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Fourth United Nations Congress on
the Prevention of Crime and the
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(Kyoto, Japan, 17-26 August 1970)

Preparatory Regional Meeting of
Experts in Social Defence
(Asian Region)
(Bangkok, Thailand, 24-28 November 1969)

REPORT OF THE PREPARATORY REGIONAL MEETING OF EXPERTS
IN SOCIAL DEFENCE (ASIAN REGION)

INTRODUCTION

1. The preparatory regional meeting of experts in social defence (Asian region) was the second of a series of meetings to be held in Africa, Asia, Europe, Latin America and the Middle East in preparation for the Fourth United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders, which is scheduled to take place at Kyoto, Japan, 17-26 August 1970.
2. In opening the meeting the representative of the Executive Secretary of ECAFE said that Asia and the Far East were perhaps less troubled by crime than some of the more developed areas of the world but, as it seemed clear that the volume of crime increased as certain stages of development - and particularly of urban growth - were attained, Asia and the Far East must make great efforts to understand the forces behind this phenomenon. Moreover, he pointed out that as Asia was a developing region where crime had not yet reached frightening proportions, it had a rare opportunity to avoid the unfortunate trend to which he had just alluded, if it could not only strengthen the means of crime prevention, but also take pains to promote the kind of national development that would leave less incentive for crime than hitherto.
3. The representative noted that the Kyoto Congress would lay emphasis on this particular aspect of development in relation to crime and would stress the existing opportunity for early prevention where traditional social controls were still effective; that it would seek to stimulate the interest of the developing world in the kind of action that might be taken to mitigate the undesirable social side-effects of economic growth and of increased mobility and the ever-increasing concentration of people in urban areas.
4. The tremendous drive in most countries of the Asia and Far East region to achieve economic and social development was expected to increase the standards of living and to bring about a more equitable sharing of the benefits of increasing prosperity. Progress in either or both of those directions, though not primarily pursued with a view to reducing crime, might of course have that result by reducing poverty and removing some of the causes of discontent.
5. Yet, he continued, as the region approached the Second Development Decade, it was increasingly aware that too little attention had hitherto been paid to

the importance of balancing economic with social investments. During the coming years, therefore, much more emphasis must be laid upon the great advantages that would flow from appropriate kinds of investment in human resources. In health and education, most countries of the region had made considerable progress; but in the redistribution of wealth and in efforts to eliminate the undesirable side-effects of urban growth - including crime and juvenile delinquency - they had been much less successful.

6. In noting the unavailability of the resources that would be required for a large operation dealing exclusively with crime and delinquency, the representative made clear that whatever investments were to be made must serve to promote development as well as providing remedies for social ills. He further noted that in this region, the questions to be studied had already been recognized as being of considerable importance as evidenced by the establishment at Tokyo of a special institute for the prevention of crime and treatment of offenders.

7. The representative continued by remarking that the work would be followed with very great interest and that, in particular, the region would be happy to pursue any recommendations on the extension of technical assistance to the field of social defence in Asia and the Far East, subject of course to availability of resources, an aspect of technical assistance so far relatively unexploited because other priorities had seemed so much greater. He emphasized, however, the deep concern felt that, in so many Asian countries, there appeared to be insufficient appreciation of the need to plan effectively for the kind of development that would meet the problem of crime and development more effectively than had hitherto been the case in other parts of the world. Guidance would be welcomed as to the kind of assistance that ECAFE and the appropriate national authorities should bear in mind, in particular, as to the best ways in which such assistance could be financed or otherwise obtained, keeping in mind the limited resources at both the national and international levels.

8. The Executive Secretary for the Fourth United Nations Congress noted that the agenda before the meeting was common for all the meetings that were being held on this subject, and that here, as in Africa,^{1/} the meeting began with

^{1/} A/CONF.43/RM.1.

two great advantages: most of the experts invited were already known to each other, which should make it possible to deal with the substantive issues with a minimum of formality and delay. Moreover, the meeting had been kept small quite deliberately to allow for the subjects to be treated more fully and effectively.

9. The meeting decided to follow in its deliberations the outline of the subjects provided by the discussion guide^{2/} as follows:

- (1) Social defence policies and national development planning;
- (2) Participation of the public in the prevention and control of crime and delinquency;
- (3) The Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners in the light of recent developments in the correctional field;
- (4) Organization of research for policy development in social defence.

I. DISCUSSION OF THE AGENDA ITEMS

A. Social defence policies and national development planning

10. The first agenda item was introduced with the statement that the "Crime and development" theme of the Kyoto Congress had grown out of discussions and programmes at the Asia and Far East Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders, where in 1967 a special course had been held on this theme. The course had emphasized crime in a wider perspective and had drawn attention to the need for making the prevention and treatment of crime an integral part of the sectoral and intersectoral planning of every country. The meeting took account of the fact that in seeking to answer the questions proposed by the discussion guide, there should be attention paid not only to the data required for planning, but to the form of organization. Some participants stressed the need to delimit the concepts for consideration, by specifying the kinds of data to be examined and the kinds of crime to be taken into consideration

^{2/} "Some issues for discussion at regional meetings of experts in social defence convened in preparation for the Fourth United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders (17-26 August 1970, Kyoto, Japan)".

by planners. Reference was made to the growing appreciation in Asia of the criminogenic aspects of national, regional and zonal planning. In Japan, for instance, special committees on the daily life of the people formed part of the structure for national and regional planning and these paid particular attention to such subjects as juvenile delinquency. Traffic offences and the types of crime likely to arise from increased legislation connected with economic development were also important areas for planning consideration.

11. With regard to organization, the planning structure in India was outlined, in which sectoral and intersectoral groups operated to ensure ample social attention being given to the investment of resources in national growth and development. The sectoral responsibilities of the divisions of the planning organization did not necessarily follow the lines of administrative responsibility within the Government, for example, the Division for Social Welfare would include interministerial aspects which might cut across the strictly ministerial responsibilities for social welfare as a subject. Study groups existed within these structures to provide the planning authority with data and priority gradings. Even here, however, where there was a fairly integrated system for planning, it was evident that intersectoral planning for the prevention of crime was a much more difficult proposition. Many of the objectives that were values in themselves (for example, an extension of the educational system to provide a basic minimum education for all or the improvement of health services) were obvious crime preventives, though not viewed in any such limited fashion.

12. Information from the region indicated that planning was being done more effectively sectorally than intersectorally. Whilst there was always the problem of ensuring adequate attention to the social aspects of economic development, it seemed that in Asia, where planning commissions were in operation they already had sectoral divisions, departments or committees for general social development or for social welfare in its widest sense (including health and education). Whilst these provisions were not specifically for the purpose of social defence they dealt inter alia with social defence matters - especially juvenile delinquency. Moreover, the courts, the police and prisons - as well as other special crime services were usually able to put forward development proposals to

the planning authorities through their respective ministries. Certainly the countries of Asia and the Far East required more social planners with an understanding of social defence issues, but progress had been made on the sectoral side of planning for social defence and this could be expected to continue. Whether it would develop fast enough was another question.

13. On the other hand, intersectoral planning was a great deal less satisfactorily organized in Asia as elsewhere because the knowledge about techniques of social planning, the integration of economic and social goals and the criteria for the determination of optimum arrangements in regard to intersectoral co-ordination is still in the process of development.

14. The general feeling was that intersectoral planning could be improved in two ways:

(a) To provide within the planning structure for a committee, study group or team of experts to keep the problem of crime prevention in focus - to gather data and advise on planning decisions and procedures (a group of this kind would survey all fields of national planning for their crime implications);

(b) To select definite projects, areas or subjects around which to mobilize crime prevention efforts. This might be, for example, a project to prevent school drop-outs, to prevent crime in a particular district or to promote family welfare. In all such special projects subjects or areas there was an opportunity for intersectoral co-ordination for crime prevention.

(1) Planning effectively with present data

15. The meeting recognized that data on the aetiology of crime were far too limited for precise planning at this stage. It was still doubtful whether crime was necessarily reduced by investments on health and education, by more police, more open penal institutions or better family welfare. The relationship of unemployment to crime or the influence of affluence or poverty on crime was inadequately explained and despite a number of studies the results were rarely easy to generalize.

16. Nevertheless, this was a situation by no means rare for the planner who had often to project speculatively: the participants were satisfied that more than

adequate data was already available for there to be a systematic approach to planning for crime prevention. It was especially stressed that there should be arrangements for evaluation and feed-back so that efforts to promote development (in all directions) could be assessed for their crime prevention value and the results used to improve future decision-making in the allocation of resources.

17. It seemed that efforts were being made already in many countries of the region to collect existing data and to make it available to planners and administrators. In Japan the rates for different types of crime in rural and urban areas at different stages of development were being collected: and in both India and Pakistan committees, commissions or study groups were set up from time to time to review schemes and programmes in particular areas of social defence. These bodies served to identify weaknesses and to make recommendations for changes in policies or programmes. Within the plan organization, planning groups are also established to formulate proposals for the five-year plan. These planning groups take into account the work of the earlier committees or commissions. Furthermore, as already indicated the tendency in regional planning was to pay far more attention to the effects of planning on behaviour patterns.

18. Thus, the scope for planning with available data was being widened all the time and the process of forecasting for the purpose of crime prevention planning could well be refined as our data became better organized and was increased in the year ahead.

19. In this respect the meeting endorsed the call of the African meeting for more uniform crime reporting - and for a more integrated system of national accounting. This was to say that, not only should the statistics for crime be interrelated and reconciled, but that all kinds of related data could be considered for collection, storage and publication where it could be of value for understanding, preventing or controlling criminal or delinquent behaviour.

20. Statistical units of the different Governments were already producing economic data in the various areas, but not nearly sufficient information on social problems and social progress. These and many other types of data were needed for effective planning for crime prevention. This was not to propose new research or new systems for data collection or retrieval, so much as to

seek a more adequate processing and issue of the material which was already in existence. Often this data in existence relating to social defence is either kept within one ministry or not properly developed for routine publication. Figures for school attendances, the extent of informal schooling, literacy rates, unemployment, mental health (or mental ill-health), housing, migration and the like should be systematically collected and regularly issued for public use where this was not already being done. Similarly, the direct work on criminal statistics now being done by the police, the courts probation, prison and related services needed, in most countries of this region, to be integrated to show interrelationships and there might be great value in compiling such information in a simple publication.

21. Different ways of collecting and issuing information should also be explored. Not only was it possible and desirable to consider alternative ways of recording crime, but in a technological age there may well be a variety of expedients for facilitating the gathering, organizing and retrieval of information.

(2) The protection of vulnerable groups in the population

22. As in most similar discussions of this subject the need to lay a special emphasis on youth in any planning for crime prevention was fully appreciated. The view was expressed, however, that youth should not monopolize planning attention and there were other groups which needed consideration. In fact, age alone should not be the only criterion for a classification of those segments of the population deserving special attention. A useful division could be made by sex, education, and by occupation - not to mention the obvious geographical or residential differences which planners need to bear in mind when thinking in terms of crime prevention. Delinquency areas, a well-known aspect of crime situations provided an example of a criminal or delinquency prone group in need of special care: youth might still predominate but a larger age-group was involved if the total area were to be taken into account. Similarly, concentrations of offenders in towns called for the kind of planning geared to take account of a cross section of the total population affected by urbanization.

23. Some countries had already made a special commitment to youth in their efforts to prevent crime - notably Japan and China, Thailand, India and Pakistan.

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The Philippines too were making special efforts to protect young people, but here it had also been noted that there were certain other groups which could not be neglected. For example, most crimes of violence seemed to be committed by farmers or fishermen, whilst drug addiction appeared to be concentrated among the unemployed.

24. Experience in several of the countries of the region indicated that value was most readily obtainable in crime prevention from investments designed to strengthen family life or to support the established social controls. The meeting realized, however, that a conflict might be involved here with efforts to develop initiatives and to open up closed societies to new forms of development. It believed that it should be possible to obtain the more ready response to modernization without the amount of family and community disintegration which had characterized past stages of industrial and commercial development. This was why the planning of community and social development was so important to economic growth. This was a very specific way of protecting from the ill-effects of crime many of the families likely to be affected by the more general economic investments of the planners themselves in industry and even agriculture.

25. In view of the longer years that children were spending in formal education and the fact that young people were often in educational institutions well into adulthood, the meeting underlined the importance of the school in the protection of youth. The role of the school as a new, dynamic community with its own standards, values and traditions could hardly be over-emphasized in the opinion of the participants. It was, therefore, not necessary to think only of strengthening older patterns of conduct. The school, properly conceived, staffed and supervised, could well be used to promote the kind of behaviour most likely to contribute to wholesome economic and social development with a minimum of criminal side effects. There was a note of urgency in the need to look more constructively at the school as a new dimension in the life of young people. It now represented a way of life up to an age of maturity and discretion and could no longer be viewed merely as a limited educational process.

26. Note was taken of the continuing differentiation in all countries, at all stages of development and in practically all circumstances between the rates of crime for boys and girls, men and women. While it was a subject for much deeper

study the meeting felt that it had obvious implications in Asia beyond the extra protection accorded to females. Here, as girls were often married and having children at an early age there was the added factor that they had simply less opportunity than their better educated and more mobile brothers to run the risk of committing crime.

27. Once again the meeting felt that in considering the special groups who deserved and merited special planning consideration in any effort to prevent crime, there could be few real generalizations. There was a need for a more careful study of the different crimes. Traffic offenders were obviously a special group and perhaps a group which caused more death and damage than most others: but distinctions had to be made between the different types of traffic offenders. Different types of criminals required special attention, the sexual offenders and the organized criminal groups qualifying for consideration from those who would reach the most problematical most effectively. Obviously, the planner would be looking for the group on which he could invest most effectively for crime prevention, and even among young people he would need to differentiate if he hoped to apply the funds to those who could be most profitably protected from the dangers of crime and the temptations to become delinquent.

(3) The types of crime most amenable to prevention consistent with growth and progress

28. Experience in the region that could be placed under this heading varied very considerably. It varied not only as between countries but also as between the regions within countries, and was affected both by rural and urban conditions and the informed social controls in the locality.

29. The participants agreed with the African meeting's observation that economic development was usually accompanied by more crime: but it had to concentrate more upon the exceptions. The most pertinent information came from Japan, which reported a steady decline of adult crime over the past fifteen years, a reduction in juvenile crime during the past four or five years and a marked diminution of economic crimes alongside the country's economic growth and development. This omitted traffic offences, of course, which naturally tended to increase as both the number of vehicles and the number of people driving continued to rise. But

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apart from traffic offences Japan seemed to provide an example of economic growth characterized not by a growth of crime, but by a decline. It was admitted that without a great deal more study the reasons for the decline of crime were not understood. Yet the possibility could not be overlooked that economic growth itself and a more equitable distribution of wealth - which was said to be noticeable in Japan - were serving to bring down the crime rate in a fashion which differed diametrically from experience in many other developed countries.

30. In other areas of Asia where such variations had appeared they had not been unrelated to the differences in the local methods of controlling or recording the crime dealt with or to changes in the policies adopted for prosecutions or police work. This did not appear to be the explanation in Japan, however, where there had been no major changes in official policy in the period covered and, if anything, the indications were that the authorities would have benefited in their budget allocation from reporting more crime - or from reporting it more assiduously.

31. This very interesting example of the trend of events in Japan led the meeting to recommend more detailed studies of the trends there and to suggest that the countries of the region find ways through United Nations Technical Assistance of strengthening the research and training facilities of the United Nations Asia and Far East Institute at Fuchu, Tokyo.

32. While there were probably special reasons for Japan's experience, the meeting took the view that planning properly conceived and exerted could greatly reduce the incidence of crime. Again using Japan as an example, a simple administrative change allowing discretion to the police had reduced traffic offences recorded. In other areas of the Asian region better street lighting had reduced local crimes of robbery and burglary while regulating drinking had also minimized certain offences due to drunkenness. Above all it was appreciated that judicious approaches to legislation could help to reduce the area of behaviour under legal control and thus simplify the problem for the courts, the police and the prisons. India reported a trend towards greater use of probation because this seemed to be a better way of dealing with some types of offenders - particularly first offenders and youthful offenders.

33. There was an obvious need to plan in such a way as to avoid the creation of new crimes or industrial slums giving rise to a series of new social problems (including crime). Attention to banking practices and the education of the public in the protection of their property could also serve to reduce types of crime which might otherwise proliferate.

(4) Where among the professional services for social defence should national resources be concentrated for the best effect in terms of crime prevention?

34. In dealing with this subject, the meeting first made a general call for fewer administrative and professional distinctions to be made between the various crime prevention services. Participants felt it necessary to promote in all countries a policy of integration and greater continuity. Invidious distinctions had been drawn in the past between preventive and curative services, but in fact the differences between them was one of degree rather than kind. The police and prisons existed in a broad sense for crime prevention and could be as important in this respect as some of the more generalized social services. Moreover, education and general health services could still be regarded as curative services in their impact upon particular offenders. It was, therefore, more logical and likely to be more administratively efficient for the prevention and treatment of crime to be regarded as a simple undivided process of stages or phases in promoting the healthy and wholesome development of individuals or groups - whether it be family welfare, the school, the police, the prison, the courts or the probation services which were under consideration. From the planning viewpoint this would be the best way to look at the social defence sector - as a unified and graded system for crime prevention with the services distributed along a continuum from the earliest prevention with children to the absolute control of hardened offenders.

35. Whilst this general view was adopted by the meeting as an ideal, the facts of administrative practice were acknowledged to be instrumental in interposing career and financial differences between the various social defence services. However understanding, accepting and tolerant of broader and more generalized approaches to crime prevention it was not easy for people in specific services to see the available resources allocated around them and not sufficiently

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allocated to themselves for the work they wanted to do. It soon emerged from the discussion at the meeting itself that each professional service had its own special claim to priority in the allocation of resources. It followed that planners in any country would therefore be constrained to establish preferences to arrange the various services for crime prevention and control in a hierarchy of importance if they hoped to get the best out of their proposed investments in social defence.

36. In planning there were usually alternative means by which equal ends or objectives could be attained and a choice had to be made - or a scale of preferences established. The main objectives were less crime and fewer criminals. If, therefore, it could be shown that these ends might best be attained by greater investments in health, education or family welfare, then such services should be clearly preferred over and above the more direct crime control services. Similarly, if probation without individual supervision or a suspended sentence with no provision for personal surveillance could be shown to have produced results comparable to those normally associated with personally supervised probation, then the former would be the most attractive service for investment.

37. It was recognized, however, that decisions could rarely be made so unambiguously. It is not usually possible yet for criminologists to give planners unequivocal guidance on the most preventive services. Even in health, education and social services it is usually a matter of determining what particular kinds of health services, what types and amounts of education or what manner of social services are the most preventive - and studies in this field have offered very limited guidance so far.

38. To assist the planners to allocate resources more effectively among the different social defence services, there was an implied need for more careful studies and evaluations of the investments which have been made already. These evaluations are not easy to make and cause and effect relationships are no more likely to be established here than within other social services where the values are more qualitative than quantitative. Nevertheless, the procedures are crystallizing for project and programme evaluation and techniques of assessment (e.g.: according to aims and objectives attained or according to

significance and methods) are coming into wider use. It was admitted that too few efforts had been made in this direction so far in the field of social defence.

39. To facilitate the difficult decisions which planners must make as to the most profitable allocations of resources, the meeting considered evaluations of present and past projects and programmes in social defence to be both desirable and necessary. Meanwhile, planners could be expected to allocate resources not only where they thought prevention most likely to be promoted, but where the investment served an end in itself apart from its crime preventive significance. This was why typically the planners in developing countries gave more liberally to health and education rather than to police and prisons. Still it was possible for a great deal of improved preventive work to be achieved by judicious selection of the points of preventive impact within these services. Thus, funds for health could best serve to prevent crime according to present knowledge where they stress child welfare and mental hygiene. Education would be preventive where it was promoted in a way which minimized unjustified expectations leading to frustration and/or unemployment or displacement within the society.

40. Within the professional social defence services themselves, it appeared that preference would continue to be with the law and order services like the courts, prosecution and the police with rather less going to prison, probation and after-care. Here was a sphere for more effective studies and evaluation to guide the planners choice to the points of greatest effect. It was possible that greater preventive use could be made of the traditional preferences for the courts and the police as agents of law and order, for example, the police could serve more socially preventive functions - as where special juvenile liaison services have been established. Also Japan has demonstrated that suspended prosecutions can help to reduce recidivism, and greater attention to non-institutional treatment might give better results.

41. Throughout the consideration of the best allocations for social defence services sight should never be lost of the prospect of linking such investments with more general investments in national planning. Youth development was a proper field inter alia for the prevention of juvenile delinquency. Prison labour

could be a most significant feature of development projects and the re-education of delinquents could well be fitted to broader educational programmes.

(5) Principles, methods and devices to assist the planner in determining his allocations

42. As with its African predecessor, the Asian meeting found it difficult to delve too deeply into the models, techniques and devices which are of value for planning purposes. It pointed out, however, that those procedures and approaches in current use for the other fields of national planning have usually a fairly obvious reference to social defence. The question of allocating scarce resources between alternative uses to obtain a desired effect operated, in principle at least, in much the same way in social defence as in other sectors. For the economy generally, planning of all kinds, no matter how apparently unrelated to social defence, should be provided with a special defence division so that the crime implications of developments proposed for agriculture, industry and commerce should be known and provided for as far as possible.

43. If crime prevention be an integrated part of the national approach to resource allocations then models which show the effect of certain kinds of investment on the economy could perhaps be modified in due course, if not immediately, to indicate the levels of different types of crime which are now generally associated with different stages of urbanization or industrial growth. So, too, cost benefit analysis had its function despite the qualitative difficulties inherent in social defence calculations, as indeed in most other social sectors. Just how far cost benefit studies had application to social defence had yet to be established: but the attempt to apply such a device to decision-making would serve at least to expose some of the underlying assumptions to be orderly and systematic.

44. All this probably meant that planners should receive orientation in the problems, implications and potentialities of planning for development with less crime. In addition there was a need to begin preparing experts in the social defence field able to understand and apply the principles of programming and planning for crime prevention. Special courses might be initiated at the United Nations Asia and Far East Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment

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of Offenders at Fuchu, Tokyo, and every effort should be made by the multilateral and bilateral agencies to help the Institute develop this kind of service for the region as a whole. It would require staff with expertise in integrating social defence in national planning and greater facilities for widening the scope of training at the Institute.

B. Participation of the public in the prevention and control of crime and delinquency

45. In this discussion the attempt was made to distinguish between traditional and more modern or formalized ways of involving the public in the prevention of crime. For example, Japan in earlier times had a system of collective responsibility, based upon groups of five families who earned credit and carried liability for the behaviour of any of their members. They carried shame for misconduct of any person belonging to the group and were responsible for his rehabilitation. This continued up to the Second World War, though at the Meiji Restoration it became a kind of "neighbourhood team", which during war-time was actually used for internal administration. The new Constitution following the Second World War led to the abolition of this control system. The revision of the civil law discontinued official recognition of the arbitrary rights of family heads. Gradually, however, the idea of "neighbourhood teams" has been reintroduced in Japan but mainly as friendly associations (for festivals or ceremonial occasions) and they now carry no real public power or control.

46. Nevertheless, this provides a sound background for the modern form of public participation in the form of the Crime Prevention Association with its 2,604 units, the Vocational Union for Crime Prevention, the Co-operators for Juvenile Guidance, the School/Police and Workshop/Police Liaison Councils, Traffic Safety Workers and Monitors, Voluntary probation officers etc. Moreover, shop owners and other groups have recently organized themselves for protection against student violence.

47. In the Philippines the family is the principal traditional form of public participation. The "family council, blood group or kinship group" in the Philippines is also recognized informally: this has an acknowledged family head

whose rights are even formally recognized by the civil law in the control of behaviour. There is also a kind of political organization at the local neighbourhood level with a district "captain". The problem in the Philippines is that these various groups do not always view matters in the same way and controls are not always consistent.

48. Upon this older traditional system the modern structure of Christian Missions, the Christian Family Movement, the Federation of Women's Clubs, the International Youth Movements etc. has been built, with all its implications and limitations for more or less public participation in crime prevention. The participant from the Philippines stressed the role of religion in the effective prevention of crime and delinquency.

49. To confirm this view, Pakistan reported that nearly 80 per cent of its people lived in villages where the immemorial traditional controls operated. Throughout the country the religious controls are still the most dominant moral force. The responsibility for local behaviour rests with the village community and the family elders and in the towns the mohalla committees fill a corresponding role. These not only regulate local conduct and deal with any misconduct informally wherever possible, but also bring offenders before the police and the authorities whenever necessary. The modern structure of voluntary associations has far less influence on crime prevention in Pakistan than these older systems. Indeed, the effectiveness of the older controls and religious sanctions is such that, generally speaking, crime in the country is still kept within reasonable limits - even in the growing towns.

50. In India in rural areas the social control of individual conduct and the pressure for local conformity came from the family and the kin or caste. Within the village, behaviour was the responsibility of the immediate group or kin to which a person belonged. A large number of voluntary organizations have been established mainly in urban areas for mobilizing public opinion in regard to social defence, providing institutional and non-institutional services and for influencing social policy. Both the central and state governments give financial as well as technical assistance to voluntary organizations as promotion of voluntary effort is a part of the Plan Strategy of involving the community.

In addition, the Central Social Welfare Board was set up in 1953 to promote voluntary effort and is now assisting a large number of voluntary organizations.

51. In Thailand a law was passed in 1884 authorizing village headmen to organize local young men of twenty-one years of age into a kind of police force to protect property. Buffalo, cows and other animals were herded together and the responsibility for their care and control circulated around the villagers. This practice continues in the rural areas of Thailand, which contain approximately 70 per cent of the population. Villagers' hostility towards local offenders sometimes influenced the course of criminal justice. For example, in certain serious and severe cases there could be incidences of mob justice, which could not be regarded as desirable public participation.

52. Thailand has several Chinese community associations that look after the welfare of Chinese and Thai people and help to prevent them getting into trouble. Individuals subject to misfortune in certain forecast years will devote these years to community work or may give a financial donation to the association. Buddhist associations exist to guide and help members - especially young people. Thailand is a strongly Buddhist country with religious ideals and practices which have a great effect on public behaviour.

53. The meeting drew attention to the need to avoid the kind of formalization of traditional controls, which might serve in the end to destroy them. On the other hand, as conditions changed with modernization there was a need for training and adaptation. In Ceylon the elder gan-sabha or village council has been adapted to reduce litigation and control crime. Here the police and courts were encouraged administratively to set up arbitration councils in rural areas - based upon the principle of the gan-sabha. This village arbitration council deals with a great deal of work that would otherwise have been expensive for the litigants or that could have been criminogenic. Crime in these areas has shown a tendency to decline. In India the institution of the myaya panchayat is part of the process of democratic decentralization and in general serves a similar purpose in providing for local treatment of problems in a way which is essentially preventive of crime. In Pakistan the lowest levels of local government are also of a community character and serve a dispute-settling function,

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which often wards off illegal behaviour. Here the extension of the jirga system provides for traditionally recognized elders to deal informally with quite serious offences.

54. There was a time when certain depressed classes in Ceylon were hardly represented at all in the cases coming before the courts. Hardly ever did they feature amongst the prison population. This was because these groups dealt with misconduct in their midst in their own ways. This might mean that they had different ways of viewing conduct from that authorized in the law (for example, one rape case was dealt with not by reporting the case to the police, but by obliging the family of the offender to find a husband for the girl), but they tended to control behaviour among themselves and discouraged crime. When the depressed classes were accorded more recognition in law and achieved greater economic independence they began to be subject to more crime and they rapidly took their places with other groups in the community in producing both crime and criminals in the formal sense. This indicated that care must be taken to ensure that the necessary newer systems and the older informal controls were dealt with in such a way as to ensure that they reinforced, rather than worked against, each other.

55. Another view, however, was that public participation should be limited, wherever it might mean that local groups would make their own decisions on crime and types of punishment. A distinction was drawn here between in-groups with their own standards to deal with their own members and populations in urban areas where such in-group cohesion might not apply. At the same time it was recognized that subgroups and subcultures in towns tended, in certain circumstances, to reproduce the typically rural control in principle if not in extent - and there was a limit to the capacity of a society to tolerate internal differentiation of this kind in penal matters.

56. Certain participants underlined the greater importance of public participation for the prevention of crime and the corresponding need for its limitation in the actual control of crime and the punishment of offenders. It was remarked, however, that there were people who would prefer to limit the idea of wider public participation to rehabilitation work and to avoid extending public intervention in matters of police interest or in work calling for certain types of professional services.

57. The participants took careful note of an analysis of the public participation issue prepared by the expert from Japan. He pointed out that the extent to which local groups could be tolerated in the local control of the behaviour of their members according to their own norms and standards was perhaps a function of the size and comprehensiveness of the Government. It would be difficult in Japan to accept local differentiations of this kind because here even mountain villages share the standards of the larger cities and are in touch with events in Tokyo. The people would not accept being dealt with differently according to their residence or local community ideas when they were in touch with standards and values of a different kind for the country as a whole. Nevertheless, he acknowledged that larger and less developed countries would have more extended systems of government which might have to depend upon the capacity of large groups or communities to control their own behaviour. He pointed out, however, that the development process meant the gradual standardization of standards and if the pace of change was rapid then there would be a need to prepare for the time when the large areas of crime prevention and control now left to local informal methods would need to be brought more effectively within a national system as in Japan. Therefore, the extent and quality of public participation depended upon the stages of development and the amount and quality of government, central and local.

58. Finally, this participant drew attention to the two or three kinds of public participation that had to be differentiated in any consideration of their extension or limitation. First, came the organization of public participation from above, that is, by the organs of central and local government. Here the objectives were usually specific and related to the responsibilities of the statutory authorities interested in extending the public interest in their work. In this group might be included parent/teacher associations, voluntary probation systems and voluntary prison visiting. Secondly, there was the opposite type of public participation, which was more spontaneous or autonomous and arose from the peoples' determination to organize themselves for their benefit or protection in matters or in areas where central and local government might not be too efficient. To this category belonged community groups, vigilant systems

and religious associations to promote the benefit of members. Here the objectives were usually far more general, had no necessary reference to official responsibilities and were subject to variation.

59. These two types of public participation would overlap and could often be reconciled. But they could also be in conflict and this fact needed to be kept in mind.

60. Finally, a special aspect of the first type of public participation might be derived from the various attempts being made to associate the public with the machinery of the law and the judicial system. The point made was that it was never easy to generalize about the desirability or limitation of public participation without taking these different types into account.

C. The Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners

61. The Secretary dealt briefly with the outline of this subject as it was presented in the Discussion Guide. He described the various approaches to the Rules that had crystallized in the meeting so far. At the one extreme were those who would retain the Rules unchanged for a much longer period, not merely to allow time for their gradual acceptance and implementation in various parts of the world but to ensure that the vast amount of work that had gone into the drafting of the Rules should not be lightly discarded or altered. Ample provision had been made in the Rules for regional or cultural variations in their interpretation and application (according to this school of thought) and the Rules should be operated for a much longer period before they were now changed. At the opposite extreme were the advocates of radical change. These held that the Rules should be rewritten to take account of changes not only in ways of thinking about prisons and rehabilitation, but also of changes in technology and local or regional value systems. In a period of rapid change it was necessary to keep up to date and the Rules drafted so many years ago now needed up-dating. Thirdly, there was the body of opinion that wished to extend the idea of standard minima for conditions of treatment, not only for prisoners but for other classes of offenders, for example, those on probation, parole, in remand centres or institutions which were not prisons. Fourthly, there was a movement to recognize

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Rules of this kind as basic human rights applicable to all persons held in any kind of restraint or custody: sometimes this included a notion that the Rules lent themselves to a division into those easily acknowledged as basic human rights and others less general and fundamentally important. Finally, the whole question of the implementation of the Rules ran throughout these different ways of thinking. Precise information as to the extent of the application of the Rules in different countries was very difficult to come by. Obviously the Rules would be interpreted differently. Some countries had adopted the Rules formally; in other countries the Rules had been kept for guidance only. There were some people who felt that implementation would be improved if the Rules were given the status of an international convention to which Member States of the United Nations should be asked to subscribe. Others took the view that the moral effect of the Rules had been great and that they would have wider effect if their application was less formalized.

62. Dealing first with the third question in the discussion guide (relating to implementation), Japan reported broad recognition of, and implementation of, the Standard Minimum Rules. It was pointed out, however, that available accommodation and staff limitations sometimes handicapped the authorities in their attempts to apply the Rules. Examples of this could be drawn from the requirement that prisoners were expected to work eight hours and have an hour of physical exercise. This was not always possible with the available staff and in any case the question of physical exercise needed to be related to the type and conditions of the work. The standard of medical care expected by the Rules might not always be available in some of the smaller correctional institutions but again, with medical advances, it was sometimes more efficient for the smaller institutions to use the nearest civil hospitals than to appoint their own staff.

63. In Pakistan there are statutes governing both prisons and prisoners and under these laws, regulations could be and have been made which have been largely in conformity with the Standard Minimum Rules. But frequently conditions were such that it was difficult to apply in practice many principles which had the full consent of the Government. A sudden overcrowding of existing prison accommodation could make it difficult for instance to keep to the basic minimum

already adopted by the authorities. India reported that these Minimum Standard Rules could be conceived as universal. In India, the All India Jail Manual Committee (1957-1959) made recommendations relating to prison reforms, improvements in prison administration, treatment of prisoners, legislation etc., several of which prescribed a higher standard. It also prepared a Model Prison Manual, which has been circulated to the State Governments to enable them to revise their State Manuals. A large number of these recommendations have already been accepted and the State Governments are gradually revising their rules and regulations governing prisons. Some difficulties are being faced in bringing about better diversification of prisons, removal of overcrowding or fuller rehabilitation of offenders due to constraint of resources and the low priority received by this sector. Thailand translated the Standard Minimum Rules into Thai in 1961. However, even before this the country had a penitentiary law providing for the humane and civilized treatment of prisoners. Buddhism in Thailand ensures a good relationship between persons in custody and their guards. Thus, prison guards often actually accommodate in their own houses the relatives of prisoners who have come to visit those in custody. Still, in Thailand the problems of the overcrowding of the existing facilities and the obstacles presented by outmoded attitudes of the older prison staff hampered the universal and consistent application of the Rules. Notions of security often clash with the interests of reformation. Nor should it be overlooked that the basic material and medical conditions of the prisoners in Thailand are already above the usual conditions of the lower-income groups in the country.

64. The meeting came to the conclusion that despite the handicaps mentioned above the Rules were being implemented in Asia on a wide scale and as effectively as circumstances permitted. Probably countries in every part of the world were prevented at times from observing the Rules according to the letter; this in no way detracted from the fact that the Rules were observed and implemented. The same thing applied to countries in Asia. It was, therefore, possible from this fact to move to an answer to the question of the relevance of the Rules to different cultural conditions in Asia. Opinion at the meeting was unanimous that the Standard Minimum Rules were relevant and needed no major changes to make them more relevant to the varied value systems and different cultures of Asia.

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What needed to be recognized, however, was that the application of the Standard Minimum Rules did not exclude regional variations. For instance, beds would be provided in some countries, but in others a prisoner would sleep in blankets or on matting. This did not mean that there were different levels of application of the Rules, but that universal Rules had, necessarily, a number of different local meanings.

65. On the question of an extension of the Standard Minimum Rules it was thought that the principle of providing basic minimal conditions could well be applied more widely. The present Rules were intended for prisoners but could also provide a basic minimum standard for all persons in custody. More than this, it should be possible without interfering with the present system of Rules to draw up parallel codes of basic conditions for parolees, probationers and other forms of treatment for offenders.

66. The meeting felt that while the Rules needed no major redrafting, there should be more attention paid:

- (a) To independent committees and councils to review conditions in prisons;
- (b) To better training for the personnel required to apply the Rules;
- (c) To greater scope for the association of prisoners with their own treatment; and
- (d) To the need for more general public participation in the treatment of offenders.

D. The organization of research for policy development

67. At the request of the Chairman, the Secretary outlined the subject, underlining the fact that (as the discussion guide showed), the meeting was not being asked to consider the methodology or the problems of criminological research as such, but to study the problem of organizing research to ensure its use in the development of government policies and programmes for crime prevention.

68. The Director of the United Nations Asia and Far East Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders discussed some of the difficulties which the Institute had encountered in trying to carry out such

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regional surveys as had been undertaken. Apart from the considerable variation of concepts such as "crime" and "delinquency" in the different countries, there was the constant problem of collecting sufficient relevant data from the Asian nations and reconciling the divergent figures which were sometimes issued by different authorities dealing with crime problems. Even agencies operating in the same country did not always agree. The possibility of adopting some form of uniform crime reporting was a subject which should be investigated.

69. In Thailand, research of all kinds was fostered and co-ordinated by the National Research Council, which had ten sections, one of which was for social research. It not only allocates the national resources made available for research in all fields, but promotes the training of personnel and has the power to appoint experts and to conduct its own research when necessary. Most of the members of the National Research Council are drawn from the ministries and the universities. The Central Bureau of Statistics collects and publishes statistics of an economic and social nature, but relatively little on social defence. There is also a special research division in the Department of Corrections, which has existed since 1963. This, with other ministerial research divisions, serves the National Research Council, gathering data and conducting studies as required. However, it appears that the National Research Council has little guidance of an expert kind on the policy to adopt in developing criminological or social defence research. Its decisions to collect data and conduct studies are made by its executive committee, composed of the heads of the ten sections. Since only one of these covers the entire range of the social sciences, it is not easy for criminology or penal administration to receive adequate consideration.

70. In the Philippines an attempt has been made to follow the uniform crime reporting of the United States. The Philippines constabulary collects information on crime which is then passed to the National Bureau of Investigation for processing. Data is also collected on special types of crime by the Narcotics and Anti-Smuggling Division.

71. There are various institutes and agencies in the Philippines interested in research. The Law Centre of the University of the Philippines has an institute for research on the legal aspects of criminology. The Psychological Research

Centre is engaged in a psychological study of juvenile delinquency with financial assistance from a commercial firm. The Department of Public Welfare has a section studying juvenile crime from the statistical point of view. A most important long-range study of youth development and juvenile delinquency has been under way for the past six years by a special body set up under the Office of the President and known as the National Co-Ordinating Centre for the Study of the Development of Children and Youth. A sample of 200 children are being followed from birth to the age of eighteen. There is also the Peace and Order Council, composed of government officials and persons outside the Government, which helps the Government to plan the prevention and control of crime and becomes directly involved in funding research on crime. The National Bureau of Investigation is itself conducting research on the diagnosis and treatment of narcotic addicts.

72. The main problems in the Philippines centre around staff and politics. There is a shortage of professors to specialize in criminology because the pay for research in criminology is lower than that for commercial research and also because placement of persons after a period of research in criminology is more difficult than the placement of researchers in other fields. Secondly, the politicians and others in positions of influence in power tend to be interested more in short-term studies than in longer-range research with results which might not become available in their period of office.

73. In India, there is a general pattern of research in the social sciences that has implications for social defence. In this, one must count the many studies going on in the universities and the schools of social work. At Lucknow, at the University of Sagar and the Tata Institute there are institutes or departments dealing with criminological research. These have usually been clusters of specialists around individuals interested in this work so that the distribution tends to be uneven. Most of the work, however, has been relatively unrelated to policy issues. The University Grants Commission provides aid to universities to develop their work and gives fellowships or grants for research and higher-level training. Each ministry, through a number of specialized research institutes in health, education, family planning, labour etc., contributes to the studies within the general area of social defence. Voluntary agencies, like the Council

for Social Development, add to the flow of information as for example in a recent evaluation of the cost benefit aspects of homes for beggars.

74. The Planning Commission in India has itself sponsored research. Its Research Programmes Committee outlines the broad areas in which the Commission would be interested in fostering research and it pays special attention to the kinds of study that will provide data likely to be of value for planning purposes. The Programme Evaluation Organization and the Committee on Plan Projects of the Planning Commission have also played their part in the evaluation and study of policies and programmes. The Central Bureau of Correctional Services compiles and analyses statistical data based on returns from State Governments. Study teams and committees appointed by the Central and State Governments on specific problems also collect information and report their findings. There are two journals exclusively devoted to communication of research findings and trends in correctional services. In addition, the other social science journals too publish from time to time articles in the field of social defence.

75. However, there were gaps in the opportunities research workers in social defence could avail themselves of to come together and exchange information; the low priority enjoyed by the subject in the Government and in the universities limited the flow of expertise into this field. For example, few proposals were received by the Research Programme Committee of the Planning Commission for research in social defence. Research and policy and planning needs have not yet been fully integrated. Recently, the Government of India established a Social Science Research Council for sponsoring and promoting research on all problems including social defence in a more comprehensive manner.

76. In Pakistan some criminological research and research on a variety of related subjects were being conducted in the psychology and sociology departments of the universities. Some private organizations were also engaged in similar work. However, the scope of these exercises was limited and was generally of little assistance in policy formulation. In Pakistan crime and the prevention of crime is a provincial subject so that provincial governments have organized themselves to deal with this. In policy-making there was a reliance upon regular flows of administrative reports from the lower to the higher levels of government.

These might lack research precision but contained a vast amount of data of value for policy formulation and decision-making. In addition, high-powered commissions are occasionally constituted to deal with specific services in the social defence sector. These commissions go around the country and collect evidence. They review and evaluate the performance of the services and indicate the guidelines for future policy and action. For example, three such commissions are functioning at present to deal with the police, gaols and law reforms.

77. China reported a similar central and local government structure for the collection and processing of statistics and information. It was largely on this that policy was made for the country as a whole.

78. Japan had a number of research institutes in the universities and the ministries. Two of the most important of these were the Research and Training Institute of the Ministry of Justice and the Institute of Scientific Police of the National Police Agency. Both of these research bodies were established ten years ago when there was a growing appreciation of the importance of juvenile crime. Their work overlaps to some extent, although the Ministry of Justice tends to concentrate upon action following the reference of cases for prosecution, whereas the Police Institute studies the situation before this stage has been reached. The interesting recent study by the Ministry of Justice Research and Training Institute, dealt with the effectiveness of suspended prosecutions on the incidence of recidivism, and there was evidence that a suspension of this kind tended to reduce the recidivist rate. Other research institutes exist in Japan which have a direct or indirect relevance for social defence. Each ministry has some responsibility for research so that there is a National Research Institute for Education, a Social Welfare Research Institute and a Population Research Institute - to mention only a few. Of special importance for social defence is a Youth Problems Commission in the Prime Minister's Office. This is a co-ordinating body on youth problems and it has recently sponsored research on the subject of juvenile delinquency and urbanization.

79. An interesting feature of administrative practice in Japan is that the various sections of the ministries are in a position to finance and encourage research by field officers. For example, the Correction and Rehabilitation

Bureaux of the Ministry of Justice will make money available for their officers to conduct research projects in accordance with their interests. There is also the Japan Correctional Medical Association, which subsidizes research by the medical personnel of the correctional services. It has an annual meeting for co-ordinating its work and deciding upon future priorities.

80. Finally, in this review of social defence research in Japan, one should include the various agencies within the ministries that collect their own statistics. The annual publication of a White Paper on Crime and a White Paper on Youth, as well as the various administrative routines are all productive of information that can be valuable for those interested in the different aspects of crime and delinquency.

81. Despite all this, Japan is now feeling the need for broader-based research on crime in relation to social and economic development. This calls for a macro-approach rather than a micro-approach to crime problems. It probably means simplifying some of the indicators to be used, making much more extensive use of computers and involving a collaboration of the various research bodies with a view to sharing technological facilities. There is a serious need for a more effective data bank and for a clearing-house for information. With regard to the collection of data it is probably too difficult in a complex developed country like Japan to consider standardizing the existing categories and classifications. Probably, therefore, new patterns and classifications of a simplified nature are needed to reflect only the more important aspects of the information to be collected. For mass production and for generalized use there may have to be a new approach to data collection on a larger scale.

82. In reviewing the information submitted from various countries, the meeting felt that research for policy-making had barely begun in Asia and the Far East. It was obvious that criminological research and research in social defence had a very limited status and priority. In few countries was it receiving serious attention by the Governments and there was little encouragement for the development of the kind of work which would be necessary if crime prevention were to become an integrated part of national planning. Most countries in the region were in need of a careful inventory of their present facilities and

development of a programme of research for the next five years to ensure the data would be collected to be of value in allocating resources for the future. Meanwhile, more progress should be made towards the authorities making better use of the data already being collected in a routine way by a variety of services within the Government. However, the participants did not feel themselves in a position to pronounce in favour of any one form of organization for research for policy-making in social defence. Rather did they feel, from the experience reported, that each country would probably need to develop its own facilities and systems. The most important requirement was that government agencies and national councils should begin to treat the prevention of crime in the course of development as a serious and urgent issue for future planning and research allocation.

E. Technical assistance

83. Discussion of technical assistance in social defence in the Asia and Far East region centred mainly upon the work of the United Nations Asia and Far East Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders. The meeting was conscious of the great contribution that the Institute had already made to the development of legislation, corrections and crime prevention in the region, and it considered that future technical assistance for the region should as far as possible be centred upon this Institute. Some concern was expressed that instead of the United Nations financial and personnel assistance to this Institute being increased to meet the increasing needs of the region, it appears to be declining. The formal reasons for this were understood in the expiration of older agreements but they were not at all clear in terms of either regional or national needs, or in terms of the usual technical assistance criteria. It was pointed out that here was an institute with a proved value and a tremendous potential which should now be more effectively developed. This was particularly true since the Institute was preparing to move into areas of social defence planning and the deeper sway of crime in relation to development; it had already operated teams and seminars in the various countries of Asia, and had initiated discussions on the wider significance and implication of crime for rational

growth and development. In the light of the subjects discussed at this meeting, there were vital services which now needed to be extended.

84. The technical assistance requirements of most countries emerged at different levels and stages. First, if there was to be a real integration of planning, then countries required expert guidance on the relationship of planning to crime prevention. This could be provided by supplying outside experts to countries which might need them - but much more effectively it could be done by strengthening the Institute to provide (a) special courses for planners who require a social defence orientation for the integration of social defence considerations in national planning, (b) special course for social defence personnel in the process of planning and (c) by following up such training with special seminars in the countries of the region.

85. Secondly, there was a need for a larger number of fellowships and scholarships for local people to be trained and here again fellowships for special training at the Institute would be a most economical and efficient way of using the fellowship funds which might be available.

86. Thirdly, there was a need for the United Nations to strengthen its support to the Institute by providing senior advisers and experts as required to help conduct the varied courses which the region needed. Here it was hoped that technical assistance funds would be used to supply at least one senior adviser in 1970 and then two in the year to follow.

87. Fourthly, the United Nations itself should extend its work in social defence by conducting more conferences and meetings to facilitate the exchange of ideas on the subjects of importance in social defence. As the meeting had shown the opportunities for international exchange in this field were all too few. In this connexion, there was a need to have officers stationed at the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East and for the question of interregional or regional advisers for social defence to be given attention.

88. Finally, it was appreciated that negotiations for technical assistance were a subject complicated by a number of planning, political and professional interests. It was felt that Governments should be made more aware of the significance of social defence for national planning so as to be able to consider

more carefully the issue of its priority in their technical assistance requests. This required more efforts of the participants with their respective Governments: but it also implied a need for the United Nations social defence "presence" to be more widely felt in the countries of the region. In this respect there was a marked difference between the consultation and advice services made available to Governments by the headquarters of the specialized agencies (with a view to formulating technical assistance requests) and the absence of similar guidance offered from the United Nations. It was thought, therefore, that there would be more requests for technical assistance in this field if the United Nations could step up its contacts with Governments on the subject. This meant the United Nations ensuring that more personnel and funds were devoted to the subject - not only by technical assistance but in estimates made for the regular budgets.

Annex I

LIST OF PARTICIPANTS AT THE MEETING

Experts invited by the Secretary-General

Dhavec Choosup (Chairman)
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United Nations

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Department of Economic and Social Affairs

V.N. Pillai, Director
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Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East

P.T. San
Representative of the Executive Secretary

H.B.M. Homji
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I.G. Putra Kamayana
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H. Jhabvala
Senior Narcotics Liaison Officer

* Executive Secretary for the Fourth United Nations Congress for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders.

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Annex II

LIST OF DOCUMENTS

Some issues for discussion at regional meetings of experts in social defence convened in preparation for the Fourth United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders (17-26 August 1970, Kyoto, Japan)

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| ST/SOA/SD/CG.2/WP.1 | The prevention of delinquency in the context of national development |
| ST/SOA/SD/CG.2/WP.3 | Implementation of the Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Offenders |
| ST/SOA/91 | Report of the United Nations Consultative Group on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders (Geneva, 6-16 August 1968) |
| E/CN.5/C.3/R.2 | United Nations activities in the field of social defence |
| E/CN.5/C.3/R.3 | Work Programme of the United Nations Social Defence Research Institute |
| <u>Ad Hoc Group of Experts on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders:</u> | |
| Working Paper No. 1 | Some approaches to planning for social defence |
| Working Paper No. 2 | Research approaches in social defence planning |
| E/CN.5/C.3/R.4 | Report of the <u>Ad Hoc Expert Group on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders</u> (Rome, 18-23 June 1969) |
| E/CN.5/443 | Report of the Advisory Committee of Experts on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders on its third session held at Rome, 24-30 June 1969 |
| ST/SOA/SER.M/20 | <u>International Review of Criminal Policy No. 20</u>
(United Nations publication, Sales No. 63.IV.3) |
| ST/SOA/SER.M/23 | <u>International Review of Criminal Policy No. 23</u>
(United Nations publication, Sales No. 65.IV.4) |
| ST/SOA/SER.M/25 | <u>International Review of Criminal Policy No. 25</u>
(United Nations publication, Sales No. 68.IV.7) |

This archiving project is a collaborative effort between United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime and American Society of Criminology, Division of International Criminology. Any comments or questions should be directed to Cindy J. Smith at CJSmithphd@comcast.net or Emil Wandzilak at emil.wandzilak@unodc.org.