

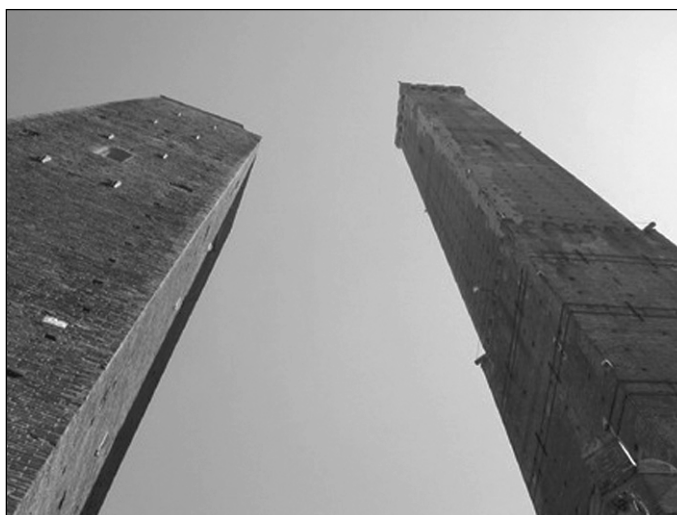


ESC 2007 in Bologna!

By Gian Guido Nobili

The seventh annual conference of the European Society of Criminology will take place in the beautiful and historical city of Bologna on September 26-29, 2007, organised by the University of Bologna, Department of Education Sciences, and the Service of Safety Policies and Local Police (“*Servizio politiche per la sicurezza e la polizia locale*”) (SSPLP for short) of the Regione Emilia Romagna.

Both institutions are well-known to sociologists and criminologists in Italy and have contributed to the development of criminological thought and to cooperation



with other European scholars. For the first time in the history of the ESC, the annual conference will be a joint initiative of the academic community and a local government research centre, thereby encompassing a distinctive feature of the Italian criminological scene.

The Bologna Conference will embrace most issues about crime, crime prevention, deviance, and criminal

justice policies at the center of criminological thought in Europe, with particular attention to local/global crime

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Imprisonment in Eastern and Western Europe

By Andrew Coyle

In January 2006 the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe published a revised set of European Prison Rules (Council of Europe 2006). To accompany these they commissioned a report on prison conditions in the 46 (now 47) member states. The report, on which this short article is based, provides a comprehensive picture of the state of imprisonment in Eastern and Western Europe (Coyle 2006).

Overcrowding

Prison populations have risen significantly in a number of European countries. This has led to significant overcrowding, which in a number of cases is concentrated in pretrial prisons. Few countries have an exact specification of how much space each prisoner is entitled to, so it is difficult to get an accurate picture of overcrowding. However, reports by the Committee for the Prevention of Torture (CPT) demonstrate that there is significant overcrowding even in countries that claim to

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NOMINATIONS SOUGHT FOR ESC PRESIDENT

Nominations and applications are sought for the ESC presidency. Nominations must be received by 31 May 2007. The president is elected for a three-year term, the first as president-elect beginning at the conclusion of the 2007 annual meeting in Bologna, the second as president in 2008-09, and the third as past president. Nominations will not be regarded as complete without written agreement or confirmation by the Nominee.

Nominations should be sent to Professor Marcelo Aebi, ESC Executive Secretary (see page 2).

NOMINATIONS SOUGHT FOR ESC AWARDS

Nominations are sought for the ESC's 2007 "European Criminology" and "Young Criminologist" Awards. Winners will be announced at the 2007 annual meeting in Bologna. Eligibility criteria and procedures for selection of award winners are set out in the award particulars on page 4 and on the ESC website. Nominations should be sent to Professor Marcelo Aebi, ESC Executive Secretary (see page 2) by 31 May.

Message from the President Awards and Milestones

By Kauko Aromaa

The ESC is not doing badly for an academic society organised just seven years ago. The annual meetings are well-attended.

Attendees come from everywhere in Europe and from elsewhere.

The organisers hoped annual meetings would be held throughout Europe, and they have been—in the north (Helsinki), the east (Krakow), the west (Amsterdam, Tübingen), and the south (Lausanne, Toledo, and this year Bologna).

The organisers hoped ESC leaders would come from many countries, and they have. Presidents have come from Switzerland (Martin Killias), the Netherlands (Josine Junger-Tas), England (Paul Wiles), Italy (Ernesto Savona), Belgium (Sonja Snacken), Germany (Hans-Jürgen Kerner), and Finland (Kauko Aromaa), with Poland (Krzysztof Krajewski) next.

The organisers hoped the ESC would be able to establish a high-quality scholarly journal specialising in European criminology. The *European Journal of Criminology* is thriving. The first issue of its fourth volume appeared in January of this year. Founding editor David J. Smith at the University of Edinburgh got the journal up-and-running and established a first-rate reputation for it. His editorial successors at Oxford, Julian Roberts and Ben Goold, are building on those successes.

The organisers hoped the ESC would spawn working groups with memberships that would enable European scholars to work on subjects and projects that span national boundaries. It has. They now include the Quantitative Criminology Working Group, the

Governance of Public Safety Research Network, the European Postgraduate Researchers Working Group, the

Juvenile Justice Working Group, the Developmental and Life-Course Studies Working Group, and the Homicide Studies Working Group.

Some groups are newly organised, some have been around for a while. The Juvenile Justice group is among the most active. Its members recently joined

together to write a comprehensive overview of juvenile justice systems in Europe and the United States. The *International Handbook of Juvenile Justice* (Springer 2006), edited by Josine Junger-Tas and Scott Decker, is the first of many important publications that will emerge from the collaborative environment the ESC has provided.

This year the ESC is taking another step toward institutional maturity by establishing and awarding its first scholarly awards—for career contributions by a European criminologist and for an outstanding article by a younger European criminologist. Details are given on page 4. The award committee for career contribution consists of former ESC presidents Hans-Jürgen Kerner (Tübingen), Sonja Snacken (Free University Brussels), and Ernesto Savona (Milan). The award committee for outstanding work by a younger scholar consists of Julian Roberts (Oxford), Alex Sutherland (Oxford), and Elena Larrauri (Autonomous University Barcelona).

The seventh annual meeting will be the ESC's first in Italy. I look forward to seeing many ESC members there. ■



Kauko Aromaa



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Criminology in Italy

By Rossella Selmini

Italian criminology is characterised by the presence of different schools and approaches: a traditional clinical forensic school, still strong; a well-established group of radical and critical criminologists, legal thinkers and sociologists; and an emerging and increasing group of scholars exploring different understandings of crime, some mainly based on opportunity and rational choice theories, and others on new methodologies of research and evaluation, sometimes rather policy-oriented.

The Early Period

Italy was the birthplace of Cesare Lombroso (1835 -1909) and, more generally, the cradle of criminal anthropology. Lombroso's approach, mainly based on a pathological view

of crime and related phenomena, was followed by many (though not all) scholars of his and the following generation. Positivism and determinism remained the main approaches for analysing and understanding crime through at least the Second World War.

For legal scholars and judges, however, the earlier ideas of Cesare Beccaria (1738 - 1794) about individualism, moral responsibility, and the retributive functions of penal sanctions continued, and still today continue, to be an alternative way to understand, explain, and respond to crime and criminals.

At the turn of the 19th century, Italy was the site of an academic and practical conflict between the so-called Classical School exemplified by Beccaria and the newer positivistic

approach associated with Lombroso. The Italian criminal justice system was mainly based on the retributive premises favoured by the classical approach, but positivism, especially in its anthropological orientation, was the driving force of criminology and methods of treating individuals.

In those same years, however, a sociological version of positivist criminology began to emerge. Ideas of social dangerousness, prevention, and rehabilitation were incorporated into Italian legislation on crime, especially the penal codes enacted after re-unification in 1861, somewhat modifying the hegemony of the Classical School. Enrico Ferri (1856-1929) argued that crime was provoked by poverty, ignorance, and social marginality, while Raffaele Garofalo

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International Centre for Prison Studies: Present and Future

By Rob Allen

The International Centre for Prison Studies (ICPS) celebrates its tenth birthday in 2007. Based in the Law School at King's College London, ICPS has undertaken a wide range of academic and practical work since 1997 to assist governments and other agencies all over the world develop appropriate policies on the use and practice of imprisonment. The need for this work is greater than ever.

Our work in recent years has shown that the human rights of people in conflict with the law are facing new and growing threats in many parts of the world. In many countries, protecting the public from risks, whether from terrorism or sexual and violent crime, has become a paramount objective of policy resulting in increased powers of detention and restrictive conditions.

Media-driven politics push policy makers towards increasingly repressive measures which pander to perceived popular demands for punishment. Criminal punishment is increasingly applied to vulnerable and marginalised people in the absence of adequate health, education, or social policy.

ICPS Publications

The centre's work falls into two main categories. The

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Gender in Truth and Reconciliation Processes

By Fionnuala Ni Aoláin

Consideration of gender is largely absent from accountability mechanisms and truth-telling processes in transitional societies such as South Africa. A number of gender biases and limitations occur. These include a lack of contextualization of the gender dimension that gives rise to the need for truth-telling in the first place; a tendency to view harms against women solely through a lens of sexual violence; and a persistent practice of ignoring routine or ordinary violence experienced by women.

These biases significantly shape the ways in which women appear and give evidence (or not). Women verbalize their experiences of harm (or not) in ways that are distinct from men's (Ni Aolain and Turner 2007). Women's unique testimonies are significantly under-represented and marginalized (Ross 2003). In societies in transition from conflict or repressive politics, the construction of truth matters. That truth is usually excavated by structured examination of serious human rights violations. This backward-looking approach is seen as central to the capacity for damaged societies to rebuild political and social trust.

Because of this emphasis on "dealing with the past", the morality and law of holding human rights

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ESC SCHOLARLY AWARDS

This year the ESC will award its first scholarly awards—for career contributions by a European criminologist and for an outstanding article by a younger European criminologist. The award committee for career contribution consists of former ESC presidents Hans-Jürgen Kerner (Tübingen), Sonja Snacken (Free University Brussels), and Ernesto Savona (Milan). The award committee for outstanding work by a younger scholar consists of Julian Roberts (Oxford), Alex Sutherland (Oxford), and Elena Larrauri (Autonomous University Barcelona).

ESC Young Criminologist Award

The ESC Young Criminologist Award recognises an outstanding article written by a European criminologist who was 35-years-old or younger when the article was published. The nominee must be the sole author of an article on a criminological topic published in a peer-reviewed journal in a European language within the three calendar years preceding the year of the proposed award.

The terms 'criminologist' ('persons actually in research, teaching, and/or practice in the field of criminology) and 'criminological' relate to criminology as defined in Section 1 of the ESC Constitution ('The term criminology, as used in this Constitution, refers to all scholarly, scientific and professional knowledge concerning the explanation, prevention, control and treatment of crime and delinquency, offenders and victims, including the measurement and detection of crime, legislation and the practice of criminal law, and law enforcement, judicial, and correctional systems').

A jury of three members will be proposed by the Editorial Board of the *European Journal of Criminology* to the ESC Executive Board. Each year, one member of the jury will be replaced by a new member.

The jury will transmit its recommendation to the Executive Board by 31 July in a report that describes the process followed to reach a decision. The Executive Board may approve or disapprove the recommendation of the jury. It may also decide not to give the award in any given year.

Nominations should be forwarded to the Executive Secretary of the ESC by 31 May of each year and include (1) a letter of nomination explaining why the nominee's work warrants recognition, (2) the nominee's curriculum vitae, (3) a copy of the original article, (4) if the article is published in a language other than English, a translation of the article into English (unless all jury members speak or read another European language and the article is in that language), and (5) a description of the journal in which the article was published, including a description of its peer-review processes.

ESC European Criminology Award

The ESC European Criminology Award recognises the lifetime contribution of a European criminologist.

The terms 'criminologist' ('persons actually in research, teaching, and/or practice in the field of criminology) and 'criminological' relate to criminology as defined in Section 1 of the ESC Constitution ('The term criminology, as used in this Constitution, refers to all scholarly, scientific and professional knowledge concerning the explanation, prevention, control and treatment of crime and delinquency, offenders and victims, including the measurement and detection of crime, legislation and the practice of criminal law, and law enforcement, judicial, and correctional systems').

The jury consists of the most recent three past Presidents of the ESC. If one or more of such persons is unavailable, she or he will be replaced by the next previous past President. The ESC Executive Board is responsible for constituting the jury.

The jury will transmit its recommendation to the Executive Board by 31 July in a report that describes the process followed to reach a decision. The Executive Board may approve or disapprove the recommendation of the jury. It may also decide not to give the award in any given year.

Nominations should be forwarded to the Executive Secretary of the ESC by 31 May of each year and include (1) a letter of nomination explaining why the nominee's work warrants recognition, and (2) the nominee's curriculum vitae. The nominee must not have been a member of the ESC Board during the 5 years preceding the year of an award.

ESC in Bologna *Continued from page 1*

phenomena; the role of local communities in crime prevention; and interactions among European institutions, countries, and regional and local governments.

The conference has several central aims. The first is to enhance exchanges and cooperation among scholars in (and from outside) Europe, and between academic and other institutions involved in studies of crime and in crime control and prevention. Secondly, we expect the conference to contribute to the general development of criminological thought – especially in Southern Europe.

Conference Details

The conference will be held in buildings of the University of Bologna. Plenary sessions will be held at the Aula Magna Santa Lucia, in the historical centre of the town, walking distance from other university buildings. Built in the 17th century and recently renovated as the University’s Great Hall, “Santa Lucia” is a prestigious venue for meetings and other events. The main hall, comprising the main body of the church, seats 900 people. The adjacent Aula Absidale – in the Apse, as the name suggests – seats 300. Around the Santa Lucia building, the San Giovanni in Monte complex will host most panel sessions. San Giovanni was restored some decades ago, having once been the city prison.

Gala Dinner

As in the previous ESC conferences, participants and accompanying persons are kindly invited to join the optional Gala Dinner.

This superb event is scheduled for Thursday, 27 September, from 9:00-12:00 pm, in the magnificent Palazzo Grassi, situated very close to the University. The palace is one of the few surviving examples of Medieval urban configuration in Bologna. The arcade is supported by wood beams in the typical “crutch” shape, while the main

gateway presents a pointed arch lintel. The palace, restored between 1910 and 1913, is the seat of the Military Officers’ Club.

Bologna is renowned for its culinary tradition and some regard it as the food capital of Italy. It has given its name to Bolognese sauce and other famous dishes.

Registered participants will be offered courses of traditional local specialties. There will be a selection



presentation in such a panel should submit an abstract on-line no later than May 31 (see <http://www.eurocrim2007.org/>). Proposals must include a paper title, name and

CONFERENCE REGISTRATION FEES (INEUROS)		
Before 1 July 2007		After 1 July 2007
ESC members	125.00	200.00
ESC members (students)	60.00	100.00
Non ESC members	200.00	275.00
Non ESC members (students)	120.00	195.00

Registration forms can be downloaded from the conference website (<http://www.eurocrim2007.org/>) and faxed to Prof. Marcelo Aebi, Executive Secretary, Fax: +41 21 692 4605 or forwarded by e-mail to: secretariat@esc-eurocrim.org.

of hot and cold dishes, some particularly prepared for vegetarians. A selection of non-alcoholic and alcoholic beverages will be served throughout the evening. **The all-inclusive price is 60.00 euros per person.**

Information on other social activities will be available on the conference website in the next few weeks.

Plenaries and Presentations

Plenary sessions will focus on terrorism and safety; Italian criminology; the impact of prevention on crime trends; and ethnicity, multiculturalism, and religion. “Thematic sessions” and pre-arranged seminars will be held and regular panels, consisting of related papers, will be organized.

Anyone wishing to make a

affiliation of the author, a 150-250 word abstract, and 2 or 3 key words. A concise abstract and careful selection of key words will help the programme committee arrange panels. Participants who wish to present a poster session also should submit not later than May 31, 2007.

Proposals arriving after May 31 will not be rejected, but will be accepted only provisionally, and placed on a waiting list. Decisions to accept waiting-list proposals will be taken as accepted papers and workshops are cancelled or as spaces otherwise become available.

Conference registration will be handled by the ESC executive secretariat in Lausanne, Switzerland. Information on registration fees and accommodations is shown in the boxed texts.

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ESC in Bologna *Continued from previous page*

The University of Bologna

The University of Bologna was established in 1088. It is the oldest university in the western world and gave the city its nickname of “La Dotta”, The Learned. The university’s 23 faculties, 68 departments, 93 libraries, and 25 museums are spread across the city. The historical university centre is in the area around the well-known Two Towers. There are subsidiary campuses in nearby Cesena, Forlì, Ravenna, and Rimini. Bologna’s students have included Dante, Petrarch, Thomas Becket, Pope Nicholas V, Erasmus of Rotterdam, and Copernicus. Laura Bassi in 1732 was the first woman officially to teach at a university in Europe. Luigi Galvani, the discoverer of biological electricity, and Guglielmo Marconi, the pioneer of radio technology, both worked there. The university remains one of the most respected and dynamic post-secondary educational institutions in Italy.

The multi-disciplinary Department of Education Sciences is composed of sociologists, anthropologists, psychologists, and pedagogues. It focuses on several primary subjects: contents and dynamics of educational processes; vocational training and educational processes; young people and social life; dynamics of socialization; phenomena of sub-cultural groups; social problems and deviance; sociology of communication; and sociology of deviance and criminology.

Members of the department have collaborated with the scientific committee of the SSPLP. Professors Marzio Barbagli, Antonio Roversi, and Asher D. Colombo have carried out many studies in this field, some of them in cooperation with the SSPLP.

The Regional Government of Emilia-Romagna

The Regional Government of Emilia-Romagna in 1994 initiated a general program on local governance of crime and insecurity known as “*Progetto Cilia Sicure*” (Safe Cities Project). It was the first attempt in Italy to promote research on crime and

insecurity within a framework of local policies. The programme stimulated national public bodies to promote a

wars.

The following years saw an alternation of Republican

ACCOMMODATION IN BOLOGNA

Accommodation options will soon be available on the conference website (<http://www.eurocrim2007.org/>). You may book directly with the hotels. On-line booking via the Conference secretariat will be available soon.

EARLY BOOKING IS STRONGLY ADVISED

wide-spread culture of crime prevention.

For more than ten years, the project has coordinated and funded many local security research programs, awakened the rest of the country, and enlarged its activity in coordination of local police forces.

SSPLP is a well-established department of the Regional Government. SSPLP has extended its academic relationships at national and European levels. Many research activities and studies—and some post-doctoral and masters courses in criminology—have been carried out through partnerships with Italian universities (Bologna, Florence, Macerata, Urbino, Modena).

Bologna – Its History

The area was first settled during the Bronze Age, over three thousand years ago, by tribes known as the Villanovese. They in due course were conquered by Etruscans, the Etruscans by the Celts, and the Celts by the Romans. During the Roman era, the city’s population varied between 12,000 and 30,000 people. At its peak, it was the second city of Italy, and one of the most important in the Empire.

The town, renamed Bononia, was a Roman colony for over 400 years until the empire fell into decline and Bononia was attacked from the north by a succession of Visigoths, Huns, Goths, and Lombards. After the Lombards were defeated, various Popes and Holy Roman Emperors vied for control of the city. Powerful rival families sided with the Popes or the Emperor, often resulting in bitter civil

governments and Papal or Visconti restorations, while the city’s families engaged in continuous internecine fighting. In the middle of the 15th century the Bentivoglio family gained the rule of Bologna. This was a flourishing period, exemplified by illustrious architects and painters who made Bologna a true city of art. The Bolognese school of art of that time included Annibale Carracci, Domenichino, Guercino, and others of European fame. During the Renaissance, Bologna was the only Italian city that allowed women to excel in any profession; some earned degrees at the university.

The period of papal rule saw the construction of many churches and other religious establishments, and the renovation of older ones. Bologna had ninety-six convents, more than any other Italian city.

The city remained, however uneasily, under papal control until the arrival of Napoleon at the end of the 18th century. When Napoleon’s empire collapsed, the city passed back into the hands of the papacy. Most Bolognesi supported growing calls for unification of Italy under secular control, and in 1860 Bologna and the rest of the region joined the newly formed Kingdom of Italy.

Bologna – Its Architecture

Until the late 19th century, when large-scale urban reconstruction was undertaken, Bologna remained one of the best-preserved medieval cities in Europe. Despite having suffered considerable bombing damage during

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GRADUATE CRIMINOLOGY IN OXFORD

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[The Doctor of Philosophy \(DPhil\)](#)

The Centre considers applications for the MSc programmes and DPhil study between January and May. Places on the MSc degrees are limited and early applications are therefore encouraged.

The Centre currently comprises the following members who are involved in both teaching the MSc programmes and supervising research students:

Professor Andrew Ashworth; Dr. Mary Bosworth, Dr. Ros Burnett; Dr. Benjamin Goold; Dr. Carolyn Hoyle; Dr. Liora Lazarus; Professor Ian Loader, Professor Julian Roberts, Professor Federico Varese, and Professor Lucia Zedner.

For details of application procedures and links to college information, visit:

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Please email ccr@crim.ox.ac.uk
Or telephone: 00 44 (0)1865 274444

www.crim.ox.ac.uk

Criminology in Italy *Continued from page 3*

(1852-1934) argued for a legal definition of crime that took its social causes into account.

In 1921, Ferri proposed a "Preliminary project for the penal code" in which he summarised his assumptions about the dangerousness of criminals, the importance of social reforms in preventing crime, and the correctional function of punishment. Ferri's list of preventive measures, the so called "penal substitutes," interestingly anticipates future situational crime prevention methods (lighting, concierges in buildings, safety chains on doors, etc.). Ferri's view that social reforms would be the most important means to prevent crime was enthusiastically accepted in Italy, but also in Spain until the Civil War, as well as in the Soviet Union and the United States. Together with Lombroso's theories, his ideas were also influential in Latin America.

Criminology experienced a long period of decline after Lombroso's death. Neither Lombroso nor Ferri was able to establish criminology as an autonomous academic discipline. Lombroso's clinical approach meant that criminology was confined to the teaching of medicine where it was often considered interchangeable with forensic psychiatry, or legal medicine. Ferri's sociological approach encountered strong opposition from the emerging Fascist dictatorship.

The Middle Years

From the 1920s onwards, the Fascist regime blocked progress in the social sciences. It anchored its criminal justice system in a highly nationalistic and conservative form of legal positivism and strongly opposed the idea of understanding crime as a natural phenomenon or a sociological fact.

The prevailing idealist philosophy of the period was also unsympathetic to social research and most Roman Catholic scholars preferred to explain human behaviour in terms of guilt and moral responsibility. Not until long after the end of the Second World War, in 1963, was a course in criminal anthropology finally introduced, at

the University of Rome. It was taught by Benigno di Tullio, who was also the founder and the first president of the International Society of Criminology.

From the 1950s, more advanced psychological theories of human behaviour supplemented the forensic perspective in criminology. In 1957, the Italian Society of criminology was founded. The society—whose aims are the promotion and coordination of studies about crime and the improvement of research and policy making—organises seminars and meetings, and is the publisher of the magazine *La rassegna italiana di criminologia*, the leading journal in this field.

Revival

Despite this revival, Italian criminology still relied largely on positivist approaches and clinical models even when it was taught in law faculties. But the 1970s saw a general climate of social reform and innovation that also affected the academic world. The social sciences received full recognition in the universities and criminology—usually referred to as the sociology of deviance—started to be taught in the faculties of political science or sociology.

A new generation of researchers and scholars in penal law and legal philosophy sought to reform the criminal justice system. The so-called "penal school" of the faculty of law in Bologna, for example, launched a journal named *La questione criminale*, involving scholars such as Alessandro Baratta, Massimo Pavarini, Dario Melossi, and Tamar Pitch. It dealt with crime and criminals and the possibilities of reducing or even abolishing penal intervention and reforming the prison system. The merit of this school was to draw together the approaches of penal law, criminology (especially Marxist and labelling approaches), sociology of law, political science, and feminist thinking, thus helping modernise thinking about crime and fostering connections with scholars in other countries.

These critical criminologists had close ties with the British Left Realists, with whom they shared a Marxist starting point. In their journal, published for a time under the name *Dei delitti e delle pene* (and now *Studi sulla questione criminale*), they too asked, "what could be done about crime?" They did not always come to the same conclusions as their British colleagues.

Criminology Moves into Local Government

A final, important step in the development of Italian criminology is related to the emergence in Italy (somewhat later than in other comparable countries) of security, fear of crime, and crime prevention as key political issues. At the beginning of the 1990s many city and regional administrations established programmes for crime prevention and policy-related research. These projects were concerned with taking crime and fear of crime seriously, giving more attention to (much neglected) victims of crime, and efforts to mobilise communities.

This concern for security and safety was linked to the effort to increase the importance of "local" as against "central" responsibility for crime problems, as part of a wider political battle to obtain greater autonomy for the Italian regions. The Emilia-Romagna region pioneered a general programme concerning urban safety and crime prevention. It involved research and the co-ordination and elaboration of new strategies for reduction of fear and crime prevention (which is known under the name of "Safe Cities Project", imported from the similar British experience). It now includes a structured research centre on these issues.

Following this lead (and that of the Left Realists in the UK) in the past few years, many regional and municipal governments in northern and central Italy developed their own local projects concerning crime prevention and community safety. The development of local safety projects has provided the chance to test new

ideas about crime, verify assumptions, and develop new research methodologies.

Within the academic community, new fields of investigation have emerged, thanks especially to work by Marzio Barbagli, Uberto Gatti, and Ernesto Savona, all of whom have been active members of the European Society of Criminology. Uberto Gatti, who leads one of the few university institutes of criminology, in Genoa, focused especially on juvenile delinquency and on the relationship between violence and social capital. Marzio Barbagli and Ernesto Savona carried out the first studies in Italy based on rational choice and opportunity theories. Marzio Barbagli made important contributions to the first national victims surveys (in 1997 and in 2002) carried out by the National Institute of Statistics.

Thanks also to their efforts there are now graduate and postgraduate courses in criminology in Italian Universities (Milan, for instance). Sociological criminologists such as David Nelken at the University of Macerata, Adolfo Ceretti in Milan, and Dario Melossi and Asher Colombo in Bologna—not to mention an increasing group of promising younger researchers—are actively investigating such topics as criminal justice, juvenile delinquency, mediation, victim support, and ethnicity and immigration.

Alongside more traditional studies on organised crime, mafia, and terrorism (especially to the more “criminological” of them, those by Raimondo Catanzaro), other fields of investigation have been explored in more recent years, such as, for instance, the work by Antonio Roversi on “naziskin” groups and cyber-crime.

Italy is now definitely back on the map of international criminology—as the 2007 ESC conference in Bologna will demonstrate. ■

Rossella Selmini is head of the Research, Planning, and Evaluation Unit, Service of Safety Policies and Local Police of Emilia-Romagna and professor of criminology at the University of Macerata.

International Prison Studies

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first involves the development of a body of knowledge, based on international covenants and instruments, about the principles on which the use of imprisonment should be based.

As part of its work to create this knowledge base, ICPS has taken over the publication of the “World Prison Population List”, which gives details of the numbers of prisoners held in more than two hundred countries. ICPS has recently published the seventh edition and the first “World Female Imprisonment List”.

The ICPS website—www.prisonstudies.org—contains the World Prison Brief which provides regularly updated information for many countries about the ministry responsible for prisons, contact details of the prison administration, the prison population total and rate per 100,000, the prevalence in the prison population of pre-trial/remand prisoners, of women, of juveniles, and of foreign prisoners, the number of prisons, their capacity, the level of occupancy, and recent prison population trends. All the information is compiled by Roy Walmsley, director of the World Prison Brief.

The centre’s two other key publications are the handbook *A Human Rights Approach to Prison Management*, first published in 2002, and *Guidance Notes on Prison Reform*, published in 2005. Written by ICPS founder Andrew Coyle, the handbook has been translated into 14 languages with more than 60,000 copies being used for training and policy development by prison administrations and justice ministries on every continent. It sets out the requirements of international law, norms, and standards, drawing out practical implications for prison governors and administrators and giving examples.

A second edition is being compiled to refer to recent international developments such as the Optional Protocol to the Convention against Torture, new European Prison Rules, and recent recommendations from the

Council of Europe.

The *Guidance Notes* are aimed more at governments and donors, setting out principles of prison reform and providing examples of successful prison initiatives from different countries.

ICPS Compliance Work

The second strand of work consists of practical projects designed to help prison systems increase compliance with international standards. This has included a longstanding project in Russia, the most recent phase of which involved the provision of training and development opportunities for recently appointed local human rights advisors throughout the Federal Prison Service. ICPS has also worked with the Council of Europe to assist with the reform of regulations relating to juvenile penal colonies and correctional institutions for women. Further work on long-term and life sentence prisoners is due to take place in 2007.

North Africa

North Africa has been a recent focus of ICPS work. ICPS entered into partnership in 2004 with the Libyan Judicial Police and the British Embassy in Tripoli to improve human rights standards in Libyan prisons. The project is in its second phase, with a programme to develop practical reforms across the prison service. Work is also underway in Morocco to develop a training programme for prison directors encompassing a strategic planning approach to human rights. A ground-breaking conference on prison reform in the Arab world was held in May 2006 with representatives from a dozen countries. A scoping visit was made to Algeria at the end of the year and we hope to get a project off the ground there in 2007.

Brazil

Other longstanding work has taken place in Brazil, with management

Continued on next page

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development projects completed in the three states of Sao Paulo, Rondonia, and Espirito Santo in partnership with the federal prison administration DEPEN.

Elsewhere

ICPS is looking to build on its international work with further projects in China (following a pilot project with the British Council and the Chinese Ministry of Justice) and in Central America following a successful roundtable on prison reform held in Guatemala last year.

While the aims and objectives of each ICPS project are specific to the country concerned, the ICPS model usually involves a combination of in-country activities and study visits to the UK. Working with a core group of officials in each country, the object is to undertake a gap analysis to identify where policy and practice fall short of international standards and work up action plans for practical reform. The aim is to turn the core group—who usually comprise prison governors, headquarters officials, and others involved in prison work—into champions for change within their own system. Sustainable commitment to reform and human rights cannot be imposed from outside but must be owned by the administration itself.

International Organisations

In addition to work in particular countries, the centre maintains close contacts with a variety of intergovernmental and similar agencies in the worlds of human rights and prison reform. ICPS has provided specialist and technical support for the World Health Organisation's Health in Prisons Project (WHO HiPP), supplying material and advice in preparation for the annual WHO network meeting for Prison and Health and the HiPP Task Force meeting held in Romania in October 2006.

ICPS has also been working with the UN to produce a training programme for prison staff involved in peace-keeping operations in the world's trouble spots. Contributions

have also been made to toolkits on prison reform produced by the OSCE, and on HIV/AIDS in prison being prepared by the UNODC.

Relations with the Council of Europe are particularly strong. Andrew Coyle has been heavily involved in the production of the new European Prison Rules issued last year and contributions have also been made to the Council for Penological

The centre maintains close contacts with a variety of intergovernmental and similar agencies in the worlds of human rights and prison reform

Cooperation's current work on rules for juveniles under custodial or community sanctions.

United Kingdom Projects

ICPS is undertaking two important UK-based projects. The first has been developed to address the fact that people in prison disproportionately come from poor neighbourhoods which suffer from social, health, and community problems. Justice Reinvestment (JR) is a term coined in the USA to describe efforts to use funds spent on imprisoning offenders more productively in these areas through local community-based initiatives. Key to JR is a local approach to criminal justice, with local government deciding how money should best be spent to produce safer local communities.

ICPS is exploring the UK relevance of JR. Work is being undertaken in partnership with Gateshead Council in the North East of England. The first part of the project involves collection and mapping of data to find out where people admitted to prison come from and what other social problems are present. ICPS will then calculate the costs involved and discuss with local politicians, police, courts, and

voluntary organisations whether the funds which pay for prison are being put to best use. We hope to come up with practical proposals about better ways of financing and delivering services to offenders and ex-offenders. There is already substantial interest in these ideas at local, national, and international levels.

ICPS is also coordinating a project to follow up its Rethinking Crime and Punishment project (RCP) (www.rethinking.org.uk), a three-year initiative on public attitudes to prison and alternatives to imprisonment. Chief among the findings from the 60 original RCP projects (which included a major independent inquiry into alternatives to prison chaired by Scottish judge Lord Coulsfield) was the need to raise awareness of and involvement in the delivery of community sentences such as unpaid work and community reparation.

While RCP found considerable scepticism about the value of prison as a response to crime, both sentencers and the general public remain largely unconvinced by community alternatives. Giving ordinary people a greater role in determining the content of such penalties, and ensuring judges and magistrates know what these penalties actually entail, is one way to raise confidence in their use as alternatives to short prison sentences. The aim of RCP2 is to identify how this might be achieved.

ICPS undertakes its work through a small central staff and a team of consultants and associates. I lead the central team which includes Professor Andrew Coyle, Baroness Vivien Stern, Helen Fair, Anton Shelupanov, and Nefeli Dardanou. The consultancy work is mostly undertaken by current and former justice system personnel from various countries led by ICPS Projects director Andy Barclay. Further details are available on the ICPS website or from icps@kcl.ac.uk. ■

Rob Allen is director of the International Centre for Prison Studies.

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Imprisonment in Eastern and Western Europe

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have sufficient prison capacity. It is important to look beyond the personal space available to prisoners in their cells or rooms and also to take into account the pressure placed on cooking resources, on hygiene and sewage facilities, on work, educational, and other resources, and on space available for visits.

Use of Imprisonment

There is little or no evidence that increases in prison populations bear any relation to changes in crime rates. This is confirmed in findings from other sources: "Punishment and crime have little to do with each other... [The accuracy of that observation] is becoming ever more evident as tools accumulate for looking across national boundaries at relations between punishment and crime" (Tonry 2005).

Increases and reductions in rates of imprisonment are often influenced by wider political decisions and by changes in criminal justice administration. Examples include Finland, where the imprisonment rate decreased by almost 70 percent over a 30 year period, and Russia, where prison numbers fell by 25 percent between 1998 and 2004. More recently, Walmsley (2007) has pointed out, the Russian downward trend is being reversed, with a 15 percent increase between 2004 and 2006.

Imprisonment Rates

A comparison of changes in imprisonment rates in neighbouring countries also produces some interesting contrasts. In both Denmark and the Netherlands in 1995 the rate of imprisonment was 66 per 100,000. By 2004 the rate of imprisonment in Denmark had risen to 70, while that in The Netherlands had almost doubled to 123. This difference in two broadly comparable countries results from changes in political and social attitudes rather than from criminal justice factors. In the same way, one needs to look beyond criminal justice considerations to explain why the rate of imprisonment in Spain is 145, while that of its neighbour France is 85; or

why that of Hungary is 156, while that of neighbouring Slovenia is 65 (Walmsley 2007).

There are now 47 member states of the Council of Europe, with boundaries extending east to the Pacific Ocean and south to the Caucasus. The traditions in many new member states are considerably different from those in the founding states. A clear example is the different traditions of accommodation for prisoners. In Western Europe this has been primarily in single cells, whereas

In all European countries sentenced prisoners are allowed contact with their families and friends, although conditions in which visits take place vary enormously.

in Central and Eastern Europe prisoners are more commonly held in shared accommodation, often in large dormitories.

Visits

There are also different traditions in respect of the contact that prisoners are allowed with other family members. Contacts between pretrial prisoners and their families and friends are restricted in many countries, in both Western and Eastern Europe. In some cases any contact has to be approved by the prosecuting or judicial authorities, with decisions often being based on factors to do with the investigation of the case rather than on the right of prisoners to maintain contact with their families.

In all European countries sentenced prisoners are allowed contact with their families and friends, although conditions in which visits take place vary enormously. In England and Wales visits usually take place in a general visiting room where

staff can see but not necessarily hear everything that is going on. In many cases prisoners are required to wear distinctive clothing that identifies them as prisoners. Visitors, including children of prisoners, are required to sit at the opposite side of a table. Visits last for two hours at most, even for prisoners serving long sentences. In Spain prisoners not entitled to home leave may receive one family or intimate visit per month lasting for a few hours.

The most humane approach is in Eastern European countries, where sentenced prisoners may receive private visits from their spouses, partners, and families, at regular intervals, for up to three days. These visits take place in small flats within the prison and visitors bring sufficient food with them for the period. There are usually communal sitting, cooking, and children's play areas and up to a dozen separate bedrooms for prisoners and their partners.

Health Care

Health care is a major concern in all European prisons but there are specific problems in several Eastern European countries. Tuberculosis is a major issue, particularly with the advent of the multi-drug-resistant strain. There are similar problems with HIV and Hepatitis B and C. Prison administrations sometimes face a dilemma in balancing requirements of prison security with public health attempts to contain the spread of blood-borne diseases. The World Health Organisation (WHO 2003) recently advocated that "harm reduction becomes the guiding principle of policy on the prevention of HIV/AIDS and hepatitis transmission in penitentiary systems". Both the WHO and the Council of Europe recommend that there be close links between prison and public health services. In several countries public health ministries are now responsible for prison health services.

Solitary Confinement

In recent years particular concerns

have been raised in respect of a number of countries about the practice of holding numbers of pretrial prisoners in solitary confinement for lengthy periods as a matter of course and the CPT has been involved in lengthy exchanges with Sweden and Denmark about this practice. In some countries prisoners are held in virtual solitary confinement, not as a punishment but solely because of the nature of their offence or the threat they are thought to pose to the state. There has been an increasing tendency in some states automatically to hold prisoners accused or convicted of terrorist offences or organised crime in solitary confinement. The CPT has commented critically on arrangements in the Netherlands, Turkey, Spain, and the United Kingdom. The European Court of Human Rights has ruled several times against Italy in terms of its management of this type of prisoner.

Long and Life Sentences

Greater Europe, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, is now a death-penalty-free region. However, this advance has come at a price. In a number of Eastern European countries the conditions of life imprisonment now imposed on offenders previously sentenced to execution are extremely punitive, sometimes involving, in effect, solitary confinement in very straitened conditions for periods up to ten years. In some jurisdictions, including England and Wales, there are legal provisions that in some cases life imprisonment will mean natural life imprisonment. In many countries courts have shown a tendency to pass increasingly long sentences.

Specific Categories of Prisoners

There are noticeable differences in policy in member states towards juvenile and child offenders. Although there appears to have been a hardening of attitudes in recent years towards young people who commit crime, in most countries legislation has underlined the priority to be given to educational and reformative measures. Reports from bodies such as the CPT and the UN Committee on

the Rights of the Child indicate that implementation of this principle is far from universal.

Women

The proportion of women in prisons in European countries varies considerably within a narrow band. The highest proportion is found in Portugal with 8.1 percent and the

There are noticeable differences in policy in member states towards juvenile and child offenders.

lowest in Northern Ireland with 2.1 percent. Higher proportions than the average are found in Spain (7.9 percent), the Netherlands (6.8 percent), Finland and Luxembourg (6.1 percent), and Hungary and Latvia (6 percent). Countries with proportions below 3 percent are Lithuania (2.8 percent), Poland (2.7 percent), and Slovakia (2.5 percent). Women have been particularly affected by increasingly tough anti-drug laws in some countries which have led to a much faster increase in the rate of imprisonment for women.

Mentally Ill Prisoners

There is evidence in many countries that a large proportion of prisoners have mental health problems. In practice many European countries find difficulty in defining when an individual's state of mental health is "incompatible with detention in a prison", as required by the European Prison Rules. There are often grey areas where it is agreed that a person has a mental health problem but it is not clear that the degree of illness is incompatible with detention.

Aging Prisoners

Traditionally the vast majority of prisoners have been young men but in recent years in a number of countries the age profile has been increasing. This has happened for a variety of reasons, not least that the lengths of sentences being imposed in some

jurisdictions have shown a gradual increase. The structure of prisons and daily life in them reflects the fact that until now most prisoners have been relatively fit younger persons. Many have accommodation blocks several stories high, linked by steep stairs, with no lifts. Within shared living arrangements there are often bunk beds with no steps or ladders to the higher bunks. Prisoners are expected to move quickly from one location to another; for example, when moving in large groups to outdoor exercise or to visits or to workshops. Little allowance is made for older prisoners who cannot move quickly.

Minority Prisoners

Prisons in all countries have always held disproportionate numbers of marginalised and minority groups of citizens. This has become increasingly noticeable due to a number of factors, such as the increasing marginalisation of certain groups and the increase in transnational movement. In many member states an increasing proportion of prisoners are foreign nationals. The proportion in Austria, Estonia, Italy, Malta, and the Netherlands is over 30 percent; in Belgium and Cyprus it is over 40 percent. In Luxembourg it is 63.9 percent, out of a total of 352 prisoners. In England and Wales 13 percent of all prisoners are foreign nationals, but this figure rises to 20 percent for women.

Prison Administration and Staff

Responsibility for the administration of prisons must lie with a national or regional government department. The Council of Europe strongly recommends that the most appropriate government department to oversee prisons is the ministry of justice, where one exists. Since the end of the 1980s the Council has required all new accession states to transfer prison administration to this department. This is now the case in all but two jurisdictions: in Spain, but not in Catalonia, it comes under the Ministry of the Interior and in England

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and Wales, where there is no ministry of justice; it comes under the Home Office.

In most countries there is some form of training for new recruits, although length and quality vary significantly. It varies from a few weeks in England and Wales to two years in Norway. In some places, particularly in Eastern Europe, training for junior prison staff is linked closely with that of the police and often concentrates on military matters such as drill and use of weapons. In some countries of Eastern Europe, such as Russia, the training of future senior prison staff involves the equivalent of

a university course and lasts up to four years.

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European and North American Imprisonment Rates per 100,000 National Population (mostly 2005)

United States	737	Austria	105
Russia	613	Italy	104
Ukraine	350	Serbia	104
Estonia	333	Macedonia	99
Latvia	292	Germany	94
Georgia	276	Belgium	91
Moldova	247	Turkey	91
Lithuania	235	Greece	90
Poland	232	Armenia	89
Azerbaijan	202	Croatia	87
Greenland	199	Malta	86
Czech Republic	182	France	85
Luxembourg	167	Switzerland	83
Slovakia	158	Sweden	82
Romania	157	Northern Ireland	82
Hungary	156	Denmark	77
Bulgaria	148	Cyprus	76
England & Wales	148	Finland	75
Spain	144	Ireland	72
Scotland	141	Bosnia and Herzegovina: RS	68
Netherlands	128	Norway	66
Portugal	120	Slovenia	65
Albania	111	Kosovo	63
Montenegro	108	Bosnia and Herzegovina: Federation	61
Canada	107	Iceland	40

Source: International Centre for Prison Studies, World Prison Population List (www.prisonstudies.org) (accessed 5 March 2007); data for other continents — see page 19.

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Gender in Truth and Reconciliation

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abusers accountable at a time of societal change has been central to thinking about repressive and conflicted societies. Most academic emphasis has been on legal and non-legal settings that satisfy the needs for restitution and for moving forward.

It makes sense that trials, courts, truth commissions, amnesties, and punishments should be the primary focus of interest. Legal and other discourses concerned with transitional societies, however, have assumed that gender distinctions play no meaningful part in the discussion about accountability for abuses of the past.

This short article examines a number of the structural and institutional factors that affect women's experiences of accountability as they are manifested at truth commissions. A particular feature of this influence is how transitional justice processes have conceptualized the forms of violence for which accountability is sought, and how that conceptualization maps onto a gendered understanding of violence. The form of accounting generally sought has an emphasis on certain kinds of violations that "count" from a legal perspective. It is important to emphasize that the public/private distinction, as it operates in the transitional justice context, elevates the significance of public violations and ignores private violations (specifically in home and familial contexts).

The Gendered Nature of Violence Discourses

Physical violence is consistently at the heart of societal experiences of conflict. It is the defining feature of authoritarian and repressive regimes. What counts as physical violence for the purposes of classifying conflict or repression in legal terms elevates and recognizes certain kinds of violence over others.

I have argued elsewhere that when "violence is understood in specific and narrow ways, this affects broader understandings of what issues are issues for negotiation and mediation

purposes" (Ni Aoláin 2006, p. 831). There is an important link between internationally recognized harms and those that facilitate domestic accountability in transitional societies.

A hierarchy of violation emerges. It is intimately linked to deeply entrenched patriarchies within the framework of international legal and political discourses operating in tandem with pre-existing patriarchal structures in the conflicted or authoritarian society. An effect is the consistent exclusion of women's experiences at truth-telling fora.

Physical violence is consistently at the heart of societal experiences of conflict. It is the defining feature of authoritarian and repressive regimes.

Such exclusions narrow the problems faced to a male conception of conflict or repression, with the focus revolving around allocations of power and territory. The subjects that are framed as issues for resolution may only peripherally affect many women's day-to-day lives.

They may leave untouched socio-economic exclusions (that may themselves constitute violent experiences for women), and other forms of violence that women may see not as compartmentalized into "conflict" and "non-conflict" related, but as a continuum only partly addressed by cease-fires or not at all. The exclusion underestimates and fails to conceptualize the ways socio-economic harms, which are always felt more acutely in situations of conflict or repression, can constitute direct and physical harms to the person.

Empirical evidence consistently demonstrates that women experience these harms more consistently and pervasively than do men.¹ The persistent exclusion of socio-economic harms as human rights

violations thus constitutes another fundamental bias of truth-telling processes, one with particular and negative implications for women.

Evaluating Gender and Truth Processes

The range of harms considered effectively excludes much of the experience of women, which is not to say that women do not testify before truth commissions or that women are uniformly excluded from consideration as victims. They do and they are not.

The 1976 United Nations report on the human rights situation in Chile, for example, included statistics on women political prisoners, torture of women, and conditions in which they were detained.

Such reporting is not necessarily an attempt, however, to understand the distinctive experiences of women. Rather, it is a means of fitting women into the existing definition of a human rights victim, which typically elevates the integrity of the physical self—the body—over psychological or emotional harms that may have equal or greater effects.

So, in the Chilean context, while women are identified as human rights victims in the report, human rights violations disproportionately affect men. Of 2,279 confirmed victims during the military dictatorship, only 126, a mere 5.5 percent, were women.

As calls for greater gender awareness have grown, attempts have been made to include offenses against women within trials and truth commissions. Rather than re-think the definitions of harm at play, however, attempts at integration have focused on fitting women into the existing narrow framework of human rights abuse, namely abuse that consists only of violations of the body. Women are included as victims only when they experience certain kinds of sexual violation or suffer the same types of violent physical abuse as men.

A clear pattern emerges. Truth processes focus exclusively on sexual violence, and within that, on a narrow range of penetrative sexual acts.

There are serious limitations with

this approach. A narrow focus on bodily violation obscures the wider social contexts in which violations occur. The danger with placing too great an emphasis on sexual violence is that other experiences are marginalized due to a perception that “gender” has been covered if sexual violence has been addressed.

Fiona Ross’s analysis of the marginalization of other aspects of women’s experiences resulting from a fixation in South Africa on sexual violence as the site of abuse is instructive. Describing the treatment of one woman’s testimony before the South African Truth and Reconciliation Commission, Ross (2003, p. 89) writes:

“[S]he located the sexual violation as one harmful incident among many, but the questions posed . . . returned her on several occasions to the event of sexual harm. Indeed . . . it seemed this violation was presumed to be *the* traumatic event and the *primary* violation. The process appeared to be predicated on an

assumption that that which happens to or is inflicted on the body endures as pain remembered in a different and more profound fashion than the pain of, for example, a loss of community trust and engagement.”

Ross describes how testimony concerning other harms and the consequences that woman had suffered were marginalized, effectively expunged from the record, simply because they were assumed to be of lesser significance than sexual violation.

Concentration on sexual violence alone raises many practical and theoretical problems. There is a danger of obsession with women as sexual objects, as the focus on accountability inevitably results in emphasis on the sexual experiences and sexual vulnerability of women.

The elevation of sexual violation fails fully to capture the myriad vulnerabilities of women in conflicted and repressive societies. It is important to acknowledge, of course,

that the focus on sexuality is generally lessened in situations of conflict or repression by virtue of the competing reality of violence. Inevitably this essentializes the woman’s experience to victimhood only, and primarily to that of sexual victim, resulting in the emergence of a particular kind of sexual stereotype. This stereotype ignores the range of roles that women play in times of repression and conflict, and minimizes their abilities to contribute to political transformation.

Truth commissions are often said to be designed to address not only individual crimes, but also the contexts in which they were committed. They are

A genuine examination of sexual violence would require close study of domestic, private, and public violence experienced by women. This kind of scrutiny is avoided by most societies most of the time, particularly if such violence is not recognized as a crime...

held out as offering an alternative to the narrow legalism of trials.

Paradoxically, however, the practice of truth commissions to date has been to focus on the violation at the expense of the context. The failure to address context means that everyday patterns of abuse that women suffer are overlooked, with the experience of violence during the conflict represented as exceptional, something different from their day-to-day lives. Seen in this light, the practice of reducing gendered harms to acts of sexual violation negates the opportunity opened up by a truth process for examining broader societal attitudes towards women.

Dorothy Thomas and Ralph Regan (1994) identify and assess social motivation as crucial to determining the nature of the abuse and the remedy to be applied. They argue that “recognizing gender-specific abuse requires an understanding not only of the political character of the abuse but also of the element of motivation that

is particularly related to gender.”

It is also important to appreciate practical obstacles women face in testifying before a truth commission. These include the prevalent social attitudes in many societies that rape inflicts shame on victims and, by extension, on their families and communities. Such deeply entrenched social attitudes are not addressed by examining and condemning sexual violation, but demand a deeper examination of the social context in which the harm was committed.

Sexual violence in authoritarian or conflicted societies is unfailingly a continuation of the everyday

experience of women, something that may be taboo for discussion in everyday community life.

A genuine examination of sexual violence would require close study of domestic, private, and public violence experienced by women. This kind of scrutiny is avoided by most societies most of the time, particularly if such violence is not recognized

as a crime, or fails to attract the kinds of social disapproval that other kinds of violence ignite. Paradoxically, in such a context a truth process creates a forum in which women are asked to speak publicly about sexual violence.

The disconnect is that it is a compartmentalized narrative, as the forum invariably creates an artificial boundary between violence defined as related to transition and “everyday” violence experienced in the home or the community. The result is a discontinuity between experiences of the conflict and experiences of everyday life, which are inseparable for many victims.

One negative outcome of truth processes is that ordinary violence is discounted. A consistent narrative of temporal divisibility emerges from accountability mechanisms in the transitional phase.

Part of the underlying rationale for a truth process is that it can help mark a break from the past, isolate violent

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events as anomalous to normalcy, and allow society to deal with them and move on.

Close examination of testimonies by women in truth-telling contexts reveals that while the formal mechanisms may typify an incident of physical violence or sexual abuse as “one off” or a singular phenomenon, this may often not have been women’s lived experience.

A “narrative disconnect” occurs when such stories are used to support the particular political narrative being sought without taking into account the victim’s perception of uninterrupted suffering. Often, for women, there is no clear demarcation between harm suffered during a conflict and harm that occurs as part of everyday life.

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Footnotes

This is a much abbreviated version of an article by Ní Aoláin Fionnuala and Catherine Turner, to appear in *UCLA Women’s Law Journal* (2007).

¹See, e.g., “Female-Headed Households in Selected Conflict-Stricken ESCWA Areas: An Exploratory Survey for Formulating Poverty Alleviation Policies.” ■

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Bologna *Continued from page 6*

the Second World War, Bologna’s historic centre, Europe’s second largest after Venice, contains a wealth of important medieval, renaissance, and baroque artistic monuments.

The cityscape is enriched by elegant and extensive arcades (or porticos), for which the city is famous. There are 38 kilometers of arcades in the city’s historical center (over 45 km in the city proper), which make it possible to walk for long distances sheltered from rain, snow, or hot summer sun. The red brick of its buildings give the city a distinct character. The Two Towers—the real symbol of the city and the symbol of the seventh annual ESC conference—are the last of almost two hundred house-towers that dominated the city in the Middle Ages.

Bologna – Its Amenities

The city is famous for its lively night life and it was and remains an attractive city for young people. There are about 400,000 inhabitants in the city proper and about one million in the metropolitan area, including over

100,000 students of the University of Bologna.

Bologna is one of the most important business cities in Northern



Italy. The city’s Fiera District is the second largest in Italy (after Milan) and the fourth largest in Europe, with important international exhibitions. It is Italy’s main road and rail junction. The Guglielmo Marconi International Airport, expanded in 2004, is the fifth busiest Italian airport for passenger

traffic and the third busiest for intercontinental flights. It is only seven kilometers from the city center, just 15-20 minutes by car. Bologna

Central Station is the most important train hub in Italy thanks to the city’s strategic location.

The short distance from other Italian art cities and from the Adriatic coast makes Bologna ideal for thematic breaks and incentive programs. Bologna is close to some of the most famous Italian historical towns. Venice, Verona, and Mantua can be reached in about two hours by train, and Florence and Ravenna in one hour. Ferrara and Modena, well-known for their historical centres and their Romanesque cathedrals, are a very short distance away. ■

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Prison Population Rates, Rest of World, per 100,000 Population

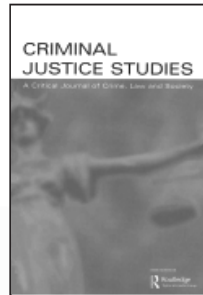
(see page 14)

Virgin Islands (USA)	549	Uzbekistan	184	Egypt	87
St. Kitts and Nevis	547	N. Mariana Islands (USA)	183	Paraguay	86
Belize	505	Jamaica	182	Bolivia	83
Turkmenistan	c.489	Cape Verde	178	Yemen	83
Cuba	c.487	Guernsey (UK)	176	Sao Tome e Principe	82
Palau	478	El Salvador	174	Oman	81
Bermuda	464	Hong Kong	168	Micronesia	79
Virgin Islands (UK)	464	Lebanon	168	Benin	75
Bahamas	462	Tajikistan	164	Malawi	74
Cayman Islands (UK)	453	Martinique (France)	163	Venezuela	74
Belarus	426	Honduras	161	Marshall Islands	73
Dominica	419	Morocco	161	Kiribati	72
American Samoa	384	Guadeloupe (France)	158	Laos	69
Barbados	367	Lesotho	156	Papua New Guinea	69
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Puerto Rico	356	Malaysia	141	Japan	62
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Kazakhstan	340	French Polynesia	132	Syria	58
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Aruba (Netherlands)	324	Colombia	131	Mayotte (France)	57
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Thailand	256	China	118	Guinea	37
Antigua and Barbuda	255	Nicaragua	114	Sudan	c.36
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Iran	214	Central African Republic	110	Sierra Leone	c.32
Israel	209	Isle of Man (UK)	109	Comoros	c.30
Libya	207	Philippines	108	India	30
Mauritius	205	Canada	107	Nigeria	30
Azerbaijan	202	Madagascar	107	Mauritania	26
Greenland	199	Burundi	106	Nepal	26
Macao	199	Vietnam	105	Burkina Faso	23
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Uruguay	193	Ecuador	93		
New Zealand	186	Ethiopia	c.92		

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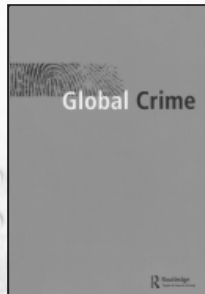


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