



Helsinki Hosts Third ESC Conference

By Kauko Aromaa

The European Society of Criminology will hold its third annual meeting in Helsinki, Finland on August 27-30, 2003. The theme is "Crime and Crime Control in an Integrating Europe." Kauko Aromaa of the European Institute for Crime Prevention and Control, Affiliated with the United Nations (HEUNI), and the Scandinavian Research Council for Criminology, is the conference organiser. Jerzy Sarnecki of the University of Stockholm is the chair of the programme committee.

Inside is more detailed information

about the conference, including registration fees and contact information for the programme committee.

Helsinki is a modern city with a population of over half a million. It is the capital of Finland and stands on a peninsula and several islands in the Baltic Sea. Helsinki was founded in 1550 under the Swedish regime, and became the capital in 1812, after becoming a Russian grand-duchy in 1809. When Finland gained independence in 1917, Helsinki retained its status as capital. The

University of Helsinki was founded in 1640.

The sea and islands are important components of the city centre's expression. All in all, there are 315 islands off the 98-kilometre coastline and the proximity of the sea provides a wonderful range of recreational amenities. A visit to the historical sea fortress Suomenlinna/Sveaborg, "the Gibraltar of the North", a site of UNESCO's World Cultural Heritage, is recommended.

The Helsinki region has a strong

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Prison Population Trends in Western Europe

By André Kuhn

Increases in prison populations are an important concern in many democratic countries. The undesirable effects of prison crowding are legion, including increases in corrections costs and deterioration in living and working conditions for inmates and corrections officers.

Rising crime rates are often invoked to explain increasing prison populations, but this is not the primary explanation. There is no general relationship between crime rate trends and prison populations. Independent of crime rates, an increase in the number of prisoners can result from increasing numbers of persons receiving confinement sentences or from longer sentences being imposed.

The main indicator of comparative numbers of inmates is the prisoner rate, which is obtained by relating the number of prisoners on a specific date - or as an annual average - to the number of inhabitants. Generally, this is expressed as the number of inmates per 100,000 inhabitants. It varies today from about 20 in the Faeroe Islands to about 700 in the United States of America. In Western Europe it varies between 30 (Iceland) and 130 (Portugal) and in Eastern Europe between 55 (Slovenia) and 665 (Russia) inmates per 100,000 population (Walmsley 2002).

But comparison of different countries' prisoner rates is

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Criminology in Finland

By Tapio Lappi-Seppälä

Criminology has a relatively weak position as an academic discipline in Finland, especially compared with countries such as Sweden, Germany, and the UK. The major part of Finnish criminological research has been conducted outside the universities in other agencies and institutes, first and foremost in the Institute of Criminology, established in 1963 by the ministry of justice, and its successor, the National Research Institute of Legal Policy. In this article I describe the work of the National Research Institute, discuss criminology's place in the universities, and conclude by discussing pan-Scandinavian programmes in which Finland participates.

National Research Institute of Legal Policy

In 1974 the National Research Institute was founded to carry on the work of the initial criminology institute. Its mission was expanded to encompass other fields of legal policy (<http://www.om.fi/optula/2664.htm>). It works in close co-operation with the Finnish Statistical Central Office, and other research institutes.

The institute is divided into two parts: the Criminological Unit and the General Unit. The permanent staff, including administration, totals 15. About half work on criminological research. The main areas of research have been analysis and evaluation of crime and crime

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Message from the President

The last newsletter reported the great success of the Toledo conference. For such a new organisation this is an amazing achievement and demonstrates just how much the new European Society of Criminology was needed. What it also shows is that the ESC is going to be a



Paul Wiles

permanent feature of world criminology.

The Toledo meeting benefited from being held in one of Europe's most beautiful old cities and during a period of constant sunshine. It also benefited from the kind of efficient organisation that produces a relaxed setting for discussion. Cristina Rechea Alberola and Rosemary Barberet led on organising the conference and they were supported by a group of younger colleagues from the University of Castilla-La Mancha. This is one of those occasions where a simple 'thank you' hardly seems adequate. Toledo certainly set high standards for future conferences. The next ESC conference will be in Helsinki between 27 and 30 August and my main task during the coming year will be to support Kauko Aromaa, Britta Kyvsgaard, Jerzy Sarnecki, Paul Larsson, and their colleagues in planning that conference.

Another 'thank you' that is even more difficult is to Josine Junger-Tas who stepped down as President of the ESC at the end of the Toledo

conference. Josine was one of those who developed the original vision for the ESC. She chaired the group that did the planning for the new ESC and was President during the second year. Without Josine the ESC may not have existed. More than that she has steered us through the difficult teething problems that any new society goes through whilst, at the same time, ensuring that the ESC has remained firmly focused on being a home for discussing high quality criminological research. Josine remains on the board and, as your new president, I will be relying on Josine's experience in the coming year.

Having run two successful conferences, we now need to ensure that the ESC's structure is robust enough to act as a focal body for European criminologists.

We need to improve our ability to communicate with each other. We already have this newsletter, thanks to the hard work of Mike Tonry and colleagues, and it will remain an important means for providing information to ESC members. We have had websites to help organise our conferences. However, we are now developing a single ESC website that will be the permanent virtual home for the society in the future. This will be the place to find details about the next conference, but also details about past and future conferences and details of the papers that have been presented. We also want the website to develop so that it becomes an easy means for all members to communicate and exchange views about the Society and its work.

We need to ensure that the ESC is properly linked to European research initiatives. In January Josine and I had a meeting with Tung-Lai Margue, the head of research at the European Commission's Directorate of Justice and Home Affairs. He kindly provided us with a version of the Sixth Framework call for research bids that isolated those areas of interest to members of the ESC. I e-mailed this to you and I hope that some of you have been able to submit bids. I also

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European Sourcebook of Crime and Criminal Justice Statistics

By Gordon Barclay & Cynthia Tavares

The European Sourcebook of Crime and Criminal Justice Statistics was conceived in 1993, and appeared in its first and second versions in 1995 and 1999. A next edition covering 1996-2000 is underway. This article briefly explains the *Sourcebook*, its origins, and developments to date.

In 1893, a report for England and Wales recommended the annual publication of comparative international criminal justice statistics in "Criminal Statistics, England and Wales" in order to provide policy makers with relevant additional information to help them re-think current policies. Concern by academics and government statisticians about the validity of such comparisons delayed implementation of this recommendation by about 100 years! The question 'is it safe to make international comparisons?' is clearly one for the European Society of Criminology to consider and debate. With the increasing internationalisation of criminal justice, it is important for researchers to be aware both of sources of international data and how 'safe' they are.

To Date

In 1993, six criminal justice experts met in Strasbourg to discuss a proposal from the Scientific Council of the Council of Europe to collect crime and criminal justice statistics from all the Council Member States. The participants were from Switzerland (Martin Killias, Lausanne), France (Pierre Tournier, CESDIP), Sweden (Hanns von Hofer, Stockholm), the Netherlands (Max Kommer, Ministry of Justice), Finland (Kauko Aromaa, HEUNI), and the UK (Gordon Barclay, Home Office) (and subsequently expanded to include Hungary [Imre Kertesz] and Germany [Jorg-Martin Jehle, Georg-August University]). Primary discussions focussed on whether existing sources already provided this data and whether any international comparisons based on such data were valid.

The conclusion was that that it would be worthwhile to develop such data systems but only if done rigorously, commencing with a survey covering a small number of countries.

The project has continued under the chairmanship of Professor Martin Killias (Lausanne University, Switzerland) with secretarial support initially from Wolfgang Rau (Council of Europe) and more recently from Cynthia Tavares (Home Office, UK). The size of the steering committee has varied, because of the need to include experts from Eastern Europe to reflect the breadth of membership of the Council of Europe.

Funding has been a problem. The Council of Europe no longer funds the project, although the work is still carried out under its auspices. Current funding is provided by the Swiss, Dutch, and UK governments, and HEUNI. The

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The International Self-Report Delinquency Study

By Josine Junger-Tas and Denis Ribeaud

The International Self-Report Delinquency Study was a common undertaking of eleven European countries, one American state, and one area in New Zealand. Self-reported delinquency studies using many common questions and measures were administered in each jurisdiction. A first volume contained the national reports (Junger-Tas, Terlouw, and Klein 1994). A second volume including the comparative analyses of data from eleven countries is now completed and will soon be published. Two samples were excluded because their data were not sufficiently comparable. New Zealand's was a cohort study of young people aged 18 and the Greek one was a snowball sample. This article summarises major conclusions.

An overall delinquency scale was constructed from a total of 30 offences. Specific scales, such as a property scale and a serious offences scale, were also developed. Serious offences included theft of motorbikes, theft from cars, car theft, robbery, burglary, threats of extortion, beating up (family or non-family members), injuring someone with a weapon, and selling soft or hard drugs.

Participants agreed to draw random samples of youths aged 14-21 and to include both sexes. However, sampling, administration, and coding of the instrument varied in some respects, forcing us to use statistical techniques to overcome these shortcomings. To improve our understanding of country differences in social, cultural, and economic respects when conducting more complex

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Nominations for ESC President

Nominations for ESC President for 2004-2005 should be submitted by May 1, 2003. The successful candidate will be a member of the ESC board as president-elect in 2003-4, before assuming office, and afterwards will remain on the board as president-emeritus in 2005-6.

To be valid, nominations should include a written statement of the nominee's willingness to serve and be supported in writing by at least ten paid-up members of the ESC. The election will be held at the Business Meeting during the coming year's annual conference from August 27-30 in Helsinki. All nominees for whom valid nominations are received will be on the ballot.

All communications relating to nominations may be by hard copy or e-mail, and should be delivered to Paul Wiles, the current ESC president, at The Home Office, 50 Queen Anne's Gate, London SW1H 9AT, Paul.Wiles@homeoffice.gsi.gov.uk

EUROPEAN SOCIETY OF CRIMINOLOGY

Conference 2003 ● Helsinki, Finland ● August 27-30, 2003

Call for Papers

Crime and Crime Control in an Integrating Europe

The European Society of Criminology was founded in 2000 with the following aims:

- To bring together persons actively engaged in Europe in research, teaching, or practice in the field of criminology;
- To foster criminological scholarship, research, education, and training;
- To encourage scientific and practical exchange and cooperation among criminologists in Europe and elsewhere; and
- To serve as a forum for the dissemination of criminological knowledge at the European level.

Conference Organiser

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Conference website: <<http://www.eurocrim2003.com>>

Procedures:

1. Submission of abstracts

Abstracts may be submitted for a panel presentation, an entire panel (no more than four papers), or a poster presentation. Poster presentations will take place on the afternoon of August 28, 2003. Panel sessions will be scheduled throughout the three days of the conference; therefore, participants should plan on attending the entire conference. Only two presentations per person are permitted. Presentations should concern results of recently completed or ongoing research, including policy analysis.

For panel sessions, please send a 100-300 word abstract for each presentation. Abstracts should be submitted directly to the conference website under the "Abstract" function by **May 2, 2003**, accompanied by your personal details: name, affiliation, full address, telephone, fax, and email. You will receive confirmation of receipt from the organiser, who acts upon consultation with the program committee.

For poster sessions, please send your abstract and details directly to the organiser.

2. Conference registration

All presenters will receive confirmation and a conference registration mailing before June 1, 2003, and must register for the conference by July 1, 2003. A registration form is provided on the back page. Electronic registration directly on the conference website is however preferred.

Registration fees:

	Before July 1, 2003	After July 1, 2003
Non ESC members	150 Euros	200 Euros
Non ESC members (students)	100 Euros	150 Euros
ESC members	100 Euros	150 Euros
ESC members (students)	60 Euros	100 Euros

If paying by cheque, please add 10 Euros. The conference fee includes the services of the conference bureau, welcoming and finishing receptions, all coffee breaks, and conference documentation.

3. ESC membership

Conference participants may wish to consider joining the ESC since a discount is available to ESC members as specified above in "registration fees."

4. Hotel reservations

Arrangements have been made for sufficient hotel rooms in central Helsinki, but conference participants will need to reserve their rooms before the end of May 2003, if they want to have some choice. Information regarding hotel reservations will be available on the conference web site.

5. Participants from Eastern European countries

A modest sum has been made available to assist with travel, accommodation, and meal costs for young Eastern European scholars. Please contact Kauko Aromaa <kauko.aromaa@om.fi> for further information.

Programme Themes for Panel Sessions

The themes are provisional and subject to change as abstracts and panel proposals come in.

A. Current Trends in Theory and Research

- Crime Trends and Cross-National Comparisons
- Theory Development and Causes of Crime
- Developmental Approaches in Criminology
- Communities and Crime
- Policing
- Historical Criminology
- Political Transitions and Crime
- Research Methods in Criminology
- Corruption
- Organised Crime
- Trafficking
- Violent Crime
- Treatment Methods of Criminal Behaviour
- Juvenile Crime

B. Research on Policy Issues

- Crime Control
- Crime Prevention
- Cross-border and Transnational Crime Control
- Drugs, Alcohol and Crime
- Victimisation
- Fear of Crime
- Self-reported Crime
- Policing
- Prosecution and Courts
- Sentencing, Corrections
- Alternatives to Incarceration, Regulating the Prison Population
- Education and Training

Programme committee

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Procedural Law and

General Jurisprudential Studies,
University of Helsinki;

Finnish National Research Institute of
Legal Policy

Helsinki Conference

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reputation as a centre of culture, advanced technology, and university education. It is also the country's leading business and industrial centre.

There are excellent connections from Helsinki to Stockholm, Tallinn, and St.Petersburg. The medieval city of Tallinn, also a site of UNESCO's World Cultural Heritage, is a particularly suitable destination for a day-trip on a slow boat or a fast one (less than 90 minutes). For those with a little more time, St.Petersburg is within reach.

The home page of the city of Helsinki, www.helsinki.fi (in Finnish, Swedish, English, French, German and Russian), gives a good overview of tourist highlights and other interesting features.

Late August/early September in the south of Finland is reasonably warm, with mean maximum temperatures of 19 (August)/14 (September) degrees Celsius, and mean minimum temperatures of 12/8 degrees Celsius. The weather may be unreliable. This is still the tourist season. Consequently, though the conference organisers can provide information on hotels and have arranged sufficient hotel space, participants are strongly advised to reserve rooms by the end of May.

ESC and the local organisers look forward to seeing you all there.

Student Travel Awards

The ESC is pleased to announce that, due to a generous gift, it is able to provide travel costs for a few PhD candidates or junior researchers from Eastern Europe to attend the Helsinki meeting in August 2003.

Candidates wishing to obtain such support should write to the Programme Chair, Professor Kauko Aromaa (HEUNI, PL 157, Uudenmaaankatu 37 00121 Helsinki, FINLAND, Fax: 358 9 1606 7890, Email: kauko.aromaa@om.fi) and send their CV plus a brief description of the research paper they intend to present.

The deadline is 1 June 2003.

European Journal of Criminology Publication Starts in January 2004

By David J Smith

One of the ESC's major initiatives is the launch of a new, refereed academic journal, the *European Journal of Criminology*, in partnership with Sage. There will be four issues a year starting in January 2004. An International Advisory Board of nearly 40 members has been added to the small Editorial Board. Full details are given on the journal website (follow the links from www.sagepub.co.uk). Most work of reviewing submitted articles will be done by members of the International Advisory Board.

The journal will publish high quality articles using varied approaches, including discussion of theory, analysis of quantitative data, comparative studies, systematic evaluation of interventions, and study of institutions and political process. The journal also covers analysis of policy, but not description of policy developments. Priority is given to articles relevant to the wider Europe (within and beyond the EU) although findings may be drawn from other parts of the world. There is a particular emphasis on the use of evidence generated by sound social science methods to evaluate criminological ideas and policy.

The early issues will take shape over the next six months. Each issue will include a country survey—a substantial article describing criminal justice institutions and trends in a selected European country, and reviewing important publications in recent years. Countries covered in the first four issues will be the Republic of Ireland, France, Switzerland, and Poland.

Other contents of the journal in the first year will be varied. One article raises fundamental questions about the penal economy in eastern Europe, on the system of barter with local communities that sustains contemporary Russian prisons. There will be two substantial pieces on juvenile offending, and how it is shaped by ecological influences and community dynamics. A third article will investigate explanations for gender differences in juvenile offending. Ecological influences are further investigated in an article on victimization and neighbourhood characteristics. A major article on the treatment of suspects in custody in France is probably the first detailed, empirical study of the topic, and raises deep questions about the capacity of the national institutional and legal structure to control practices, and about the relevance of the European Convention on Human Rights. There will be early articles on a range of other topics including deaths of offenders in custody, preventing burglary, analysis of repeat victimization as a tool of crime prevention, identifying patterns of offending behaviour through the life course, and police intelligence systems.

The University of Lausanne School of Criminal Sciences will be accepting a new intake of students for its

MASTER'S PROGRAMME IN CRIMINOLOGY

Starting on 20 October 2003. This is a full-time program extending over 1 to 2 years, depending on the number of credits awarded for previously obtained degrees and practical experience.

The programme includes classes and seminars in Criminology, Criminal Law, Research Methods and Statistics, Economic Crime, Anglo-Saxon Law, Organised Crime, Juvenile Delinquency, Forensic Science, Forensic Medicine, Forensic Psychology and Forensic Psychiatry. Students are expected to spend "stages" (short periods gaining practical experience) in a police department and in a prison service. At the end of the programme, a master's dissertation is to be defended.

The School provides access to numerous international databases for dissertations and other research activities of students, initiation to research methods through individualised "on the job training", and teaching by experienced international staff. Teaching is mainly in French, with opportunities for students from other backgrounds to become familiar with the language.

Eligible are students with a BA in criminology, criminal justice, psychology, social sciences, law, or any related field.

For general inquiries about the programme please contact: Raphale.Lasserre@ipsc.unil.ch, or Martin.Killias@ipsc.unil.ch.

Registration:

Forms can be obtained on-line at immat@unil.ch, or from the following address: Rectorat de l'Université de Lausanne, Service des Immatriculations, CH-1015 Lausanne, Switzerland.

Forms must be returned by 31 August 2003 to immat@unil.ch or to the Rectorat de l'Université de Lausanne, Service des Immatriculations, CH-1015 Lausanne, Switzerland.

Summary of Board Meeting Discussions and Decisions

7th September 2003 Meeting following the Toledo Conference

1. Booking and financial arrangements. It was agreed that the Society needed a simpler way of handling bookings and managing its finances. This was not criticism of arrangements so far but simply that the Society needed to develop structures that would enable its future development.
2. Refunds for those who withdraw from the conference? Refunds would be too costly for the Society's present administrative structures to cope with. However, named substitutes should be allowed for those who withdrew.
3. Is the policy on use of different languages at the conference correct? The Board re-affirmed its earlier decision that simultaneous translation was too costly for the Society and that English would continue to be the conference language, but the Society would continue to allow papers to be presented in other European languages (such presentations should be noted on the programme where possible).
4. Toledo's programme content. We should try to introduce some workshops which have a training element in key criminological skills.
5. Permanent secretarial support for the Society. Whilst this was highly desirable, it would have to wait until the Society's finances were on a firmer basis.
6. Whether future minutes of the Board's meetings could be made more informative for members. A proposal is to be offered at the next Board meeting.
7. Charge publishers for using the conferences? It was decided to charge commercial publishers for stands at future conferences or for inserting adverts into the programme packs.
8. Plans for Helsinki. Details of the conference will be posted on the website. The Scandinavian Research Council had sponsored the early web work and planning, will use the conference as a joint event, and will send 60 delegates. There will be a City Hall reception. There may be a need to limit the total delegates, depending on the size of the conference dinner venue and other facilities in Helsinki. The theme will be: "Crime and Crime Control in an Integrating Europe."

The Board also agreed after discussion that: The conference will not be held jointly with the European Society of Deviance. There should be four plenary sessions. Suggestions were trans-national trafficking;

comparative programme evaluations; comparative imprisonment rates; police and privatisation of social control; crime prevention; and violent youth. There should be a poster session for those who apply to give papers after the cut-off date. Martin Killias will send a framework agreement to Kauko Aromaa for the running of the Helsinki conference on behalf of the ESC. Kauko will report back to the next meeting on the development of the conference programme.

9. Journal editorial board members. Names will be posted on the ESC website. The website should be used to solicit suggestions for additional members.
10. Adverts in the Society's newsletter. The Board agreed that it should charge for these.
11. Co-sponsorship of 2004 conference with the American Society of Criminology. The Board agreed that, if the ASC Board decided to go ahead, and proposed an acceptable programme plan, the ESC would consider acting as joint sponsor.
12. Engaging the European Commission. Josine Junger-Tas and Paul Wiles to explore the issue further in Brussels.
13. Date of the next Board meeting. The date of the next meeting will be trawled by Paul Wiles. The suggested venue is The Netherlands.

24th January 2003 Meeting in Leiden

1. Conference website. The conference website is www.eurocrim2003.com. The ESC website is www.esc-eurocrim.org. Kauko and Martin to confer on technical details concerning shutting down the ESC site in Lausanne.
2. Helsinki delegate numbers. No limit needed.
3. Conference events. There will be no dinner organised by ESC but receptions will be hosted by the Ministry of Justice and the City of Helsinki. Sight-seeing trips to be arranged as an extra.
4. Registration procedure. People to send membership and registration forms and fees to Helsinki conference bureau; Lausanne will notify the conference bureau whether membership fees are paid.

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Leiden Board Meeting *Continued from previous page*

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| <p>5. ESC guarantee. The ESC will reimburse the conference organizers for deficits up to •30,000.</p> <p>6. Plenary sessions. Number to be reduced from six to four, with representation of speakers from throughout Europe as a priority.</p> <p>7. Training workshops. Possible workshops that might be scheduled include leading edge methodology and presentations by European Union officials on their aims and funding opportunities.</p> <p>8. Conference programme. Abstracts should be accepted except when clarifications are needed to make them understandable. People can submit abstracts either for a paper or for a poster session. Maximum length of abstract is 300 words.</p> <p>9. Publishers' stands. Publishers</p> | <p>should be charged for booths subject to local conditions. Charges might be up to •500 at the judgement of the local organizer.</p> <p>10. Student travel awards. Funds from a private donor will support up to two •600 travel awards for young Eastern European scholars (PhD students or recent PhDs). Additional awards may be made if funding of •1,000 each can be raised.</p> <p>11. Journal. First issue out January 2004.</p> <p>12. European Commission. Wiles and Junger-Tas had a promising meeting with the EU. There may be a need to create a scientific committee to serve as liaison.</p> <p>13. ESC/ASC meeting. For practical reasons (too much work to organize 2 meetings a year), an invitation to co-sponsor a meeting</p> | <p>with the ASC was declined.</p> <p>14. Newsletter. The next issue will appear in March.</p> <p>15. Financial position. The ESC's financial position is reasonably strong. An external review of finances for the past year will be arranged.</p> <p>16. British Society of Criminology. Proposals for joint BSC/ESC membership and a joint 2005 meeting were declined.</p> <p>17. Presidential nominees. Any ESC member can be nominated. The nominee must be willing to run. Ten paid-up ESC members must support nominations in writing. Nominations due by May 1.</p> <p>18. Constitution. Draft proposals for constitutional changes will be proposed for the May Board meeting. ■</p> |
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Message from the President *Continued from page 2*

suggested that some members consider offering their services to be involved in the expert assessment of the bids received – details can be found on the Commission website.

More generally we had a very useful discussion about how the Directorate research programme and the ESC could work together in the future. As the European Union becomes more involved in social issues, such as crime, and also expands, there will be an increasing need for comparative data and research on which to base policy. The present Sixth Framework research opportunities are just the beginning of that process – but we need to demonstrate that we have expertise to ensure that such funding is seen as worthwhile continuing. In addition to this work, the Commission is also going to start crime proofing its legislation – that is trying to identify in advance whether new proposals may, inadvertently, provide new crime opportunities. They also intend to be more systematic about assessing the

likely impact of future proposals in the member states and evaluating those proposals that get implemented. Members of the ESC need to be involved in much of this work and we invited representatives of the Justice and Home Affairs group to join us at Helsinki to talk about their future needs and plans. As you will know the Commission is often looking for pan-European research teams and the ESC

will be a useful vehicle for building new research partnerships.

The ESC was set up to provide a vehicle for those interested in empirically-based European criminological research to meet together and work together. The Commission ought to be one of the funders of such work in the future and I hope that we will continue to work with them. ■

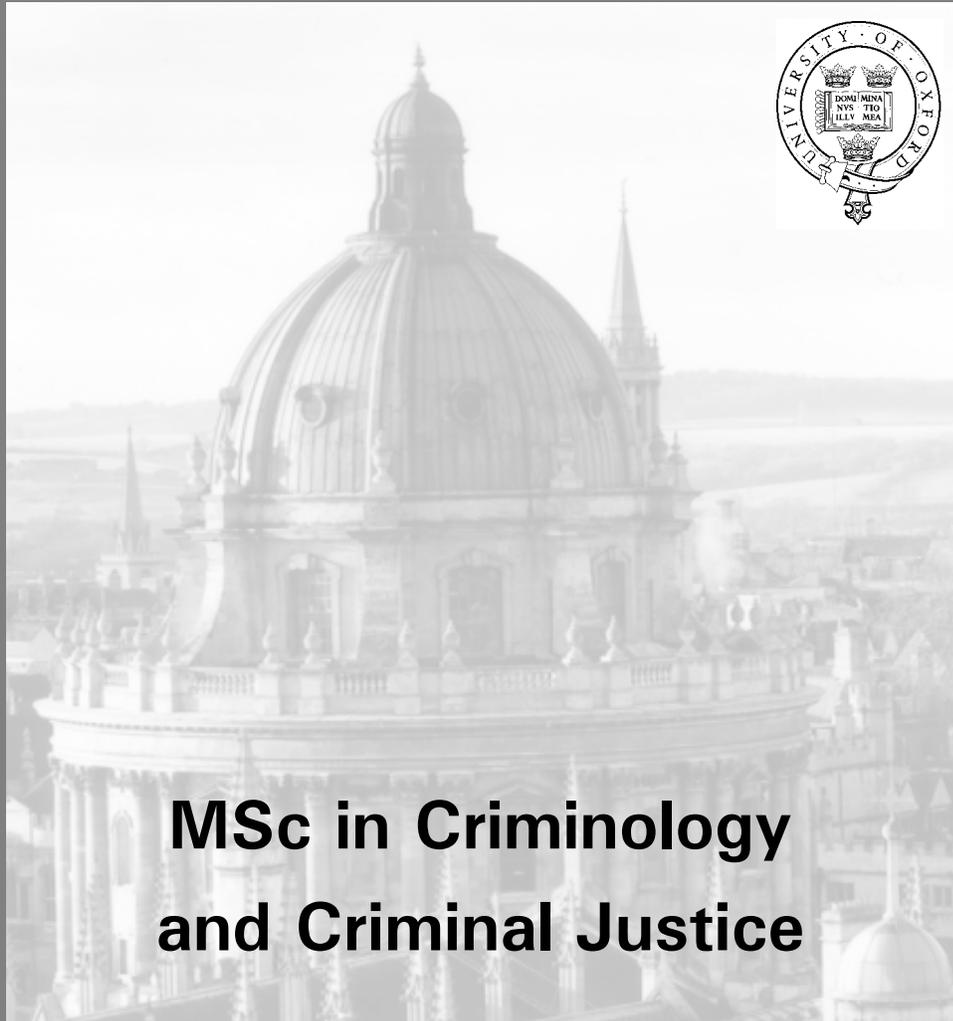
ESC Working Group

Historical Criminology

The European Research Group on Crime, Ethics, and Social Philosophy (ERCES) is focusing on the following question: can common morals, common consciousness, and supra-individual values still be thought of as the fundamentals of social cohesion and social control? In other words, are those common and supra-individual values that go back to the philosophy of enlightenment and belong to the tradition of social and political modernity, still efficacious in a multi-cultural and multi-ethical (post-modern) society? Further information may be obtained from <http://ercesinternational.tripod.com> or <http://erces.ifrance.com>

University of Oxford

Centre for Criminological Research



MSc in Criminology and Criminal Justice

For further information: www.crim.ox.ac.uk

*Application forms for this one-year full-time course are
available from: Graduate Admissions Office,
University Offices, Wellington Square, Oxford, OX1 2JD, UK
Tel: +44 (0)1865 270060 Fax: 270708
graduate.admissions@admin.ox.ac.uk*

Criminology in Finland *Continued from page 1*

control developments in Finland, and the evaluation of criminal law reforms and their implementation. An annual report, "Crime and Criminality in Finland," has been published since 1974. The report is a standard source of up-to-date information for Finnish criminal justice organizations.

The institute has paid particular attention to developing victimization and self-reported crime surveys to serve as standardized indicators of criminality - independent from the official (recorded) crime statistics. The first victimization surveys were conducted in 1970. From the 1980s onwards, national surveys have been carried out in conjunction with the Finnish Statistical Central Office at 4-5 year intervals (the next will take place in 2003). The institute took part in the first International Victim Survey in 1989, and in the subsequent rounds in 1992, 1996, and 2000.

Studies in self-reported crime have a long tradition in Finland. The original Institute of Criminology conducted one of the first European studies on self-reported crime in 1963 (following models developed in the U.S). In 1992 the institute took part in the first international self-reported delinquency study. That study was extended into a national survey covering a sample of some 50 schools. Self-report studies were conducted in 1995, 1996, 1998, and 2001.

In the 1990s, media coverage of crime was strongly coloured by horrifying images of Russian mafia invading Finland. During that decade the institute conducted several studies as part of the "eastern border crime project." Results showed that the risks of a threatening crime invasion were heavily over-dramatised. After the results were published, the police, at least, changed their rhetoric.

Violent crime is a focus of current research. Understanding, explaining, and reducing Finland's internationally high homicide rates has been a central theme in Finnish criminology since the days of the Finnish criminologist Veli Verkko (1930s onwards). The National Research Institute of Legal Policy, the Police College, and the Statistical Central Office are co-

operating to develop a systematic database of homicide.

A substantial part of the institute's research is focused on evaluation of the implementation and enforcement of law reforms (their effects, how they have been applied, whether the legislative aims have been realized). There has been a tendency over the last two or three decades to stress the need for this type of research.

Studies have concentrated mainly on sentencing issues and criminal law reforms (e.g., drunken driving, community service, juvenile sanctions, prosecutorial practices). Sentencing practices have been a recurring subject.

Since the early 1990s, a series of studies have assessed the functioning and effects of mediation schemes.

Criminology in the universities

There are no separate criminology departments, or degree programmes, in Finnish universities. Criminology is taught and research is carried out in other disciplines, including law, sociology, psychology, medicine, and history.

Criminology is a compulsory part of the Finnish law degree and, consequently, is taught in all of the Finnish law faculties (Helsinki, Turku, Rovaniemi). Only Turku has a designated professorship in criminology (founded 5 years ago with support from the police; it emphasises economic and organized crime and education of police officers).

Connecting criminological research to law faculties has had beneficial effects on the study of law – and the ways future prosecutors and judges learn to think about criminal justice matters. The volume and quality of the criminological research conducted in the law faculties, however, has been quite modest. Nonetheless the textbooks on criminology and criminal policy in the early 1970s, written by the former professor of criminal law in Helsinki, Inkeri Anttila, and Patrik Törnudd (both were directors of the National Research Institute of Legal Policy), are highly respected. In the 1980s and 1990s, historical

criminology received considerable attention in the University of Helsinki, thanks to former professor of history of law Heikki Ylikangas.

Outside the law faculties, there is a chair in the "sociology of deviance" (emphasis on subcultures and non-criminal deviance, such as sexual minorities) in Kuopio University. In Jyväskylä University, the department of psychology conducts a long-term and ongoing cohort study started in the mid 1960s (early childhood experiences and conditions and subsequent criminal behaviour). Criminal careers and control cultures in "borstals" have been studied (in the departments of social sciences and social policy) at Tampere University. Psychiatric and medical criminology research has been conducted in Helsinki, Turku, and Kuopio Universities.

Academic criminology in Finland may be characterized as rich in content but thin in volume.

Other related institutes

HEUNI, the European Institute for Crime Prevention and Control, affiliated with the United Nations, is among other institutes and organizations involved in criminological research. HEUNI was established in 1981 to serve "as the European link in the network of institutes operating within the framework of the United Nations Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Programme." Its primary objective is to promote the international exchange of information on crime prevention and control among European countries (see website). Activities consist mainly of organization of seminars, training courses, and expert group meetings. HEUNI also appoints scientific experts to prepare up-to-date reports on specific issues (such as prison populations and reporting in the UN crime surveys).

In recent years, the police have invested more money on research. In the mid 1990s, a research institute was established in connection with the Police College. Its focus is on police studies and economic and organized crime.

In addition, a large research organization under the ministry of social and welfare affairs also conducts research on areas related to criminology (including drugs and alcohol consumption). There are ongoing projects on prostitution and violence against women.

The major research funding agency is the Academy of Finland. However, only two criminological projects, on the history of criminality in Finland and violence against women, have received money from the Academy.

Pragmatic orientation

Since the fall of the rehabilitative ideal, interest in rehabilitation and research on rehabilitative and other effects of sanctions has been meager in Scandinavia. Another area not covered well enough is systematic evaluation of the effectiveness of crime prevention strategies. Only a few studies conducted since the 1970s would meet international quality standards. Finnish efforts are even more modest in this respect.

There are, however, some signs of increased interest in these fields, especially if we extend our view to other Scandinavian countries. For example, two units in the Swedish National Council for Crime Prevention (BRÅ) deal with these issues. The Division for Reform Evaluation surveys and analyses the implementation, results, and costs of crime policy reforms. The Individual Change Programmes Division studies the effects of individual measures for criminal persons (see the website). However, in Finland, the scarcity of resources and the much smaller size of criminological research units prevent establishment of large-scale projects.

Finnish criminology is pragmatic and practical, perhaps partly a consequence of its weak academic position. Another reason may be the close relationship between research and policy making. The awareness that research may be taken seriously in political decision making may influence this orientation. Criminologists have had substantial influence on official crime policy, not only in Finland, but in other Scandinavian countries.

Scandinavian crime policy has

been characterized by Nils Christie as unusually "expert-oriented." In Finland the role of experts has been – perhaps – even more prominent than elsewhere in Scandinavia. This has contributed to Finland's maintenance over the last 30 years of an exceptionally rational and humane crime policy. During the 1960s and the early 1970s, Finland had more prisoners than any other Western European country, but in the mid 1990s the imprisonment rates were the lowest among the EU countries.

From a wider Scandinavian perspective, two other institutional arrangements should be mentioned.

The Scandinavian Research Council for Criminology

The Scandinavian Research Council for Criminology was established in 1962 by the ministries of justice in Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden. The aim is to "further criminological research within the member countries and advise the Scandinavian governments and the Council on issues related to criminology." The council awards research and travel grants, arranges seminars, and publishes a journal in English. The council also publishes reports from its seminars and a newsletter three times per year in Scandinavian languages (paper and on-line availability). An electronic bibliography, *Scandinavian criminology*, is accessible on the council website.

The council consists of 15 members, three from each country, nominated by the national ministries of justice. Two from each country are criminologists, while the third represents the ministry of justice. The chairmanship rotates every three years among the Nordic countries. The daily administration is carried out by a secretariat located in the country of the chairperson.

The secretariat is situated in Finland for the period 2001-2003 and Kauko Aromaa has been chairman. In 2004, he will make way for a Swedish chairperson when the secretariat moves to Sweden. The council has proven to be a very valuable source of funds, especially for young criminologists.

Scandinavian Crime Prevention Councils

The Nordic crime prevention organisations have a distinctive position among national crime prevention agencies. The Crime Prevention Council in Denmark, founded in 1971, was the first crime prevention agency concentrated on community-orientated networks and situational prevention. Since then, agencies have been established in Sweden (BRÅ 1974), Norway (1980), and Finland (1989).

These councils differ from each other. BRÅ carries out its own sizeable research programme and is a major funder of criminological research in Sweden. The other three councils are much less involved with research.

However, concerning crime prevention, the crime prevention councils share the same starting points: To further the work within crime prevention, first and foremost locally, to stress social and situational prevention over criminal justice approaches, and to stress the importance of community participation. As the joint booklet, published by the Swedish Crime Prevention Council, explains: "A Nordic characteristic is that we fall back on informal social control. As is the case with the social prevention intended for children and youth, it is a specifically Nordic trait to involve the citizens themselves in participating actively and directly in crime preventive work" (http://www.bra.se/dynamaster/publication/pdf_archive/0102276726.pdf).

The importance of criminological knowledge as a policy base is emphasized: "The Nordic Model for crime prevention is also marked by the effort to base crime preventive measures on concrete knowledge. As far as possible, crime prevention is based on national and international research and other knowledge."

So says the booklet. The ESC meeting in Helsinki in 27-30 August 2003 should provide an opportunity to see to what extent these starting points are realized in practice. ■

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Prison Populations *Continued from page 1*

not an easy task. The prison population and changes in it result from complex processes that are affected by the frequency and seriousness of offences, police efficiency, strictness of the law, and the way judges carry it out. As a result, this article tries to show some Western European national trends in prison population rather than to analyse differences between countries. The choice of countries examined depended on the availability of data and on their interest and ability to point to general factors explaining the trends in prison populations.

Does Europe resemble the USA?

Some American and European criminologists think that sooner or later European prison populations will explode as they did in the United States of America. At first glance, some developments seem to confirm their prediction.

Figure 1 shows that the Spanish, Dutch, and Swedish prison populations (including both sentenced and non-sentenced prisoners) strongly increased between 1983 and 2001. But the increases are from a much lower base, and they increased much less rapidly. Europe has its own particularities, due to its history, culture, and criminal justice ideology, and all three differ from those of the United States. The US prisoner rate got out of control, but the following sections suggest that European countries try – most of them successfully – to keep prison populations under control.

Switzerland

Prison population data in Switzerland are available from 1890 to 1941, and since 1982 when the federal statistics agency initiated a central data bank on the correctional system, first with sentenced detainees only and, since 1988, with both sentenced and non-sentenced detainees.

As figure 2 shows, the Swiss prisoner rate fell by half between the 1930s and the 1990s, mostly due to a drop in sentenced prisoners,

Figure 1: Prisoner rate per 100,000 inhabitants in the Netherlands, Spain, and Sweden, September 1, 1983-2001. Sources: Council of Europe, database "S.PACE".

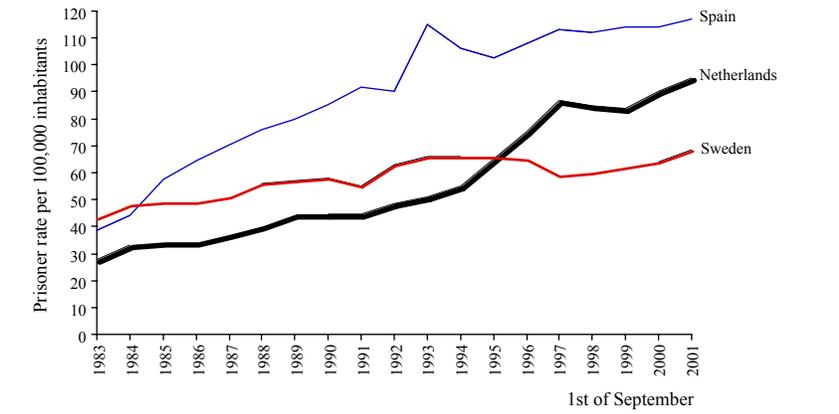
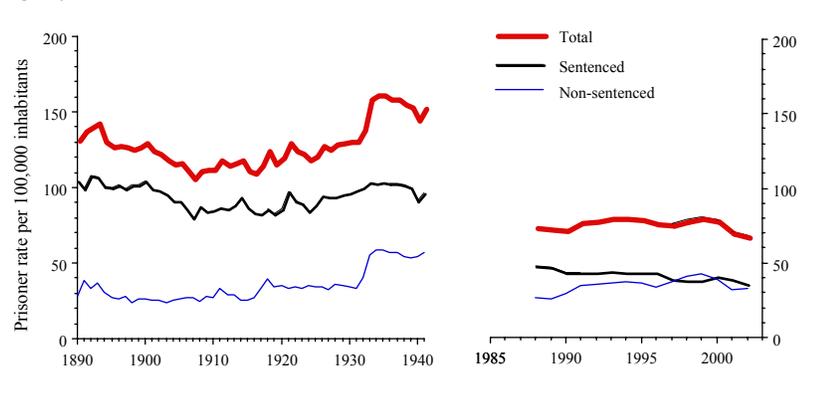


Figure 2: Prisoner rate per 100,000 inhabitants in Switzerland, 1890-1941 and 1988-2002. Sources: *Statistical Yearbook of Switzerland* and unpublished data from the federal statistics agency.



criminal justice system is less severe than formerly.

The recent Swiss prisoner rate is relatively stable (and decreasing since 1999). The recent decrease probably results from increasing use of community service and electronic monitoring in place of short prison sentences.

Italy

Between September 1, 1986 and February 1, 1987, the overall Italian prisoner rate dropped from 76 to 57 prisoners per 100,000 inhabitants (see figure 3), mainly because of a December 1986 amnesty.

Italy's example shows that an amnesty can significantly reduce the prisoner rate in the short term. The question is whether this can work in the middle and long terms. The Italian data suggest that an amnesty is incapable of reducing prison population for very long, as the

sentenced prisoner rate quickly returned to the pre-amnesty level. The overall rate did not rise for a time after the amnesty because of a decreasing pre-trial detention rate. This was partly due to a change in pre-trial detention law, which abolished compulsory arrest and introduced stricter conditions for pre-trial detention.

Between 1991 and 2001, the overall prisoner rate increased significantly, from 56 to 95. This seems to be an effect of illegal Albanian immigration, enlargement of the anti-Mafia fight after the assassinations of judges, and anti-corruption operations led by some magistrates.

France

From January 1, 1968, to January 1, 1975, France (see figure 4) experienced a decrease of approximately 25 percent in its

Figure 3: Prisoner rate per 100,000 inhabitants in Italy, 1983-2001.
Sources: Council of Europe, database "S.PACE", (non-sentenced detainees include all inmates awaiting a first or an appeal trial).

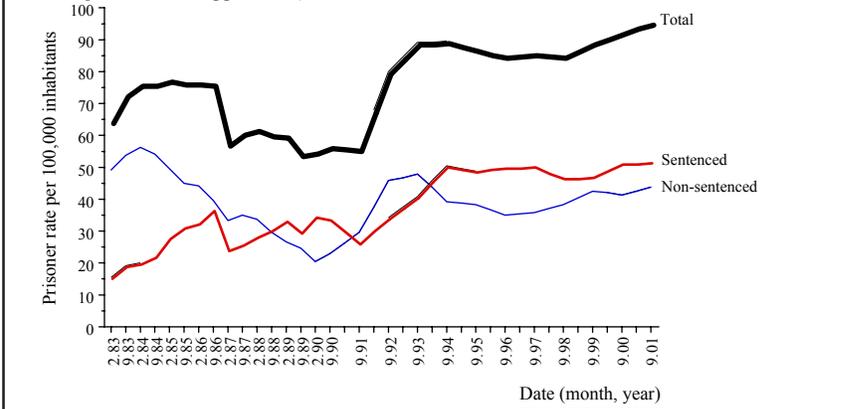
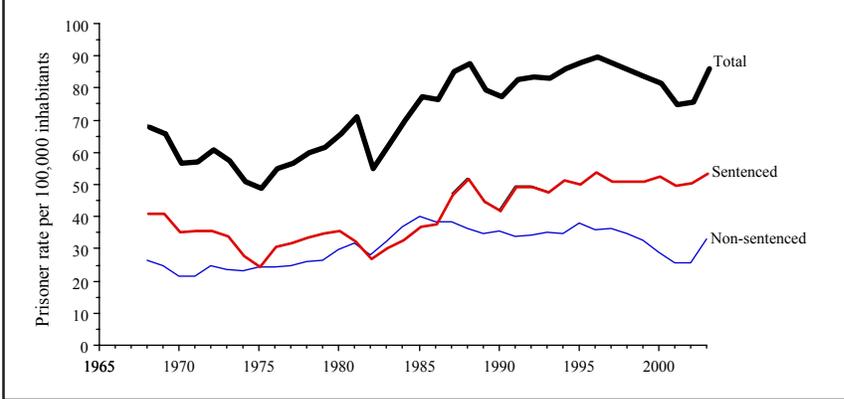


Figure 4: Prisoner rate per 100,000 inhabitants in France, 1968-2003.
Sources: Database "SEPT", belonging to the French Ministry of Justice, which records prisoner rates on January 1 (non-sentenced detainees include all inmates awaiting a first or an appeal trial).



prisoner rate, which was due to a combination of several statutes and amnesty laws. Later, the number of prisoners increased continuously from 1975 to 1981. A July 1981 presidential pardon and an August 1981 amnesty law temporarily curtailed that "correctional inflation", but the numbers increased even more from 1982 to 1988. Following the presidential election of 1988, general pardons and one more amnesty were pronounced. A general pardon was also granted on the occasion of the French revolution bicentennial in 1989. But despite all those measures, the prisoner rate increased from 78 to 90 per 100,000 between 1990 and 1996. Since 1997, efforts to avoid pre-trial detention and to promote non-custodial sanctions seem to have succeeded in decreasing the prisoner rate.

The French experience suggests that amnesties and other pardons can temporarily mask upward structural trends in prison populations, but once again do not provide long-term

solutions.

The late 1990s trend also suggests that even with longer sentences, the prisoner rate can decrease because of a reduction in entries into prison (Kensley & Tournier 2001). Finally, the 2002 and 2003 increases unfortunately show that the new French "get tough on crime" policy not only wins elections, but also increases the prison population.

Greece

Since 1911, the Greek penal code has allowed judges to replace some prison sentences with fines. If an offender is found guilty, the judge has first to determine an appropriate prison term. If not higher than a certain limit, the sentence is *automatically* converted into a fine, and if not higher than another limit, the judge *may* convert it into a fine. In 1911, the *automatic* conversion limit was set at six months (every prison sentence of less than six months had to be converted into a fine unless

special deterrent considerations did not permit this conversion), and the *discretionary* conversion limit was set at 12 months (every 6 to 12 months sentence could be converted under some conditions). In 1984, the discretionary conversion limit became 18 months. In 1991, the automatic conversion limit was extended to 12 months and the discretionary one to 24 months. And finally, a 1996 law facilitated the conversion even more. It became the rule for all sentences up to two years (the discretionary limit became three years in 1999), and made it possible to postpone the payment of fines if the convicted person faces financial difficulties (Spinellis 1998).

Figure 5 shows an increase in prisoner rates between 1984 and 1994 despite the 1984 and 1991 changes. The replacement of short terms of imprisonment with fines did not decrease the prison population but coincided with an upward shift. The striking drop between 1994 and 1996 seems partly to be related to the conversion of longer prison terms into fines and the new possibility to postpone their payment. Another part of the explanation lay in the extension (in 1996) of mandatory conditional release and the special conditional release granted to inmates serving sentences for misdemeanours up to five years at the time that the 1996 law was published (Spinellis 1998). The increase in the prisoner rate since 1998 suggests that, like an amnesty, a massive release only masks the structural upward trend for a while, and that a part of the postponed fines remained unpaid and were finally converted into prison terms.

Germany

Figure 6 shows the West German prisoner rate from 1961 to 1998. Following the 1969 criminal law changes, the use of short terms of imprisonment was limited by discouraging prison terms of six months or less. This temporarily reduced the prisoner rate. However, the prison population grew quickly again because of an increase in the length of some sentences. By 1973, there were twice as many sentences between 6 and

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Prison Populations *Continued from previous page*

Figure 5: Prisoner rate per 100,000 inhabitants in Greece, 1983-2001.

Sources: Council of Europe, database "S.PACE".

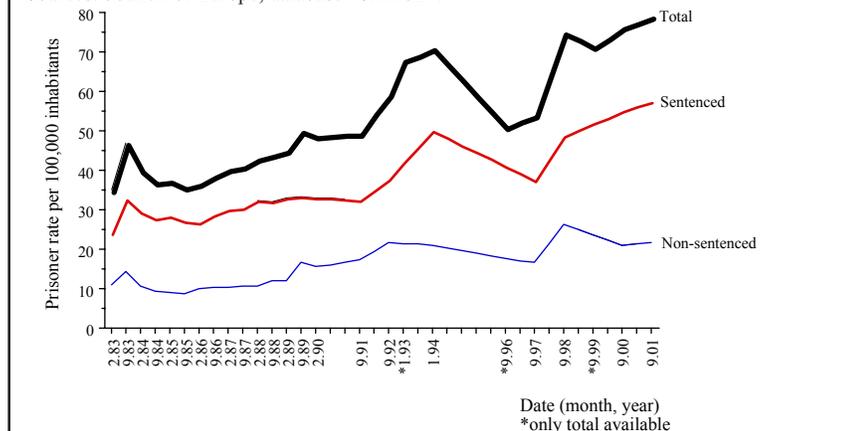
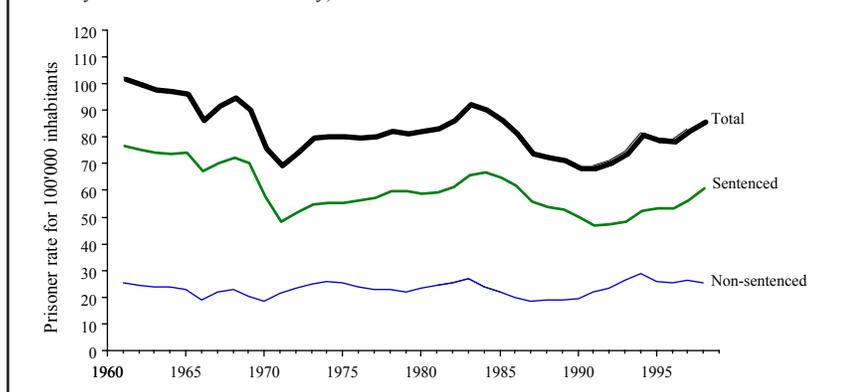


Figure 6: Prisoner rate per 100,000 inhabitants in Germany, 1961-1998.

Source: Statistisches Bundesamt Wiesbaden (prisoner rates per 100,000 inhabitants on January 1 in former West Germany).



12 months as in 1968, and by 1983 they were three times as many. Judges seem to have substituted longer sentences for some of the short sentences they could no longer impose.

Between 1983 and 1991, the German prisoner rate fell significantly from 93 to 69 per 100,000. This has not been fully explained, although it may be attributable to a change in judges' and prosecutors' attitudes (Kuhn 2000, 23-41). Nevertheless, the German prisoner rate has been increasing again since 1992.

Austria

In Austria, the use of sentences of less than six months was limited in 1975. As in Germany, this does not seem to have been a long-term solution to lowering the prisoner rate. The decrease in 1975 was quickly offset.

But the main interest of figure 7 lies in the second decrease (in 1988), which is mainly due to the reduction

of the eligibility date for parole release from two-thirds of the sentence to half, and to the establishment of partly suspended sentences. The total prisoner rate was relatively stable until it fell from 96 per 100,000 inhabitants in February 1988 to 77 in September of the same year. This is mainly because the law reducing the parole eligibility date came into force on March 1, 1988. Nearly 1,500 prisoners were released (those who had served more than half of their sentences but less than two-thirds). But the extension of parole release seems also to have had a perverse effect: according to the Austrian authorities, release on parole has become more restrictive. Thus, the reduction of the parole eligibility date was offset by decreased use of parole. Therefore, the relative stability (in spite of some fluctuations) in the prisoner rate following its drop in 1988 seems mainly to be attributable to introduction of the partly suspended

sentence.

Portugal

Figure 8 shows data from 1983 to 1999 in Portugal. Largely inspired by the German law, a new Portuguese penal code came into force on January 1, 1983, which limited the use of short-term imprisonment and aimed to replace most short-term sentences with other sanctions. Instead, there was an 81 percent increase in prisoner rates between 1983 and 1986.

Here again, limiting use of short terms of imprisonment did not reduce the prison population because the length of sentences increased (Lopes Rocha 1987). The 1986 reduction occurred mainly because of an amnesty. The stability of the overall prisoner rate between 1986 and 1990 resulted from an offset between increasing rates for sentenced offenders and decreasing rates of pre-trial detainees. The latter resulted from the new procedure act, which limited use of pre-trial detention. In 1991, another amnesty reduced the prisoner rate, but it resumed growing after 1992 to become one of the highest in Western Europe. In 1994, yet again, an amnesty was enacted and the prisoner rate decreased. However, Portugal achieved Western Europe's highest prisoner rate after a new Penal Code entered into force on October 1, 1995.

Finland

As figure 9 shows and unlike any other country discussed here, Finland has had a long-term decreasing prisoner rate, showing that prison populations are not inevitably fated to increase.

Twenty-five years ago, the Finnish prisoner rate was one of the highest in Western Europe. Today, with about 60 inmates per 100,000 population, Finland has one of the lowest. Such a result has been possible because the country gradually moved toward a criminal justice system which holds that it is important that criminals are caught and punished, but that the severity of the sanction is, in comparison, a minor issue. The Finnish criminal justice system emphasises the *certainty* of the sanction rather than its *severity*. That

Figure 7: Prisoner rate per 100,000 inhabitants in Austria 1970-2001.
Sources: Austrian Ministry of Justice (annual average prisoner rates per 100,000 inhabitants).

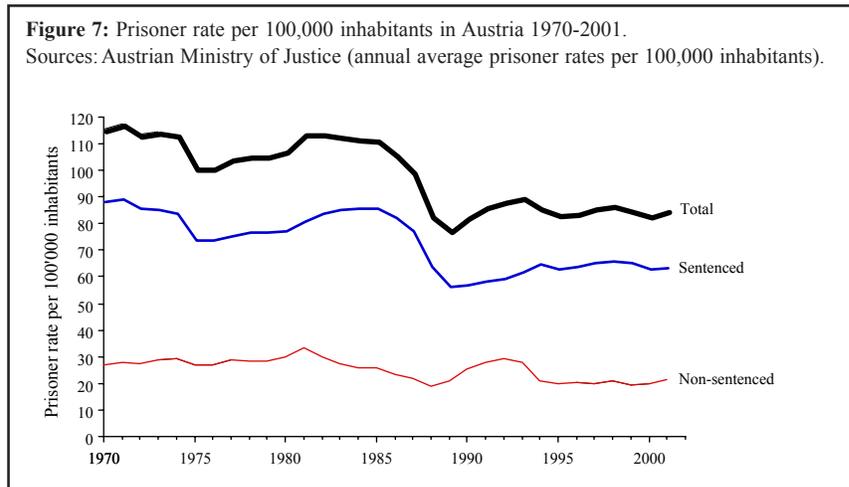


Figure 8: Prisoner rate per 100,000 inhabitants in Portugal, 1983-1999.
Sources: Council of Europe, database "S.PACE".

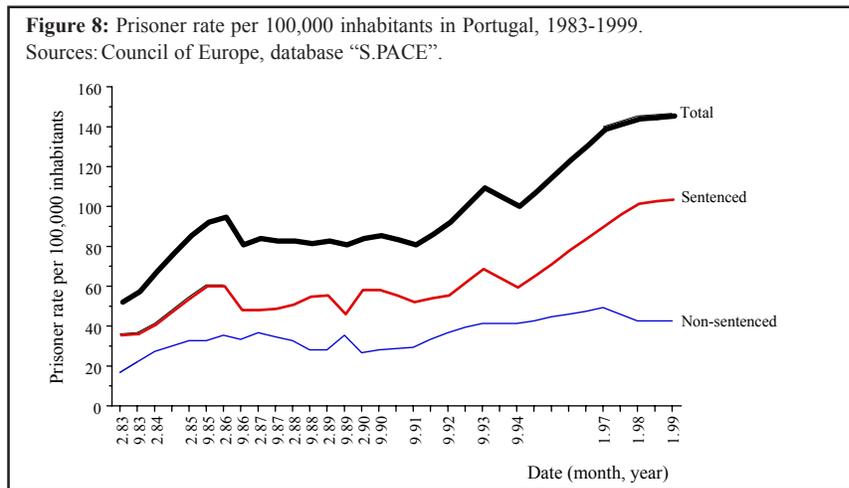
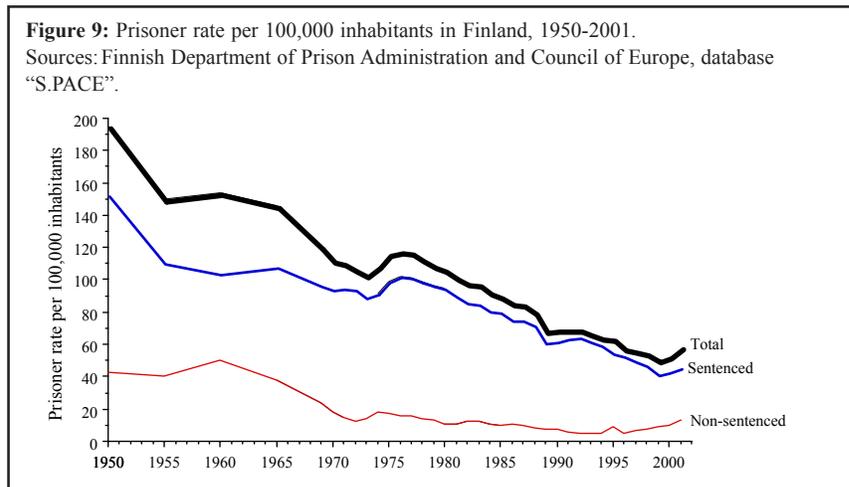


Figure 9: Prisoner rate per 100,000 inhabitants in Finland, 1950-2001.
Sources: Finnish Department of Prison Administration and Council of Europe, database "S.PACE".



philosophy has had a significant effect on Finland's prisoner rate.

Another important explanation is that the authorities and experts in charge of reform planning shared an almost unanimous conviction that Finland's internationally high prisoner rate was a disgrace, and therefore decided to "normalise" it by taking measures both to diminish the number of entries into prison and to shorten

the served prison terms. As a result, the average length of prison terms for some offences diminished, release on parole was facilitated, an increase was achieved in the proportion of fines and suspended sentences imposed, and the average length of prison sentences actually served steadily declined. All these changes in the criminal justice system were introduced without major or abnormal developments in crime

rates or recidivism (Törnudd 1993, 1997).

Prisoner rate in perspective

The data reported in this article show distinct differences in national trends and some predominant patterns. The Finnish case shows that a government that wants to decrease its prison population can do so. The problem is to know which measures to take to achieve that end. Most European countries have limited the use of short terms of imprisonment or replaced them with alternative sanctions. But the German, Austrian, Portuguese, and Greek figures show that such kinds of measures are not necessarily effective means to reduce prison populations in the long-term. To reduce the prisoner rate by using alternatives to imprisonment, one would have to be sure that they really replace prison terms (as they did in Switzerland and in France for a while), and without increasing the length of some sanctions (as in Germany and Portugal).

If neither alternatives to short terms of imprisonment, nor amnesties – both measures to avoid entries into prison – reduce or stabilise the prisoner rate in the long run, shortening the time to be served in prison is another way. But, as seen for Greece and Austria, an extension of release on parole alone is not enough to achieve a long-term decrease. The surest way to succeed is to shorten sentence lengths or, at least, the part that has to be served in prison, as Austria did by introducing the partly suspended sentence.

Whatever the means used are, one thing is absolutely necessary to achieve the goal of reducing or stabilising prison populations: the will to do so. As seen for Germany in the 1980s and for Finland, a change in prison population trends occurs because of a change in attitudes.

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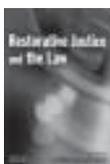
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analyses, we grouped countries sharing similarities in particular macro-level characteristics. This was done to minimise within-group variability and maximise between-group variability. We did this on the basis of elaborate social and economic surveys and statistics (Esping-Anderson 1990; SCP 2001, p.78), and yielded three country clusters: an Anglo-Saxon one (US [Omaha], England and Wales, Northern Ireland [Belfast]), a Northwest European cluster (Belgium, The Netherlands, Germany [Mannheim], Finland [Helsinki] and Switzerland), and a South European one (Spain, Portugal, Italy [three cities]). Five countries had national random samples. Three had city samples. Three others had school samples with a restricted age range (14-18).

Results

Lifetime prevalence rates are similar across countries and vary between 80 percent and 90 percent, even in the 14-18 year-old samples, suggesting that delinquency involvement declines substantially after age 18. Last-year prevalence shows more between-country variation, such as, for example, higher property offence rates in (prosperous) Northwest Europe and higher drug use rates in Anglo-Saxon countries. The highest rates for serious offences were in Omaha, England and Wales, and Belfast.

Age and Gender

The peak age of overall delinquency was age 16 in all countries, confirming earlier studies (Gottfredson and Hirschi 1990; Wikström 1990). However, logistic regressions showed the peak age to be 16 for Northwestern and Southern Europe, but 15 in Anglo-Saxon countries. This may suggest that young people in the latter countries are freed from close adult supervision at a younger age than in the other countries. No significant age-related differences appear between the three country clusters with respect to serious delinquency, involvement being about 10 percent in

Northwestern and Southern Europe, but higher in the Anglo-Saxon cluster. (Soft) drug use seems to start later than delinquency but it continues to rise with age in all country clusters.

Concerning age of onset, we know that juveniles who start to offend at an early age tend to continue offending longer than those who start at a later age (Wolfgang et al. 1972; Farrington and West 1990; Loeber 1991). While Northwestern Europe had the lowest age of onset of property offences, the Anglo-Saxon cluster had the lowest age of onset of vandalism, violence, drug use, and serious offences, all differences being statistically significant.

Female delinquency involvement is much lower than for males, although there is considerable variation in the type of delinquency. Gender differences in property offenses and vandalism are small, but are much larger for violence and serious offenses. Female violence is rare in all participating countries. Females and males start using drugs at about the same ages. Initiation into drug use takes place at parties and in discos. Since both genders participate equally, females are introduced to cannabis at about the same age as males. Importantly, most young people do not consider soft drug use as delinquent behavior. Despite the 'normal' character of soft drug use, and after an initial rise, female drug use tends to stabilise by age 17. Both lower delinquency levels and lower levels of drug use may point to a greater reluctance in females than in males to take (health) risks.

Family composition and delinquency

This relationship has been studied many times (Glueck and Glueck 1950; Junger-Tas 1977; Wells and Rankin 1991). Most scholars present family break-up as having deep and lasting negative effects on the social behavior of children and as a major determinant of delinquency, although since the 1980s more details and nuances have been added. For example, Wells and Rankin (1991) conducted a meta-analysis covering 50 studies

completed between 1925 and 1985. Using correlation coefficients to measure effect sizes, they found a consistent and reliable association of the broken home with delinquency, ranging from 0.05 to 0.15.

Logistic regression indicates that a single-mother family increases the risk of overall delinquent behavior in Southern Europe and in the Anglo-Saxon cluster but not in Northwestern Europe, while it increases the risk for serious delinquency only in the Anglo-Saxon countries. A number of explanations are possible. First, the proportion of teenage mothers is higher in Anglo-Saxon than in continental European countries. Teenage motherhood increases the risk of delinquency involvement of the children, since young mothers are usually badly prepared for bringing up children on their own. Moreover, they must earn the family income and usually live in poverty and in deprived neighbourhoods (Morash and Rucker, 1989), adding social-economic risk factors for delinquent behavior to lack of supervision. Social welfare arrangements are more generous in Northwest Europe than in Anglo-Saxon and South European countries (SCP 2001). We speculate that a lower number of teenage mothers, and that growing up in a single-parent family does not necessarily mean severe economic hardship, may explain the absence of a relationship between single-mother families and overall delinquency involvement in Northwest Europe.

Family bonding

Indirect family control is exercised through the quality of the relationship of a juvenile with his parents (Loeber and Stouthamer-Loeber 1986). The stronger that bond, the better norms and values will be internalised. We found a significant deterioration with age of the relationship with the father and a similar but weaker deterioration with the mother. Most of the young people said they got along reasonably well with their parents, though not as well as when they were younger.

Another variable considered is 'going out with the family', measuring

to some extent an active and positive family life. Family outings are negatively correlated with all offence types in Northwestern Europe and with property and serious offences in the Anglo-Saxon cluster. In Southern Europe, this variable apparently has no relevance.

A second dimension is direct control by close monitoring and supervision. This was measured by two questions inquiring whether, when going out, youngsters' parents are aware where they are going and with whom.

The proportion of youngsters declaring that their parents don't know where they go out varies according to age and doubles from ages 14-15 to ages 20-21. However, only 10 percent to 15 percent of all parents are reported as knowing nothing about their children's friends. Though the study includes young people aged 14-21, overall differences are small: even at ages 20-21 more than 80 percent of parents know where their children go and with whom. This suggests there is a thin line between parental control and parental interest in their children's lives and concern for their well-being.

Our hypothesis is that variations in social control according to gender go a long way to explaining differential delinquency involvement. Social control is significantly stronger with girls than with boys. However, interesting differences appear with respect to the relationship between family bonding and delinquent behavior. For male offending, direct parental control has the strongest effects on the behaviour, while the relational variables clearly are less important. However, female delinquency tends to be affected by the relationship with parents rather than by direct parental control. For females, bonding appears to operate essentially through emotional controls, while for males, formal controls are more important than emotional ones.

Problem behavior, including drug use, truancy, and running away from home, are related to the relationship with parents for both genders.

The school and peers

Truancy and disliking school are related to all types of delinquency in

all three clusters. Interestingly, repeating classes, and expressing a lack of school achievement, are **not** related to petty delinquency, but are related to violence, serious delinquency, and drug use. Petty offending is widespread among males and females. Because of its transient and non-serious character, there is no necessary association with school failure, while that relationship exists with the more serious forms of delinquent behavior and with drug use. In addition, school failure does not predict female delinquency, suggesting that females do not consider school achievement to be as important for their future lives as do males.

Much has been written about the peer group as a kind of subculture (e.g., Cloward and Ohlin 1960). Emler and Reicher (1995) state that group membership is a normal phenomenon and not a substitute for the family. We found that peer group membership was not affected by the relationship with parents but was related to age and school enrolment (declining rapidly when young people grew older), to disliking school, the absence of parents' informal control, and not participating in family outings. Females tended to have only two or three close friends and were usually not part of a peer group. Delinquents typically spent most of their leisure time with the peer group, while non-delinquents spent much more time with the family.

Confirming earlier research (Zimring 1998), we found that 60 percent of all delinquents who committed one offence, did so in groups, while among those who committed two or three offences, 80 percent did. However, young people in Southern Europe tended to spend considerable time with the peer group without this being related to delinquent behaviour.

Spending leisure time in the peer group seems strongly related to Mediterranean culture and possibly to the geography and southern climate, showing that peer groups differ in their inclinations towards delinquency and are not necessarily criminally oriented. Drug users also spent a lot of time with the peer group rather than

with the family. However, compared to delinquents, they had a higher average age and included more females. Moderate drug use, like moderate alcohol use and smoking, is apparently fairly normal behaviour for most young people and is not perceived by them as deviant, let alone as delinquent behaviour.

In conclusion

This was an exploratory study. Some of the more robust findings are suggestive with respect to the prevention of delinquent behavior.

One striking finding is the absence of a relationship between single-mother families and overall delinquency in Northwestern Europe. One main task of parents is to socialise their children into pro-social adults. To do that parents need to have the ability and the tools. Economic hardship, and difficulty in securing child care and exercising adequate supervision, create a number of risk factors for children.

Family break-up being endemic in contemporary society, authorities should take measures to support single-parent families, so as to create better conditions for raising children. Family support measures are among the most important delinquency prevention measures that authorities can take.

A second policy implication relates to some countries' apprenticeship systems. A number of students have considerable difficulties in completing further education, made necessary by the requirements of the labor market. This may lead to school failure, truancy, and school drop-out, all strong predictors of delinquent behavior. Education systems should be well articulated and flexible, allowing for easy transfer from one trajectory to another, including various combinations of education and employment, training, and work. Such arrangements will not only make numerous young people much happier, but given the correlation between school failure and delinquency and a high degree of substance abuse, it will also contribute to the prevention of such behaviour.

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European Sourcebook

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group has become nomadic with meetings in London, Warsaw, The Hague, Edinburgh, and Toledo. The location of the meetings provides group members with opportunities to meet local experts and criminal justice officials.

In 1995, a draft model of the *European Sourcebook* was published covering data for 1990 for 12 countries. An expanded version in 1999 covered 1990-96 and 36 countries. A further publication covering 1996-2000 and 41 countries is in preparation.

In many ways this data collection exercise overlaps with that of the United Nations, but differs in two major respects. First, data are collected from criminal justice experts in each country who are aware of sources and who are able to quality check the data. Second, data are accompanied by information on definitions and statistical rules.

National correspondents

The *Sourcebook's* success depends upon the degree of confidence users have in the data. With this in mind, each member of the steering group acts as a "regional co-ordinator" for 4 or 5 countries and is responsible for appointing a local "national correspondent" for each country.

The regional co-ordinator's role includes helping the national correspondent understand the questionnaire and quality check the responses. Some 40 national correspondents met as a body for the first time at the ESC Conference in Toledo in September 2002. The meeting was organised by the steering group and provided the opportunity for a formal but lively discussion of the *Sourcebook* and also an opportunity to make direct contact with people who had, hitherto, been merely email addresses.

Scope

The topics covered are (a) police statistics on crimes recorded, suspected offenders, and police officers; (b) prosecutions and their outcomes; (c) convictions, sentences, and prison sentence lengths; (d) non-custodial sanctions; (e) prison population; (f) victimisation data from the International Crime Victimization Survey.

Initial attempts to look at other areas (including recidivism, and time spent in custody) were stymied by a lack of comparable data.

Offences and definitions

Like the UN Crime Survey, the offences covered are restricted to homicide (with attempts shown separately), rape, assault, robbery, car theft, burglary, other thefts, and drugs offences. In the most recent survey, data have also been collected on total criminal and traffic offences.

For each of the six broad topic areas described above, and for each offence, information is collected from each country on definitions of each offence, points at which the data recording takes place in the criminal justice process,

statistical counting rules, and recent changes in legislation or statistical collection systems affecting the statistics.

Lessons

The surveys reveal that absolute comparisons may be misleading even though most countries collect comprehensive data on crime and prosecutions. This is because of differences in definitions of offences and counting rules.

However, it is possible to identify small groups of countries with similar definitions or to make use of trend comparisons for wider groups. It has also become evident that data covering the whole criminal justice system should be studied in order to obtain a clearer picture.

Key findings from the survey covering 1990 – 96 (Aebi, Barclay, Jehle, and Killias 1999) include the following:

- The probability of a suspect being convicted fell for most offences during this period. The exceptions were homicide, rape, and assault.
- In countries where the prosecuting authority had a low workload, cases were more likely to be brought before a court. This suggested that the criminal justice system tended to balance itself out.
- The size of the prison population in a country did not depend upon the crime rate but on the length of sanctions imposed. When each offence is considered separately, for the most serious offences, the number of receptions into prison offered the best explanation of the size of the prison population.

Availability

The data from the first full sourcebook survey (both statistical and definitional information) are available from the Council of Europe (on paper only) or on the Dutch sponsored website (www.europeansourcebook.org). Papers based upon the *Sourcebook* data are also available on this website and have been presented at conferences such as the ESC in Lausanne and Toledo and the American Society of Criminology and the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences.

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Gordon Barclay is head and Cynthia Tavares deputy head of the International group within the Research, Development and Statistics Directorate of the UK Home Office.

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EVENTS IN 2003

March

- 7 **International Conference on 'European citizens in prison abroad - why should we care?'**
Brussels, Belgium
- 8 **l'Association française de criminologie Collectif "Octobre 2001"**
Les périodes de sûreté à la française en questions. Palais du Luxembourg, Paris, France
- 11-14 **65th International Society for Criminology Seminar**
New Tendencies in Crime and Criminal Policy in Central and Eastern Europe
University of Miskolc, Miskolc, Hungary

April

- 13-16 **Ainringer Ostertage 5th Colloquium on Cross-Boarder Crime**
Organized Crime and Crime Economy. Ainringer, Bavaria, Germany
- 17-19 *Conferencing and Restorative Justice Decision Making: Research, Policy and Practice*
Community Justice Institute, Florida Atlantic University, Fort Lauderdale, FL., USA

May

- 4-8 **American Jail Association Training Conference.** Albuquerque, New Mexico, USA
- 7-9 **2e Congrès international francophone sur "l'agression sexuelle."** Brussels, Belgium
- 29-30 **The International Institute for the Sociology of Law**
Child Abuse and Exploitation: Social, Legal, and Political Dilemmas. Onati, Spain

June

- 1-4 *Best Practices in Restorative Justice: An International Perspective*
Coast Plaza Hotel, Vancouver, BC, Canada
- 5-6 **The International Institute for the Sociology of Law**
Youthful Law Violators, Human Rights, and the Development of New Juvenile Justice Systems. Onati, Spain
- 24-27 **British Society of Criminology Conference 2003**
The Challenge of Comparative Crime and Justice. University of Wales, Bangor, UK

August

- 10-15 **XIII World Congress of Criminology.** Rio de Janeiro, Brazil
- 27-30 **3rd Annual Conference of the European Society of Criminology**
Crime and Crime Control in an Integrating Europe. Helsinki, Finland

September

- 10-14 **15th Conference of the International Association for Research into Juvenile Criminology.** *Migrations and Ethnic Minorities: Impact on Youth Crime and Challenge for the Juvenile Justice Systems.* University of Fribourg, Switzerland

October

- 1-3 **Anzsoc Conference 2003.** *Controlling Crime: Risks and Responsibilities*
NSW Bureau of Crime Statistics and Research, Sydney, Australia
- 9-11 **German Association of Criminology (Neue Kriminologische Gesellschaft)**
Applied Criminology between Freedom and Security. Ludwig-Maximilians University, Munich, Germany

November

- 19-22 **American Society of Criminology Annual Meeting**
The Challenge of Practice, The Benefits of Theory, Adams Mark Hotel, Denver, Co, USA



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