obviously a great deal of effort has gone into recruitment and training of both male and female officers (Appendix E). The Prison Service has been fortunate in that many more applications are received than are needed, therefore they are able to be very selective in their choice of candidates. Salaries with overtime are quite good by British standards, and free housing is provided close to the prison. Staff who wish to purchase their own house or commute from a more distant place are given a housing allowance.

Industrial dispute exists among prison officers as it does in just about every segment of employment in Britain and the Prison Officers Association is a militant union. Be this as it may, this dissatisfaction was not reflected in the manner in which officers deported themselves about their duties.

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Following the escape from Wormwood Scrubs of the spy George Blake who had been sentenced to 42 years imprisonment, an Inquiry into Prison Escapes and Security was set up under The Earl Mountbatten of Burma. In 1966 his Report recommended in paragraph 251 that an Inspector General of Prisons be appointed. "His duties should go far beyond inspection and involve command and leadership functions as well as responsibility for advising the Home Secretary on all professional matters."

This was originally done but like many decisions it became watered down with time and the present Inspector, although a member of the Prison Board, is primarily concerned with inspecting prisons and investigating extraordinary occurrences. He has two Inspection Teams consisting of four persons each, all of whom have had a long and varied experience in working in prisons. For a week they go over every part of the institution and examine every facet of its operation and program. They then recommend politely but firmly that where necessary changes take place. This team also has the advantage of seeing worthwhile practices that have developed throughout the system in individual institutions which they can pass on and recommend to other prisons.

Because of their knowledge of the system, long experience and quiet modus operandi these Inspection Teams are welcomed

rather than disliked, and they have gone a long way not only to ferreting out undesirable behaviour but in creating a channel for communication and improvement.

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The prisons in the United Kingdom are scattered fairly evenly throughout most parts of the country to meet the needs and population distribution of the area it serves. An exception is the Isle of Wight which has three large major institutions, Camp Hill and the more secure Parkhurst, and the new super-security Albany. These three "fortresses", lined up alongside each other make an impressive, howbeit somewhat dismal array.

I was able to visit a great many institutions throughout the country although as may be expected they were in many cases virtually identical in purpose and practice. I will, therefore, only make reference to specific prisons in that they represented something different or noteworthy.

Her Majesty's Prison at Prince Town, or Dartmoor as it is more commonly referred to, must be one of the best known prisons in the world. It is unique in that it is built within a completely circular wall, and its one time very geographically isolate location made it the stage for many unusual happenings, both in fact and in fiction.

I am afraid that Dartmoor is now beginning to show its

age, but then after all it was built by French prisoners of war during the Napoleonic Wars. It is not even a particularly secure prison any more and only offenders who are given a "B" and "C" classification are sent there. Nevertheless the massive stonework, the enormous rooms in the administration area, the twisting passageways and the enormous cell blocks are still in good condition.

In keeping with tradition, the day I was at Dartmoor there was a ~~very heavy~~ fog on the Moor and visibility was down at one time to about twenty yards, ~~if that~~. It was impossible to see from one side of the prison yard to the other and the buildings loomed eerily up into the mist and it was easy to understand the origins of the myths, legends and folk lore that surround the Moor itself and the prison in particular.

An interesting piece of information is that the land on which the prison is built is leased and not owned. It belongs to the Duchy of Cornwall, that is to Prince Charles who is also the present Duke of Cornwall. The prison department is anxious to vacate Dartmoor as soon as it is possible to find alternative accommodation for the prisoners, and one really wonders what the Prince of Wales is going to do when the land is returned to him complete with prison.

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Grendon is quite unlike anything I have seen in North America but along the lines of institutions I am familiar with in Denmark, Sweden and Germany. It is called a psychiatric prison, but it does not deal with persons suffering from psychosis or those who are felt to be mentally unfit to plead or stand trial. These individuals are sent either to a regular mental hospital or to one of the special hospitals for the criminally insane of which Broadmoor is probably the best known.

Grendon is situated in the picturesque Buckinghamshire countryside just fifty-three miles from London, and it is officially but briefly described as, "A psychiatric prison to accommodate up to two hundred and fifty men and seventy-five boys receiving psychiatric investigation and treatment, including a surgical unit for remedial and cosmetic surgery in conditions of maximum security." It was opened in 1962.

Grendon is the only distinctively psychiatric prison in the system, although there are psychiatric wards at quite a number of the general prisons, and it is geared to handle prisoners suffering from psychopathic personalities, persons who are addicted to alcohol, drugs and gambling, or who are violent, aggressive character disorders. There are eight distinctive wings, each in charge of a psychiatrist and each operating in a great deal of isolation from other wings. While visiting between the wings is not absolutely forbidden,

it is discouraged so that social interaction is rare and planned therapeutic interaction is non-existent.

Like many post-war buildings in England, the structure left very much to be desired but the amount of living space is quite adequate, and each person has his own reasonably well furnished room. The medical equipment looked up to date and they were particularly pleased with a brand new EEG machine that does indeed seem to be a masterpiece of gadgetry.

The Governor, who is officially referred to as the Medical Superintendent, is a psychiatrist. He has a staff of one hundred and eighty in total which includes eight psychiatrists, five psychologists, six social workers and a number of technicians. As far as I could gather, the nurses and technicians are regular prison staff who have received specialized training for their functions, but do not apparently receive any additional remuneration. The Medical Superintendent was a bit vague about some of these matters as a knowledge of the fine workings of the prison service were left up to the Deputy Governor who is not medically trained and who is responsible for the day to day operations of the institution. The Deputy Governor spent all day with the Medical Superintendent and myself, but he was unable to answer some of the questions as he had only taken up the post the day before. In fact, as he went around with us, he too was on his first tour of the "Nick".

The prison obviously deals with some pretty notorious inmates and the security is very tight. Apart from the security in the wings and in the buildings themselves, there is a thirty foot concrete wall and beyond that a thirty-five to forty foot wire fence topped with two rows of German-S barbed wire. Despite this, the atmosphere in the prison was extremely relaxed and staff and inmates moved freely about their business in a most "easy" manner. There have been no escapes in the fourteen years that Grendon has been in use and when I asked whether any are attempted, I was told, "Oh yes, but the other patients tip us off." In any case, there is an old type Chief Officer on staff who seems to have security matters well in hand and who keeps everybody on the ball, staff and inmates alike.

Although there are some work activities for prisoners, such as market gardening within the confines of the security fence, or a paint shop within the perimeter wall, work takes a very secondary place to the therapeutic program which seems to be going on at every turn of the corner. With the exception of one wing, there is no chemo-therapy at all. It is policy that drugs shall not be used to mask symptoms. Therapy is largely of the milieu type, and while each inmate does have private sessions with the psychiatrist or other staff members, the main thrust of treatment is through the medium of the group.

There are some groups involving the families of inmates, but this technique is not universally used. In fact, there is a decided tendency not to stress the community end of things and I can understand this as the prison is dealing totally with psychopaths in one form or the other and the less outside contacts the less opportunities to manipulate the system. Visiting, while more lenient than in other prisons, is limited to two visits of an hour each month, and the general practices associated with a re-entry program are generally not used until quite late in a person's sentence and then they are programs used by and for Grendon prisoners only. That is, there is no use made of the generally available half-way house programs, employment agencies and the like. Grendon does its own work right through. Although nobody was impolite enough to say, I gathered the impression they did not want some amateur messing up their years of work.

I spent several hours with the inmates themselves. The first session was with a group of inmates in "B" Wing and a regular bunch of villains they were. I appreciated this opportunity, however, as there was nobody else there so the possibility of playing "up" or "down" for the sake of staff was absent. Butter would not have melted in their mouths. They were poor inadequates who had never had a chance. At Grendon, however, the error of their ways was made manifestly clear and they were motivated by the single ideal, to help each other adjust to life and live with their fears, failures and neuroses.

It was a straight "con" job accentuated by excellent verbal skills. The staff at Grendon certainly have a job to motivate that group to change.

Later on I sat in on one of the group therapy sessions that involved the whole wing, staff and inmates alike. A new arrival, sentenced for a particularly nasty manslaughter, was put through the hoop. The why, how, who, when and what for, and I must say I felt it to be one of the best pieces of technique I had seen in many a year. He tried to "con" the other inmates and failed miserably and while the staff were kindly enough, I didn't notice a tear in any of their eyes.

Cosmetic surgery is carried out at the prison, but I understand this is kept to a minimum and deals primarily with the removal of tattoos, disfiguring scars and straightening noses. More ambitious operations are carried out, but they are rare.

The staff were very impressive, particularly the "floor" staff who were involved in all aspects of program. They appeared to measure up to the mental image one has of what correctional officers should really be. They were proof that if you want to operate a treatment program you have got to have the right staff to do it, otherwise there is little point in wasting your time. Working with the staff were a number of students spending periods of time from a week up to months. There are living facilities in the staff quarters

adjacent to the prison and the students seem to come from all over the world.

My general impressions of Grendon were very favourable. It seemed to be a good example of the milieu type therapeutic prison that has come out of the Maxwell Jones tradition, although I think it must be concluded that they have debunked most of the mystique that seems to surround certain specific therapies. It is now just sound treatment practice. Perhaps the Medical Superintendent's comment about groups at Grendon might sum it up: "They do the typically English thing, have a good grouse and then go and get on with things."

The obvious question is, does Grendon work? Does it turn this group of prisoners plagued with psychopathic personalities into reasonably mature, useful citizens? It probably does for a few. What it does appear to do rather well is to prevent the degree of psychopathy deepening. It prevents the prisoner, in most cases, from getting worse even if there is no marked improvement.

One thing, of course, it does is to keep some of the worst manipulative trouble-makers and disturbed persons out of the general population of other prisons, and this no doubt does a great deal to keep the peace and to prevent contamination of the more vulnerable and impressionable prisoners.

Grendon is felt by some to be an expensive luxury and apart from its financial critics there are those who feel it

is not justified on penological or therapeutic grounds.
I did not feel this.

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Adjacent to Grendon is the "open" institution of Springhill. It is operated quite independently, apart from the fact that the Medical Superintendent of Grendon is the Governor of Springhill.

Springhill is a very ordinary and typical type of set-up for "D" class (non-security) prisoners and operates not unlike one of our camps, except it makes tubular furniture instead of clearing brush, and the population is one hundred and eighty instead of the lower, more ideal, number of prisoners in a Manitoba rehabilitation camp. Like the camps, however, there is the constant problem of absconding (the word "escape" is not used in connection with open institutions) and contraband coming in.

Walkaways are not dealt with as a criminal offence and referred back to the open court, but are handled internally with the prisoner losing thirty days or so of good time. Only if a further crime is committed while A.W.O.L. is a criminal charge laid.

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The institution at Shrewsbury is comparatively small, accommodating around two hundred and thirty prisoners who are largely from the more isolated rural areas of that part of England and North Wales. In fact, the "country fun" aspects are reflected in that Shrewsbury has percentagewise more murderers and sex offenders than any other facility in the United Kingdom.

Shrewsbury is the county town for Shropshire (or Salop, which is the old Latin name, as it is often called) and has a population of fifty thousand. An interesting connection with Manitoba is that the Prince Rupert Hotel was at one time the house of Prince Rupert, the grandson of James I. It is this Prince Rupert who became the first Governor of the Hudson Bay Company and after whom Rupert's Land was named.

The prison is in the centre of town, next to the Castle and overlooking the Railway Station. The present building dates from around 1870, but new shops and a gymnasium have been recently added. It is a particularly neat prison, spotless and the food is excellent. There are only two staff cooks and twelve inmates to cover all shifts and yet they provide not only food for the institution but also the "meals on wheels" for the local shut-ins.

The prisoners, with exception of those on remand, are Category "B". There is a total of one hundred and three

staff so the staff-inmate ratio, as in most U.K. prisons, is 1:2. There was a particularly relaxed attitude in the prison but apart from the workshops it has very little program. For example, inmates get only one evening of hobbycraft a week in an area set aside for this purpose, and visiting and canteen privileges are the same as in any other prison.

The Governor had only recently taken over the job and before that he was in charge of the Governor Training Program at the Staff College. I mention this because it is an important factor in the British system that their managerial staff be moved back and forth between "line" and "staff" functions. This undoubtedly makes for flexibility, prevents people from losing touch with field operations and provides for a much greater experience all round.

Four years ago he was attached to the Federal Bureau of Prisons in the U.S.A., and he was just one of many persons I met who had spent anywhere from three months up to a year working with one or the other criminal justice jurisdictions in Canada or the United States. These people I found to be very helpful and useful because of their joint experience. They were more sympathetic to the North American situation and it was possible to establish more easily a bond of communication that enabled us to penetrate more quickly to the essence of an issue.

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The prison at Durham is a large bastion right in the middle of the city and accommodates 1,200 prisoners, including a specially constructed security unit for the around thirty-five IRA female "lifers" and other particularly tough and difficult woman prisoners. Similarly, many of the males incarcerated are also among the most difficult persons to handle and it is customary to send to Durham prisoners who are causing trouble in other institutions.

Security is the order of the day and, apart from in the women's section, I never heard the words "treatment" or "rehabilitation" used. I had a feeling that any officer found using these words would likely be fired on the spot as being unsuitable. On one occasion as I was walking across the prison yard a rather notorious inmate who had shot and murdered a policeman and who was one of the leaders in the recent Hull riot was being exercised. Within the prison's centre yard, three officers, plus a dog handler with his dog escorted him during the thirty minutes he was out of his cell. This happens twice a day and each time this particular prisoner is similarly escorted and then back into his cell where he is kept in isolation for the other twenty-four hours of the day. He has no contact at all with any other prisoner.

Although discipline is rigid and uncompromising, I did not feel it was administered with unnecessary harshness and I received no indication by word or action whatever of a

brutal attitude by the staff who looked and deported themselves in a manner that would have done credit to a Guard's Regiment. While I was at Durham, one of the R.C.M.P. Liaison Officers with the Canadian High Commission in London, was interviewing a Canadian prisoner just sentenced to fifteen years for a rather unpleasant crime, and while waiting for the prisoner in one of the cell blocks he said, "Just look at those guards, they really look as though they are proud of their uniform and take a pride in their job." And he was absolutely right. An interesting practice we noticed was that while the inmate was being interviewed the prison officer placed outside the room was changed every twenty minutes. When I later asked the Governor why this was so, the reason given was that in this way he would stay alert. If he was stationed there longer then he might unconsciously "dream off" a bit. This was just one of the many examples of a Service that not only takes a pride in its duties, but has had a long experience of knowing what to do.

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The Denbury Prison Camp is in Devonshire, just a few miles from Newton Abbot. It is a converted old army camp built in 1936 with the original structure still standing and being used to house the two hundred and forty prisoners in residence. These are mainly a category "D" classification but there are some Category "C" prisoners, and although there

is more security built into this operation than we would feel necessary for this type of prisoner, it is essentially an open prison.

The aspect of Denbury that makes it different from other prisons is that the inmates are being trained in building skills for the express purpose of erecting the security prison that is going up in the middle of the present compound. This is an experimental project and if the prison can be built by inmate labour for no more than it would cost to hire an outside contractor then future prisons will be built in this fashion. I was much impressed with the quality of training that went into teaching these prisoners building and construction skills, and I thought that all in all it was by far the most rehabilitative of all the prisons I saw in Britain with the exception of the psychiatric facility at Grendon. On the other hand I must say I felt that the design of the prison was a total disaster, but this was not the fault of the experiment as a private architect had been employed and the people on the site at Denbury had nothing else to do but go ahead and erect the structure.

The building is just about half completed and is of pre-cast cement and the prisoners will have been trained to do everything from making the forms to painting the finished product. The amount committed to cover the cost of this construction is eight million pounds.

Custodial facilities for females are operated under the same rules and regulations as those for men, although recent recognition has been given to the fact that women require, in some respects, to be treated differently from men. Apart from the unit at Durham, less security precautions are necessary and women are now allowed to wear their own clothing.

Treatment and training programs similar to Canadian institutions exist in female prisons in the United Kingdom to a degree not found in the male institutions, and visits outside for personal or rehabilitative purposes are far more common. The relationship between staff and inmates is more open and developed than in the prisons for men, and the programs offered have a sound domestic base specially designed to assist the offender on her release.

The incidence of women incarcerated has increased considerably in recent years and in 1976 the number in custody was around 1,300, an increase of close to fifty percent in the last five years. This has necessitated the development of new facilities and the renovation of some old ones, including the well known Holloway Prison in London (Appendix F).

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The young adult offender, aged 17 and under 21, is treated as a category quite distinct from child and adult offenders, and this distinction has existed since the turn of the century.

To deal with this group of offenders, two types of facilities have been developed in the United Kingdom, detention centres and borstals, both of which can also be used for offenders under 17 years. Detention centres exist for young offenders who it is felt would benefit from a short period of residential training of a minimum of three months up to a normal maximum of six months, although in exceptional cases this can be increased to nine months. Junior detention centres exist for boys 14 to 16 years and the senior detention centres are for those 17 to 20. After release, all detention centre trainees receive statutory supervision for one year.

The regime in detention centres is traditionally rigorous, formal and highly disciplined. It is supposed to administer a short, sharp shock that will deter young men starting out on their criminal career. I visited the Haslar Detention Centre at Gosport which is a converted naval brig and I was more impressed than abhorred by what I saw. Providing there is appropriate selection and screening of staff and inmates alike, I can see little objection to either the philosophy or the practice of detention centres. There is, however, a current reaction to this system as it is felt by some that this type of training is no longer relevant or useful, and detention centres are undergoing changes in that a social work approach is replacing the previous one of hard discipline.

The borstal training system is a particularly English institution and has a long and noteworthy history. In essence,

the original idea was that young offenders would benefit from a regime that was based on the British public school idea, and there is little doubt that at one time this did seem to work quite well. I visited several borstals, including one that is thought to be particularly progressive and successful, the Hollesley Bay Colony which is situated right on the shore of the North Sea. This is an open facility for 350 inmates, covering a large area of land and is located in a particularly isolated part of East Anglia. Many of the buildings are new and attractive, and there is a good school and social training program operated by a top grade staff under a particularly insightful governor. The main activity of Hollesley Bay, however, is farming and the value of sending boys from the slums of London, many of whom are immigrants from the West Indies, to work on a farm and to live in a system structured on the lines of the traditional public school is, in my opinion, somewhat questionable.

In 1974 a report, Young Adult Offenders, was published setting out the findings of the Home Secretary's Advisory Council on the Penal System (Appendix G). The basic theme of the report is that more young offenders should be treated in the community than in custody, and that when custodial control is necessary it should be coupled with broader community attachments. To achieve this, it is suggested that two new types of sentence be established: one with a partial custodial component, the "custody and control order" which would replace the present custodial sentence, and the other

would be for cases when custody was viewed not to be essential, the "supervision and control order". This latter sentence would not replace the present probation order but exist in addition to it.

These proposals are still being considered by the Home Secretary and consultation is presently taking place with concerned central and county governmental departments, and private organizations. The direction suggested by the Council, it is felt, has considerable promise.

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PROBATION

In addition to working with the Home Office staff responsible for Probation, I was fortunate to spend a week each with the Probation and After-Care Services in the Counties of Surrey and Hampshire (Appendix H).

My initial impression that most of the probation personnel I met were a particularly dedicated group was not diminished on meeting them at closer quarters over a longer period of time. They were vitally concerned to know about the state of Probation in Canada as they felt it might help them to preserve a Service of which they feel proud but which seems to be suffering from the recruitment of inexperienced staff, the inner ideological fights arising from an attempt to introduce the generic view of social work into probation care, the social activist probation officers who have their roles confused, several reorganizations in the last ten years, staff reductions and increased case loads.

In the United Kingdom every County has its own Probation and After-Care Service. It is funded eighty percent by the Central Government and twenty percent by the Local Government. The Home Office Probation Inspectorate ensures standards, monitors programs and advises on what they feel should be done, but the probation officers are employed and the County operation is overseen by a Probation Committee which is comprised of local magistrates, although if circumstances warrant local citizens can be co-opted onto the Committee.

The Probation Committees seem to have a great deal of independence, but they are ultimately responsible to the Home Secretary.

As can be imagined, this system provides some slack that leads to occasional misunderstanding, and at the moment there is an awareness that the probation and after-care services in the future have to be more closely linked either with the Central Government or the County Councils. Those to whom I have spoken would prefer the first of these two options as they are convinced that if they were completely taken over by the County then they would merely become the poor relatives of the respective Social Welfare Services. There appears to be more than a slight justification, based on experience, for this conclusion.

In addition to providing the services with which we are familiar in Canada, in the United Kingdom probation officers are responsible for all parole supervision and after-care services, including looking after the statutory obligation to give after-care to everybody for a year upon release; prison welfare (work that is carried out by treatment staff in our correctional institutions); the administration of bail hostels, probation hostels, and day training centres; and the operation of the Community Service Orders program (Appendix I). There are some voluntary organizations running community homes, but in general all government community programs are operated by the probation services on the grounds that they

are the "community people". By the same token, there is much objection to probation staff running welfare services inside prisons as this is not the type of thing that falls within their fundamental raison d'etre, namely to work with the offender in the community.

One of the interesting developments by the probation services is the establishment of bail hostels. Probation officers interview everybody who comes before the courts and who is going to be remanded in custody. Those who do not really need to go to a remand centre are sent to a bail hostel. This, of course, keeps them in the community, allows them to hold down their job, and if they behave themselves then such information is passed along to the court and it is to the offender's benefit when his case is heard. This type of hostel is not unique to the United Kingdom as there are similar programs in North America, but the system there seems to be in wide and successful use.

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St. Catherine's Priory Probation Hostel is situated just outside of Guildford (a city about thirty-five miles from the centre of London) but it is no more than ten minutes walk to the Town Centre. The building is owned by the Home Office but operated by the Surrey Probation and After-Care Service.

The Hostel is a rambling building, large and built mainly in Victorian times but with parts of it going back to the

Middle Ages. It has been modernized to some extent but it would have trouble passing Canadian Public Health Standards and would certainly not please the Fire Inspector.

It provides accommodation for up to sixteen men between the ages of nineteen and twenty-five, and although it claims to provide housing and furnishings of a standard found in reasonable lodgings or furnished flats, I thought the standard was sub-normal. In fact, it badly needed the services of a carpenter, electrician, plumber, painter and a whole army of cleaners. This condition, however, points up the philosophy of the Hostel which is to give complete attention to the program and forget about the "niceties" of living. In fact, the basis upon which it runs and the type of clients it handles, I was told, almost negates the chances of house-keeping being run on the lines that appeals to compulsive standards.

It is operated by a Warden and three staff, all probation officers with field experience, a secretary and two part time cleaners who from time to time give the common lounge, hallways, kitchen and bathrooms a bit of a "going over". Cleaning the bedrooms and much of the day-to-day cleanliness of the building is left to the whims of the residents.

The overall objective of the Hostel is to prevent the onset of recidivism in young adult offenders who may already have been on probation or have been in a detention centre or

a borstal. The primary aim of the Hostel, therefore, is to provide an alternative to borstal, borstal recall or a prison sentence. As the Warden put it, "St. Catherine's offers a self-catering way of life with continuous opportunities for residents to learn those practical and social skills so often lacking in young offenders."

The resident is bound to comply fully with the normal requirements of the Probation Order and, additionally, agrees to stay at the Hostel for a period up to twelve months. During this time, he is expected to work, care and cater for himself and to fulfil the basic demands of life within the Hostel, as well as coping with life in the community at large.

The residents pay a weekly amount for a shared room and the remainder of their wages is for spending on food (residents must provide all their own food and cook it, the Hostel does no catering at all), clothing, entertainment and the things generally necessary for life. They have to manage their own money and while the staff will help them to set up a budgeting system, they will not handle their money for them. Residents who spend all their money on pay day can go hungry for the rest of the week or they must beg or borrow from the others. Some, unfortunately, choose to steal, but the choice is theirs.

Those who live within a reasonable distance of Guildford are in regular contact with their home probation officer, and for others a local probation officer is assigned. The purpose

of this link is to ensure that constant professional input is received from outside and the Hostel does not settle down into being just another institution with an inflexible modus operandi.

The group approach to treatment predominates, and every Monday evening the staff and residents meet together in a group to sort out any problems and to make rules necessary to the operation of the house. Apart from these Monday night meetings, any resident can call a full meeting when he has a problem that warrants a total get together. In addition to the full and smaller group sessions, every resident has at least an hour a week with his individual counsellor. The resident may choose his counsellor from amongst the four staff and he may elect to change to somebody else at any time. Each month the counsellor writes a letter of assessment to each resident on his case load, and it is expected that the resident will write back giving his opinion and they will then use this as a basis for a frank exchange.

Since the Hostel was established in 1974, much activity has centred around the subject of House Rules. These have now been reduced to two: (1) Pay your rent and (2) No motor vehicles allowed. Anything else is permitted, including girls in the residence (although by general agreement they are expected to be out by 10:30 P.M. - this is a requirement the residents themselves found was necessary if they were going to get to work in the morning) and there is no restriction on drinking in or without the premises. This latter subject has been

approached from every point and they have tried everything from prohibition up. At the moment there are no limitations placed. The setting of rules and standards is by agreement that involves the input of staff and residents and, therefore, changes from time to time as the residents change.

The probationers tend on the average to stay seven months, and about fifty percent manage to leave St. Catherine's without committing further offences. One of the things they have noticed is that by and large re-offenders do so in twos, and the staff have had to look closely at the way people in the Hostel pair up and to try to predict and prevent them getting into trouble.

I think that what they are trying at St. Catherine's Hostel is a really good attempt to put into practice a community corrections program catering to a group of offenders in the middle range of criminality. The relationships with the community, courts, police and with families living in the immediate vicinity is excellent and reflects some tolerance by the society as a whole but, more to the point, a great deal of public relations effort by the staff.

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The Hampshire Probation and After-Care Service is run with considerable imagination and with an efficiency that reflects very able leadership. The bail hostel at Fareham, for example, is as meticulous in appearance as it is in

operation whereas the probation hostel in Winchester is run on the most permissive lines. Both types of facility are necessary and both, consequently, exist.

I visited with the probation officers responsible for providing welfare services to the prisons on the Isle of Wight, and apart from anything they had to say it is evident that services of this nature should, in most cases, be provided by staff working for the prison rather than by supernumeraries imported from outside. One of the excellent programs developed by the Probation Service is the establishment of an Overnight Stay Centre for the wives and families of inmates who have to travel to visit their relatives in one or the other of the three prisons on the Island.

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One of the new and most successful programs operated by the Probation Service is the Community Service Order scheme. Following the Criminal Justice Act (1972), the Community Service Order program was established in 1973 on an experimental basis in six disparate areas throughout the country. So successful were these experiments that the scheme was introduced in 1975 to other probation and after-care areas (Appendix J). Although the program is operated by the Probation Service, the C.S.O. is not a Probation Order but is a separate and distinct Order.

The Community Service Order legislation provides the court with a relatively inexpensive alternative to shorter custodial sentences. It allows for offenders age 17 years and over, convicted of offences carrying possible imprisonment sentences, to be ordered to carry out in their spare time work that is beneficial to the community. The offender must agree to this arrangement and he does not receive any wages for the work carried out and is, furthermore, responsible for any expenses involved getting to and from the place where the work is to be undertaken.

The length of a Community Service Order can vary from 40 to 240 hours and must be completed within a year. If the offender fails to comply with the order he may be fined or be dealt with again by the court for his original offence. The projects are operated by the local probation staff, but often with the aid of volunteer and other agencies, and provides the offenders with a wide range of tasks such as helping the old and disabled with their household chores, gardening or redecorating, and by assisting in running community programs for the youth, sick or disabled.

The type of offences for which Community Service Orders are given include theft, breaking and entering, assault, drug offences, receiving stolen goods and traffic violations. Most of the offenders given C.S.O. during the experimental period had one or more previous convictions, and a little over half were in the 17-20 age group.

PAROLE AND AFTER-CARE

All prisoners in the United Kingdom serving fixed sentences totalling more than 18 months are eligible for consideration for parole after serving a third of their sentence or 12 months, whichever expires later. Persons granted a parole are supervised by a probation officer and, as in Canada, failure to behave in a satisfactory manner can result in the parolee being recalled or the parole revoked.

All eligible prisoners are first considered for release on parole by the local review committee which is set up at each prison. This committee comprises the prison governor or his deputy, members of the board of visitors, probation and after-care officers and independent members. The recommendations of the local review committee are reported to the Home Secretary who, in some cases, has the power to grant parole but in others he refers the decision to the Parole Board.

Prisoners serving life sentences are eligible for release on licence. It is customary for the opinion to be sought of the local review committee after the "lifer" has served seven years, and then the case is considered by the Home Secretary and the Parole Board, but first the opinion must be obtained of The Lord Chief Justice and, if he is available, the trial judge. Such prisoners, if paroled, remain on licence for the remainder of their lives and are subject to recall at any time.

I was invited on several occasions to sit with the Parole Board. When "lifers" were being dealt with, the Board sat at the Inns of Court in the Inner Temple, but otherwise it met at the headquarters of the Parole Board. On the average, the Board sits four times a week and on each occasion that I was present the Board dealt in great detail with a considerable number of cases.

There is a large permanent Parole Board secretariat, but the members of the Board itself are appointed for a two or three year term of office from among judges, psychiatrists, retired senior civil servants, chief probation officers from the counties and lay people with the ability to make a full contribution. Although the Board functions independently, their findings are vetted by H2 Division of the Home Office, the section responsible for parole and after-care matters, who may recommend to the Home Secretary that certain decisions be vetoed. Although the Home Secretary may disallow the Board's decision to parole a prisoner, he has no power to parole where the Board has not recommended release (Appendix K).

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While the main responsibility for parole supervision and after-care remains with the various probation and after-care services, there has been a fair growth in the last couple of years of voluntary bodies concerned to provide accommodation for offenders on discharge. At the moment, somewhere in the

vicinity of two hundred hostels can accommodate just over two thousand persons, and this is an increase of about fifty percent in the last three/four years. Current cuts in public grants have had a slowing up effect upon the private sector, as it has upon the public sector, and if it were not for this the growth would have been much greater.

Shortly after arriving in England, I attended a Conference held at the University of Surrey. It was the First International Conference on Residential Care for the Disadvantaged or Socially Stigmatized. This title was, understandably if not lyrically, shortened to Stigma '76. The Conference was sponsored by three groups: from Canada, The St. Leonard's Society; from the U.S.A., The International Half-Way House Association; and from Britain, The National Association of Voluntary Hostels.

Although Stigma '76 was held in England, in attendance were sixty-eight Americans, twenty-two Canadians and forty-two British. There was supposed to be one hundred and fifty persons from the United Kingdom but owing to the tight money situation many delegates from both government and private agencies were unable to attend. In addition, there were three delegates from Thailand and one from Belgium.

From the United States, there was good representation from the Federal Bureau of Prisons and from several universities with faculties for the study of Criminology and

Corrections. The President of the American Corrections Association, the Executive Director of the Illinois Law Enforcement Commission and a delegate from the American Bar Association attended, and there was a broad representation from the private after-care agencies.

The delegates from Canada, with the exception of my wife and myself, were from the East. The Executive Director of the St. Leonard's Society of Canada was there with a number of his associates, and the Ministry of the Solicitor General sent their Director of Community Resources who gave an excellent paper on The Development of Community-Based Residential Centres in Canada.

The United Kingdom delegation contained a cross-section of persons responsible, in both government and private agencies, for planning probation, parole, after-care and hostel development. I was able to establish good contacts with several people who were heading up interesting projects, and I received many invitations to observe their programs first hand, some of which I was able to accept. Unfortunately, time and distance made it impossible to take advantage of all the offers.

One of the invitations I was pleased to accept was from John Dodd, the General Secretary of the Langley House Trust. Mr. Dodd's name, and the Langley House Trust, of which he was the founder, are synonymous with after-care work. He started

the first half-way house in Britain about thirty years ago, and today he has responsibility for twenty-five residences. Mr. Dodd is probably one of the most dedicated, forthright and outspoken men in the business and the days spent with him and his staff were extremely rewarding.

I also met there for the first time the Chief Probation Officer for the County of Hampshire. He gave one of the main papers at the Conference entitled Probation - Community Based or Prison Orientated, and I had the privilege of chairing this particular session. The response and reaction to his paper was such that I have little doubt we could have spent all day on this topic alone. This is a subject to which we have given scant consideration in Canada, but in the United Kingdom six percent of all probation officers work in prison settings and there are strong opinions held by both probation and prison personnel as to the comparative merits of this arrangement.

This Conference on Residential Care was particularly useful and informative. The delegates were knowledgeable, concerned, imaginative and had made their mark upon the field, and without exception they entered fully into the spirit of the occasion. The comparatively small number in attendance unquestionably added much to the dialogue as delegates from different countries, disciplines, etc. could and did mix and talk. This interaction was even

further heightened because the conference was a total "live-in" affair at the University's residence, and the after hours informal sessions were as informative (and frequently more dynamic) than the formal sessions.

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The National Association for the Care and Resettlement of Offenders (NACRO) was formed in March 1966 at the time when the probation services in the United Kingdom took over the prison welfare and after-care work which had, up until that time, been carried out by the National Association of Discharged Prisoners' Aid Societies. This important addition to the responsibilities of the probation services came about as a result of the recommendations of the Advisory Council on the Treatment of Offenders' Report, The Organization of After-Care (1963). This report emphasized that it would be "impossible for the Probation and After-Care Service to undertake this formidable task unaided" and that "the help of many voluntary workers drawn from all walks of life" would be essential. The Advisory Council also recognized the great potential of voluntary effort and expressed the view that if such potential was to be tapped effectively then the old National Association (N.A.D.P.A.S.) might well have a part to play as "a new national voluntary organization to co-operate with the Probation and After-Care Service and to co-ordinate such effort and stimulate public interest".

Thus NACRO, as the lineal descendant of N.A.D.P.A.S., was established with generous grants from the Home Office, to fulfil such aims and to be the central agency which would provide whatever services were necessary to enable the independent voluntary bodies to play their part more effectively according to local conditions. In formulating the charitable objectives of the new association it was recognized that the resettlement of offenders included the prevention of further offences, so that the association could in time evolve as a national focus for the development of projects and new facilities in the community concerned with the wider task of the prevention of crime.

In 1968 the Council of NACRO published a Statement of Policy for Future Development. This statement concluded with the following paragraph:

"Prevention, although undoubtedly the most neglected aspect of contemporary attempts to control law-breaking, may well in the long run be the most important. There are many analogies one can draw from the field of public health. This is an area in which we have not set out any specific proposals and we would therefore welcome constructive suggestions as to ways in which NACRO may embark, albeit on a limited scale, on developments of this kind, parallel with its rehabilitative activity."

NACRO has since then broadened its boundaries to include alternatives to prison and a growing concern with prevention both in the sense of supporting schemes aimed at helping those liable to run into trouble with the law and improving the environment in which such people at risk live. As NACRO moved increasingly

into the field of crime prevention it became necessary to extend its mode of operating by developing management functions of its own and to this end NACRO Community Enterprises Limited was established as a subsidiary company in 1972, empowered to manage pilot projects.

This organization, which never had particularly humble origins, is still growing and during the past ten years has established itself as the major non-government agency contributing towards the improvement of the systems and facilities for offenders and ex-offenders in Britain. NACRO's chief priority is to improve and increase the range of non-custodial facilities, and also to take steps necessary to prevent crime by remedying many of those social ills associated with crime. To achieve its ends, NACRO works through existing agencies: the probation and after-care services, voluntary organizations, relevant local authority and central government departments, the police, the prison service, the judiciary and the network of the press, radio and television.

Since 1968, training for residential staff has been a major part of NACRO's program and a high proportion of staff working in accommodation units in the probation and after-care field attend their courses. Local seminar groups meet on a day basis throughout the country and every year several short residential courses are held concerned with all aspects of the job of residential care in the offender field. In addition,

a three month university based introductory course is held each year for persons recently recruited or appointed to work in residential care facilities.

NACRO is available to assist any voluntary or statutory organization working in the criminal justice field by offering them the benefit of their advice. Among the matters on which NACRO provides consultation is the acquisition of property, management, staffing, government grant-aid, liaison with both central and local government departments, fund raising, the use of volunteers, landlords schemes, employment for offenders, education for offenders, crime prevention programs and victim support schemes.

Among the services that NACRO provides is the publication of Information Sheets. I think that these could be more attractively produced, but in principle they are an excellent idea and provide a source of information to the public not otherwise easily available (Appendix L).

I looked at various pilot projects operated around London under the direct auspices of NACRO. The only one that made a very strong appeal to me was the Hammersmith Teenage Project which aims to find out whether juvenile delinquency can be prevented or reduced by working closely with teenagers in liaison with their families and schools.

The Project caters for both boys and girls between the ages of twelve to sixteen in the London Borough of Hammersmith

which tends to be at the lower end of the socio-economic scale but does have a few more opulent areas within its boundaries. It is situated in a large building in the centre of the Borough and deals with about sixty youngsters who have been in trouble with the law or are at risk of committing crime. The staff includes a director, social worker, teacher, youth worker, five "linkers" (staff members with a similar background to most of the teenagers, who may themselves have committed offences in the past), a secretary and a research worker. In addition there are a number of volunteer workers. Financing at the present moment is jointly shared by the Home Office Voluntary Service Unit, the Hammersmith Social Services Department, the Inner London Education Authority and a number of charitable trusts, but it is intended that at the end of the three years experimental period the local authority will accept responsibility for all costs.

Teenagers are referred to the Project from a wide variety of sources including the social services, the Police Juvenile Liaison Bureau, the London Probation Service, the courts, schools, the Education Welfare Service and several non-statutory sources. Where the teenager appears before the Juvenile Court, the court can defer sentence for three months on the understanding that the juvenile will work with the program during that time. If everything works out successfully then the court is likely to impose the minimum penalty.

When a youngster arrives at the Project he is assigned to one of the "linkers", and during his three months in the program, the linker spends a substantial amount of time with him, his family, his friends and his school. He is encouraged to examine his relationship with his school, peers, neighbourhood and family, and to also learn practical skills with the emphasis always being strongly on a practical approach. Video-tape, drama, visits, discussion groups and many practical activities are used as tools to give the teenager more ability to cope with his problems.

A full time education program is offered for those boys and girls who refuse to go to school or have been expelled. The program is a short term one with the ultimate aim of getting the youngster back into the school system. Those teenagers who attend school receive additional work in the evenings and at weekends, depending upon their need. This latter group need not necessarily attend the Centre every day and the staff can and do work with them in their homes, cafes or on the street. Every effort is made to make this a truly local community effort and a large number of volunteers are used. These volunteers may be housewives, shopkeepers, policemen, butchers, bakers or candlestick makers.

Although this Hammersmith Teenage Project is still in the second of its three year experimental period, it seems to have taken a firm grip upon the imagination of the local

citizens and is doing a sound if rather rough and ready job with the youngsters in the program. The building in which the Project is housed is really quite a disaster and there is no way in Canada that we would be able to use such a building because of requirements laid down by the fire marshall or the health inspector. There does seem to be, however, a real advantage to taking teenagers from very poor and deprived backgrounds and allowing them to use the building in whatever way they wish. They can do no harm to it and nobody is going to get upset if it gets damaged a little more through a bit of horseplay.

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I was invited to participate in the NACRO European Conference held last December in London. It attracted over two hundred and seventy-five delegates from all over Europe, most of whom were from Britain but probably a quarter of those present were from over-the-seas.

The theme of the Conference was "Involving the Community in Criminal Justice and the Treatment of Offenders", and opening speeches were given by the President of the Conference, the Right Honourable Edward Heath, and the Home Secretary, the Right Honourable Merlyn Rees. During the Conference, receptions were held at the House of Commons and the House of Lords.

Like most conferences today, this was a regular "three ring circus" with a number of sessions going on simultaneously,

all of which makes it a bit difficult for the participant to take in everything. Fortunately, a summary of all the papers was circulated ahead of this particular Conference and the full text of the papers was handed out at the Conference. These are now attached as Appendix M.

The Conference was an undoubted success. The papers presented, by and large, were of interest, and despite the large number of representatives from all over Europe the Conference language was English and it provided no communication problems. It was an unequalled opportunity to speak informally between sessions with persons operating various parts of the criminal justice system from most European countries, and the atmosphere was sufficiently relaxed to permit a full and easy exchange of ideas.

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WEST GERMANY

PRISONS

The Federal Republic of Germany (B.R.D.), like Canada, has a federal system of government with each level possessing the power to pass legislation within its jurisdiction as laid down in the Constitution. Unlike Canada, however, the operation of all prisons is the respective responsibility of the ten Landes (States).

The system I visited was in the Land of Nord-Rhine-Westfalia which is supposed to have one of the better, if in fact not the best, prison systems in the B.R.D. It is a particularly wealthy Land, and the geographical borders of Nord-Rhine-Westfalia encompass a large area from the Dutch/Belgium border in the west to beyond Paderborn in the east, and from the north of Münster and Bielefeld to the south of Bonn. It has a population of around eighteen million, many of whom live in the densely populated Ruhr, but it also has a large area of Rhineland, farming and small town terrain within its boundaries and, as such, is representative of a comprehensive cross section of West German society.

An attempt to maintain a unified prison system across the B.R.D., in the face of the responsibility of the individual Landes, has resulted in the signing of agreements between the various jurisdictions and the establishment of national minimum rules criteria. The narration of the lengthy process to achieve this sounded all too familiar to somebody coming from Canada.

It would appear that throughout Germany (certainly in NRW) a really heightened attempt to do something about their prisons has been going on for the last ten years. Unquestionably, they still have their old institutions, but at a fair rate new and different institutions, geared to security and treatment realities, have been developed. This approach resulted in 1975 (with the introduction of the Unified Penal Code) in the three traditional names for prisons - Suchthaus (for dangerous and habitual offenders), Gefängnis (for the "medium" risk offender) and Haftanstalt (limited to the "low" risk or "casual" offender) - being replaced by the all inclusive Vollzugsanstalt (literally: "an institution for the carrying out of the sentence"). This trend is now starting to be noticed, and I was surprised when signing guest books throughout the tour to see the large number of persons who have visited recently from all corners of the world. This is of great satisfaction to those running prisons in Germany and a tribute to their efforts in recent years.

All political parties in NRW are agreed on the need for prison reform and there appears to be a fair consensus of agreement as to what these reforms should be. There is, however, less unanimity of belief among the general population and through the middle runs a broad band of indifference.

German law is such that it results in certain practices that are different from those with which we are familiar.

Legal training in the system is highly rated and all senior personnel, prison governors and their assistants are lawyers. It is required that the chairman of the prison Classification Committee be a lawyer so that he can act as a "Judge" and make sure all the pros and cons are properly and logically considered, and that the extremely vast body of prison regulations (having as they do the force of administrative law) are not contravened.

All decisions regarding Parole are made by a Judge. Until recently this was the sentencing Justice, but now a special Court has been established to hear parole applications. This appears to make for a more rigid system than ours, but it would also appear to make for one that is more consistent and, interestingly enough, although appeal procedures exist for prisoners who feel they have not received a fair hearing (either at the Court or Institutional level) it is comparatively rare for them to be used.

There are a couple of interesting applications of German law that took my attention. For the last fifteen years prisoners have had the right to vote in all elections unless the Judge has ruled in the sentence that this right be denied (he would likely only do this if the person was sentenced for an infringement of the laws associated with elections or some similar abuse of the democratic system). There is no electioneering in the prisons and prisoners cast their vote in their home riding by mail. Also, it is the right of a

prisoner to escape and there is no legal sanction carried out by the Court should he succeed. He would likely be disciplined by the prison authorities by being sent to a more secure institution or by losing privileges, but he may not be sentenced to additional time for the escape.

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In addition to spending two lengthy sessions with the Ministerialrat and his colleagues at the Ministry of Justice in Düsseldorf, I visited five prisons and the two staff training schools, all of which were situated approximately one hour's train journey from Düsseldorf.

The first of the Justizvollzugsanstalten to be visited was at Bochum-Langendreer. This is an "open" prison situated in the Ruhr area. Although it is an "open" prison it has more security than we would normally associate with this classification.

The institution was started on the site of a closed coal mine in 1968 and accommodated twenty persons. Today, it has one hundred and forty-five inmates and a new extension is being built to house an additional eighty-five. It is a vocational training centre for males and it teaches courses that make the graduates fully qualified welders, locksmiths, metal workers, electricians or brick-layers, all trades for which there is ample employment in the Ruhr.

Bochum Langendreer takes persons from other Vollzug-sanstalten, even long timers, for the last part of their sentence and for as long as is needed to learn the trade which, according to the trade involved, is from eight to eighteen months. Everybody transferred must go through the six weeks assessment process at Hagan, but the decision to send a prisoner to Bochum Langendreer can be reversed by any one of three authorities. First, the Governor can refuse the man on security grounds; second, the Civil Labour Office (the more or less equivalent of Canada Manpower) because they are not satisfied the man has employable characteristics; and third, the relevant Trade Association (these are tied into the German Trade Union) because they feel the individual lacks the ability to learn the trade.

All the actual trade training is carried out by instructors employed by the respective Trade Associations, and the certificate awarded bears the name of the general training district in which the prison is situated so that there is no indication that the training was taken in prison. The training facilities and equipment are first rate and, in fact, trainees from outside the prison come into it to take their examination because of the superiority of the facilities.

Because there is a shortage of training places only well motivated prisoners are accepted, and individuals convicted of violent or sex offences, or those considered Sicherungsverwahrung (dangerous offenders and in need of special safe keeping) would

not stand a chance of acceptance.

I was impressed by the appearance of this prison, the way it was administered and the calibre of the staff. The emphasis was very much on work as being THE therapeutic tool and I thought they were a bit light on what we would consider socialization aspects of program. While the living accommodation was quite acceptable, the active and inactive recreation opportunities left something to be desired. The kitchen (as indeed all parts of all the prisons visited were absolutely spotless), but the food was very poor because only 2.70 DM is permitted each day to feed an inmate.

Several official practices applied without variation throughout the entire system could, I felt, be improved. Visiting is limited to one hour every two weeks (it was thirty minutes until recently) and Canteen privileges are limited to once every two weeks. The payment of prisoners in training for the amount of work done is low. They can make up to about 80 DM a month (approximately \$31.00) providing they put in a full eight hours in the shops, plus the necessary amount of study at night, and this sum is reduced if reports are poor. The only money a prisoner may spend in the Canteen is what he earns and if he does not work then he has nothing to spend, and money deposited by family or friends may only be used to purchase such items as writing paper, stamps and books. It may not be used for the purchase of cigarettes, chocolate bars, soft drinks and

the like. Furthermore, visitors may not give parcels containing such items of food to prisoners. By our standards this may seem a little harsh, but if you want to train a person that if they want the pleasures of this life then they have got to work for them, then they have got to work for them, then the system has its merits.

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The next Vollzugsanstalt visited was at Castrop Rauxel. This is a completely open prison for four hundred and seventy persons which has been in operation since 1969. Before that it was a training school for coal miners and apart from normal renovations nothing since has been done to change its appearance. This prison is for persons receiving vocational training, but all the training is received off the property at regular community centres.

This facility is an enormous campus with the inmates being housed in ten separate buildings, but using the extensive joint dining and recreation facilities. There are different degrees of autonomy enjoyed by the inmates of the different houses, and there was really quite a feeling that this facility is ten partially separate institutions instead of one massive prison for almost five hundred persons.

As at Bochum Langendreer, the staff-inmate ratio is 1:3 and there is only one non-uniformed officer in charge of each

house. Apart from the administrative staff, all the other officers are uniformed. Again, the emphasis is almost exclusively on vocational training and work, with comparatively little time spent on counselling. Although officials to whom I spoke were very well aware of the difference to be made between resocialization per se and work training, it was felt that the latter tended to take care of the former and it is only in their "social-therapeutic centres" at Gelsenkirchen and Düren that extensive counselling and psychologically oriented therapy is utilized.

The program at Castrop Rauxel is beset with all the problems of open institutions with which we are only too familiar, and about fifteen percent of the inmates have to be returned to security prisons. Everybody in the NRW prison system felt this institution to be very progressive and in theory so it is. I could not help feeling, however, that better and, probably, more economical results could be achieved by a number of decentralized, smaller institutions. In saying this, however, I do not wish to downplay what is unquestionably a program that takes a very large number of persons out of the security prisons and places them into full time trade and professional training at the wide variety of opportunities offered in the area, a program that would on the surface appear to work satisfactorily for about eighty-five percent of the candidates selected.

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The Justizvollzugsanstalt at Hagan is a veritable fortress of a place in the tradition of the old style prison. Because it is felt to be unsuitable to have a prisoner spend a long period of time there it has been turned into a joint Remand and Assessment Centre. It is one of two such facilities in NRW (the other is at Duisberg) and normally accommodates three hundred and forty persons.

The Governor and his staff to whom I spoke were highly motivated and certainly possessed a higher degree of various specializations in the social sciences than I found at any of the other prisons visited. On the other hand I felt we were far ahead in our diagnostic/assessment techniques and knowledge.

One thing I did like was their classification designations. Rather than employ the obscurant and diverse terms that have become associated with Criminal Typology in North America, they use three easily understood categories: (1) Higher Recurrence Risk/Higher Criminal Inclination, (2) Lower Recurrence Risk/Lower Criminal Inclination, (3) No Criminal Inclination.

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The Vollzugsanstalt at Schwerte is only five years old. It is situated in the midst of outstandingly beautiful countryside, about fifteen kilometres from the nearest town.

Interestingly enough, it was designed as a Remand Centre but it was found to be unsuitable for this purpose as they found it very difficult to transport Remand prisoners continually between Schwerte and the court it served. It was, consequently, redesigned as a "closed" prison for males.

The institution had a very pleasing appearance for a prison, particularly in view of the remodelling that had been necessary. There were several particularly good design features and security, although high, was not obvious at every turn.

The individual cells are most decent, large by our standards and better furnished, and there is a fair amount of leniency as to what personal possessions a prisoner can have in his cell. There are no barred doors so the cells have a greater degree of privacy, but once a man is in his cell (which is the case for about half the day) he is very much cut off from social activity so that apart from the hours that he is working and the couple of hours a day recreation (in all prisons, except the "open" ones, prisoners eat in their cells) I gathered the impression that the sense of isolation must be rather strong.

All the inmates either worked at, or were being trained in, one of the several industries (metal work, laundry, farm implements, electronics) or were in upgrading classes preparatory to taking one of the vocational training

courses. The training and degree of work production appeared to be of a high calibre.

I felt that more could have been accomplished with this more than adequate building, its full variety of living and recreation accommodations and its very well equipped industries. It was hard to fault what was actually being done, it just seemed that in addition it would also have been possible to have used the facilities and daily prison routine more widely for purposes of social training and personality development.

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The Justizvollzugsanstalt at Iserlohn is for male prisoners fourteen to seventeen years of age and, despite the age of the inmates, it is a prison in every sense of the word. It is only about six years old and accommodates some three hundred persons.

The German prison system is divided, on the basis of age, into three groups: 14-17, 18-22, and 23 plus. Under fourteen years of age, an offender is handled by the Child Welfare Authorities and can be sent to an Approved School. However, a child with a long enough sentence can start off at an Approved School and be transferred through the three levels of prisons as he becomes of age to be moved. In actual fact, I gather this type of movement is quite rare but it is not unknown.

Iserlohn, dealing with the fourteen to seventeen age group, is governed by identical rules and regulations as apply to institutions for older offenders. My impression was that the discipline at this institution required to be more severely enforced than at any of the other prisons visited. There was greater use of isolation cells than seen anywhere else. The "hole" is spacious and light, but it has only a thin mattress and a toilet which is an aperture in the floor that can be flushed from outside the cell. The maximum stay permitted there is seventy-two hours, after which the prisoner can be transferred to a more "normal" type of isolation cell and be held there for a further fourteen days. For those throwing tantrums, padded cells are available.

As in the other prisons visited, the normal cells were quite adequate and there was a reasonable amount of recreation space. The institution did, however, show rather excessive signs of wear and tear for a new building.

The prison routine for the security group is harsh. Up at 6:00 a.m. (including Saturdays and Sundays), breakfast served in the cell, work until lunch time, return to the cell for lunch, outside into the exercise yard to march around for an hour in a circle, start the afternoon's work, back to the cell for dinner and then, if well behaved, a couple of hours television or recreation and then back to the cell and lights out at 10:00 p.m.

For the non-security groups the routine is more lenient, and there are two other levels of living space and life styles which are still strict by our standards but they are more geared to the needs of the very young prisoner. However, strictness is the order of the day, and the top security section is readily available for anybody who thinks they can take advantage of the situation.

The prison provides a good academic training program for those that need it, and an excellent choice of carpentry, brick-laying, metal work, machinist, electrician and radio-television courses are offered. As in the other prisons, the training programs were jointly sponsored by the Justice Ministry, Civil Labour Office and the respective Trade Association with the outside standards being met and the same certification being awarded as to trainees on the street.

The Governor of Iserlohn is a Regierungsdirektorin (one of two running prisons for young males). She has a warm personality, but she is also a stern disciplinarian. In fact, she is felt by some of her male security staff to be too strict, but she expresses genuine concern for the welfare of her young charges and she expects her staff to have an equal concern.

I must say I left this institution with a great degree of ambivalence. Perhaps rigid discipline, stern punishment,

a day crammed with hard physical or mental activity, and a practical trade that can be applied on release is what the young offender needs. If so, he gets it at Iserlohn. Whether the truth lies with this system or our own comparatively permissive one the failure rate at Iserlohn with the young offender is about the same as ours, eighty percent.

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I visited the Staff Training Schools at both Remscheid Lüttringhausen and at Wuppertal. I was impressed by the dedication of the training staff and their realistic efforts to train officers for the prison service. Even a temperature that day of 102 degrees could not diminish their enthusiasm.

When staff are first hired, they start work at the prison and work on the job with an experienced officer who is responsible to provide the basic orientation. This goes on for about six months after which the new recruit is sent to one of the two Staff Training Schools in NRW. Here he remains for three months, living during this period at the School and engaging in an intensive academic course. Following this period, he returns to the prison, returning to the Training School again about nine months later for a further period of five months. This system exposes the officer to a total of eight months intensive "living-in" training, and by the end of 1977 it is intended to extend

this total period to ten months. During the whole time the new officer is learning on-the-job at the prison and at the Training School, there is an Education Officer at the Institution who liaises with the Training School and assists in the officer's development.

The Curriculum deals with:

Regulations and Laws with Respect to Prisons	-	30%
Prison Practices	-	10%
Psychology)	
Theories of Education)	
Criminology)	
Social Welfare)	- 30%
Political Science)	
Constitutional History)	
Criminal Law)	
Civil Service Laws and Regulations)	- 25%
Sport, Self-Defence and Small Arms	-	5%

Men and women officers are given the same training under identical conditions, and there are usually about two hundred and fifty persons in training at any one time.

There is no problem hiring prison staff because it is a Civil Service position with job security. At any time, working for the Civil Service in Germany is considered highly desirable, but with the present rate of inflation it is considered particularly advantageous. At the moment, a trained prison officer makes about 1900-2000 DM a month (\$741.00 - \$781.00), but this amount varies as a person's

salary depends upon whether he is single, married and his number of dependents. The general wage outside of the Civil Service is about 1700 DM a month, but with no variation for family situation. Another benefit available in the prison service is that housing at a reduced cost is available in many cases.

When openings in the prison service are advertised, about two thousand applications may be received. Of this number, only six hundred persons are likely to be selected for the two day written and oral examination, and out of this number somewhere around one hundred and fifty candidates will be successful.

From this it can be gathered that the staffing and training situation in Germany is very different from Canada. Furthermore, in Germany there is a tradition that once a man selects a career he is expected to stay with it right through to retirement. Selection and training, therefore, can be geared to this expectation.

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The Germans seem to have made considerable strides in their prison system in the last few years. They have extensive plans for the future and with their organizational ability, high productivity and present wealth we may very well expect to see them developing some leadership in this field in the future. The direction they take may not be that which has

tended to be taken in other countries in recent decades but it may be a direction that fits more appropriately the current and emerging world situation.

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THE SIXTH INTER-NATIONAL INSTITUTE ON THE PREVENTION
AND TREATMENT OF DRUG DEPENDENCE

This Institute was held in Hamburg but it was not so successful as I had hoped. The reason for this, to some extent, may have resulted from the problem of communicating in three languages, particularly with no simultaneous translation in the workshops, but I am more inclined to think it followed more from the substance of the papers which in many cases tended to be pedantic, with the level of the discussion some fifteen years out of date.

The sponsors of the Conference, the ICAA (International Council on Alcohol and Addictions) has a history going back to 1907, but it is really only since the end of the second world war that it has speeded up its activities, and it was in 1968 that the ICAA included drugs other than alcohol among its concerns. The Council has its office in Lausanne, Switzerland, and publishes, in addition to its other activities, a quarterly newsletter on alcoholism and drug dependence.

Two papers I thought to be of particular interest were given by Dr. A. T. Winckler, Department of Social Welfare and Pensions, Pretoria, Republic of South Africa, and Dr. Nils Bejerot, Assistant Professor, Department of Social Medicine, Karolinska Institute, Stockholm, Sweden. Normally one thinks of South Africa and Sweden as being rather at opposite poles when it comes to social legislation and its

enforcement, but interestingly enough both presentations came up with the conclusion that tough legislation, vigorously enforced, and strictly administered does cut down on illicit drug taking.

Dr. Winckler in his paper advised that in 1971 South Africa, following a committee of enquiry, passed the Abuse of Dependence-Producing Substances and Rehabilitation Centres Act. This legislation is the blue-print for South Africa's approach to drug and alcohol problems because it encompasses Prevention, Planning and Co-ordination, Treatment and Aftercare. Under the Act, heavy penalties are prescribed for dealing in certain drugs as well as for the illegal possession of these drugs which, for this purpose, have been divided into three categories:

- I. Prohibited drugs (e.g. amphetamines, cannabis - called "dagga" in South Africa - and LSD),
- II. Dangerous drugs (e.g. morphine and opium), and
- III. Potentially dangerous drugs (e.g. barbiturates).

For dealing in prohibited and dangerous drugs (categories I and II), the sentence is 5 to 15 years imprisonment in the case of a first conviction, and 10 to 25 years in the case of a second conviction. For dealing in potentially dangerous drugs (category III) the penalty is imprisonment not exceeding 10 years - a minimum sentence has not been prescribed. For

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possession of these drugs the corresponding penalties are 2 to 10 years, 5 to 15 years and 5 years imprisonment.

In cases of both using or possession of drugs, there is ample provision to withdraw charges against persons who are found to be drug dependants or for converting trials into enquiries with a view to committal to treatment centres.

Dr. Winckler stated that these stringent measures have resulted in an appreciable reduction in the abuse and availability of dagga and that the legislation came in time to prevent South Africa from following in the wake of the tide of drug abuse which, at the time, swept over many countries. He quoted statistics showing the trend over the three years 1970/71 (just before the new legislation came into force) to 1973/74, a period over which there was increased police activity as far as law enforcement was concerned:

- a) A decline of 46.4% in prosecutions connected with dagga, from 40,935 to 21,924 per annum,
 - b) a decline of 88% in the amount of dagga confiscated by the police, from 4,218,215 metric tons to 506,995 metric tons,
 - c) a decline of 25.8% in prosecutions connected with other drugs than dagga, from 248 to 184 per annum, and
 - d) a decline in the number of drug dependants admitted to treatment centre (no actual data quoted).
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In addition to the stringent legislation and the tough enforcement, there has also been developed a Drug Education program, and the National Advisory Board on Drugs has initiated research projects, established the South African Narcotics Bureau in the S.A. Police Department, co-ordinated the efforts of diverse but related Government Departments and established a clearing house for information. Provision has also been made for the establishment of rehabilitation and treatment centres, both State and privately run, and drug dependants who are unwilling to go for treatment can be committed to a State or private rehabilitation centre after an in camera enquiry by a magistrate. It is compulsory for the magistrate to call for a report by a social worker, usually supplemented by medical, psychiatric and psychological reports. No doubt these treatment factors are also to some extent responsible for the decline in drug statistics.

Dr. Nils Bejerot, who is a psychiatrist, conducted a very spirited and lengthy session aimed upon his research in Sweden. His point was that a strong legal approach does cut out addiction and he started way back in history to prove his point, commencing with the application of the Mosaic Law and the methods later used by Mohammed to eliminate alcoholism amongst his followers. Coming up to more modern times, he dealt with the Chinese epidemic of opium smoking and how it was overcome by firm measures following the Communist revolution, and the wiping out by

sternly enforced legislation of the very high incidence of Amphetamine addiction in Japan following the second World War. The belief that legislation does not work, said Dr. Bejerot, is not so, but it means giving up some individual freedoms, but they cannot be "one tempo too late or one size too small".

In Sweden an experimental situation in regard to drug policy appeared during the five year period, 1965 to 1970. There were a series of changes in legislation and attitudes in regard to drugs along a permissive-restrict scale, and changes in prevalence of drug abuse during this period could be followed in a study of injection marks on the arms of arrestees.

During 1965-70 the arms of all arrestees (about 45,500) in Stockholm were examined for injection marks by Dr. Bejerot or his staff. At the commencement of the period there was a sharp change in the traditional restrictive Swedish drug policy to a period of drug liberalism, with the prescribing of drugs to addicts for intravenous self-administration. This was accompanied by a permissive attitude to addiction in the mass media. During this period, the percentage of arrestees with signs of intravenous drug abuse increased from 18.5% of male arrestees in the spring of 1965 to 35.3% in the spring of 1967. In the youngest age group (15-19) there was an explosive increase, from 3.5% to 27.7% among males, and from 18.8% to 52.1% among females.

This period of liberal drug policy was followed by a return to the traditional restrictive policy, and the increase in the signs of I.V. abuse among arrestees abated. In the spring of 1968, 38.3% of male arrestees were abusing drugs. In 1969, an extra-restrictive policy was introduced with a great increase in the number of police detailed to work in the drug squad, and with increased penalties for drug offences. Signs of drug abuse no longer increased in the arrestee population, and the rates even began to fall.

It was not only among arrestees that a decrease of drug abuse was observed. In the prisons there was an estimated 9% abusers in 1966, 20% in 1968, 24% in 1969, but 22% in 1970. This, Dr. Bejerot concludes, indicates that a restrictive drug policy did not result in prisons being filled with drug abusers, as is often stated in debate, but that drug abuse actually diminished among delinquents. These results, he stated, are in line with experience in other countries, for example Britain where there was a doubling of the number of addicts every 16th month during a liberal period of drug policy from 1959 to 1968.

The Judges in Sweden came in for some strong criticism for failing to enforce adequately the Law. "You can't return addicts to the streets the way the Judges are now doing" said Dr. Bejerot. "Society can only afford a

permissive drug policy as long as it is not afflicted by a massive drug problem". With respect to putting addicts on probation or parole, he stated unequivocally that they required a knife over their head, they must be subject to urinalysis at any time, without notice, and if necessary immediately returned to prison.

A final comment by Dr. Bejerot was that it has, "Never been demonstrated that voluntary treatment of addicts has greatly affected the prevalence of drug abuse anywhere".

The Netherlands, at the moment, has the reputation of being the most progressive country in the world with respect to its criminal justice system and I was, therefore, prepared to be impressed, but I was more impressed than had been anticipated.

Initially, I visited with various persons at the Ministry of Justice who are concerned with the operation of the prison system and received from them a rundown on the philosophy, practice and procedures of the department. When I moved out into the field, I found that my hosts had in no way exaggerated what they claimed to do and I found an identical attitude on the part of most of the staff. When later in the week I visited with the Secretary of the Rehabilitation Council of Amsterdam, the organization responsible for all private agencies and probation, again I was treated to a very practical, straightforward and humane appraisal of their system of dealing with people who have offended against the law. (Appendix N)

I had the opportunity to visit a number of different types of prisons in Holland, from their youth remand prison "De Sprang" to the maximum security institution "Schutterswei" at Alkmaar in the north of the country. The most incredible thing that first hits you about the Dutch system is the extremely short length of sentences that are handed down by the judiciary. A long sentence is considered six months and over, and a sentence between three and six months is

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considered to be quite severe. Only about 2.5 percent of the total prison population receives sentences of one year and more, and at the time I was there last February only five persons incarcerated in the country are serving sentences of ten years or over.

The court system in The Netherlands is arranged in such a manner that the country is divided into nineteen districts, each with its own court and with its own public prosecutor and its own probation board. Beneath these are sixty-two Canton courts dealing with very minor offences, including eighty percent of the traffic offences committed in the country. Also, many small civil cases are also tried in these Canton courts. There are five Courts of Appeal and one Supreme Court which sits in The Hague. There is no jury system in Holland and there has not been one for many hundreds of years. District court judges sit in threes when dealing with serious offences, though the juvenile judge can sit alone. There is also a police judge for minor offences who can also adjudicate by himself and one civil judge attached to each district court.

Judges are not appointed as in Canada but apply for the office. Only about twelve percent of those who apply are found to be suitable candidates to be trained as judges, the basis of selection being academic qualifications as a lawyer, a battery of psychological tests to determine whether

the individual is sufficiently stable to hold the office, and extensive written and oral examinations geared to ensure that the candidate has the potential ability to be a judge over the affairs of men. A final decision as to the suitability of the candidate to be trained as a judge is made by a group of senior judges.

The individual, having been selected, is then exposed to a course of training for six years. He is expected to acquire a Doctorate of Laws, receive specific training in the practice of being a judge and then to serve for two years in the governor-grade in prisons, in rehabilitation societies, in the police, and/or the Public Prosecutor's office. In this way the potential judges are brought very closely into contact with offenders for a third of the six years of their training. After all this, a selection is made after careful vetting by the Ministry of Justice and appointments are made by the Queen for life, or at least until the individual is seventy years of age. There is no doubt in my mind that the training of judges has a great deal to do with the very different attitude towards sentencing found in Holland as compared with the United Kingdom, Canada and the United States of America.

Another factor that is quite commonly reputed to result in short sentences is the German occupation of Holland when many of the present day politicians, judges and other public figures in the community were imprisoned as political prisoners in the prisons in which they now have the choice of sending

common criminals. This experience I am sure has a very sobering effect upon the decisions that are made and understandably will make a judge far less glib in casually handing down lengthy sentences.

Judges are, however, becoming much tougher. At one time they could afford to impose shorter sentences but professionally organized crime and violent offences are increasing in Holland as elsewhere, and people including judges are asking whether the system of short sentences has not failed. The Netherlands, and Amsterdam in particular, is becoming the "Common Market" centre for criminals. With such a lenient attitude towards crime, it pays nationals of other countries to go to Holland to rob banks, to murder their wife, to smuggle drugs, or to engage in any particular type of criminal activity that takes their fancy because if caught the consequences are less compared with those found in their own country. For example, I interviewed a Canadian citizen from Montreal who was serving eighteen months in Amsterdam for his part in smuggling heroin. His partner at the Canadian end of the business got eleven years and the young man to whom I spoke felt that the Dutch system of justice was indeed quite fair. All things considered, I felt his reaction to be an understandable one.

The effect of this leniency in Holland is providing a problem for the Dutch in that fifty percent of all persons serving long sentences (six months and over) are foreigners

and the Dutch people are understandably reacting quite strongly to a system of administered law that encourages large numbers of foreign criminals to take up residence in Holland. Particularly, as the daily cost for each inmate varies depending upon the prison from a high of four hundred guilders (\$165.00) to a low of two hundred and fifty guilders (\$103.00). The difference in daily cost is largely dependent upon the staff-inmate ratio which varies from one and a half staff to one inmate down to a minimum of one staff to one inmate.

A person's mental state at the time a crime is committed is taken into consideration at the time of trial and with a pre-sentence report plus psychiatric and psychological assessments, a judge may if necessary detain a person at the Government's Pleasure (Appendix O). In this case after a custodial sentence (not always necessary), a person enters a clinic for treatment. There are five private and two state institutions for criminals who are considered by the courts to be not at all or only partially responsible for their crimes. This system is an extension of the Canadian principle of holding a person at the Pleasure of the Lieutenant-Governor because he was considered by the court at the time the crime was committed not to have been responsible for his actions. This category of prisoners in Holland is extended to deal with the groups that we would normally refer to as psychopaths, alcoholics, drug

addicts and sexual deviants. A whole range of treatment techniques are used, but by and large the prevailing modality is one of milieu therapy. No statistics seem to be available as to the success of treatment, however the people administering the program felt it was a far more humane and effective method of dealing with this group of individuals. My own suspicion is that cures may be few but, at least, while in treatment the conditions are better controlled and in some cases partially alleviated.

Diversion in Holland takes place where it ought to, at the police and public prosecutor level. Of those arrested at least fifty percent are never tried in a court, having been released either by the police or public prosecutor on the grounds that to proceed would not be in the interest of Justice. Although the Dutch have a probation system which is a very good one and use suspended sentences, fines and other options to incarceration familiar in the United Kingdom and North America, I understand that they use them on a somewhat restricted scale by comparison. The reason for this would appear to lie in the fact that they divert earlier in the justice sequence than is customary in Canada. Speaking of diversion, interestingly enough the Netherlands Supreme Court has ruled as ultra vires the use of the Community Service Order type sentence. This decision was something of a shock to many people and efforts are now being made to reintroduce this question

into the courts and to request a further consideration of its legality.

By law all time spent on remand must be ultimately deducted from any sentence handed down by the court. As the court's sentence may be less than the period of time on remand, a surprising number of prisoners in Holland are in remand institutions rather than in prisons for sentenced individuals. At the moment some 3,500 people are in custody each day in Holland with about another 1,000 to 1,200 waiting to be called to serve their sentence. This is certainly a very different system whereby a person is given a sentence and then sent home and told when there is a cell available he will be called. This may be considered by some people a rather inspired way of doing things, but in actual fact it creates some rather intolerable hardships. Some people have waited eighteen months to two years to be called to serve their prison sentence during which time the punishment to be served hangs heavily over their head.

One of the interesting things that seems to emerge from the statistics is that somewhere in the vicinity of twenty-five persons per hundred thousand of the population are in prison in The Netherlands. This is infinitely less than any other country and probably about a third or a quarter of the ratio of persons incarcerated in Canada.

On the other hand, the length of sentences is so short in Holland, by comparison with those handed down in Canada, that it would appear that at least as many (if not more) people are passing through the system per capita in The Netherlands as in Canada. This indicates that short sentences do nothing to decrease the recidivism rate, and that it is the same people who continue to come back time and time again into the Dutch prison system.

With the exception of "De Sprang" which was built by the Germans as a concentration camp during the second World War, all of the prisons visited were old buildings many of them going back to the 1840's-1850's. On to these facilities have been added up to date, modern looking administration areas and workshops. Because the population, even in the larger facilities, rarely exceeds a hundred there was no sense of hustle and bustle although prisoners moved freely about the building visiting in each other's cells, using the toilet facilities, going to and from their place of work and chatting with staff.

It was the very relaxed atmosphere, differing from the noise and confusion that tends to be a characteristic of North American institutions and from the rather unnatural cathedral-like peace that reigns in British prisons, that was most immediately noticeable. The officers, while maintaining discipline, were obviously able to do so in such a way that those in custody felt free to talk, express their

point of view quite openly on anything and to move about without constantly looking over their shoulder to see whether staff were watching them. This liberal regime cannot be shown to be more effective in dealing with recidivists or in providing any profound treatment that brings about significant personality changes. As such it appears to fail in what has to be one of the objectives of imprisoning a person, namely to assist him to refrain from crime upon release. The system does, however, appear to be less destructive than ours or those that I have seen in Germany and the United Kingdom, and it certainly makes imprisonment more tolerable for both the staff and the inmates.

Why do the Dutch, on a proportionate basis, have so many fewer people in prison than other West European and North American countries? The answer seems to be largely due to their attitude of mind. This attitude is reflected in the views of everyone I met who is involved in the penal system. The police who only arrest those for whom they feel they have no option and even then a goodly number of persons arrested are released rather than have formal charges brought against them; the public prosecutor who brings only about half those charged with offences to trial feeling that it would not be in the interest of justice to proceed with these cases; the judges with their lower sentencing tariffs and willingness to give the person charged the benefit of the doubt whenever it is at all possible; the probation

officers who exercise in a most lenient fashion the enforcing sanctions in their probation orders; and all levels of prison staff who believe that it is demeaning both to prisoners and officers alike to operate their institutions in a harsh and punishing manner.

I learned of no new special treatment methods or sentencing alternatives. Indeed, I felt that they were rather traditional in their approaches to classification and treatment, and were operating an overall modality that has now fallen into some disrepute in North America. As far as alternatives to imprisonment are concerned, the Dutch do not seem to have as wide a range of alternatives as are to be found either in the United Kingdom or in Canada. In fact it was rather a surprise to be told on several occasions that they tended to look to Canada as being a leader in the area of providing alternatives to imprisonment. I am rather at a loss to know why they should feel this unless it is because of the constant stream of Canadians who go to examine the Dutch system and who express a particular interest in options to incarceration.

The Netherlanders do appear to be more tolerant and less punitive than we are and the reasons for this may be both geographic and historic. The Dutch are, and have been for several centuries, a united people living in a small, flat country. They have had, what perhaps every nation needs,

a common enemy and in this case it was the sea against which they had to carry on a constant struggle for survival. Although they have a higher density of population than any other European country, they have lived (and for the most part continue to live) in small tight-knit communities that are mercantile, sea-faring or agricultural in nature. Even today there are few large industrial centres, other than Rotterdam and Eindhoven and Amsterdam, the largest city in the Netherlands, has no more than 800,000 inhabitants. Apart from Amsterdam, I found the pace of life in the various centres visited surprisingly gentle and unhurried. The Dutch are a consciously democratic people and there is very little elitism apparent in their society. It may be this lack of master-servant relationship that has resulted in an absence of the "we-they" relationship between staff and prisoners. The staff for the most part just do not feel that they are better people than those they are charged to hold in custody.

Since the sixteenth century Holland has been a haven for religious and political refugees of all persuasions. Their universities have advocated the virtues of tolerance for hundreds of years and there is a long tradition of charitable interest and judicial reform in penal matters. The parole system, incidentally now not used, was introduced in 1886 and conditional sentencing as early as 1901. The second World War and all its horror, in the minds of many, is as yesterday and the experience of the many who were

imprisoned and the remembrance of all the other degrading experiences continues to make them aware of the futility of harsh treatment.

There is now, however, a generation who did not know Hitler. The effects of organized crime, vast numbers of foreign criminals using The Netherlands as a haven, and the development of Amsterdam as a centre for illicit drug distribution is starting to have a profound effect upon many of the previously held attitudes. Systems and practices are now being questioned by the majority of citizens who hear from chiefs of police, through the media and from other sources, of Holland's increasing incidence of crime.

Long established tendencies towards tolerance and good judgment have thus far prevented any great change in the Dutch penal system, a notable exception being to increase significantly the sentences for those trafficking in hard drugs. It is hard to gauge what further, future effects may be and hopefully the Dutch habit of not over-reacting to situations will result in a calm and balanced approach. It is not unreasonable, however, to suggest that reform in Holland has gone as far as it is likely to go, and that what will be seen in the next few years will be a slow hardening of the system.

ADDENDUM I

In A.D.533 the Emperor Justinian in his Digest referred to a principle, coined by the Roman jurist Ulpian in the reign of Caracalla (A.D.211-17). In this particular context, Ulpian was dealing with the duties of provincial governors and is reputed, by Justinian, to have stated that "Presidents" (usually sentenced people to be held in prison or to be fettered) is illegal since such forms of punishment have been prohibited. To this principle Justinian added: Carcer ad continendos homines, non ad puniendos haberi debet. (Prison ought to be used for detention only, not for punishment.) By referring to this principle in his Digest¹, the Emperor had, in fact, enacted it as imperial law. Imprisonment, therefore, was not unheard of in the Roman Empire, but it was apparently illegal as a punishment under Roman Law, as it was later under Civil Law.

This ambiguity between administration practice and legal doctrine prevailed throughout the Middle Ages and Canon Law tried to reconcile the Ulpian principle with a growing practice of confining members of the clergy as a measure of penitential discipline. Boniface VIII (1294-1303) stated:

Quamvis ad reorum custodiam, non ad poenam carcer specialiter deputatus esse noscatur, nos tamen non improbamus, si subiectos tibi clericos confessos de criminibus seu convictos in perpetuum vel ad tempus, prout videris expedire, carceri mancipis ad poenitentiam peragendum.

¹Dig.48.19.8.9

(Although it is evident that the use of prison is authorized for the prisoner's custody and not for punishment, we have no objection if you send members of the clergy who are under your discipline, after a confession of crimes or a conviction, either for life or for a certain term, according to your discretion, to prison for the performance of penitence.)

This sounds a bit unfair on the clergy, but when you remember that the alternative for the common clay was to lose their head then there was something to be said for the "benefit of clergy". If you were an ecclesiastic, that is.

The Civil Law adopted the Ulpian principle without further comment and many Italian statutes repeated the formula of Ferrara: Carcer est inventus ad custodiam, non ad poenam (Prison has been 'invented' for custody, not for punishment).

Bracton, writing between 1250 and 1258 on English laws and customs, referred to prisons as places where men waited to be liberated or sentenced by judicial decision.² England, however, made more use of imprisonment as a punishment than those medieval countries which followed the Civil Law. It is not known when imprisonment originally became, by Common Law, a statutory punishment but an Act passed in the reign of Henry V laid down that "None should be imprisoned but in the common goal."

²De legibus et consuetudinibus Angliae, Lib.III, c.9 [ed. Woodbine, 1922], II, 346.

In the time of Edward VI and Elizabeth I another place of imprisonment was established, the House of Correction, and James I directed that in every county such a House should be established for setting "Rogues, vagabonds and idle persons" to work. The custom, it would appear, then gradually developed of committing all classes of offenders to these houses of correction, which custom was given statutory sanction by an Act passed in 1719. Gaols were under the jurisdiction of the Sheriff and the houses of correction under Justices. People imprisoned for debt could be committed only to a gaol, while vagabonds could be committed only to a house of correction. During the 18th century the two establishments tended to be united under one roof and in 1823 this practice was recognized by law, and the title "House of Correction" was abolished by the Prison Act in 1868.

Besides the power to imprison offenders in gaols or houses of correction, Judges were given the power of sentencing them to be transported "Into any of His Majesty's Dominions in North America" by an Act passed in 1666 during the reign of Charles II. Transportation to North America ceased with the American War of Independence, but from 1787 convicts were transported to New South Wales and Tasmania. In 1846 the Australian Colonies refused to accept any more convicts and from then on the number transported declined until it finally ceased in 1867.

Old sailing ships, known as the "hulks", had for some time been used for detaining prisoners awaiting transportation and as transportation declined, the hulks came to be used as prisons. At the same time, a system of prisons under the direct responsibility of the Home Secretary was being developed. This started with the construction of two Penitentiaries, the first at Millbank was completed in 1821, and the second at Pentonville was built in 1842.

By the Penal Servitude Acts of 1853 and 1857 imprisonment with hard labour was substituted for transportation, and the hulks ceased to be used about 1857/1860. Penal Servitude might be for life or for any period not less than three years, and this legislation remained in force until it was abolished by Section 1 of the Criminal Justice Act passed in 1948.

Up to the beginning of the 19th century, prisoners were dealt with most harshly. The administration of prisons depended entirely on the gaoler who had the right of claiming certain fees from prisoners for their maintenance. This led to obvious abuse and corruption. The prison diet was wretched, most prisoners being dependent on the charity of relatives and friends. They wore their own clothes which all too often quickly became ragged and filthy, and there was hardly even the pretence of maintaining clean and sanitary conditions. All prisoners, whether convicted or unconvicted, were herded together without separate provision for women or children.

Gaols were usually unheated and unfurnished, and provision for attending to the sick was non-existent. Public attention was at last drawn to the terrible conditions by the outbreaks of gaol fever.

Towards the end of the 18th century, movements for prison reform grew up in a number of countries and the work of John Howard must be numbered as amongst the most famous. In 1777 he published a work called The State of Prisons in England and Wales and this was followed in 1789 by a report on prison conditions in Europe. Howard has had a deep influence on prison reform, although the immediate practical results of his efforts were small. While two Acts, aimed at improving conditions, were passed as a result of his evidence to the House of Commons, their terms were at first observed in only a few gaols. Nevertheless, gaol fever at least was almost entirely eradicated.

The temporary suspension of transportation, owing to the American War of Independence, led to the Penitentiary Act, 1779, which was the first recognition of the possibilities of imprisonment for rehabilitation as well as punishment. It envisaged solitary confinement, well-regulated labour (such as the treadwheel); and religious instruction as the means of reforming the offender as well as of deterring others.

In 1823, as part of his great reforms which included greatly reducing the number of offences carrying the death

penalty, Robert Peel, the Home Secretary, introduced the Gaol Act. This Act consolidated the law on prisons. It increased the responsibilities of the Justices, who now had to submit quarterly reports to the Home Secretary on the prisons for which they were responsible; instituted fixed salaries for gaolers; provided for adequate food and clothing for prisoners; and laid down standards of space, clean linen, order and discipline. It did not, however, provide for any central administration and it applied only to county gaols.

Peel's Act was a move away from the idea of solitary confinement. Prisoners were classified into different groups (debtors, unconvicted persons, persons convicted of felonies and those convicted of misdemeanours) and were allowed to associate with other prisoners in their category. A further Act in 1831, however, saw a reversion to a modified form of solitary confinement known as "separate confinement". This was in order to prevent contamination of an individual by other criminals. The prison at Pentonville, inspired by experiments in prison building in America, embodied this principle by having separate cells. It was the model for a series of new prisons, some of which, like Pentonville, are still in use. Around this time, European penologists were very much taken with the Pennsylvanian cellular prisons, but Charles Dickens, while admitting the honest and good intentions of the Friends of Philadelphia, concluded succinctly

"But they do not know what it is they are doing".³

In 1835 the Home Secretary was empowered to appoint prison inspectors and rules framed by local Justices for prisons had to be subject to his approval. Under the Prison Act, 1865, prisons still remained under the control of the local Justices, but every prison authority was required to provide separate cells for each different class of prisoners. The Prison Act, 1877, transferred the whole of the prison establishments to the Government in the person of the Home Secretary. A body of Commissioners of Prisons was appointed by Royal Warrant with Sir Edmund Du Cane as its first Chairman.

Du Cane was a stern disciplinarian and under him a system of progressive stages of hard labour was introduced. It started with extremely unpleasant work, such as the treadmill, intended purely as a deterrent, and conditions of silence and separate confinement. This was followed by stages of increasingly useful and less unpleasant work in better conditions.

The harshness of Du Cane's system began to attract public attention in the early 1890's, and in 1894 Asquith, then Home Secretary, set up a committee under the chairmanship of Herbert Gladstone (who was an Under-Secretary at the Home Office). The committee reported in 1895 and marked a

³American Notes, Nelson, 1925, vii. 105-21

turning point in penal policy in England. While paying tribute to the administrative improvements, it made fundamental criticisms of the Du Cane regime, accusing it of inflexibility in dealing with prisoners which it too easily gave up as hopeless and worthless. Tolerance, and improved accommodation and working conditions were advocated, both on humanitarian and on practical grounds. It considered individual treatment with the provision of after-care and, in particular, special treatment for young offenders as the key to crime prevention. The immediate effect of the report of the Gladstone Committee was the Prison Act, 1898, and the appointment of Sir Evelyn Ruggles-Brise to succeed Du Cane as Chairman of the Committee, in so far as this was practicable.

The 1898 Act introduced the classification of prisons into three divisions so that appropriate treatment could be given according to the nature of the offence and the character of the offender. The old forms of hard labour were abolished. The Act also reduced the use of corporal punishment in prisons.

During the 19th century strenuous efforts were made by reformers to improve the treatment of young offenders. The Reformatory School Act, 1854, established the principle that at least up to the age of sixteen years, young persons should be dealt with other than by prison or transportation. The system of setting aside a portion of the prisons was tried

out and this led to the institution of the Borstal System under the Borstal Act in 1908. This was one of Ruggles-Brise's many contributions to the penal system. Under the Children's Act of 1908, the penal system of the United Kingdom was revolutionised as far as young persons under the age of sixteen years were concerned and, amongst other things, Juvenile Courts were established. The turn of the century also saw the start of the decline of imprisonment as the principal means of punishment. Probation was first introduced and the conditions for the payment of fines were eased so that fewer people were committed to prison in default of payment. Measures were also taken around this time to exclude mentally disabled persons from prison.

APPENDICES

"A" to "O"

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- B1 Police and Public, Procedure for Making a Complaint Against the Police
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- B3 Home Office Circular No. 21/1967, Police Discipline Regulations
- C1 Devon and Cornwall Constabulary, 1975 Annual Report
- C2 Viewpoint, Number Four, June 1976, Chief Constable's Office
- D1 H.M. Prison Service, Officers Training School, Wakefield, Initial Training Course for Prison Officers, Programme and Notes for Guidance
- D2 H.M. Prison Service, Staff College, Wakefield, 3rd Generic Induction Course 1 - 5 March 1976
- D3 H.M. Prison Service, Officers' Training School, Aberford Road, Wakefield, Development Course 7/1976 29 March - 9 April
- D4 H.M. Prison Service, Staff College, Wakefield, 2nd Principal Officers' Development Course, 6 - 17 October 1975
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- D7 H.M. Prison Service, Staff College, Wakefield, Induction Course for Part-Time Chaplains, Roman Catholic Priests and Methodist Ministers, 18 - 21 May 1976
- D8 H.M. Prison Service, Staff College, Wakefield, Gartree Control Room Study Group, 16 - 18 March 1976
- D9 H.M. Prison Service, Staff College, Wakefield, 8th Decision Making Study Group for Governors, 16 - 19 February 1976
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- D12 H.M. Prison Service, Staff College, Wakefield,
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- D13 H.M. Prison Service, Staff College, Wakefield,
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- F3 Holloway Redevelopment, Prison Department, Home Office
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- H2 Surrey Probation and After Care Service, Report of the
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- I1 The Probation and After-Care Service in a Changing
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- J1 Non-Custodial and Semi-Custodial Penalties, Report of
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- J2 Community Service Orders, A Home Office Research Unit Report, 1975
- K1 Report of the Parole Board 1975, Home Office
- K2 Parole Your Questions Answered, Home Office, 1976
- K3 Life Licence Your Questions Answered, Home Office, 1976
- L1 Information Office National Association for the Care and Resettlement of Offenders,
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- M1 NACRO European Conference 1976, Study Projects
- M2 Involvement of the Public in the Administration of Justice, A Position for Social Policy By Prof. Dr. N.W.de Smit, Professor of Forensic Psychiatry, Faculty of Law, Free University, Amsterdam

- M3 Employment and Probation and Aftercare By John Harding, Assistant Chief Probation Officer, the County of Devon
- M4 Involvement of the Community in Education, Can Education Rehabilitate? By Richard Freeman, Educational Director of the National Extension College, Cambridge
- M5 Involvement of the Community in Housing, The Voluntary Contribution to Housing Offenders By Nigel Whiskin, NACRO Senior Organiser
- M6 The Involvement of the Community in the Administration of Justice, Study Project 3: Boards of Visitors (England) By Dr. Marjorie Jones JP
- M7 Involvement of the Community in Employment, Study Project 4: Onward Industries Workshop, Manchester, By James McKinnon, Assistant Director of NACRO
- M8 The Involvement of Members of the Community in the Treatment of Offenders, Study Project 1: The Early Aid System, By C. Heijnsdijk, member of the Dutch Probation Service
- M9 The Involvement of Members of the Community in the Treatment of Offenders, Study Project 2: Volunteers in an "Evening Activities Centre" for hostel residents, By Stuart Palmer, Assistant Chief Probation Officer, the County of South Yorkshire
- M10 The Involvement of Members of the Community in the Treatment of Offenders, Study Project 3: A pilot project in Austria using volunteers to assist men leaving prison, By Ernst Federn
- M11 Involvement of the Community as Volunteers, Study Project 4: The "Ringgard-Project" - Neighbourhood Services for Offenders in Denmark, By Hakon Nielson Presented By Hans Brydenscholt, Director of the Prison and Probation Administration, Denmark
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- M14 Involvement of the Community in Employment, Study Project 3: The Apex Specialist Employment Services for the Prisoner and Ex-Offender, By Paul Lumkin, General Administrator of the Apex Trust, London
- M15 Involvement of the Community in Employment, Study Project 5: A short description of the Gustav-Radbruch Haus in Frankfurt am-Main. An early release scheme for prisoners. By Harald Kanthack, teacher at the project
- M16 Involvement of the Community in Housing, Study Project 1: Nottinghamshire Probation Service Lodging Scheme, By John Gude, Senior Probation Officer, Nottingham Probation and After-Care Service
- M17 Involvement of the Community in Housing, Study Project 2: The Youth Hostel at Skejby, By Bodil Philip, Presented by Hans Brydensholt, Director of the Prison and Probation Administration, Denmark, and Ole Ingstrup, Governor of Jerup Prison, Denmark
- M18 Involvement of the Community in Housing, Study Project 3: The Development of the Hampshire Constellation Scheme, By Bernard Wiseman, Director of the Resettlement of Offenders Co-ordinating Committee, Hampshire, England
- M19 Involvement of the Community in Housing, Study Project 4: The Development of Residential Provision for Alcoholics, St. Anne's House for Alcoholics, Leeds, England, By Rev. Paul Healy, Director of the Project
- M20 Involvement of the Community in Housing, Study Project 5: The Therapy Project of Belgian Reception Centres. Social Characteristics of the Socially Handicapped, Institutional Objectives of Treatment and Connections between Social Order and Resocialisation Work, By Manuel-Luis Lopez, Director of the Reception Centre for the Homeless, Liège, and Administrator of the National Association of Reception Centres, Belgium.
- M21 Involvement of the Community in Education, Study Project 1: The Educational Programme of the New Careers Project at Bristol, England, By Martin Seddon, Administrator of the New Careers Project, Bristol
- M22 Involvement of the Community in Education, Study Project 2: Education and the Rehabilitation of Offenders By Michael Warden, Cambridge Education Unit
- M23 Involvement of the Community in Education, Study Project 3: Oslo Education Project, By Ingolf Frysa, Probation Officer in Oslo, Norway

- M24 Involvement of the Community in Education, Study Project 3: Education Programme for Delinquent Teenagers, By Elizabeth Robson and presented by Michael Whitlam, Director of the Hammersmith Teenage Project
- M25 Involvement of the Community in the Administration of Justice, Study Project 1: Bail Project, Camberwell, London, By George Pratt, Deputy Chief Probation Officer, and Miss Jean Barrett, Senior Probation Officer, Inner London Probation and After-Care Service
- M26 The Involvement of the Community in the Administration of Justice, Study Project 2: The Work of a Local Review Committee from an Independent Member's Viewpoint, By Michael E. Jacks, member of the Local Review Committee, Chelmsford Prison
- M27 Involvement of the Community in the Administration of Justice, Study Project 5: Le Juge de l'Application des Peines, By Gilbert Marc of the Ecole Nationale de la Magistrature, France
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