SCOTTISH DETENTION CENTRE INMATES: A CRIMINOLOGICAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT

by

Reginald Wilson, LL.B.

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If it were the aim and wish of magistrates to effect the destruction, present and future, of young delinquents, they could not desire a more effectual method than to confine them in our prisons.

John Howard

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SUMMARY

This study reviews the statutory basis of the institutional treatment of young people in trouble and the related literature, with particular reference to the Detention Centre. Detention Centres grew out of a need for alternatives to short-term imprisonment for Young Offenders. Their present statutory basis is the Criminal Justice Act, 1960 (England and Wales) and the Criminal Justice (Scotland) Act, 1963. They are secure institutional establishments catering for short-term sentences for offenders aged between 16 years and 21 years. The regime, while it is described as reformative, still has punitive and deterrent overtones. It consists of strict discipline and hard work. H.M. Detention Centre, Glenochil is the only senior Detention Centre in Scotland.

This study, involving 200 Detention Centre inmates, is exploratory and descriptive. It looks towards the development of an appropriate taxonomy of young offenders, utilizing social, personal, legal and psychological data to describe types.

The main findings were as follows :-

- The population showed some sign of personal and social disorganisation as reflected in their employment and offence related behaviour.
- There was a systematic relationship between offence related behaviour and psychological characteristics, notably emotional upset.

- Detention Centre inmates obtained a high score on the Introversion-Extraversion continuum, i.e. they are extraverted.
- 4. The population approximated to Cattell's Delinquent
 Personality Profile.
- 5. The population were highly hostile and extrapunitive and this is taken to indicate marked psychological or emotional upset.
- 6. The Interpersonal Personality Inventory did not effectively discriminate between offenders in this study.

The most important finding was the relationship of psychological upset to offence categories, with its vital implications for the organisation of an adequate social response to the besetting problem of delinquency. The variety of other characteristics of these boys and the variety of taxa obtained, provide a basis for speculation and a stimulus to further study.

THE ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF DETENTION CENTRES IN ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND

The modern Detention Centre concept which received statutory authority in the late 1940's, was part of a continuing policy directed towards keeping young offenders, i.e. offenders between 17 and 21 years of age, out of prison. The Gladstone Committee of 1895 (Report of the Departmental Committee on Prisons, 1895, C.7702) departing from penal tradition, recommended that young offenders be treated separately from adult prisoners. More particularly they suggested "that the experiment of establishing a penal reformatory under Government management should be tried" (para. 84(b)).

In effect a new era in the penal treatment of young offenders was instituted, an era characterised largely by an awareness of the particular needs of the young offender and by the reformative ideal.

The philosophy behind the establishment of Detention Centres in England and Scotland will be examined, together with the mechanisms of their introduction to the existing penal framework. As the sources are mainly Governmental Reports and statutes the treatment of this area will, of necessity, depend on quotation from these documents.

Detention Centres in England

Though Detention Centres were first introduced in England under the Criminal Justice Act of 1948, the idea of a short custodial sentence for young offenders had been mooted as far back as 1927. The Departmental Committee on the Treatment of Young Offenders 1927 (C.2831) considered, but rejected, a proposal for the establishment of institutions catering for short-sentence detainees.

"We have come to the conclusion that by whatever names they are called the creation of such establishments would be undesirable." (Dept. Comm. on Treatment of Young Offenders, 1927).

Within two decades, however, the position was such that the establishment of short-term detention facilities for young offenders was considered a necessity. The Magistrates Association in their Annual Report for 1936/37, (The Magistrates Association 16th Annual Report and Statement of Accounts 1936/37 pp. 16-17) drew attention to the lack of alternatives to short-term imprisonment for young offenders. They advocated that young offenders' centres, with a short-term reformatory regime, be established for those offenders for whom the existing means of disposal were considered unsuitable.

The difficulty in dealing with young offenders was also highlighted by the Departmental Committee on Corporal Punishment 1938 (C.5684, para. 31) and by the abortive Criminal Justice Bill 1938. The Criminal Justice Bill 1947

The introduction of a sentence of detention in a detention centre, as a method of disposal of young offenders, reflected the opinion of the Advisory Council on the Treatment of Offenders which, after the war, had examined the provisions of the 1938 Bill. In introducing the new Criminal Justice Bill the Home Secretary, Mr. Chuter Ede, outlined the function of the new establishments - "The Bill provides another alternative, that offenders between fourteen and twenty-one

years of age may be sentenced to detention in a detention centre, ordinarily for three months or exceptionally for six months. provides for the young offenders for whom a fine or probation order would be inadequate, but who does not require the prolonged period of training which is given by an approved school or Borstal institution. There is a type of offender to whom it appears necessary to give a short, but sharp, reminder that he is getting into ways that will inevitably land him in disaster. It is hoped that these detention centres which will be set up. as the others which I have just been dealing with, gradually, will enable that warning to be effectually given. Their regime will consist of brisk discipline and hard work. We hope that this new method will assist courts who are faced with the difficulty of having to deal with the young offender who does not really seem to need the prolonged stay that an approved school or Borstal institution requires to be effective, but who does seem to need some reminder that he is getting into ways that will lead him into great difficulties with society if he continues in them." (Official Reports (Commons) 1947-48, Vol.444 C.2138).

Mr. Ede had earlier stated that "the proposals relating to young offenders are, in the main, based on the recommendations of the Young Offenders Committee, which reported as long ago as 1927. Undoubtedly most of these proposals would have been embodied in the Act of 1938."

As has been pointed out however there was no provision for detention centres in either 1927 or 1938. Indeed the only factors which could account for the provision of this particular type of short-term custodial

treatment for young offenders was the rise in adolescent crime and its threat to society, to which the Home Secretary referred in the debate, (Official Report (Commons) 1947-48, Vol.444, C.2131-32) and also the experience with military detention centres during the war. (Dr. N. Walker, 1965, p. 137)

The Criminal Justice Act 1948

The original statutory authority for the sentence of detention in a Detention Centre is contained in S.18 of the Criminal Justice Act 1948. This indicates those offenders for whom the sentence was intended.

S.18(1) "Where a court has power or would but for the last foregoing section have power, to impose imprisonment on a person who is not less than fourteen but under twenty-one years of age, the court may, if it has been notified by the Secretary of State that a detention centre is available for the reception from that court of persons of his class or description, order him to be detained in a detention centre to be specified in the order, for a term of three months."

Since imprisonment can be imposed for a wide range of offences those offenders within the specified age group, who could have been imprisoned for their offence, represent a considerable range of offence types.

The section also contains some safeguards and restrictions. No person should be detained in a detention centre "if he has been previously sentenced to imprisonment or Borstal training", S.18(2)(a), or "if he is not less than seventeen years of age, and has previously been ordered to be so detained since attaining that age", S.18(2)(b).

Finally, no young person was to be sentenced to a detention centre unless the court had considered every other method (except imprisonment) by which the court could have dealt with him and had come to the

conclusion that no other method was appropriate. S.18(2).

Normally the period of detention would be three months but this, depending on the maximum term of imprisonment which the court could previously have imposed and the age and needs of the offender, can be as short as one month (S.18(1)(c) or as great as six months (S.18(1)(b)). The purpose of the Criminal Justice Act 1948 was to restrict the imprisonment of young offenders as evidenced by S.17(2) of the Act. This states.

"No court shall impose imprisonment on a person under twenty-one years of age unless the court is of the opinion that no other method of dealing with him is appropriate"

The introduction of detention centres therefore represented considerable progress towards the ultimate abolition of short-term imprisonment of those offenders under twenty-one.

Detention centres did appear, however, to be a retrograde step in penal treatment. The Advisory Council on the Penal System 1970 pointed out that "the short but sharp reminder that he is getting into ways that will inevitably land him in disaster" may have been intended to relate both to the loss of liberty and to the impact of brisk discipline and hard work but it quickly became the "short, sharp shock", with its implications of purely punitive treatment". (White Paper on "Detention Centres" H.M.S.O. 1970, p.8)

Early Detention Centres in England

The first Detention Centre to be opened in England was at Campsfield House, Kidlington near Oxford, and this catered for boys between fourteen and under seventeen years of age. This decision to open a junior centre was attributable to the increase in crime in the early 50's, particularly

in the fourteen to seventeen age group.

The first Senior Detention Centre for young offenders between seventeen and under twenty-one years of age, was opened in 1954.

Despite an earlier outcry against the junior centre on the grounds that the regime was penal and lacking in any constructive and reformative aim, the new senior centre proved popular with the courts. A second senior centre was established in 1957 and this received offenders from the North and Midlands.

"The Treatment of Young Offenders" 1959 (Report of the Advisory Council on the Treatment of Offenders; White Paper "Penal Practice in a Changing Society")

Despite the fact that Detention Centres were an increasingly important part of the Young Offender framework the Report of the Advisory Council on the Treatment of Offenders, "Alternatives to Short-term Imprisonment" 1957, contained no reference to them.

However, in 1958 the Advisory Council considered certain proposals related to methods of custodial treatment for offenders under twenty-one.

The proposals by the Prison Commissioners were :-

- (a) That more detention centres be provided and that short-term imprisonment (i.e. sentences for six months or less) be replaced by a sentence of detention in a detention centre.
- (b) For sentences between six months and two years Borstal and imprisonment should be integrated; a single system with a single indeterminate sentence of custodial training to be served in a Borstal-type institution should replace the present arrangement.
- (c) Imprisonment for young offenders should be limited to those offenders whose offence warrants a sentence of three or more years.

Before the Advisory Council examined these proposals in detail the White Paper, "Penal Practice in a Changing Society" H.M.S.O. 1959 (C.645) was published. In it were the proposals outlined above. The White Paper, however, attracted little attention and what comment there was, was generally favourable.

The Advisory Council itself endorsed the proposals in principle.

The Report pointed out that the Prison Commissioners' suggestions

adhered to the principles of:

- "a) keeping young offenders under the age of twenty-one out of prison.
- b) ensuring the protection of society by providing that such offenders can be given the amount and type of training best suited for their needs, and from which they are likely to derive the most benefit." (para.21)

In para 24 of their Report the Advisory Council commented that
"the deficiencies of short sentences of imprisonment for young offenders
have to a great extent been overcome in detention centres". The Council,
however, had certain recommendations to make concerning detention centres.
As these form the basis of the Criminal Justice Act 1961, they will be
given particular consideration.

The Advisory Council pointed out that the existing Detention Centre function would be enlarged should the Commissioners' proposals be accepted, in that Detention Centres would be the only places where short-term custodial sentences could be served. They were, however, confident that the system could adapt to the new demands since it has "already shown some flexibility in expanding the original conception of a regime based primarily on deterrence to include elements of positive personal training"

(p.10, para.27). The Council recommended some uniformity in the length of sentence and suggested that there should be two standard sentences of three months and six months respectively (para. 31-33). The suggestion that only one sentence of three months should be available to the courts was considered too restrictive, since this would fetter the discretion of the court and "limit the possibilities for custodial sentences particularly where imprisonment for six months or less would be abolished" and the only other alternative would be the indeterminate Borstal sentence.

The Council also recommended that "the courts should have power to sentence a youth over the age of seventeen to more than one sentence of detention in a detention centre." This would remove the potential fetter of the courts' discretion inherent in S.18(2) of the Criminal Justice Act 1948. That section provided that an offender, if he had previously served a sentence in a senior detention centre could not be again sentenced to detention. They further suggested that a court should not have the power to send to detention centre an offender who had previously served an indeterminate sentence of custodial training, save in the exceptional circumstances where the court, taking into account the length of time from his release, his previous record and his present offence, considers that there are special reasons for doing so.

The Report of the Advisory Council also highlights the problem of selection and classification which would follow on acceptance of the Commissioners' proposals. "We agree that it will be essential for the courts to have the fullest possible information about each youth and his background before deciding that a period of detention, as distinct from any other form of treatment, is necessary . . . The fact that youths

of widely differing characteristics, abilities and states of health will, if this proposal is accepted, be sent to detention centres, is a factor that will clearly have to be taken into account in devising the regime at these centres, which will have to provide for some flexibility within each centre." The regime in detention centres, regarded previously as punitive and fulfilling a mainly deterrent function, was "in pursuance of the principle, that the treatment of young offenders must be primarily remedial and educational, to be made stimulating and contain an element of progressive training."

These recommendations with some modification were the basis of the Criminal Justice Act 1961.

The Criminal Justice Act 1961

The section with particular reference to senior detention centres is S. 4 which states :-

- 4(1) In any case where a court has power, or would have power but for the statutory restrictions upon the imprisonment of young offenders, to pass sentence of imprisonment on an offender under twenty-one but not less than fourteen years of age, the court may, subject to the provisions of this section, order him to be detained in a detention centre.
- (2) An order for the detention of an offender under this section may be made for the following term, that is to say -
 - (a) Where the offender has attained the age of seventeen or is convicted before a court of assize or quarter sessions, and the maximum term of imprisonment for which the court could (or could but for any such restriction) pass sentence in his case exceeds three months, any term of not less than three nor more than six months;
 - (b) in any other case a term of three months
- (3) An order under this section shall not be made in respect of any person unless the court has been notified by the Secretary of State that a detention centre is available for the reception from that court of persons of his class or description, or an order in Council under subsection (5) of section three of this act is in force in respect of persons of his age and sex.
- (4) An order under this section shall not be made in respect

of a person who is serving or has served a sentence of imprisonment for a term of not less than six months or a sentence of borstal training, unless it appears to the court that there are special circumstances (whether relating to the offence or to the offender) which warrant the making of such an order in his case; and before making such an order in respect of such an offender the court shall -

- (a) in any case, consider any report made in respect of him or on behalf of the Prison Commissioners,
- (b) if the court is a Magistrates Court and has not received any such report, adjourn the hearing under subsection (3) of section fourteen of the Magistrates Court Act, 1952, and remand the offender in custody to enable such a report to be made; and section thirty-seven of this Act shall apply accordingly.

The Act also provides for the ultimate abolition by statutory order of short term imprisonment for young offenders. This power is dependent on the availability of detention centre places (5.3(5)).

Finally section thirteen provides for the compulsory supervision for twelve months of offenders released from detention centre.

Present Position

The effect of the Criminal Justice Act 1961 has been to increase the numbers of young offenders sent to detention centres. This is indicated by the following table taken from the 1968 Report on the work of The Prison Department Statistical Tables.

Persons under 21 years of age

Receptions under sentence of detention in a detention centre

Year	Total receptions (male) in Detention Centre	% of total receptions of persons under 21 into Borstal Detention Centres imprisonment
1959	1,356	19.607
1960	1,295	16.455
1961	2,311	25.885
1962	3,595	35.835
1963	4,743	44.315
1964	5,780	47.816
1965	6,740	49.486
1966	7,152	45.893
1967	7,110	45.479
1968	7,614	50.441

Until 1961 committals to detention centres had shown a consistent pattern of offenders sentenced to detention at an early atage in their criminal career. The enthusiastic use of the detention centre sentence by the courts immediately following the 1961 Act, however, increased the proportion of criminally sophisticated offenders sentenced to detention.

The major offence categories (expressed by percentages of the number of receptions) for which offenders have been committed to senior detention centres in the years 1965-68 are set out in the following table.

Offence Categories of Committals to
Senior Detention Centres 1965-68

(Expressed as percentage of the number of receptions)

Offence for which sentenced	1965	1966	1967	1968
Breaking and entering	27	32	33	34
Larceny	26	26	27	28
Indictable offences of violence against the person	9	9	8	7
Non-indictable assault	4	3	4	3
Malicious damage to property	1	1	1	1
Taking and driving away	15	11	10	10
Traffic offences	7	4	4	4
Sexual offences	2	1	1	1

The figures for reconvictions of offenders released from senior detention centres since 1960 indicate that just over 40% were not reconvicted in the three years following release. The figures available for persons discharged from detention centres in the years 1962-65 illustrate this and are set out in the following table.

TABLE 3

Detention Centres

Reconvictions, within a period of three years of persons discharged from senior detention centres in the years 1962-1965

CONTRACTOR OF THE PARTY		-	-	-	-
f each nvicted	Ex-approyed school or ex-junior centre	78.8	75.0	75.0	74.7
Percentage of each category reconvicted	2nd or more offender	57.8	57.5	56.9	59.9
Percent	1st offender	45.9	39.0	9.00	41.2
cted	Per	58.2	57.4	58.1	7.65
Reconvicted	Number	1,534	2,059	2,315	40.3 5.075
	Per cent	41.8 1,534	42.6 2,059	41.9 2,315	40.3
Not reconvicted	Number		1,528	1,669	
	Total	2,636 1,102	3,587	3,984	5,144 2,072
scharged	Ex-approyed school or ex-junior centre	288	441	630	991
Number discharged	2nd or nore offender	1,984	2,710	2,935	3,727
	1st offender	364	436	419	159
Year of		1962	1963	1964	1965
- 9110-1		-	-		

Persons included in col. (4) are not included in col. (3)

(Table F.6 Statistical Tables 1968. Report on the work of the Prison Department)

In England at present there are thirteen senior detention centres, with a total capacity of 1.532 places.

Abolition of sentences of imprisonment for six months or less for offenders under the age of twenty-one has not yet taken place.

Detention Centres in Scotland

The early development of the detention centre sentence belongs to the English penal system. The statutory authority for the establishment of detention centres, however, is different for England and Scotland.

The debate on the Scottish Criminal Justice Bill of 1949 served to point out that the provisions for Scotland in the forthcoming statute differed in some respects from the equivalent English measure. Lord Advocate, Mr. John Wheatley, in the Second Reading of the Bill (Official Reports (Commons) 1949 Col. 859) stated that "we did not slavishly follow this English Bill and disregard that traditionally Scottish background." By introducing the sentence of detention in a detention centre the Scottish provision maintains the policy of keeping young offenders out of prison - "The Bill proposes to prohibit the imprisonment of persons under seventeen and eventually by Order in Council. to raise this minimum age to twenty-one as new methods of treatment become available. For those who require not so much training and guidance as to be pulled up sharply and to be made to realise that they've done wrong the Bill proposes the establishment of a new type of institution, which we call a detention centre, to which the courts may commit offenders who are over fourteen but still under twenty-one. This will provide strict discipline for periods up to three months.

(The Secretary of State for Scotland, Mr. Woodburn - Official Reports (Commons) 1949, Col. 768).

The principal difference between the English and Scottish proposals of sentence to a detention centre is the length of sentence to be served.

The Criminal Justice (Scotland) Act 1949.

The power to commit an offender aged between fourteen but under twenty-one years of age to detention centre is contained in S.19(1) of the Criminal Justice (Scotland) Act 1949. It reads as the English measure of the previous year with the exception of the provisions for length of sentence which in Scotland is "for a term not exceeding three months". If the maximum term of imprisonment which might have been imposed is less than three months the term in detention centre may not exceed "that maximum term of imprisonment".

S.19(2) contains similar restrictions to the English Act; the court not having the power to order the detention in a detention centre of a person previously sentenced to imprisonment or borstal training.

Nor can it so sentence a person who has already been detained in a centre if he was seventeen years or more when the order of detention was made.

The offenders suitability for detention centre is indirectly provided for. S.18(2) of the Act requires that the court, for the purpose of determining whether a method of dealing with him other than imprisonment is appropriate, must consider information about his circumstances, character and his physical and mental condition. This information will be supplied by a probation officer or "otherwise obtained".

The First Scottish Detention Centre

The first Detention Centre in Scotland, a senior centre for offenders not less than seventeen and under twenty-one years of age, was opened on 20th June, 1960 at South Inch House, Perth, in what was formerly the Criminal Lunatic Department of Perth Prison. Accommodation was for a maximum of 65 inmates. The Report for 1960 on "Prisons in Scotland" (C.1383) comments - "The Centre was fully occupied seven weeks after its opening. Between 20th June and 31st December, 1960, 175 youths were committed; of these 161 were ordered to be detained for 3 months, five for two months; and nine for one month. Seventeen per cent had been in approved schools. Thirty-nine per cent had previously been on probation and twenty-eight per cent had previously been fined".

Reports of the Scottish Advisory Council on the Treatment of Offenders 1960, 1962

Before the first Detention Centre was established in Scotland the Scottish Advisory Council on the Treatment of Offenders considered the law "relating to custodial sentences for offenders between seventeen and twenty-one". They reported in 1960, several months before the centre at South Inch House was opened. Nevertheless, their report, the result partly of "enquiries about the functions of detention centres in England", contains some interesting comments on Detention Centres; but with application particularly to Scotland. The Scottish Advisory Council reiterated the idea underlying the sentence of detention in a centre, "Quite a number of young offenders who would otherwise be sent to prison would benefit from having to submit themselves to a short period of fairly exacting discipline; not discipline of a negative nature, but calling

for progressive effort leading to a sense of personal achievement. Life in a detention centre is intended to be more demanding, as well as more deliberately formative, than life in a prison. For young men who may be inclined to think that the law can be treated with impunity but are not settled in law breaking, this kind of intensive application to a training programme can be of much benefit".

They, like their English counterparts, emphasized the training aspect of the sentence but in their recommendations they deviated from the English model in an effort to cater for the Scottish They recommended that a sentence of detention in a centre should be for a standard term of three months, and that the power the courts now have to send young persons to a centre for less than three months should be abolished. (S.A.C.T.O. 1960, p.15, para.41) They felt that a shorter period than three months did not allow sufficient time for satisfactory application of a training programme, nor would it represent an adequate deterrent. The Scottish Courts never had the opportunity to sentence an offender to six months in a detention centre and the Advisory Council saw no reason to change this. In deciding this the Scottish Advisory Council saw the chief consideration to be - "that the virtue of three months' detention centre training would go out of a training course modified to conform to a longer period of detention . . . We have settled on a standard period of three months partly because it is long enough to provide the courts with a sentence more severe than, or more appropriate for the offender than, the imposition of a fine or placing on probation, and partly because we feel

assured, from the evidence given to us, that a period of three months has already been found in practice to be the optimum period for a course of training intended to achieve the purposes to which we have referred." - (para.42)

Other recommendations by the Scottish Advisory Council included a proposal that the Secretary of State should be given statutory power to order, exceptionally, the release of an inmate before completion of his three month sentence, particularly in the situation where further detention might be harmful. They also suggested that power to commit an offender to detention in a centre for a second time should be given to the courts as should the power to order a sentence of detention following a borstal sentence. (para.44-45, p.16-17)

These sentences however should only be imposed when the court, on recommendation from the remand centre, is satisfied that the sentence would be the proper means of disposal to meet the offender's needs. They also recommended compulsory supervision for six months on release from detention.

The 1962 Report by the Scottish Advisory Council on the Treatment of Offenders, "Custodial Training for Young Offenders", made little mention of Detention Centres. They did however recommend that "a statutory amendment be introduced to require the court, before ordering an offender to be sent to a detention centre, to obtain and consider a medical report as to his fitness for the routine". (p.23) This should assess his capability, mentally and physically, of taking full part in the strenuous regime.

The Criminal Justice (Scotland) Act 1963

The 1963 Criminal Justice (Scotland) Act gave effect to the

recommendations of the Scottish Advisory Council Treatment of Offenders, Clauses one to eleven being derived from their report on "Custodial Sentences for Young Offenders, 1960".

Section 1 deals with restrictions on Imprisonment and detention of Young Offenders.

- S.1(1) No court shall impose detention on a person under twenty-one years of age, unless the court is of opinion that no other method of dealing with him is appropriate.
- (2) For the purpose of determining in pursuance of the provisions of sub-section (1) of this section whether any other method of dealing with a person mentioned therein is appropriate, the court shall obtain information about that person's circumstances from his probation officer or otherwise and shall consider the information; and the court shall take into account any information before it which is relevant to his character and to his physical and mental condition.
- (3) Where a court of summary jurisdiction imposes detention on an offender under twenty-one years of age the court shall state the reason for its opinion that no other method of dealing with him is appropriate and the reason shall be entered in the record of proceedings along with the finding and sentence.
- S.7(1) empowers the court to pass sentence of detention in a detention centre on an offender aged between fourteen and under twenty-one years of age if the offence for which he is convicted could have been punished by imprisonment. The length of the sentence is three months.
- S.7(2) concerns an offender who "served or is serving a sentence involving his detention for two months or more in a prison or in a young offenders' institution or a sentence of borstal training . . . or a person who has served a sentence of detention in a detention centre" and provides that only where special consideration warrants it, should such offenders be given a sentence of detention in a detention centre.
- S.7(3) gives the Secretary of State the power to release an offender from detention in a detention centre on health grounds, with certain safeguards.

S.7(4) revokes S.19 of the Criminal Justice (Scotland) Act 1949.

S.8(1) states "The term for which a person may be detained in a detention centre shall not exceed three months at a time; and accordingly no court may pronounce an order the effect of which would be that a person would be liable to be detained for more than that period".

Finally section 11 provides for the supervision of persons released from detention centre. There is a compulsory period of supervision of twelve months from date of release. Supervision is by Probation Officer.

Position at Present

Under S.95(1) of the Social Work (Scotland) Act, 1968, in conjunction with section 71 of schedule 8, the word "sixteen" was substituted for the word "fourteen" in S.7(1) of the Criminal Justice (Scotland) Act, 1963, above. The effect of this provision was that the sixteen year old offenders who had committed an offence punishable by imprisonment could now be sent to the only detention centre available in Scotland; a senior Detention Centre. The courts always had the power to commit a sixteen year old to detention in a detention centre if such a centre was available but Scotland never had such a centre. This provision removed the statutory authority for the establishment of a junior detention centre.

The only detention centre in Scotland at present is the senior Detention Centre at Glenochil, near Stirling. This centre, with accommodation in single rooms for 180, has replaced the other Scottish Detention Centre, South Inch House, which was closed on the opening of Glenochil in 1966, and Friarton Detention Centre. Friarton Detention Centre had accommodation for 64 offenders and was opened in 1963 when demand for places could not

be met by the existing centre. Friarton ceased to function as a detention centre in February 1967 when the original accommodation at Glenochil of 120 places was increased to the present capacity of 180.

Statistics on Scottish Detention Centres

Committals to the Scottish Detention Centres have shown a steady increase from their establishment in 1960, representing approximately 14 per cent of the seventeen to under twenty-one population in 1960 and just over 20 per cent in 1967. The yearly growth can be seen by the following table:-

Persons aged 17 - under 21

Receptions under sentence of detention in a detention centre

Year	Total reception into detention centre	% of total reception of Young Offenders (17 - under 21)
1960	175	14.42
1961	311	16.18
1962	317	15.25
1963	477	20.67
1964	613	27.21
1965	579	25.25
1966	723	22.46
1967	735	20.26

Taken from "Prisons in Scotland" Report for 1967.

Committals to Glenochil Detention Centre in 1968 numbered 835.

This represents 40.377 per cent of those admitted to Borstal, Detention

Centre and Young Offenders Institution in that year.

The offences for which offenders were sentenced to detention centre in Scotland can be broken down into a few major categories. (See table below for years 1960 and 1963-67)

Offence categories of those sentenced to
Detention Centre 1960, 1963-67

Crimes/offences for which sentenced	1960	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967
Assault	13	11	14	18	15	9
Sexual offences		8	6	1 10	5	1 4
Housebreaking	54	189	205	190	261	232
Theft	50	124	1111	124	148	157
Breach of the Peace Taking vehicle without	29	68	139	138	150	179
owner's consent Other Road Traffice		35	58	49	52	60
offences		16	22	11	38	29
All other offences	29	26	58	35	54	65
Totals	175	477	613	575	723	735

Taken from "Prisons in Scotland" Report

A review of the number of previous convictions of Detention Centre receptions provides an interesting guide to the official criminality of those sentenced to detention centre in Scotland. (See following table)

TABLE 6

Previous convictions of Detention Centre receptions 1960, 1963-67

			Numl	ber of	Previo	us Com	victions	
Year	0	1	2	3	4	5	6/10	11 and
1960	26	44	36	28	17	12	12	0
1963	46	91	107	81	59	59	32	2
1964	45	110	105	87	96	50	115	5
1965	50	71	94	94	74	65	116	11
1966	51	84	100	108	120	94	159	7
1967	40	76	115	128	114	97	155	10

Taken from "Prisons in Scotland" Report

Though it is unfair to judge the effectiveness of a particular form of disposal of offenders by reconviction rates, the rates for detention centres in Scotland given by the Scottish Home and Health Department apparently justify the existence of Detention Centres as a part of the penal framework.

The following table gives the reconviction rate within one year for Detention Centre.

TABLE 7

Twelve month reconviction rate for Detention Centres

Year	% reconvicted	% not reconvicted
1960	15.90	84.10
1961	16.08	83.92
1962	19.81	80.19
1963	16.17	83.83
1964	11.80	88.20
1965		
(1st 3 mths.)	3.92	96.08
(3 - 12 mths.)*	34.41	65.90
1966	28.94	71.06

^{*} Compulsory supervision introduced

A recent Scottish Home and Health Department table gives reconviction figures three years after release of offenders discharged from Detention Centres in the years 1965-67.

(See following table)

TABLE 8

Survey of Reconvictions 1965-67 - Releases

		3 years after release	sfter 150	26		Previous approved school	ous school	%	First offender	ender	×
Yuar	Year Releases	Convicted	Not convicted after 3 years	Convicted	Not convicted after 3 years	Released	Not Not convicted convicted after 3 after 3 years years	Not convicted after 3 years	Released	Not convicted after 3 years	Not convicted after 5 years
1965	419	188	23			8	20		176	123	
1966	169	318	575			103	42		272	189	
1961	708	27.7	431			95	æ		297	213	
otal	otal 1,818	783	1,035	43%	57%	293	100	38%	745	525	71%

The Regime in Detention Centres (General)

The conduct of Detention Centres in England is governed by the Detention Centre Rules 1952 (S.1 1952, No.1432) as amended by the Detention Centre (Amendment) Rules 1968 (S.1 1968, No. 1014) and in Scotland by the Detention Centre (Scotland) Rules 1960.

When Detention Centres were first established, the fact that detention in a centre was seen primarily as a punitive and deterrent sentence, dictated the type of regime practised in the centres. The Criminal Justice Statutes did not define the regime to be established but the intention, as evidenced by the debates on the measures, was that the regime should be one of discipline and hard work. (Official Reports (Commons) 1947, Vol. 444, Col. 2138) Within the framework of strict discipline an element of "positive personal training" was gradually introduced. The 1969 edition of "The Sentence of the Court", H.M.S.O. 1969, gives the following description of the detention centre regime - "The regime in detention centres is brisk and firm; there is a strong emphasis on hard work, and the highest possible standards of discipline and achievement, behaviour and manners are insisted upon. An offender will almost invariably regard detention as a punitive experience. Many are away from home for the first time. All are required to conform to set rules of conduct governing their life from early morning physical education to 'lights out'. But emphasis is placed, not only on proper discipline and high standards, but also on the establishment of relationships between individual members of the staff and offenders. context it is possible to give individual treatment side by side with positive training in doing ordinary things extraordinarily well.

staff are trained and encouraged to take a personal interest in individual offenders and to make a real effort to find out what is wrong with them and how it may be put right . . . Throughout training the object is to stretch the offender to the limit of his ability, but not beyond it; this is far more taxing and salutory than mere conformity with strict discipline."

Within the institution the inmates are kept under close supervision. Perimeter security is generally strict. Detention Centre inmates have a full "working day" of eight hours but this refers rather to physical presence in the place of work rather than to actually working strenuously and constructively. The rationale behind the "full working day" is to "engender a habit of consistent effort and to encourage the boys to find a sense of achievement in work". This aim is furthered by application to a range of mainly repetitive jobs.

Evening educational classes are also available. "There is an hour's physical training each day; instruction is progressive and an active interest in physical development and athletic achievement is encouraged."

("Sentence of the Court" 1969, p. 29)

The Regime in Detention Centre (Glenochil)

The regime practised at the Scottish Detention Centre is in accordance with the current policy of personal treatment in an atmosphere of discipline. It is considered that a brief overview of the procedure at Glenochil would be valuable.

On admission, information on the offender's criminal record, home background, work record and hobbies is compiled. His religion is also noted. A simple educational test (of doubtful value) is also included in the Admission Procedure.

The day following admission the inmate undergoes a medical examination. On the basis of this medical examination, an inmate may be excused physical training or placed on a modified physical training programme. As soon as possible after admission, inmates are interviewed by the Welfare Officer and also by a minister of their particular denomination.

All new admissions are interviewed by the Warden. Expectations regarding behaviour, manners and cleanliness throughout the institution are high.

There is a fairly strenuous physical training programme in which the inmate's progress and effort is assessed. For the first fourteen days inmates are given a modified programme and if they are fit they then participate in the full programme. The inmates are tested on the various exercises and at athletics, and are expected to improve their standard as they get fitter. Physical training is given twice daily (forenoon and afternoon) and an integral part of this procedure is a shower after each session. Marching is also part of the 'physical' regime.

The work opportunities are, of necessity, limited in a closed institution, and tend to be dull and repetitive. Glenochil is no different from other institutions. For the first fourteen days inmates go to a work-shed where they can be kept under continuous observation. If they are seen to have settled they may be placed in other work parties. Inmates are made to wash, and change from their working clothes to their best uniforms for all meals.

Educational and recreational activities are held each evening, Monday to Friday. The educational classes range from English,

first-aid and Decimal Currency classes to the ever-present Art and Current Affairs classes. There is also a special English class for illiterates. Recreational activities range from reading newspapers to table-tennis. At weekends there is a more active programme. (For the Daily Timetable see the Appendix)

Each inmate is allowed to write a letter on admission.

Thereafter they are permitted to write one letter per week.

During the two month stay in the institution each inmate is allowed three visits of forty minutes duration.

The Scottish Detention Centre practises a grading system. The new admission is assessed by the staff for effort, attitude to work, responses, ability and his relationships with the other inmates. After three weeks the inmate is interviewed by the Warden to whom reports of four officers, the P.T. Instructor, Work-party Officer and two other officers who have been in close contact with the inmate, are submitted. If the reports are favourable the inmate would be awarded a yellow grade. After a further two weeks the inmate is assessed for his red grade. The higher grades carry privileges. Each inmate is expected to gain his yellow grade before leaving the centre.

A competitive spirit is fostered in the Detention Centre by the "House" system, of public school heritage. Each inmate is given a badge identifying him with a particular house. Inter-house competitions, for which privilege awards are given are part of the detention centre programme. The competition is in three parts - Athletics, Marching and Room and Personal Tidiness.

The inmates are uniformly dressed and the institutional hair-cut gives them a uniform appearance.

The institution has three wings with accommodation in each wing for 60 inmates. It is a secure institution in which movement is closely supervised.

Summary

Detention Centres are a product of post-war penal development.

They are designed to deter the young offender, not established in crime, who appears to need a "short but sharp reminder that he is getting into ways that will inevitably land him in disaster".

The original statutory authority for the sentence of detention in a detention centre was the Criminal Justice Act 1948 and the Criminal Justice (Scotland) Act 1949. These were superceded by the respective Criminal Justice Acts of 1961 and 1963.

The regime is hard and predominantly physical with limited educational facilities.

Admissions are by no means first offenders but their criminality is relatively minor. The success rate, in terms of non-reconviction is high in comparison with alternative custodial institutions.

Review of Literature

The literature on Detention Centres is extremely limited; the total contribution being about six studies conducted over a period of fifteen years starting with Grunhut in the mid-fifties. Fields (1969) has pointed out that the existing studies on Detention Centres have very little in common with each other, but in spite of this a few consistent findings do appear, namely certain characteristics of the inmate and factors associated with reconviction.

Characteristics

In the studies of senior boys, Dunlop and McCabe (1965), Banks (1965), Cockett (1967) and Shapland (1969) all indicate the proportion of detention centre inmates who were living in unbroken homes, i.e. where the boys own natural parents were living together at the time of their conviction.

The percentage in this category is within the narrow limits of 44 per cent discovered by Banks and 51 per cent discovered by Shapland.

The percentage of detention centre boys who had homes broken by death, separation or divorce, (44 per cent) as found by Banks, was almost identical with Gibben's borstal boys who had a figure of $44\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Banks further concluded that "comparison with other studies indicated that the death of one or both parents has little to do with delinquency though it may be associated with committal to detention centre. Separation and divorce are certainly so related." The association between "broken homes" and delinquency has been long recognised by psychologists.

The sample group in Dunlop and McCabe's study showed the following characteristics; a high degree of illegitimacy, absence from family home, unsatisfactory family relationships, poor educational standards, and

erratic employment records. They also showed a high incidence of drinking. Dunlop and McCabe also noted the regional difference between the boys studied and they encouraged separate regional detention centres.

Previous Convictions

A review of the number of previous convictions of the Detention
Centre boys, found by each study, shows no discernable trend.
Grunhut (1959), for junior and senior boys, and Banks (1966) for seniors,
found that detainees with three or more previous convictions represented
26, over 25 and 30 per cent of their sample respectively. Dunlop and
McCabe found that 45 per cent had three or more previous convictions and,
in the two later studies by Cockett and Shapland, the figures were 54 per
cent and 58 per cent in each case. "Assuming the samples are representative
of the boys in particular centres used at the time the researches were done,
the discrepancies could be due to regional differences in court sentencing
policy and/or changes over the years in the type of boy given detention."
(Field, 1969)

Previous Institutional Treatment

An indication of the number of boys who had previous institutional treatment is given by Grunhut (1959) and Banks (1966). Of the 434 junior boys studied by Grunhut, 105 or just over 24 per cent had previously been in an institution. Banks (1966) differentiated between being incarcerated in a penal institution and those who had previously spent time in Childrens' Homes and found that 13 per cent of detainees had been in approved school or Borstal and 17 per cent had been in Childrens' Homes. This indicated

that the courts had been reasonably discriminating in committing to detention centre those with little experience of penal institutions, but that they tended to overlook the effect of institutionalisation by experience of Children's Homes.

Offences

The offences committed by those sentenced to detention centre form a recognisable group in general terms. The largest group is "offences against property"; Grunhut's juniors having 70-80 per cent in this category and his seniors having a considerably smaller proportion.

The proportion of senior boys throughout the studies being committed under this offence heading ranges from 42-61 per cent. The other two most common offences are "taking and driving away a motor vehicle",

14-33 per cent and "violence", 2.3-17 per cent. Apparently then,
there is agreement about the principal offences though the proportion of boys committing them varied considerably over the studies.

Reconviction

Reconviction rates as shown by the studies under consideration show little variation, with the exception of Cockett (1967) whose boys had a higher reconviction rate; 48 per cent after one year at risk and 55 per cent after two years at risk. This may, however, be a reflection of the degree of criminality of Cockett's sample which was taken from boys originally remanded for borstal suitability reports but who had eventually been committed to detention centre. After one year at risk Grunhut's junior boys showed 31 per cent reconviction and his senior boys 29 per cent. Banks' sample of 302 senior boys studied in 1960-62 had a reconviction

rate one year at risk of 33 per cent while Shapland's study showed 35 per cent reconviction. Over a period of two years the figures were: Grünhut - juniors 45 per cent, seniors 36 per cent, Banks 47 per cent.

Factors related to subsequent conviction

All the studies looked at the factors related to subsequent Grunhut (1959) concluded that lack of previous conviction. absence of previous institutional treatment, positive response to the treatment at the centre and, as far as juniors were concerned, a good personal background were factors more or less associated with the absence of reconviction. He observed that of the seniors with three or more previous convictions over half were reconvicted and of those juniors with previous institutional experience the reconviction figure was 62.5 per cent. In contrast to Dunlop and McCabe, who showed that four or more previous convictions were positively related to subsequent conviction. Cockett (1967) found that "in general the number of previous convictions was unrelated to reconviction on release". Banks' results support the latter view. Nearly all of the studies agreed that previous institutional experience was related to failure, and Cockett in particular regarded boys who had previously been in approved school or Borstal as especially bad prospects for detention in a detention centre: an opinion which coincided with that of Grunhut who, ten years earlier, had stated that boys reconvicted after they had been in approved school should not be sent to detention Shapland's definition of institutional experience for these purposes included hospitals, the merchant navy, hostels, children's homes, as well as penal institutions. Consideration of the significant characteristics of those boys in her study who were reconvicted during

a two year follow-up period enabled Banks to identify certain
meaningful features . . . "A general pattern would appear to include
unsatisfactory situations at home, particularly with regard to fathers
and substitutes; interest in, and experience of, crime for gain coupled
with criminal contacts; a good deal of aggressive instability, and
deprivation of affection; and considerable need for more individual
care, during and after punishment, than is, or can at present, be
provided by the ordinary detention centre and statutory after-care."
Banks differed from Grunhut with respect to the factor of poor personal
background in senior detention centre boys. She found this to be related
to "failure" among such boys whilst Grunhut had found it so related for
his juniors but not for his seniors.

On the subject of reconviction, Grunhut mentions that release is followed by a "time of grace" in which only a small proportion of boys are reconvicted. He suggests massive support during this time to help them over the subsequent high risk period which both he and Cockett observed was in the latter part of the first six months.

Suitability

Banks (1966) considered the suitability of boys for detention in a detention centre and came up with some interesting results. Of the total 302 boys studied 78 or 26 per cent were judged unsuitable; ten boys were considered to be innocent, eleven as too severely punished, and a further nineteen were suffering from physical handicaps. The largest group within the unsuitable category was, however, those found to be suffering from some psychological handicap. This group included two psychotic boys and two others with indications of psychosis; twenty-three neurotic boys, three considered very unstable, two psychopathic, two

borderline defectives, three enuretic and one suffering the effects of drugs. Grunhut, a decade earlier, in his analysis of junior boys had stated that punitive detention could not get to the roots of lasting maladjustment, and that there was no point in sending to a detention centre those offenders whose delinquency was due to deep-rooted personal factors: a conclusion which Banks would endorse.

Selection

This finding by Banks raises a question basic to all forms of institutional sentence, that of selection and the appropriateness of the sentence for the young offender being committed. The statutory authority to sentence young offenders to detention centre emphasises that the sentence should be "appropriate" for the particular individual. Grunhut, in 1954, looked at the magistrates' sentencing practice and concluded that the "magistrates were confronted with a dilemma. They are reluctant to commit first offenders without serious social maladjustment to what is to all intents and purposes a severe punishment, and they are not infrequently inclined, when probation and approved school have failed to overcome lasting social maladjustment. to try this new and apparently more intense form of punishment." He reiterated his concern for a proper selection of offenders for detention several years later and was of the opinion that application of such selection standards would imply that only a small proportion of young offenders would appear eligible for detention. These standards were apparently being applied, since Grunhut cites evidence that over a period of two years the proportion of first offenders admitted to junior detention centres rose from 8 per cent to 28.2 per cent. Today, however, the proportion is around 12 per cent.

The effects of the 1961 Criminal Justice Act on detention centre selection was considered by Grunhut, Dunlop and McCabe and Banks.

They were afraid that, with the increase in the numbers of committals, the detention centre would lose its character of selectivity and be changed from a specialised short-term treatment for young offenders to a short-term prison under another name.

The "disturbing fact" that over 20 per cent of the boys studied by
Banks were sent to detention when they were not well suited to the regime,
stimulated Banks to suggest that the courts might be helped by having more
specialised information in certain cases as a basis for accurate decision
making. "A good educational psychologist, trained and experienced in
recognising handicaps, working with the probation service and having
discretion to refer cases for further medical and psychiatric investigation,
could do a great deal to reduce the numbers of rather pathetic misfits who,
it seems, find their way into a regime designed primarily for the mentally
and physically fit."

This is a conclusion which, if accepted, would do much to make accurate and appropriate placement of young offenders a reality.

Comparative Study

Only one study of senior detention centre boys offered a comparison between young offenders sentenced to detention, prison and borstal.

Banks' study in 1961 found that on face value detention centres had the best success rate; reconviction figures after one and two years of 33 per cent and 48 per cent respectively being favourably compared with those of borstal (42 per cent and 69 per cent), and prison (55 per cent and 69 per cent). The more detailed analysis, however, shows that

the differences are due to the different types of offenders being committed to the three kinds of institutions. Those committed to detention were a good deal less criminal than the rest, while the prisoners were the most criminal.

Banks also made an assessment of the relative effectiveness of prison and detention, using prison and detention centre inmates matched on length of sentence, age, number of previous convictions and, as far as possible, offence for which committed to the institution. Reconviction figures after a follow-up of one year for the matched sample of 71 prisoners, which was not wholly representative of the whole prison group, and 71 detention centre boys, representative except that it contained a lower proportion of breakers and enterers, revealed no statistically significant difference, which led Banks to observe that for the type of boy studied his subsequent record probably differs little, regardless of the type of institutional sentence he receives.

Summary

The literature on detention centre inmates is limited but varied. What studies there are, however, reveal that approximately 50 per cent of Detention Centre boys studied lived in unbroken homes, and of those who came from broken homes, they apparently had a greater likelihood of being committed to Detention Centre.

There was no discernable trend in previous convictions. The studies that touched on previous institutional treatment indicated that approximately between 13 and 24 per cent had previous experience of an institution, though Banks (1966) pointed out that experience in Children's Homes should count as institutional experience and this would raise the figure.

The offences for which boys were committed to detention fall into three main groups; "offences against property", "taking and driving away a motor vehicle", and "offences of violence". There is little variation in the reconviction rates after one year, most studies showing 31-35% reconviction.

Consideration of factors relating to reconviction showed that previous institutional treatment, particularly approved school and borstal, was significantly related to reconviction. Banks (1966) examined the suitability of boys sentenced to detention. She found that 25% were unsuitable. She emphasised the burden on the sentencer and suggested some improvements in the procedure of selection.

The Detention Centre has grown out of the inability of the existing penal provisions to meet the needs of the wide range of young offenders being sentenced to custodial treatment. The structure of the penal system is such that the inadequacies, and indeed the developments in the other two main custodial sentences for young offenders - borstal training and imprisonment - must affect the development of Detention Centres. With this in mind, both Borstal Training and the provisions for Young Prisoners will be considered.

BORSTAL TRAINING

The requirement in the Criminal Justice Acts, that detention in a detention centre be the "appropriate" sentence, and the availability of other custodial sentences for young offenders implies, as Grunhut has pointed out, that the training given at these institutions is geared to a particular type of offender with particular physical, psychological and criminal characteristics. To place detention centre training, and indeed, the detention centre inmate, in the wider institutional context, consideration will be given to the alternative custodial methods of disposal, namely borstal training and imprisonment, and the criteria on which such a sentence depends.

The origin and development of Borstal Training

Though the Borstal system, as we know it, is a child of the twentieth century, the origins of the system lie in the Gladstone Committee of 1895. The effect on the English penal system of the Gladstone Committee's proposal for a "penal reformatory under Government management" has already been noted. It is, however, the Borstal system, more than any other form of treatment for young offenders, which has been shaped by the philosophy of the Gladstone Committee. The necessity to make inroads into the adolescent prison population in the late nineteenth century was considered so vital that the Gladstone Committee remarked, "even a moderate percentage of success would justify much effort and expense devoted to an improvement of the system". (Report of the Departmental Committee on Prisons, C.7702, 1895, para.84)

It was not until 1900, however, that the Prison Commissioners were

prepared to experiment "on a moderate scale" with the concept of a penal reformatory. Mr. Ruggles-Brise crystallized the concept into a programme "with stern and exact discipline, combined with an attempt to "individualize" the prisoners by physical, educational and religious training. (The Times, 22nd August, 1899)

The experiment, first instituted at Bedford Prison, with eight selected prisoners, and later continued at Borstal Prison, proved a success. The "fundamental principles" outlined in the Prison Commissioners' Report 1900-01, were "(1) strict classification (2) firm and exact discipline (3) hard work (4) organised supervision on discharge"; a regime with remarkable similarity to that conducted in the present-day Detention Centre.

The Prevention of Crimes Act 1908

The Prevention of Crimes Act 1908 contained provisions "for the reformation of young offenders".

S.1 contained the power of committal to a "Borstal Institution", where a person is convicted on indictment of an offence for which he is liable to be sentenced to penal servitude or imprisonment, and it appears to the court -"(a) That the person is not less than sixteen or more than twenty-one years of age; and (b) that by reason of his criminal habits and tendencies, or associations with persons of bad character, it is expedient that he should be subject to detention for such term and under such instruction and discipline as appears most conducive to his reformation and the repression of crime; it shall be lawful for the court, in lieu of passing a sentence of penal servitude or imprisonment, to pass a sentence of detention under penal discipline in a Borstal Institution for a term of not less than one year nor more than three years".

S.1 also provided, that any report on the "suitability" of the offender for committal to a Borstal Institution, made available to the court by the Prison Commissioners, must be given due consideration. The court must be "satisfied that the character, state of health, and mental condition of the offender is likely to profit by such instruction and discipline as aforesaid". There was, however, no duty on the court to ask for a report of suitability.

S.4 provided for the establishment of Borstal Institutions and gave an indication of the regime to be practised . . . "places in which young offenders whilst detained may be given such industrial training and other instruction, and be subjected to such disciplinary and moral influences as will conduce to their reformation and the prevention of crime".

Provision was also made for early release on licence and for supervision for six months on discharge.

The Act, while it stressed the training and reformative aspect of the treatment of young offenders, was not however to be regarded as too liberal. It was designed for those with previous criminal behaviour and was careful to point out that they would be reformed in a regime of "penal discipline".

The development of the concept of Borstal and its divergence from penal discipline was reflected in the debate on the Criminal Justice Administration Bill 1914 . . . "We do not intend the Borstal institution to be anything like a prison . . . they will be more and more removed from anything in the nature of a prison, and become more and more purely reformative and training institutions". (Mr. McKenna, Home Secretary, House of Commons Debates, Vol.61, Cols. 197-8, 1914)

The Criminal Justice Administration Act 1914

The Criminal Justice Administration Act 1914 made no provision for the regime in the Borstal Institutions, but confined itself to widening the committal powers of the courts.

Under S.10(1) persons convicted by a summary court could be committed to Quarter Sessions for sentence to borstal. The power was, however, restricted to the age group sixteen to under twenty-one; to those offenders who had previously been convicted of an offence or had failed on probation; and to those offenders the court, "having regard to his criminal habits or tendencies or associations with persons of bad character", thought suitable for Borstal.

Under S.11(1) the minimum period of detention in Borstal was increased from one year to two years and under subsection (2) the period of supervision was to be one year and not six months as previously.

Act and the Criminal Justice Act 1948 saw considerable progress in the Borstal system. Several factors contributed to this. Firstly, new ideas in training were introduced under the direction of Alexander Paterson, the Commissioner in charge of Borstals. Secondly, after a brief period of criticism, the courts enthusiastically embraced the new system. Thirdly, the Departmental Committee on the Treatment of Young Offenders, reporting in 1927 (C.2831), advocated the expansion of the borstal system as the means of keeping young offenders out of prison. This Committee suggested that the basis for committal to borstal should be the need for training, rather than the negative one of "formed criminal habits", and further proposed that the age limit should be revised to seventeen and under twenty-three years of age; proposals which did not

immediately receive legislative authority. A fourth factor in the expansion of the Borstal system was the increase in the crime rate among the adolescent age group during the early thirties which put immediate pressure on the already overcrowded Borstal accommodation. The provision of space to meet this crisis enabled greater diversification and selectivity to be practised within the Borstal programme, when the committal rate eventually dropped to more manageable proportions in the mid-nineteen thirties. In 1936 the age limit for Borstal was raised, by Order in Council, to twenty-three years of age.

The other significant measure relating to the Borstal system during this period was the 1938 Criminal Justice Bill which was shelved to make way for emergency legislation. This proposed a change in the statutory basis for sentence to borstal training, in line with the 1927 Departmental Committee's view, emphasising the needs of the offender.

The Criminal Justice Act 1948

The spirit of the Criminal Justice Act 1948 with regard to Borstal was very much that of the 1938 Criminal Justice Bill.

Under S.20(1) the criteria for sentence to Borstal was the offender's need of training. "When a person is convicted on indictment of an offence punishable with imprisonment, then if on the day of his conviction he is not less than sixteen but under twenty-one years of age, and the court is satisfied having regard to his character and previous conduct, and to the circumstances of the offence, that it is expedient for his reformation and the prevention of crime that he should

undergo a period of training in a Borstal institution, the court may, in lieu of any other sentence, pass a sentence of Borstal training".

This section also lowered the upper age limit to twenty-one years of age, since the experiment of raising the age to twenty-three had "not proved successful" (House of Commons Debates 1947, Col.2140, Vol.444). Another feature of the Act was that it standardised the sentence at not less than nine months and not more than three years (schedule 8). Provision was also made that the power of the courts of summary jurisdiction, to commit offenders to quarter session for sentencing, should be exercised according to the direction in S.20(1).

S.20(7) provided that the court should, before sentence, consider a report on the offender's suitability for borstal training.

The 1948 Act, and endorsement of the reformatory principles of the Borstal system which had met with success in the nineteen thirties, gave the courts power to commit a wider variety of young offenders to Borstal as an alternative to imprisonment.

Developments during the 1950's

The proposals in the Government White Paper "Penal Practice in a Changing Society" (1959) and in the Advisory Council on the Treatment of Offenders' Report on the "Treatment of Young Offenders" (1959) reflected a changing attitude in the treatment of young offenders (see above).

The ideal of keeping young offenders out of prison was still wholeheartedly maintained but the proposals, seemingly symptomatic of a hardening attitude to the rising crime rate among the adolescent population, had overtones of punishment. Detention Centres drew more

attention than Borstals which were to be integrated, with imprisonment, "into a single system".

Para.41 "Penal Practice in a Changing Society" - "It seeks in effect, for sentences of over six months and under three years, to integrate borstal and imprisonment into a single system. To this end it proposes to provide a single indeterminate sentence of custodial training, with a maximum of two years, within which the offender may be released at any time after a minimum of six months on the same principles as now governs release from a borstal sentence, i.e. individual consideration based on response to training and prospects of rehabilitation after release."

The very suggestion of combining prison and borstal sentences was, in the light of earlier statements on Borstal policy, almost a contradiction in itself and represented a shift in the traditional concept of Borstal as a purely educational and reformative treatment of young offenders.

The Criminal Justice Act 1961

The Criminal Justice Act 1961 gave effect to the proposals in the Advisory Council's report on "Young Offenders" -

- S.1 lowered the qualifying age for borstals to fifteen years of age.
- S.1(2) The power of the court to commit to Borstal was to be exercisable "in any case where the court is of the opinion, having regard to the circumstances of the offence and taking into account the offender's character and previous conduct, that it is expedient that he should be detained for training . . . "

Only if the court was convinced that such a sentence was the only one

"appropriate" was it to be imposed on an offender under seventeen years of age.

- S.1(3) provided for a report on the offender to be made available to the court.
- S.11(1) provided that the maximum period of borstal training be two years and the minimum six months.

Borstal "Training" in England

The early concept of training in borstal institutions aimed at changing the offenders' attitudes through strict discipline. The system was authoritarian and work orientated, but always embracing the ideal of reform rather than punishment. The boys' education, with heavy emphasis on the moral and spiritual aspect was catered for, and a privilege system, whereby boys earned marks for good conduct and hard work was instituted. The overall impression, however, was one of discipline.

A notable era in training development was that of Alexander Paterson's period as Commissioner in charge of Borstals. He preached the doctrine of self-discipline, and instituted many experiments with this idea in mind. The staff shed their authoritarian garb for casual clothes, the house system was introduced, outside activities were encouraged and the educational programme widened. The programme, however, subjected working class youths to what were undoubtedly middle class social values, in an even purer form than at present.

During this period, classification and the open system of Borstals were introduced which enabled regimes to be established to suit the needs of particular types of individuals.

pattern of previous years; organised work, education and leisure. The Advisory Council on the Employment of Prisoners, in their Report on "Work and Vocational Training in Borstals" (1962), reaffirmed the importance of work in the Borstal programme . . . "We are in no doubt that work, in the sense of a steady hard day's work at a productive or otherwise useful job, which is organised efficiently on modern industrial lines, is very helpful in turning Borstal boys into good citizens". (para. 13)

The reformation of the boy's character, however, is pursued through expanded educational opportunities, trade training (from which only a minority benefit) and physical education. The most meaningful new element introduced into the training programme is, however, the group counselling concept, with its promise of a therapeutic community.

The classifying system in the Borstal system, operated by a professional team including a psychologist, an educationalist, and a social worker, feeds the offender into the system; into it is hoped a regime best suited to his needs.

Present Position

Statistics suggest an increase in criminally sophisticated boys being sent to Borstal; a trend which appears to stem directly from the implementation of the 1961 Criminal Justice Act. In 1968 the figures indicated that approximately one third of the total admissions to Borstal had more than six previous convictions (see following table).

TABLE 9

Previous convictions of Borstal Receptions - 1960, 1963, 1966, 1968

			Num	ber o	f Pre	vious	Convic	tions		
Year	0	1	2	3	4	5	6-10	11-20	20+	Total
1960	179	445	620	693	583	382	541	33	-	3,476
1963	109	276	520	638	638	511	830	26	-	3,548
1966	172	332	600	821	767	675	1,368	113	1	4,849
1968	149	337	522	726	838	769	1,559	141	3	5,044

In the last decade the population of Borstal, after a relatively stable period, has increased over the three years 1965-68, though this increase corresponds to the increase in young offenders rather than the increased use of Borstal. (See following table)

Persons under 21 years of age

Receptions under sentence of Borstal Training

Year	Borstal Receptions	Percentage of Total Institutionalised Young Offender Population
1960	3,476	44.17
1961	3,588	40.19
1962	3,746	37.34
1963	3,548	33.15
1964	3,715	30.73
1965	3,923	28.80
1966	4,849	31.12
1967	5,012	32.06
1968	5,044	33.42

The early success rates claimed for Borstal were, in present day terms, phenomenal. The Borstal Association's figures for releases

in 1936 show that two years after their release 70 per cent had not been reconvicted. Today the position is reversed. (See table below)

TABLE 11

Borstals:

Reconvictions, within a period of three years of persons discharged from sentences of Borstal Training in the years 1962-1965

					Reco	nvicted	
Year of discharge	Number discharged	Not reco	nvicted	Not reco to pris borstal sente	on or under	Recommit prison borstal senten	or under
		Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
1962	3,501	1,134	32.3	663	19.0	1,704	48.7
1963	3,877	1,183	30.5	739	19-1	1,955	50.4
1964	3,429	935	27.3	697	20.3	1,797	52.4
1965	3,604	1,039	28.8	765	21.2	1,800	50.0

^{*} Including those recalled following conviction.

Taken from Report on the Work of the Prison Department Statistical Tables: Table F.4 1968.

The number of Borstals in England at present is 27, of which 15 are closed and 12 are open.

The Borstal System in Scotland

The origin and evolution of the Borstal system in Scotland (with several exceptions) has been similar to that of England. With this in mind, the survey of Borstal Training in Scotland will trace briefly the growth of the local system and concentrate rather on any exceptional provisions relating to Scotland.

The Prevention of Crimes Act 1908

The statutory basis for sentence to a Borstal Institution in Scotland, as in England, was the Prevention of Crimes Act 1903.

S.17(1) states "Part 1 of this Act shall apply to Scotland (with the substitution of an institution under any name prescribed by the Secretary of State for Scotland for a Borstal Institution) on and after such date as may be determined by the Secretary of State for Scotland." (For the provisions of Part 1, Prevention of Crimes Act 1908, see above)

The Criminal Justice Administration Act 1914

The Criminal Justice Administration Act 1914 gave the sheriff courts, in exercise of their summary jurisdiction, the power to commit to Borstal a young offender convicted of an offence punishable with imprisonment.

S.42(8) "This Act in its application to Scotland shall be subject to the following modifications . . . section ten of this Act (which contains power to sentence to Borstal) shall not apply: Provided that in Scotland from and after such date as may be prescribed by the Secretary of State for Scotland section one of the Prevention of Crimes Act 1908

shall be construed as if after the words "penal servitude or imprisonment" there were inserted the words "or is convicted by the sheriff summarily of an offence for which he is liable to be sentenced to imprisonment."

S.11(1) of the 1914 Act substituted two years for one years as the minimum period of sentence to a Borstal Institution.

Apart from fixing the upper age limit at twenty-three years of age there were no other major alterations in the Borstal sentences in Scotland until the Criminal Justice (Scotland) Act 1949.

The Criminal Justice (Scotland) Act 1949

This measure is the Scottish equivalent of the 1948 English statute of the same name. The central features of the English provision S.20(1) are reproduced in this Act. The court has to have regard to the offender's character and previous conduct and to his suitability for training. One notable difference in the Scottish provision is introduced by schedule 4(1) of the Act.

"A person sentenced to Borstal training shall be detained in a Borstal Institution for such period, not extending beyond three years after the date of his sentence, as the Secretary of State may determine, and shall then be released", i.e. there is no set minimum period. The length of the sentence is indeterminate within the outside limit of three years. The Act also empowered the Secretary of State to make "rules for the regulation and management of inter alia Borstal institutions, and for the classification, treatment, employment, discipline and control of persons required to be detained therein".

The rules currently in force are the Borstal (Scotland) Rules, 1950.

Report of the Scottish Advisory Council on the Treatment of Offenders "Custodial Training for Young Offenders" 1962

Although the Scottish Advisory Council on the Treatment of Offenders made certain recommendations concerning Borstals in Scotland in their report of 1960 on "Custodial Sentences for Young Offenders", including the proposal that the maximum period of training be two years and that there be no set minimum period, the most important document on the Scottish Borstal system came two years later with the publication of the Report on "Custodial Training for Young Offenders" 1962. This was as comprehensive a review of Borstals in Scotland as has been published and it touched on all aspects of the Borstal framework. The Advisory Council were of the opinion that the Borstal "programme and methods of training were in urgent need of re-assessment. The problem was to "educe the best that is in each inmate and at the same time strengthen his character". They saw the answer in educational principles, and pointed out that only those who were likely to respond to a training programme based on these should be sentenced to Borstal. The Advisory Council pointed out the importance of the reception unit in preparing the inmate, so that the rest of the training affects the maximum change in his attitudes. Classification on the principle "that the subjects and activities included in any curriculum must be suited to the capacities of the inmates" involved the "allocation of recruits on the basis of ability and educational attainment". To implement the principles they proposed classification as follows :-

- (a) the mentally and emotionally disturbed (in a separate institution);
- (b) inmates of very low intelligence;
- (c) inmates who are backward owing to maladjustments resulting from educational difficulties, social conditions, truancy, ill-health or the like.

- (d) inmates who are backward because of indifference;
- (e) inmates of good ability which is either misdirected or underdeveloped. (para. 32)

Training methods were also commented on. The training suggested for the respective types above involved :-

- (a) a high degree of individual attention;
- (b) the classroom should be the central feature of the programme and . . . work of a practical nature;
- (c) the improvement of basic educational skills in association with practical work;
- (d) the kind of discipline which requires the completion of set tasks;
- (e) a programme which will stretch their intellectual ability so that their intelligence will not enable them to slide through borstal more easily and with less real benefit than their less able associates. (para.33)

The Advisory Council continued, "we attach great importance to the improvement and development of skills, whether manual or intellectual or recreational, since this should enhance self-respect, enlarge understanding and increase the ability to lead a purposeful life".

These conclusions and recommendations of the Advisory Council formed the basis for the Borstal provisions in the Scottish Criminal Justice Act one year later.

The Criminal Justice (Scotland) Act 1963

The Criminal Justice (Scotland) Act 1963, S.3, denied the courts power to impose a second Borstal sentence on an offender who had already served a term of Borstal Training.

S.4(1) followed a recommendation of the 1960 Advisory Council report and limited the maximum period of Borstal Training to "two years instead

of three years". There was no change in the minimum sentence which remained at the Secretary of State for Scotland's discretion.

S.4(2) made provision for a one year period of supervision on release.

Borstal "Training" in Scotland

The Borstal (Scotland) Rules 1950, rule 4, states "(1) The object of training shall be to bring to bear influences which may establish in an inmate the will to lead a good and useful life, and to abstain from crime and to fit him to do so by the fullest possible development of his character, ability and sense of personal responsibility".

"(2) Methods of training may vary as between one institution and another according to the needs of the different types of inmate allocated to each."

The pattern of training in Scotland is similar to that in England with emphasis on hard work, in an effort to inculcate the value of a full day's work into the inmates. Manufacturing and agricultural work is practised as are vocational training classes. Educational classes are a central part of the programme, particularly for illiterate and backward offenders. Evening classes offer a considerable variety of subjects from motor engineering to photography, though it is doubtful to what extent these stimulate sufficient interest for them to be pursued on release. As in England, recreational and physical education are regarded as an "essential part of the daily routine". The average period of training is approximately 13-15 months.

Borstals in Scotland at Present

At present there are four male Borstals in Scotland. These are:

Polmont, which is the main borstal institution to which all youths

sentenced to borstal training are committed for allocation, after

preliminary training, "to one of the other institutions or to one

of the three Training Houses in the Polmont institution"; Castle Huntly,

Cornton Vale, and Noranside which are open institutions with a variety

of regimes.

The number of receptions into Borstal has varied over the years from 1960, with the figures for the last three available years, 1966-1968 showing a marked increase from the beginning of the decade. (See following table)

TABLE 12

Receptions into Borstals 1960 - 1967

Year	receptions	% of total Young Offender receptions into Institutions
1960	328	21.41
1961	404	21.02
1962	456	21.93
1963	428	18.54
1964	546	24.23
1965	482	21.02
1966	690	21.44
1967	647	17.84

A review of the previous treatment meted out to Borstal receptions over the years 1962-67 indicates that once again there has been little variation. The rise in the numbers with previous institutional experience in the years 1966 and 1967 appear to correspond to the increase in numbers received in those years. (See following table)

TABLE 13

Previous Treatment of Borstal Receptions, 1962-1967

		-		-	-	Constitution of the last	-	-	-			-	-	OR OTHER DESIGNATION.			Pushenan.	-	-	THE ROUGH STREET, SHAPE STREET	-	-	Section Confession Confession
Year	None		Probation	ă	ATS	Approved School	p J	Se H	Remend		Jors	TE .	Imp	Aso	Borstal Imprisonment	Detention Centre	rtion		Young Offenders nstitutio	Young Offenders Institution	#	Others including fines	8 H .
		-	2	3 and over	-	N	3 and over	-	N	3 and over	-	2	-	N	3 and over	-	α	-	N.	3 and over	-	N	2 and over
1962	99	114	21	3	157	88	=	1	1	1	17		34	6	CV	20	\d.	1	1		102	1	8
1963	45	109	27	-	132	29	=	1	ı	1	19	-	8	6	7	65	10	1	1	•	24	83	118
1964	22	243	26	7	172	26	30	80	18	4	=	-	22	8	-	114	N	1	•		111	110	509
1965	23	229	46	12	173	45	17	24	-	•	6	1	17	2	2	16	4	1	•	•	Ξ	72	180
1966	23	415	9	7	242	46	19	21	2	-	13	1	22	-	4	142	4	2	1	•	157	121	243
1961	42	367	65	9	213	38	20	24	10	3	13	N	33	14	9	133	9	88	N	N	123	118	224

A survey of the reconviction figures for the 1965-67 releases from Borstals in Scotland, gives a dismal

indication of the 'failure' rate of this "reformative" treatment. (See following table)

TABLE 14

Survey of Reconvictions, 1965-1967 Releases to 24.11.69.

		3 yr after 1	3 years after release			Prev	Previous Approved School		First 0	First Offenders	
Year	leleases	Not convicted after Year Releases Convicted 5 years		% Convicted	% Not convicted after Convicted 3 years	Released	Not Not Convicted after 3 years		Not convicted after Released 3 years	Not convicted after 3 years	Not convicted after 3 years
1965	565	328	237			202	4		99	35	
1966	496	7557	159			251	2		24	0	
1961	713	441	272			321	101		59	22	
otal	Total 1,774	1,106	899	62%	38%	77.4	212	27%	147	67	46%

(Courtesy Scottish Home and Health Department)

Summary

Borstal training represented all that was progressive in the English Penal system. The express aim of the Borstal System was to keep young persons out of prison and to reform them by education, trade training and a full work programme rather than by punishment. It is selective with the emphasis being placed on the offenders' needs and the provision of suitable training facilities to meet those needs.

Initially, Borstal Training was highly successful but of late the reconviction figures are discouraging. The failure rate is approximately 70 per cent in England, and in Scotland the percentage failure rate is around the mid-sixties.

The recent statutory provisions relating to Borstal training in England and Scotland are contained in the Criminal Justice Acts of the late 1940's and the early 1960's.

Review of Literature

The Borstal system, regarded as a model of reformative penal thinking for over 50 years, no longer commands the support which its success in early years demanded. Alper (1968) commented, "It (the Borstal system) is no longer the complete answer it was once held to be." The question to be answered is how has this come about? What are the inherent weaknesses or strengths in the system and is there any real future for it?

Deterioration in inmate quality

Using the Mannheim-Wilkins prediction scale as a measure of "reception quality", Little (1962) examined the quality of Borstal receptions in the

years 1950-56. Comparison of predictive scores indicated a pronounced deterioration in receptions, and he concluded that throughout the early fifties Borstal had been receiving less good training material than in earlier periods. This conclusion is supported by recent figures which indicate that the proportion of boys having the least likelihood of success on the Mannheim-Wilkins scale increased considerably over the twenty years from 1946. (See following table)

Percentage of Borstal Receptions
having the least likelihood of success

Year	1946	1957	1960	1963
%	25.5	56.5	66.4	72.1

(Jones. 1965)

Banks (1966) also drew attention to the deterioration in the quality of boys being committed to Borstal, and pointed out that this appeared to be a result of the 1961 Criminal Justice Act. Successive reports of the Commissioners of Prisons reported a worsening of the type of boy being received into Borstal. This trend has continued into the late sixties with Borstal admissions presenting increasingly complex problems for the training staff of the institutions . . . "Over recent years the type of lad allocated to Feltham has changed radically from the fairly tough dullard who needed a modicum of medical oversight to young men with mental and/or physical disorders, personality defects, and considerable social inadequacies. Running throughout are very many

drug addicts or dependants, not a few high intelligence ratings, and a very large number of suicide risks. This extremely unstable population centred on one establishment produces quite unique problems in a traditionally custodial setting". (Extract from the Report of Governor, Feltham Borstal in Report on Work of Prison Department, 1968).

Classifying System

A feature of the Borstal System is the internal classifying procedure by which an offender is directed to the training institution best equipped to meet his particular needs. Little (1962) gives a brief description of this procedure. The first few weeks of the sentence are spent in a classifying centre where the offender is subjected to examination and intensive interviewing by the professional staff of the allocation group. This comprises a clinical psychologist, social worker, educational psychologist, a vocational officer, his housemaster and the Governor of the centre. The offender's reaction to the regime, to the staff and the other inmates is observed, and on the basis of this investigation the offender's capacities and needs are diagnosed. Allocation to the appropriate training borstal follows.

A standard item in this classifying process is the administration of the Mannheim-Wilkins Prediction Scale (1955). This predicts success or failure of Borstal receptions with considerable success. The Prediction score uses social and personal data which is significantly related to post-borstal training reconviction, e.g. conviction for drunkenness, method of disposal for past offences, home area, living arrangements and work record.

A subjective examination of the allocation process was undertaken by Morrison (1957) who pointed out that it is geared to the uniqueness of the individual, his needs and own personal resources. He was of the opinion that the allocation boards tended not to work within a "rigid analytic framework", but their decisions were rather "intuitive, global and concrete". Apparently it was only when there was some initial divergence of opinion among the Board's members that a more analytic approach was taken. The criteria on which allocation was based was age, maturity, criminal experience and the offender's training requirements, together with the need for a particular atmosphere or tempo depending on the offender's psychological condition. Morrison concluded that the current allocation methods were "as sensitive and discriminating" as were required.

Adequate and meaningful classification depended on a broad range of treatment facilities being available. (Rose 1955, Banks 1966). Banks also foresaw danger in an increase of committals to the classifying centre, and suggested that pressure on accommodation, both in the classifying centre and in the training institutions would effectively disrupt the process, particularly when the specialist staff/inmate ratio is so low.

Miller (1964) is critical of the Borstal classification procedure in that it does not adequately pick out those offenders in need of psychological treatment. He suggests that a diagnostic classification of delinquents into, e.g. situational delinquents, inter-familial delinquents and personality delinquents, "could make treatment attempts more rational, successful and economical". He concedes, however, that "the failure to offer adequate treatment in more penal settings may primarily be a function of the shortage of psychiatrists and psychologists".

Mannheim and Spencer (1949) produced the idea of "external and internal classification; the former meaning the sorting out of various categories of offenders with a view to allocating them to different types of institutions, the latter with a view to giving them differential treatment within the same institution", which appears to be much the same process as Odgen (1955) envisaged as an offshoot of his prediction typological study.

It is, however, left to Jones (1965) to point out the basic weakness in the Borstal classification concept. He states that the report to the court on the suitability of an offender for Borstal training is, in the first instance, prepared not by the skilled professional group of the classifying centre but by the Governor of the local prison or remand home where he is temporarily held. He concludes that there is "no justification for imposing such a sentence after only a hasty appraisal of the facts by a lay person, but afterwards drawing upon all the skills of the psychologist, psychiatrist, doctor and social worker to decide to which institution he shall be committed". As a solution to this problem Jones raises the question of treatment tribunals as the deciders of treatment but not of guilt.

Training

The operative question for staff within the Borstal system, as Rose (1955) sees it, is the "relationship between what they try to do with each individual boy, within the limits of the range of treatments available to them, and his subsequent career". This statement embraces the whole structure of Borstal treatment and suggests that there is much to be gained from an examination of how far treatment methods permit

interaction between staff and immates.

A concise breakdown of the ingredients of Borstal Training reveals five parts, ranging from the formal training of work, education, recreation, leisure and religion, to the informal but still vital interpersonal contact between the staff and each boy. (Little 1962). While the more formal aspects of the regime train through inculcation of discipline and new values, it is recognised that what is demanded is a regime which "stimulates and strengthens".

A central figure in the Borstal framework is the housemaster.

While the value of the "house-system" and the spirit engendered by
it has had some doubts cast on it by Elkin and Kittermaster (1950),
the value of the housemaster himself has been recognised from the
beginning. Alexander Paterson, who introduced the housemaster idea,
held that "the Borstal system has no merit apart from the Borstal
staff". Jones (1965) acclaims the housemaster as a success, basing
his views on the study by Leitch (1946) whose Borstal subjects
reported themselves as more influenced by the housemaster than work,
officers and discipline; but Rose (1955), while not disputing the
success of the housemaster, views the evidence of Leitch's study with
suspicion.

The role of the housemaster in the institution was examined by

Rose (1958) who concluded that the nature of the institutional community

coloured and distorted the housemaster's objectives. The boys' behaviour

within the institution may be a situational reaction totally different

from his actions outside. Rose, in examining the grouping within the

inmate community, saw the housemaster as the victim of leaders and rejects

among the boys; having to subdue leaders and attend rejects in order to maintain stability in the community, with the result that the broad mass of boys who may benefit from his closer attention, are sacrificed for those demanding immediate attention whose chances of success are small.

With the recognition of the importance of the group counselling methods in the institutions, the housemaster/boy relationship has provided a sound basis for its introduction to Borstals. The contribution of group counselling in Borstals is reviewed by Taylor (1965) who points out some benefits not only to the boys but to the staff by the introduction of this technique. Wood (1965), however, is critical of the progress achieved so far. "Even though the methods of group counselling are now being used, psychotherapy proper is still almost unknown in Borstals. The role of the housemaster has been described as analagous to that of the psychotherapist, but few have received any formal training in psychology or in case work technique."

The ultimate frustration involved in this treatment was referred to by Alper (1968). He argued that "the fuller aspirations towards freedom inherent in these self and group analytic sessions is contradicted by the locus of confinement". It would appear therefore that in these situations there must be an attempt to create a feeling of emotional security within the institution as suggested by Miller (1964). This is similar to the view put forward by Rose (1954) who suggested that conditions conducive to "casework" must be created, e.g. "a non-repressive atmosphere which at the same time imposes problems of living with others

of the kind which are soluble by socially approved action on the part of the cases, and above all time to talk, to think . . . "

The encouraging results of the American "Righfields" project would suggest that the group-relationship approach should be continued (McCorkle, Elias and Bixby, 1958).

Despite the changes in Borstal training over the past 20 years, the foundations are still basically the same. There is a need for radical reappraisal. Jones (1965) asks about the place of women in the Borstal institutions and advocates an increase in female staff within suitable institutions. The recent move to appoint women as assistant Governors in suitable male Borstals is a tentative first step which could have dramatic effects throughout the system.

Miller (1964) would welcome an increase in psychiatric staff, since the ex-borstal boys he was working with, including his severely disturbed group, had apparently not been exposed to psychiatric care while in Borstal - "all the boys of similar intelligence and personalities had been scattered through fifteen different borstal institutions".

The earlier concept of small independent units is pursued by Rose (1960) who asks, "where is the family group Borstal, the forestry camp Borstal, the therapeutic community Borstal? Indeed what about the hostel Borstal where everyone works in industry, and the self-governing Borstal where nobody is forced to work at all?" Perhaps the recent development at Ipswich under which young offenders work for outside employers and from an early stage in their Borstal sentence, live in a small house in the town, is a forerunner of greater experimentation on the lines Rose suggests.

Inmate Community

The sociology of the Borstal community is a grossly neglected subject. Schnur (1948) said that "too little account had been taken of experiences within the system which might decrease or increase his (the inmate's) chances of success", and this remains true today. Training methods are appreciated, the period before and after the time spent in the institution is examined, but the way the inmate community reacts is overlooked. The study by McCorkle and Korn(1954) indicated that "in many ways the inmate social system may be viewed as providing a way of life which enables the inmate to avoid the devastating psychological effects of internalizing the converting social rejection into self-rejection. In effect, it permits the inmate to reject his rejectors rather than himself". Rose (1955) sees the Borstal inmate as at the centre of a conflict of self-interest and group loyalty. The boy views pro-authority behaviour as the means to early release, but membership of the inmate community and his own self respect imposes strong demands to reject the official objectives. In elaborating his theme that "the more we learn to analyse and understand the structure of the institutional community, and how it affects the activities of the staff and boys, the more we are likely to be able to understand the real effects of treatment measures", Rose focuses on an issue central, not only to the Borstal system but to other institutional forms of treatment including detention centres.

Effectiveness of Borstal Training

The effectiveness of a particular form of treatment is a difficult thing to diagnose, and the criteria for effectiveness can change from

one study to the next. The most general criteria, however, is freedom from reconviction within a stated period of time from release.

Sir George Benson (1959) compared a matched group of young offenders sentenced to prison and to Borstal and concluded that short-term imprisonment was as effective as Borstal. One year later he reached the same conclusion with detention centres, i.e. that differential treatment procedures gave similar results.

Independent studies of Borstal reconviction rates confirm the equally depressing official figures. Little (1962) was disturbed by the increase in reconviction and Banks (1966) foresaw an increase in the Borstal failure rate over the next few years. In an attempt to evaluate the Borstal training method Cockett (1967) took subsequent reconviction as the "essential criterion of the overall effect of training" and found that in his sample of 770 the overall success rate was 40 per cent which approximated closely to the Mannheim-Wilkins "expected" success rate of 39.5 per cent. Using further custodial treatment as the criteria his success rate was 58.9 per cent. A follow-up of 200 Borstal inmates by Gibbens and Prince (1965) noted that response to the training programme within the institution often bears no relation to later behaviour. They instanced particularly the institutionalised recidivist and the highly intelligent but unstable boys with well concealed neurotic difficulties. The boys in this study were classified as 27 per cent mentally abnormal, 59 per cent normal, 14 per cent unclassified. The mentally abnormal group included a significantly greater proportion than the other two groups of subjects, with a history of psychiatric treatment for neurotic symptoms. These

authors also introduced a six-point scale of success or failure, using a mixture of reconviction and work record, when conducting a short-term follow-up of their Borstal subjects. Types 1-3, regarded as a success, accounted for 48.5 per cent of their population. A long-term follow-up by Gibbens and Prince used "recovery from crime" as opposed to the "socio-criminal" assessment as the criterion of success, and revealed an approximate success rate of 63 per cent. About 26 per cent of the population had changed their position, as calculated initially on the Mannheim-Wilkins Prediction Scale, over the period of ten years. This surely suggests that the general criterion for success, i.e. reconviction, bears examination as its very arbitrariness condemns many as failures who may over a period of years be socially responsible.

Though the Borstal system is receiving more difficult cases than previously (as pointed out above) its success with cases of the same "quality" as in 1948 is not, according to Little (1962), being maintained but is considerably lower.

Summary

The Borstal inmate has been more widely studied than either Detention Centre inmates or young prisoners. Recent studies of the Borstal inmate suggest that Borstal admissions are more criminally sophisticated than before.

The basic training concept has varied little over the past years though naturally the techniques used are gradually being brought up to date. This is apparent in the introduction of group counselling

techniques and in the trade training programme.

Comparatively little attention has been given, however, to the psychological characteristics of Borstal boys. The notable exception to this is Gibbens "Psychiatric Studies of Borstal Boys".

TREATMENT OF YOUNG PRISONERS

The policy of committing young offenders to prison (once the universal custodial method of disposal) has been much eroded over the past seventy years. The development of the Borstal system and of the more recent Detention Centre, both designed to keep young offenders out of prison, while they have absorbed considerable numbers of young offenders have not yet been able to replace imprisonment completely. They represent a refinement rather than a complete answer to the problem of imprisonment of young offenders.

Modern developments in the treatment of young prisoners in England and Scotland stem from the 1948/49 Criminal Justice Acts, and it is these measures and measures subsequent to them that will be briefly considered.

Provisions relating to England: The Criminal Justice Act 1948

The Criminal Justice Act 1948 imposes considerable restrictions on the power of the Courts to imprison young offenders. The relevant section, S.17, provides for the total prohibition of imprisonment for those offenders under fifteen years of age and also removes the power of imprisonment of those under seventeen years of age from courts of summary jurisdiction (S.17(1)).

S.17(2) states, "no court shall impose imprisonment on a person under twenty-one years of age unless the court is of opinion that no other method of dealing with him is appropriate; and for the purpose of determining whether any other method of dealing with any such person

is appropriate the court shall obtain and consider information about the circumstances, and shall take into account any information before the court which is relevant to his character and his physical and mental condition".

S.17(3) provides that if the court imposes imprisonment on a young offender it must state its reasons for considering such a sentence appropriate.

S.17(4) provides for the total prohibition, by order in Council, of imprisonment of offenders under twenty-one, by courts of summary jurisdiction. Before this can happen the Secretary of State must be satisfied that there are adequate methods of treatment available.

The provisions of this Act which apply to Borstals and Detention Centres have already been outlined; these are complementary to the provisions restricting the courts' power to impose a sentence of imprisonment on young offenders.

The Criminal Justice Act 1961

This Act, the latest in a line dealing with young offenders, followed the pattern of the 1948 Act in reducing those categories of young offenders who could be sentenced to imprisonment. S.3 implemented the recommendation of the 1959 Advisory Council on the Treatment of Offenders and abolished medium-term imprisonment for offenders within the borstal age group and replaced it with the indeterminate borstal sentence. Imprisonment for this age group then, is limited to sentences "not exceeding six months" or "not less than three years", (S.3(1) a & b). Where a young person has already served a prison sentence of six months or more, or has previously been

sentenced to borstal training, the court has power to impose a prison sentence of eighteen months and upwards (S.3(4)).

Finally, S.3(5) provides for the ultimate abolition, by Order in Council, of the short-term prison sentence of under six months, and its replacement by a sentence of detention in a detention centre, when sufficient detention centre accommodation is available. Such an order has not yet been made, though the numbers sent by the courts to detention centres has increased rapidly as accommodation became available.

Training

Those young offenders committed to prison are classified as "young prisoners". It is the practice to separate them, as far as possible, from the other classes of prisoners so that "contamination" by those more experienced in crime than they may be avoided. Should a young prisoner prove to be unsuitable for that class or be intractable he may be classified as an adult prisoner and be removed from the young prisoner The complete segregation of "young prisoners", however, under the present conditions, is virtually impossible. The White Paper "People in Prison" published in 1969 admits that "until recently young prisoners have been towards the end of the queue in the allocation of available Establishments for this class of prisoner have been so resources". inadequate that those sentenced to less than six months have to remain in local prisons where conditions are such that neither separation nor training can be considered satisfactory. The Prison Commissioners, in the White Paper "Penal Practice in a Changing Society" 1959, voiced their concern about the increase in the numbers of young offenders "sent to prison for very short periods which must for the most part be

spent in local prisons where the conditions make it impossible to organize a form of training for young offenders which is both corrective and exacting". It is remarkable that conditions openly criticised by the Prison Commissioners in 1959 should still exist ten years later. In recent years, however, there have been provided regional units for young prisoners centred in suitable local prisons.

Those young offenders sentenced to longer periods of imprisonment serve their sentence in one of four young prisoners' centres two of which, Aylesbury and Northallerton, are self-contained institutions while the other two, Liverpool and Stafford, are in separate wings of the adult prisons. This is one of the most unsatisfactory features of the English system.

The regime in the young prisoners' centres is claimed to be a cross between Borstal and Detention Centre, but this is applicable only to those centres for long term offenders where "adequate" work, vocational, and educational facilities exist. Life for those committed for short periods must be overwhelmingly dreary.

Statistics

Though there has been an increase in reception from 1962 to 1967, when there was a drop in numbers, the actual proportion of young offenders sentenced to imprisonment has varied little. (See following table)

TABLE 16

Receptions of Young Prisoners, 1960-1968

Year	Imprisonment Receptions	% of total committed to Borstal, Detention Centre, Imprisonment		
1960	3,099*	39•38		
1961	3,029	33.93		
1962	2,691	26.82		
1963	2,412	22.54		
1964	2,593	21.45		
1965	2,957	21.71		
1966	3,583	22.99		
1967	3,512	22.46		
1968	2,437	16.14		

^{*} excludes court-martial prisons

The sharp decrease in the proportion of boys sent to Borstal
in 1968 corresponds to an increase in the Detention Centre and
prison population. There was a considerable increase over
the period 1966-68 of young prisoners who had 11 - 20 previous
proved offences. Apart from this the receptions in 1968 appear
to be marginally less criminal than previous years. (See following table)

Number of Previous proved offences of Young Prisoners, 1960, 1963, 1966, 1968

		4	Number	r of P	reviou	B Prove	ed Offe	nces	
Year	0	1	2	3	4	5	6-10	11-20	20
1960	419	420	441	416	403	320	643	53	4
1963	495	339	305	361	311	236	566	75	3
1966	354	263	333	369	406	351	1097	186	6
1968	169	152	174	179	208	238	888	257	2

A notable feature of the reconviction rates of young prisoners is the sudden drop in 1965 after a period of gradual decline (see following table). It remains to be seen whether this trend continues.

TABLE 18
Young Prisoners

Known Reconvictions within a period of 3 years of young prisoners discharged on licence in years 1962-1965

Year of discharge	Number discharged	Not reconvicted		Not recommitted to Prison or Borstal under sentence		Recommitted to Prison or Borstal under sentence(1)	
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
1962	1,443	852	59.0	132	9.2	459	31.8
1963	1,367	726	53.1	147	10.8	494	36.1
1964	1,233	639	51.8	158	12.8	436	35.4
1965	1,363	336	24.6	158	11.6	869	63.8

⁽¹⁾ including those recalled following reconviction

Report on the work of the Prison Department. Statistical Tables Table F5 1968.

Young Prisoners in Scotland: The Criminal Justice (Scotland) Act 1949

This Scottish statute, like its English counterpart, restricted the power of the courts to imprison young offenders. The provisions are on the whole similar except that S.18(1) of the Criminal Justice (Scotland) Act abolished completely the sentence of imprisonment for offenders under seventeen years of age.

The rest of the Act contained provisions equivalent to those enacted in the Criminal Justice Act 1948 (above).

The Criminal Justice Acts of England and of Scotland proposed that young offenders be kept out of Prison. There was, however, a marked difference in the way in which this was achieved. In 1962 the Scottish Advisory Council on the Treatment of Offenders reported on the subject of "Custodial Treatment for Young Offenders" with respect to the imprisonment of young offenders. The Scottish Advisory Council completely rejected the idea that short and medium terms of detention should be served only in Detention Centre or in Borstal. They suggested that where a court was of the opinion that a "custodial sentence was called for, but one of detention in a centre or a borstal sentence was not appropriate", there should be available an alternative form of custodial sentence, corresponding to imprisonment, under which young offenders could be sentenced for any period of time. They strongly opposed the incarceration of young persons in an adult prison and suggested that "custodial centres" be established where young offenders could be separated from adult prisoners and so avoid any contaminating influence. Though they advocated improved work, educational and recreational facilities, the Council stressed that

the aim of the new institutions was one of deterrence.

These recommendations were given effect by the Criminal Justice (Scotland) Act 1963.

The Criminal Justice (Scotland) Act 1963

The Criminal Justice (Scotland) Act 1963 S.1(1) provides that,
"no court shall impose detention on a person under twenty-one years
of age unless the court is of opinion that no other method of dealing
with him is appropriate".

Where the court, after due consideration, was of the opinion that neither Borstal Training nor detention in a Detention Centre were appropriate, and the offence was punishable by imprisonment, the court instead of imposing a term of imprisonment upon him, was empowered to "impose detention in a young offenders' institution for a term not exceeding the term for which he could have been imprisoned".

Young offenders in Scotland therefore could be sentenced to detention in a young offenders' institution and be subjected to "suitable training and instruction" for a period from a few days to life.

The establishment of the Young Offenders' Institutions in Scotland was a haphazard and unsatisfactory process, characterised by a lack of foresight all too typical of penal treatment. As it was, the first Young Offenders' Institution was opened in E Hall of Saughton Prison, Edinburgh in January 1965 with accommodation for 76. Pressure of numbers resulted in the opening of Dumfries Young Offenders and later a separate Hall in Barlinnie Prison was designated as a Young Offenders' Institution; an arrangement which can only be described as convenient

but bizarre, when the main purpose behind separate institutions for young prisoners was to take them out of the 'atmosphere' of the adult prisons.

Any attempt at classification between the three institutions was apparently doomed to failure by the increased use of the alternative sentence which proved popular with the courts.

Training in the Young Offenders' Institutions in Scotland was outlined by the Parliamentary Under-Secretary, Lady Tweedsmuir "For Young Offenders with sentences up to three months, who will probably be in the majority, there will be a good deal of physical training on detention centre lines with simple work calling for sustained application. There will also be a fair amount of general education such as talks and discussions, and as far as possible what is now called group counselling. For those who are serving over three months and under one year, i.e. up to eight months detention with remission, the training will embody general borstal principles with emphasis on physical fitness. There will be provision for education, for vocational and trade training". (Hansard) Present training apparently consists of "textile and carpentry production", show repairs and bookbinding, together with a limited vocational training programme.

While the Young Offenders' Institutions may, as Dr. Smith points out, never have been "envisaged as training centres" it is reasonable to expect that they should provide an adequate programme for rehabilitation. The treatment of young offenders in Scotland will never be considered enlightened while the primitive conditions at

Barlinnie Young Offenders' Institution exist.

At present the Young Offenders' Institutions are Barlinnie,
Dumfries, Edinburgh and (from April 1970) Friarton which was previously
a Borstal Institution, and which now takes those young men sentenced to
detention in a Young Offenders' Institution for up to six months. It
caters principally for those from the northern region.

Statistics

The reception figures of young prisoners in Scotland show a reasonable degree of consistency until 1966 when the figures reflect the increased use of young offenders' institutions by the courts, following the sharp decline in 1964. (See following table)

TABLE 19

Receptions of Young Prisoners, 1960-1967

Year	Number of Receptions	% of total Young Offender receptions
1960	1,029	67.17
1961	1,207	62.80
1962	1,306	62.82
1963	1,403	60.79
1964	1,094	48.56
1965	1,232	53.73
1966	1,806	56.10
1967	2,245	61.90

The Young Offenders' Institutions have from their inception been receiving an increasing number of offenders who have already had experience of institutional life. (See following table)

TABLE 20

Previous Treatment of Young Prisoners, 1965-1967

	1 60	T	<u> </u>	22	QI.
	Others including fines	and over	407	752	1,092
	the the	N	188	320	383
		-	251	336	393
	Young Offenders Institution	3 and over	ı	14	48
100	Young Offend nstitu	N	1	56	59
08a]	L	-	,	170 26	232 59
of Sp	De- tention Centre	2 and	σ,	53	33
or	ten Cen	-	199	217	280
ences	son-	3 and over	49	56	76
Sent	Imprison- ment	0	69	98	96
sno	A	-	154	222	296
revi	Borstal	2 and	14	13	=
Number of Previous Sentences or Disposals	Bore		318	582	969
mber	nud le	3 and over	,	1	ı
H	Remand Home	2	,	-	N
		-	W	4	6
	70	3 and over	0	28	58
	Approved School	N	63	96	66
	App	-	284	474	627
		3 and over	5	22	25
	tioz	N	19	102	8
	Probetion	- 4	358	814	1,035
		None	25	108	119
		Year	1965	1966	1961

The Young Offenders' Institutions have the worst reconviction rate of the three types of institutions The figures in the table below indicate a failure rate of 68 per cent. studied.

TABLE 21

Survey of Reconvictions, 1965-1967 : to 24.11.1969.

	64 -				T
	Not % Not convicted after 3 years				57%
fenders	Not convicted after 3 years	14	59	34	11
First Offenders	Released	32	4	8	136
	% Not convicted after 5 years				27%
ous School	Not % Not convicted after 3 years	=	32	19	104
Previous Approved School	Not convicted after Released 3 years	53	143	190	386
	% Not convicted after convicted 3 years				32%
	% convicted				%89
ars elease	Not convicted after 3 years	41	109	124	274
3 Years after release	Convicted	11	203	308	588
	Releases	118	312	432	862
	Year	1965	1966	1961	Total

Literature on Young Prisoners

The literature on Young Prisoners is negligible. Dr. Charlotte Banks (1966) writing of her own research termed it "important" on the grounds that "practically nothing is known, descriptively, about prisoners . . . "

Using the Mannheim-Wilkins prediction method, Sir George Benson (1958) compared the success rates of similar types of offenders sentenced to Borstal and to prison and concluded, on the basis of his finding, that in terms of reconviction rates, it hardly mattered whether those offenders went to Borstal or prison. Apart from this study the only other major research project with young prisoners is that of Dr. Banks who conducted a study in depth, of boys between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one years of age who were sentenced to prison, borstal and detention centre. Her findings with regard to Detention Centre boys and Borstal boys have already been noted (see above). In this section only her findings on Young Prisoners will be considered.

Banks (1966) gathered data on her subjects by means of psychological tests, interviews with the boys, interviews with their parents where possible, and from official reports. From this she was able to assess the characteristics of the various groups and came up with some significant differences. The Young Prisoners were older and had more experience of penal institutions, particularly Approved School and Borstal. They were criminally more sophisticated, having a greater number of previous convictions and were better acquainted with the criminal fraternity. The researchers "considered that fewer were likely to benefit from penal training, being in need of skilled medical and psychological attention and of more individual attention than could be provided in the course of an

ordinary prison sentence". The prison group had a "greater number of neurotic and/or unstable boys - about two-thirds of the total sample of 300, and more who presented psychopathic and psychotic features in their behaviour".

The past institutional experience of the young prisoners, 69 per cent of whom had already been institutionalised, was commented on by Banks. A particularly significant group was the ex-Approved School and ex-Borstal boys who differed from the other prisoners in a large number of characteristics, among them 'criminality', moves from home when under ten years of age, and 'failure' rate.

The failure rate for the total sample of young prisoners was given as 55 per cent, one year after release and 69 per cent two years after.

Considered as a separate group the ex-Approved School/ex-Borstal boys had a 68 per cent failure rate one year after release. "They raised the total failure rate" by 5 per cent.

Consideration of the characteristics of the Young Prisoners' group led
Banks to question the provision for such young offenders under the Criminal
Justice Act. Special provision is needed first to identify and then to treat
the highly criminal, neurotic and unstable boys in need of individual attention,
particularly those who have already served a Borstal sentence.

In an earlier article, Banks (1964) looked at the policy underlying sentencing, and in particular the "relation between length of sentence on the one hand and the type of offence and number of previous convictions on the other". She concluded that the type of offence was much more closely related to the length of sentence than was the number of past crimes - "The courts then, sentence largely for type of crime committed."

Summary

The literature on young prisoners is negligible. Banks' study indicates that young prisoners are older and criminally more sophisticated than the other categories studied. They were considered to be in need of "skilled medical and psychological attention".

Conclusion

The statutory provisions relating to young offenders over the past seventy years have been geared to keeping young offenders out of prison. Borstal training and the detention centre regime have in this period developed into separate systems in their own right.

The statutory provisions, however, have given only a broad definition of those offenders eligible for each particular method of disposal. In each case the court has to have regard to the offender's character and previous conduct, and to his "suitability" for training. There is a wide range of training possibilities available within the custodial provisions for young offenders, and these have been developed to meet the particular needs, both physical and psychological, of young offenders.

If an offender is to benefit from his sentence it is therefore of considerable importance that an adequate assessment of his "suitability" be made before placement.

The literature on the provisions for young offenders deals with a wide range of topics. The social background of the young offender is examined, but largely as a factor related to conviction or reconviction.

Rose (1955) has already commented that training methods are adequately studied, as are the periods before and after the time spent in the

institution, and this remains so today. While Rose was writing specifically about Borstal institutions, these still remain the areas most likely to be studied, regardless of the particular institutional programme under examination. Indeed, the lack of studies dealing with the psychological features of the inmates is all too noticeable.

The fact that inmates must be considered "suitable" for the particular sentence ultimately given and that Borstal training relies so heavily on the classification procedure to direct boys to the "right" institution for them, suggests that the social and psychological characteristics of young offenders are important features in the success or failure of training. The lack of information on such features is particularly noticeable with regard to offenders in Scotland, though this is by no means a local phenomenon.

It would therefore appear that an adequate profile of young offenders and, in this instance, of Detention Centre inmates is overdue.

PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORIES

Criminal behaviour in individuals has stimulated many theories, from the biologically orientated idea of Lombroso to ecological and sociological theories developed during the present century.

Lombroso initially postulated the concept of a distinct anthropological type, "the born criminal, an individual likely or even bound to commit crime". While this view enjoyed some popularity when first conceived, it was subjected to severe criticism, notably by Tarde and later by Goring, the English prison doctor, who is credited with the refutation of Lombroso. Interest in the biological aspects of criminal behaviour still exists, however, particularly in the work of Kretschmer, Sheldon, and to some extent the Gluecks.

The work of the Gluecks in the field of criminal or delinquent behaviour carries with it the "implication of a complex etiologic involvement". In "Unravelling Juvenile Delinquency" they summarised the interplay of forces as follows:

"Delinquents as a group are distinguishable from the non-delinquent:

(1) Physically, in being essentially mesomorphic in constitution (solid, closely knit, muscular); (2) Temperamentally, in being restlessly energetic, impulsive, extraverted, aggressive, destructuve . . .

(3) In attitudes, by being hostile, deviant, resentful, suspicious, stubborn, socially assertive, adventurous, unconventional, non-submissive to authority; (4) Psychologically, in tending to direct and concrete, rather than symbolic, intellectual expression, and in being less methodical in their approach to problems: (5) Sociologically, in having been reared to a far greater extent than the control group in homes of little

understanding, affection, stability, or moral fibre, by parents usually unfit to be effective guides and protectors . . .

In the existing stimulating, but little controlled and culturally inconsistent environment of the underprivileged area, such boys readily give expression to their untamed impulses and their self-centred desires by means of various forms of delinquent behaviour.

The Gluecks have pointed out that their approach to the causation of delinquency cannot be categorised as essentially biological or even essentially environmental and they reject, at this stage, the concept of "a single theory that will 'explain' all delinquency and crime". They have rather pursued a variety of avenues of exploration, namely "anthropologic, psychiatric, neurologic, psychologic and social". Their social investigation has been concerned primarily with the culture of the home and inter-familial pressures. These have revealed that family influences during the early years can effect development of delinquency in a variety of ways, namely by "contributing to the foundation of traits previously shown to be significantly associated with anti-social tendencies in children: by rendering criminogenic. some traits which, in the absence of such malign family influences, are usually neutral so far as delinquency is concerned. Some sociocultural factors operate to influence delinquent trends quite apart from the pressures of the physiologic, neurologic or psychologic traits previously found to be linked to delinquency".

Of recent sociological theories of criminal behaviour Sutherland's theory of Differential Association demands consideration. According to Sutherland, criminal behaviour is neither inherited nor spontaneously

adopted, but is the product of a socio-cultural process facilitating
the learning of such behaviour. According to Cressey's interpretation,
"the specific direction of motives and drives is learned from definitions
of the legal codes as favourable or unfavourable. In some societies an
individual is surrounded by persons who invariably define the legal codes
as rules to be observed, while in others he is surrounded by persons whose
definitions are favourable to the violation of the legal codes . . .

A person becomes delinquent because of an excess of definitions favourable
to violation of law. This is the principle of differential association . . "
Sutherland's theory is not a learning theory in the sense that the theory
of social learning as expounded by Eysenck and Trasler (see below) is a
learning theory, but is rather an "elaborate sociological concept of
crime and criminal behaviour, which are regarded as socio-cultural facts,
explicable in terms of sociocultural systems". (Szabo, 1966)

It has been noted above that the Gluecks were sceptical of any theory which purports to "explain all delinquency and crime". Indeed much the same point is made by Szabo (1966) who commented that, "without making a detailed list of all the gaps in our knowledge, we can safely state that there is no point in trying to determine the aetiology of crime in general when we know so little about the aetiology of particular crimes".

Sociological theorists do attempt part explanations of deviant behaviour, particularly among the young adolescent group.

A general theory, which has stimulated contemporary American sociological thought, is Merton's development of the concept of anomie. Merton postulates five different adaptations to a society characterised by anomie, namely conformism, innovation, ritualism, withdrawal and rebellion. Other recent

theories, notably those of Cohen (1955), Millar (1958) and Cloward and Ohlin (1960), derived from investigation of the delinquent behaviour which persists in certain environments, have concentrated on what is known as the delinquent subcultures.

According to Szabo (1966), however, people living in society constitute a dynamic synthesis of the products of heredity, biophysical temperament and socio-cultural background. He suggests that sociological analysis of delinquent behaviour should be made at three levels; at the cultural level, the level of society and at the level of personality. At the latter level the "social source of the motivation of the criminal act, to be viewed as the manifestation of an individual personality operating within the terms of reference of a particular culture" should be investigated.

Unbalanced emphasis on sociological causes of criminal behaviour has widened the gap between criminal sociology and the purely psychological or psychoanalytic theories concerned with the delinquent act. There have been attempts to bridge this gap, however, by combining the operational concepts of psychology and sociology. Jeffery (1959) employed a psychosocial concept to explain all criminal behaviour. The delinquent, according to Jeffery, is characterised by the impersonality of his social relations which, as a result of some organic or accidental incapacity, are not genuine. This theory of social alienation apparently incorporates all the other theories of criminology but it has been criticised as being too abstract and unlikely to add to the actiology of delinquent behaviour (Szabo, 1966).

A defect of current sociological theory is the over-emphasis of the socio-cultural forces influencing the population under study, which detracts

from the psycho-genetic features of the individual and his reaction to The part played by psychological factors in the formation such forces. of delinquent behaviour has been the subject of much investigation. particular interest is Eysenck's claim that a group of traits, largely determined by heredity, are characteristically associated with criminality. The place of heredity in the causation of crime has been a controversial issue ever since Lombroso postulated his criminal type. Eysenck, however, rejects the view that heredity does not play a part in the causation of crime, and cites as evidence the "twin study" by Lange (1928). The results of that study apparently demonstrate that heredity is a predisposing factor in the criminal behaviour of the individual. supportive evidence of the view that an individual's inherent qualities play a part in determining whether he will become a delinquent, is derived from the poor psychomotor performance of delinquents compared with nondelinquents, as discovered by Gibbens (1963) and West (1970).

Eysenck postulates that inhibition and excitation are linked to personality. Having accepted the Jungian concept of extraversion and introversion he states that extraverts build up cortical inhibition quickly, show high degrees of inhibition and dissipate inhibition slowly. Cortical inhibition "inhibits the higher centres whose major role is the inhibition of outgoing instructual activity, it thus acts as a disinhibitor of behaviour". The introvert builds up inhibition more slowly and to a lesser degree and dissipates it more quickly. The opposite may be said for excitation. This is important to the concept of "conditioning" which is central to Eysenck's theory of criminal behaviour.

Eysenck suggested that "socialised behaviour rests essentially on a basis of conditioning which is applied during a person's childhood by

his parents, teachers and peers, and that his conduct in later years is determined very much by the quality of conditioning received at the time, and also by the degree of conditionability which he himself shows, i.e. the degree to which he is capable of becoming conditioned by the stimuli which are presented to him".

The ameniability of a person to conditioning, and the persistence of conditioned responses differs from one individual to another. Extraverts, who should accumulate a good deal of inhibitory potential during the conditioning process, would be less likely to condition well and strongly than introverts who should accumulate relatively little inhibition.

The conditioning process depends on the activity of the autonomic nervous system. The activity of the autonomic nervous system is involuntary, and is such that when a forbidden act is followed by a sanction, an association will be formed between the conditioned stimulus and the unconditioned reaction. The two stimuli are associated because they occur close together, i.e. the process of conditioning works by contiguity. For example, when a child behaves badly it is punished by a slap or a scolding which produces pain and fear in the child and, where the relationship between mother and child is close, anxiety. Frequent repetition of punishment for antisocial behaviour establishes an automatic conditioned reaction of anxiety and fear to such situations or activities. Indeed, by a process of stimulus generalisation and by the verbal labelling of certain behaviour as bad, the anxiety reaction is associated with all antisocial activities. It is this process of conditioning which, according to Eysenck, is at work in the production of a conscience.

Basically, Eysenck postulated that "it is conscience which is, in the main, instrumental in making us behave in a moral and socially accepted manner; that this conscience is the combination of, and culmination of, a long process of conditioning, and that failure on the part of the person to become conditioned is likely to be a prominent cause of his running afoul of the law and the social mores generally."

would be less likely to condition well. Indeed "Extraversion-Introversion is an important personal quality which is said to correlate both with conditionability and delinquency potential". (West, 1967) On the evidence of personality questionnaire responses, Eysenck claims that an individual's temperament falls within a continuum, the opposite extremes of which are the predominantly introverted and the predominantly extraverted individual. The inhibited temperament is suggested by certain attitudes of a sensitive, imaginative, reflective nature, whereas the extraverted temperament is suggested by a cluster of attitudes representing a cheerful, matter-of-fact person who is readily adaptable without much need for thought. The majority of individuals fall somewhere in between these extremes.

According to Eysenck (1959), extraversion—introversion is an inherited trait of personality and is correlated with a variety of psychological and physiological factors. West (1965) cites as examples the positive correlation of introversion with "ectomorphic physique, with quick conditioning, with high level of aspiration, with anxiety reactions and marked physiological changes in response to stress, with a high threshold to sedative drugs and with certain perceptual habits. In contrast, below average introversion (i.e. above average extraversion)

is associated with mesomorphic physique, slow conditioning, low aspiration, low reaction to stress, low sedation threshold, low persistence etc. "

Eysenck is of the opinion that it is the person who fails to develop moral and social responses due to his low conditionability and his extraversion who tends to become the psychopath and the criminal. Taking psychopaths as an example of socially nonconforming characters, Eysenck maintains that experiments indicate that psychopaths have a distinct tendency to be low on conditioning and to be extraverted in personality. In support of the proposition that antisocial and criminal persons are more extraverted than those who refrain from such behaviour he adduces evidence from the studies on body types of Warburton (see Eysenck, 1966) and Gibbens (1963). He also derives support for his theory from the studies on body types by Kretschmer, Sheldon, Hooton, the Gluecks and Gibbens, and the fact that these suggest a preponderance of extraverts among delinquents.

Another trait with a bearing on behaviour is neurotic tendency or emotional instability. The quality of neurotic reaction varies according to one's position on the extraversion-introversion continuum, although according to Eysenck neurotic tendency and introversion are completely independent. West (1967) gives a brief summary of this aspect of Eysenck's theory. "The introvert who is also neurotic suffers from excessive anxiety and sometimes from obsessional and phobic symptoms, and tends to be miserable, over-inhibited and self-punishing. In contrast neurotic extraverts, whom clinicians identify as hysterics and psychopaths, are misfits who are apparently oblivious to their own

peculiarities, and are apt to attribute their difficulties to imaginary ailments or adverse circumstances for which they feel no personal responsibility. Tests given to psychopaths, whether they be patients in hospitals or criminals in prison (as for instance in the Warburton investigation quoted above) confirm that as a group they tend to be both markedly neurotic and markedly extraverted. On the other hand, unstable introverts, because of their over-inhibited quality, are likely to be over-conforming rather than social rebels or delinquents. Neurotic tendency would seem not to be closely related to delinquent trends except when combined with a marked degree of extraversion. The study by Hathaway and Monachesi (1956) on juvenile delinquency and the M.W.P.I.* gave partial confirmation to this concept.

Though Eysenck's theory is essentially biological, environmental factors are related to socialised behaviour. There are a variety of external factors involved in the conditioning process. Apart from the internal characteristic of the degree of conditionability "it must be borne in mind that the quality of the child's upbringing, the degree of conditioning and the kind of conditioning he receives will be very important in his future development".

The individual differences in susceptibility to fear conditioning are also indicated by Trasler (1962). He puts forward three variables in the "social training process". Namely, the susceptibility of the individual to conditioning (which is at fault in psychopathy), the efficiency of the methods employed by those who undertake training (normally the parents) and the nature of the values and attitudes transmitted. The distinction is made between the individual whose

^{*} Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory.

criminality is predominantly constitutional inability to respond to any kind of social training however competent, and the individual who receives defective training. Criminality is seen as the product of a pattern of social training upon an individual endowed with particular qualities or defects. This emphasises the environmental conditions in which the conditioning process takes place, and the techniques of training which are employed. Smooth social conditioning would apparently depend on a close relationship between child and parent, a stable home situation and the application of consistent and clearly defined disciplinary measures.

Trasler, however, indicated that the more serious adult offender and juvenile delinquent would evidence factors associated with defective social conditioning, e.g. erratic or inconsistent discipline, broken homes, deprivation of parental care during childhood. These features tend to support the argument that "either on account of constitutional resistance, or through ineffective training, or both, the social conditioning of such individuals has been inadequate".

Since this theory postulates conditioned avoidance being dependent on situations provoking a certain level of tension or anxiety, any influence, e.g. alcohol which damps down anxiety, may be expected to reduce the avoidance response.

The cluster of traits identified by Eysenck as criminogenic, namely mesomorphic physique, poor conditionability, psychomotor clumsiness and emotional instability, when combined with extraversion is relatively unsubstantiated. West (1965) pointed out that the degree to which conditionability can be regarded as a unitary trait and the extent to

which an individual varies in his speed of conditioning according to the kind of situation in which he is placed, have yet to be established. "Conditioning theory, at least in the elementary form here described, seems to be a gross over-simplification of the problem." The theory can well account for the extravert, slap-happy personality with a careless disregard of social rules, but this is not the only type of recognised delinquent or criminal behaviour.

In a later publication, West (1970) traced the influence of community, family and individual factors, at an early age, upon personality, performance and social adjustment in later years.

Among the factors with which poor conduct was significantly correlated were poor performance on psychomotor tests, a tendency to neurotic extraversion, and a tendency to heavy body build. "Poor conduct was also significantly correlated with a large number of home background items, including broken homes, temporary separation from parents, neglectful parents, parents lax in rules, parents who were unloving or otherwise unsatisfactory in attitude to their boy . . . etc."

These factors appear relevant to Eysenck's social learning process.

Eysenck is not the only psychologist who has attempted to identify the criminal in terms of traits. The multivariate experimental psychologist, R. B. Cattell, acknowledges that crime is a complex event, with sociological and economic factors determining a person's involvement in it. (Cattell, 1965) He also maintains, however, that there are "several known distinct psychological contributors" and that regardless of theories, sociological or otherwise, the "brute facts" are that persons of lower intelligence and higher temperamental

impulsiveness are likely to have more difficulty in adjusting to the rules of a complex society. This is apparently a reiteration of Burt's tentative suggestions, as a result of his study of delinquent children in London in the mid-twenties, that both low intelligence and low emotional stability are hereditary factors associated with likelihood of delinquency.

In a given society it is apparent that susceptibility to delinquency depends on the various individual capacities to acquire a strong conscience and good emotional balance. "If every form of behaviour is partly environmentally determined and partly genetically, then, in spite of the obvious environmental causes of crime, there is likely to be some temperamental endowment which predisposes one person to crime under stresses which another would tolerate". (Cattell, 1965)

It would therefore appear that individuals with a particular personality profile of psychological upset may be more delinquency prone than others and, under the influence of adverse environmental forces, be more likely to indulge in criminal or delinquent behaviour than others.

Cattell's Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire will be used to establish the personality profile of the subjects in this study.

Another useful measure in this area is the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire (Caine and Foulds, 1967). Originally designed as a measure of hostility, it has been argued that it can be used as a measure of psychological disturbance. Philip (1968) described the General Hostility scale of the HDHQ as a general measure of egocentricity or the degree of failure to maintain or establish mutual

personal relationships, which is the defining feature of those described by Foulds (1965) as "personally ill".

Both these measures of psychological upset will be discussed in greater detail in the subsequent chapter. A less well known theory of personality, postulated as having particular relevance to delinquency, is the theory of interpersonal maturity, as stated by Sullivan, Grant and Grant (1957), that an understanding of delinquency "can best be achieved from a study of the interpersonal relationships and interactions among individuals, groups and situations". An elaboration of this theory is contained in the following chapter.

Summary

The learning theory of Eysenck apparently accounts for the antisocial behaviour of a well publicised and easily identifiable section of the criminal and delinquent population - in particular the age group under study. Social learning, through the conditioning process, provides for the various degrees of social or antisocial behaviour by highlighting the hereditary nature of the conditioning process and the effect of external features of it such as the quality of values passed to the child.

Cattell also emphasises the hereditary nature of personality and identifies particular traits which appear to be associated with delinquency proneness. The concept of psychological upset is also emphasised in the interpretation by Philip (1968) of the Hostility theory of Foulds (1965).

A less well known theory, but one which has elicited enthusiastic support from Jones (1968) as assisting in understanding delinquency, is the theory of interpersonal maturity, as postulated by Sullivan, Grant and Grant (1957). These will be scrutinised more closely in the subsequent chapter.

METHOD

Review and discussion of the tests used in the study

The tests used in this study were chosen as likely to give a variety of measures of psychological upset. The Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire or 16 PF (Cattell and Eber, 1965) and the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire or HDHQ (Caine and Foulds, 1967) are standardised tests of acknowledged reliability. The Interpersonal Personality Inventory is less well known and is relatively unsubstantiated. Its results must be interpreted with caution.

All of the tests are self-administered questionnaires. been claimed that the scores obtained are likely to be affected by response bias. It has also been claimed that a great deal of the variance on scales derived from the questionnaire-type of personality test is accounted for by what is known as the "social desirability" factor (Edwards, 1957). This implies that the subject distorts his reply, consciously or not, to give a favourable impression. been argued by Scott (1963), however, that what is considered "socially desirable" will vary with the individual. Philip (1968) reviewed fully the criticisms made of self-administered questionnaires and observed that most of the studies demonstrating marked response bias have used a single personality questionnaire, the M.M.P.I., and the subjects (mainly students) have been untypical of the populations normally investigated in most psychiatric studies. Philip concluded that "in the absence of strong evidence to the contrary there is no reason to doubt the majority of patients are well motivated to be co-operative and truthful in their response to questionnaires and inventories."

The Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16 PF)

The 16 PF is derived from the factor analytic approach to the study of personality as described by Cattell in his book "The Scientific Analysis of Personality" (1965). It is an objective test and covers a wide range of personality traits in terms of 16 obliquely related first-order factors corresponding to, and having been validated against, a primary personality trait. A personality profile in terms of the primary personality factors is not just a descriptive account of the pathological behaviour, but an analysis in terms of the underlying personality structure, i.e. source traits. It tells how the person is adjusting in terms of the personality processes which are common to all men.

It is, however, only recently that Cattell's work has received the attention it deserves (Holtzman, 1965). The complex statistical concepts in the factor analysis and the intimidating terminology may account for this.

The reliability and validity of the 16 PF has been demonstrated in a large number of studies including a wide cross-section of the population, and across cultures. The Handbook of the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (Cattell and Eber, 1965) gives a detailed coverage of the reliability and validity of the factors. It also gives a bipolar description of the 16 first-order factors and four second-order factors.

A brief description of the 16 bipolar first-order factors is given on the following page.

Factor	Low Score	High Score
A	Aloof	Warm, outgoing
B	Unintelligent	
C	Emotionally unstable	Mature, stable
E	Submissive	Dominant
F	Reticent	Enthusiastic
G	Expedient	Conscientious
H	Shy	Venturesome
I	Tough-minded	Sensitive
L	Trustful	Suspecting
M	Practical	Self-absorbed
N	Simple	Sophisticated
0	Confident	Apprehensive
Q ₁	Conservative	Radical
90	Group dependent	Self-sufficient
Q3	Uncontrolled	Self-controlled
Q2 Q3 Q4	Relaxed	Tense

Of the second-order factors only Anxiety and Introversion-Extraversion have been shown to be reliably matched over various studies.

The second-order factors of Anxiety and Introversion-Extraversion are obtained by applying the formulae set out in the Handbook for the Sixteen Personality Questionnaire (Cattell and Eber, 1965). These formulae are as follows:-

Anxiety = $3.7 - 0.20 - 0.2H + 0.2L + 0.30 - 0.2Q_3 + 0.4Q_4$. Introversion-Extraversion = $0.2A + 0.2E + 0.4F + 0.5H - 0.2Q_2 - 1.1$.

The Handbook also contains the scoring procedure for converting raw scores into "sten scores".

Consideration of the personality factors found in delinquent populations shows that criminals differ significantly from the average non-criminal "on certain personality factors and certain constellations among personality factors" (Cattell, 1965). Delinquents are conspicuously different on comention (tendency to go with the group), anxiety and maladjustment, self-centredness. They show low super-ego strength,

are over-responsive and apparently evidence "aloof independence".

According to personality factor measurements, delinquents - like neurotics and psychotics - have a lower than average C factor score, indicating that they are unduly emotional and unable to control their impulses and moods. Burt (1925), in his study on the causes of delinquency in London children, identified this tendency and considered it to be constitutional in origin and likely to make the individual more susceptible to adverse environmental influences. More recent data apparently confirms this. Cattell also indicated that the delinquent was high in extraversion.

According to Philip (1968) the second-order factor of anxiety is an indicator of emotional or psychological upset. The character-disordered patients in his sample were "much more anxious than normals, their anxiety being characterised by apprehensiveness, guilt proneness, excitability and tenseness. Men rated as socially disordered are also characterised by apprehensiveness and guilt proneness, but are in addition low in frustration tolerance, tend to be unrealistic in their thinking and are prone to follow their own whims and fancies."

The validity of the 16 PF as a measure of psychological upset was indicated by McAllister (1968). The 16 PF profiles of normals and psychiatric groups classified on Foulds continuum of Personal Illness were analysed (1965a). His results showed that non-integrated psychotics differed from normals on nine factors while personality disorders differed only on four factors. Comparison of the psychiatric groups with normals on the first-order factors gave the following results:-

Personality disorders appeared more dominant (E+), more happy-golucky (F+), more expedient (G-), and more shrewd and calculating (N+). Neurotics were emotionally less stable (C-), more expedient (G-), more apprehensive (O+), more group dependent (Q₂-), less integrated (Q₃-), and more tense (Q₄+).

Integrated psychotics were less intelligent (B-), more unstable (C-), more taciturn (F-), more sensitive (I+), more self-concerned (M+), and more apprehensive (O+).

Finally, non-integrated psychotics were more reserved (A-), less intelligent (B-), more unstable (C-), more reticent (F-), more self-concerned (M+), more simple (N-), more apprehensive (D+), and more tense (Q_A+) .

A recent Scottish study by McQuaid (1970), using Cattell's High School Personality Questionnaire (HSPQ) gave a personality profile of Scottish Approved School boys. This indicated that the boys aged 11 to 17 years in nine Scottish Approved Schools, and mainly drawn from south-west Scotland, were of significantly lower intelligence (B-), more tense (Q₄+), and of low super-ego strength (G-) when compared with non-delinquent boys. McQuaid also reported that "in common with large number of Scots, the Scottish delinquents are "anxious" and slightly "introvert" in Cattell's terms".

Administration

The low literate form of the 16 PF (Form E) was used in the study. This is a new, less demanding form than Form A, B or C, there being only two contrasting statements to choose from. The standardisation is based on 306 cases and each factor has been validated against the corresponding factor on Form C.

The test was self-administered except in two cases where the subjects were illiterate. Here the instructions were carefully explained and the questions were read to the subjects who completed the answering procedure.

The Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire (HDHQ).

The Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire (HDHQ) is designed to sample a wide range of possible manifestations of aggression, hostility or punitiveness. Philip (1969) gives the best account of the development and use of the HDHQ. It originated in Foulds' theory of Personality and Personal Illness where punitiveness was used as a measure of personal illness (Foulds, 1965).

In the development of the test, hostility was assumed to be a unitary factor. It could, however, be directed inwards on the self (intropunitiveness) or outwards against other people or objects (extrapunitiveness). To verify this five sub-scales were constructed of which three, acting-out hostility (A.H.), criticism of others (C.O.), and projected delusional hostility (P.H.) were measures of extrapunitiveness and the other two, self-criticism (S.C.) and delusional guilt (D.G.) were intropunitive measures.

Not only were the correlations between the sub-scales all positive indicating a factor of general hostility - but the patterns of correlation
confirmed that the extrapunitive sub-scales were measuring something
different from the intropunitive ones (Foulds, Caine and Creasy, 1960).

The assumption regarding the unitary nature of hostility and its direction, inward or outward, was confirmed by Hope (1963) in a principal component analysis. The first component was unipolar with all five

subtests represented. The second component contrasted the intropunitive scales with the extrapunitive ones.

In the validation of the scales the method of criterion groups was used. The validation of the first component depends on the assumption that psychotics have more aggression than neurotics, who in turn have more than normals. The second component is more securely validated. It was postulated that paranoids would be more extrapunitive, hysteroids would be "more critical of others in attitude without feeling personally attached or impelled to attack others more than verbally", (Foulds, 1965) and melancholics more intropunitive. The predicted findings were confirmed with the exception of one group of paranoids who were no more extrapunitive than normals. This caused Hope to re-name the "acting out of aggression scale" as the "urge to act out hostility".

The constancy of the component structure of the HDHQ has been tested by Hope (1963) in a study conducted in South-east England, using normals and neurotics, and by Philip (1968a) using a comparable population in North-east Scotland. The normals in Philip's sample, however, scored higher on general hostility and were more intropunitive than English normals. Philip could not explain this, but emphasised the need for more extensive norms.

An estimate of reliability of the scales was based on the calculation of test re-test correlation co-efficients. General Hostility was found to have a reliability of 0.75 and Direction of Hostility a reliability of 0.51. Philip (1968) was of the opinion that, compared with the reliability co-efficients of personality tests in general, the test

re-test figures are adequate.

The scores for General Hostility and Direction of Hostility are calculated according to the formulae given by Hope (1963).

For General Hostility the formula is the sum of all five tests, i.e. :

Hostility = AH + CO + PH + SC + G

Direction of Hostility is the sum of the intropunitive tests (with SC counted twice over) less the sum of the extrapunitive tests, i.e.:

Direction of Hostility = (2SC + DG) - (AH + CO + PH)

Positive scores indicate Intropunitiveness.

It is, however, apparently of considerable value, to treat the intropunitive and extrapunitive scores separately. Since this is based on the ideas of Philip (1969) it is best to quote from him directly. Philip (1969) "felt that while the principal components solution has established the structure of the HDHQ, the earlier works of Foulds, Caine and Creasy (1960) suggest an alternative interpretation which has the merit of remaining closer to the origins of the questionnaire. These authors considered that the extrapunitive subtests measured something different from the intropunitive tests. Experience with the inventory indicated that the intropunitive measures, Self-criticism and Delusional Guilt, varied over time more than the three extrapunitive measures and for these reasons it was considered that it might be profitable to measure extrapunitiveness and intropunitiveness independently, rather than combining them in a Direction of Hostility score. In normals, sum I (the sum of Self-criticism and Delusional Guilt) tends to be somewhat lower

than sum E (the sum of Acting-out Hostility, Criticism of Others and Delusional Hostility) while in the psychiatrically ill the two measures are equal, indicating a rise in the amount of intropunitiveness displayed by psychiatrically ill persons. Hospitalised psychopaths, as Foulds (1965) pointed out, score high on both measures. Thus sum I can be conceptualised as an index of personal disturbance, manifested primarily in the form of self-blame and psychiatric symptomatology; sum E can be seen as indicative of disturbance less related to psychiatric symptomatology and possibly more related to psychopathy, while sum I + sum E, corresponding to the first principal component of the HDHQ would be an overall, undifferentiated indicator of personal disturbance".

Personal Disturbance increases with progress along the continuum of personal illness from normality, through personality disturbance, neuroticism, psychosis to non-integrated psychosis. Psychopaths, however, display as much failure in mutual personal relationships as psychotics (Foulds, 1965).

Studies, in which the HDNQ has been used, have included populations with different types of social or psychological pathology. Psychiatric populations of neurotics (Caine, 1965) and depressives (Foulds 1965, Mayo 1967) have shown a reduction in General Hostility and a decrease in intropunitive Direction of Hostility as their psychological state improves. Foulds (1969) showed that patients identified by the symptom sign inventory as somatic scored lower on General Hostility and were less intropunitive than the "psychic" patients. It is possible that the symatisation of symptoms could be "a substitute form of intropunitiveness".

According to Foulds (1967) patients classified as Character Disordered

on the symptom sign inventory scored almost two standard deviations higher than neurotics on General Hostility, but there was no significant difference on Direction of Hostility. Comparison of male non-psychotic patients with male prisoners in respect of Hostility and Direction of Hostility revealed that prison normals and neurotics scored higher on General Hostility than their hospital counterparts, while there was no difference between the two Character Disordered groups.

Philip (1968) in a study of attempted suicides found that

General Hostility was correlated highly with Cattell's second-order

factor Anxiety, regarded as a general measure of emotional upset,

(Adcock, 1965). Philip concluded that Emotional upset could include

the behaviour shown by persons scoring high on General Hostility.

Ross (1969) also found a clear relation between 16PF Anxiety and

General Hostility. Philip further established that the Acting out

of Hostility scale of the HDHQ differentiated the extreme groups on a

social prognosis Index; "the group with the poor prognosis showing

a very marked urge to act out their aggressive impulses".

It was pointed out in the manual of the Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire (Caine, Foulds and Hope, 1967), however, that the HDHQ is designed as a descriptive rather than as a diagnostic device.

Administration and Scoring

The administration of the HDHQ was in accordance with the instructions in the manual. The respondent is required to answer "true" or "false" to a set of statements, by circling the appropriate word. Where the

subject cannot say either "true" or "false" to an item, he is urged to decide whether the item is "on the whole" true or false. The scoring of the subscales is by a keyed set of stencils.

The Interpersonal Personality Inventory

The Interpersonal Personality Inventory or I.P.I. has its theoretical basis in the theory of Interpersonal maturity devised by Sullivan, Grant and Grant (1957).

These authors postulate a core structure of personality which is the nexus of gradually expanding experience, expectations, hypotheses and perception. Since the normal pattern of emotional social development is characterised by increasing involvement with people, objects and social institutions, and gives rise to new needs, demands and situations, some adequate perceptual discrimination of the relationships involved in these experiences is necessary.

"As these discriminations are made and assimilated a cognitive restructuring of experience and expectance takes place. A new reference scheme is then developed; a new level of integration is achieved."

Social maturity (since this is what the theory appears to be concerned with) is reflected in the way a person perceives both his interpersonal relationships with others, and the interpersonal relationships of others. The more socially mature a person is, the less likelihood there is of perceptual distortion of the actions of other people.

Seven successive stages of development are postulated, each stage being defined by a crucial "problem of adjustment". Should a person

fail to solve this problem he remains at the level of integration already achieved. The theory does not suggest that all who are described as immature along this scale will be delinquent but it does predict that delinquency is more likely among those of low social maturity.

The seven stages of integration are as follows :-

Level 1 This is basically a schizoid form of adjustment wherein a person behaves "as though he were essentially the whole world".

He would be expected to be dependent upon his environment, overwhelmed by his own feelings and would look for immediate gratification of his desires. This level of integration would involve a gross distortion of reality such as is found in psychotics, tramps and hobos.

Level 2 A person integrated at this level sees people "only as aids or barriers to his own satisfactions". Deprivation is unexpected and anxiety provoking. He tends to be unaware of the feelings of others and disregards the consequences of his actions both to himself and to others. Laws and rules are seen as denying acts of specific individuals rather than expressions of more generalised ethical or controlling systems. Such a person is likely to be impulsive and aggressive.

Level 3 At this level a person becomes aware of rules governing the relationship between people and things and operates on the premise that the world is a series of rigidly rule-bound relationships. It involves a desire for an existence governed by social rules defining what is demanded and which, if adhered to, will always bring the desired rewards. This involves two possible response types; the manipulator, who will manipulate the rules to his advantage, e.g. confidence man, and the conformist, who believes that if he conforms to the demands of others

he will have his own demands satisfied. "Because the person organised at this level still tends to see people primarily as means to his own ends, and because the need persists to have desires filled immediately and easily, it is likely that ways to gratification will be adopted which are in conflict with social norms and laws".

Level 4 At this stage of maturity there occurs the perception of the influence and psychological force of others. Some internalisation of the roles of others takes place and becomes standards of behaviour. When a person fails to line up to these standards he shows signs of internalised guilt, anxiety, conflict and inadequacy. Delinquents at this level are likely to be gang oriented or his delinquency may be of a "neutral" nature. A person at this level, however, has a potential for maturity which less mature persons do not have.

Level 5 This level is characterised by the perception of patterns of behaviour. The individual appreciates the variations and ambiguities in others, though the role ambiguities in himself may still cause him anxiety. "A person at this level might be a delinquent but if so his delinquency would be more or less situationally determined".

Level 6 A person integrated at this level has the ability to distinguish his "self" from the social roles which he may momentarily play. He recognises other people as "stable organisms", and is ready to establish long-term relationships and goals. "The adjustive capacity inherent in this integration would almost preclude criminal or delinquent activity".

Level 7 At this level of maturity a person can appreciate the integrative processes. In dealing with a less mature person he can understand and empathize with them. This is the highest level of social maturity.

According to the Manual of the Interpersonal Personality Inventory (Ballard et al, 1966) the IPI provides "an objective device for classification of subjects as "high" or "low" maturity in terms of the I-level theory above. Since it is geared to the classification of delinquent populations, only the maturity levels 2-5 were considered relevant, integration levels 2 and 3 being classified as low maturity, and integration levels 4 and 5 being classified as high.

The reliability of the measure, as estimated by the Pearson Product moment correlation coefficient was as follows:-

For the construction sample: split half reliability 0.73 odd/even 0.78

For the validation sample: split half reliability 0.54 odd/even 0.36

The assessment of an individual's social maturity, in terms of the level of personality integration achieved, has been a feature of research undertaken by the California Department of Corrections. This research is in part a continuation of the earlier studies by Grant and Grant (1959) at Camp Elliott U.S. Naval Retraining Command, in which naval offenders were treated in "living group" situations. It was discovered that "high maturity inmates have a high potential for improved restorative behaviour but, unless subjected to an attitude-change programme under effective supervision, this potential is not expressed in improved restorative behaviour. This study does not support a closed living group programme for low maturity inmates and in fact strongly suggests that at least some aspects of an effective programme for high maturity inmates can be detrimental to low maturity inmates."

A random sample of 200 cases of the prison population in California indicated that approximately two-thirds of the prison population would appear in the lower levels of maturity, and are distinguished from the remaining one-third in their inability to empathize with others and to incorporate the values and mores of their peer group.

Maxwell Jones in his book "Social Psychiatry in Practice" (1968) states that if the original findings by Grant and Grant are confirmed then "this will represent a major breakthrough in criminological research". Treatment could no longer be considered in isolation from the "classification" of the treated because there are clearly interaction effects between the two factors. "In other words the intelligence, education, cultural patterns, personality and social maturity of both treaters and treated must be taken into account if the treatment is to be maximally effective".

The application of the theory of interpersonal maturity to British Borstal boys was considered as part of a wider research project by University College, London. Apparently these researches suggest that lower maturity inmates were likely to be more impulsive, less "neurotic" and to have a less favourable attitude to Borstal training than higher maturity subjects. There was also some suggestion, on the basis of Foulds short dotting test (1961), that lower maturity inmates were likely to be extrapunitive in nature.

Administration and Scoring

The IPI is a 93-item scale (including "fake good" and "fake bad" scores) which can be expected to be an increasing function of interpersonal maturity. It consists of a set of statements which the

subject is asked to circle as "true" or "false" according to how he feels they apply to him. It was administered according to the instructions in the Manual.

Due to reading difficulties the test was given orally to two subjects.

The IPI was scored by hand using a stencil placed over the individual answers. It was recommended that subjects scoring 27 or below on the maturity scale should be classified as "low" maturity and subjects whose score was 30 or above should be classified as "high" with those between 27-30 designated as unclassified.

General Methodology: Subjects

The sample consisted of 200 Detention Centre Inmates aged between sixteen and under twenty-one years of age. The subjects were consecutive admissions, with the exception of two boys, one of whom was transferred to Borstal and the other who refused to participate, not only in this study but in the normal detention centre programme. All the boys who were approached co-operated readily.

Procedure

Prior to the first testing session, and following an introduction by the Warden or Deputy Warden, the boys were given a brief outline of what was expected. It was made clear that their co-operation would be appreciated, but that participation was purely voluntary. Any information gathered was to be treated as confidential.

Information Gathered

The data gathered in the study can be divided into two main categories;

socio-criminological information and test data. The socio-criminological data was compiled from three sources, namely, a social and personal data sheet which was completed by the boys, the subject's social enquiry report compiled by the Probation Officer for the Court, and a brief interview. The test data was compiled from three tests; Cattell's 16PF, the HDHQ, and the IPI.

Administration

The measures were administered to groups of 25 boys. The order of presentation was as follows:-

Session 1 - The personal data sheet and Cattell's 16 PF Questionnaire.

Session II - The Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire and the Interpersonal Personality Inventory.

The boys were kept under constant supervision during testing and the forms were scrutinised after their completion to check that they had been filled in correctly. In two cases the tests were administered orally because of the subjects' illiteracy.

The interview consisted of a ten to fifteen minute session in which the subjects were asked a variety of social and personally oriented questions. These followed a set pattern and, in some cases, replicated the questions in the personal data sheet.

The Social Enquiry Reports provided the necessary information on previous record, including past methods of disposal. It also provided a supplementary and objective source of personal and social information on the subjects.

CONJECTURES

The dearth of studies offering an adequate social and psychological profile of young offenders is such that any study undertaken, particularly in the Scottish context, is by nature exploratory. This investigation, therefore, must be regarded as a preliminary study in which rather broad areas will be explored, and the findings described. The taxonomic nature of the study makes it difficult to formulate hypotheses, and indeed, Hope (1969) draws attention to the inadequacies inherent in hypothesis forming in this type of study. Formal hypotheses, therefore, will not be formulated. It is proposed, however, to indicate the areas of interest on which the data is likely to throw some light.

In the discussion on psychological theories it was noted that both Eysenck and Cattell apparently suggest that individuals of a particular personality profile were more delinquency prone than others, i.e. individuals who suffer from neurotic tendencies or emotional instability. Eysenck maintained that individuals high on the Introversion-Extraversion continuum experienced more difficulty in the socialisation process and extraversion, particularly when combined with emotional instability, was postulated as "an important personal quality which is said to correlate both with conditionability and delinquency potential. Accordingly, it was considered worthwhile to focus on the question of the existence/non-existence of emotional upset in a delinquent population.

The impression given by many writers on juvenile delinquency and reinforced by Stott (1950) is that young delinquents demonstrate a degree of personal and social disorganisation. Cattell, whilst he maintains that there are "several known distinct psychological contributors", also acknowledges that "crime is a complex event with

sociological and economic factors determining a person's involvement in it" (Catell, 1965). Similarly, it is a feature of Eysenck's theory that the social and personal characteristics of the individual are relevant factors in "smooth social conditioning". It is therefore considered important that the degree of personal and social disorganisation of the population under investigation be established.

A question basic to all forms of institutional sentence is that of the appropriateness, for the individual, of the particular regime to which he is committed. Banks (1966) and Grünhut (1959) have commented on the inappropriateness of detention centre for boys suffering from some psychological handicap or whose delinquency was due to deep-rooted personal factors. Is the level of disorganisation or distress of detention centre inmates such that the statutory role of the detention centre is inappropriate, or should the selection procedure be revised?

While formal hypotheses will not be formulated the areas of interest are expressed in the following statements of expectation or conjecture in an endeavour to give a degree of form to the discussion of the findings of the study. The cautionary note on hypotheses-forming already sounded should be borne in mind.

(a) Emotional unset

- (i) The population will reflect a high level of emotional upset. This will be reflected in the 16 PF second-order factor Anxiety (Philip, 1968) and in the General Hostility level of the HDHQ.
- (ii) The population will show a high level of personal disturbance measured by the Sum I + Sum E score of the HDHQ (Philip, 1969).

- (iii) Personal disturbance in the population is likely to be related to psychopathy, as indicated by the high Sum E score of the HDHQ.
- (iv) The 16 PF profile of the population will identify them on Foulds' continuum of personal illness. (McAllister, 1968).
- (v) The population will be extrapunitive in nature as reflected in the HDHQ.
- (vi) The population will be predominantly extravert on the Introversion-Extraversion continuum of the 16 PF.
- (vii) The population should approximate to Cattell's personality profile of young offenders.
- (viii) The population will be distinguished by the Interpersonal Personality Inventory as a low maturity group.

(b) Social and Personal disorganisation

(i) The population will demonstrate social and personal disorganisation reflected to a degree in the number of previous convictions and in the number of jobs held since leaving school.

(c) Offence behaviour

(i) Even more speculative is the possibility that psychological characteristics, and some variables associated with social background, will be differentially associated with offence behaviour.

RESULTS

The presentation of the results is as follows. Section One comprises a descriptive account of the social characteristics of the population and Section Two a description of the psychological characteristics. In Section Three the population has been subjected to a hierarchical analysis by offence-related social characteristics and a secondary analysis by psychological variables. Finally, Section Four contains the results of an hierarchical analysis based, this time, on psychological variables with a secondary analysis by all the social characteristics.

SECTION ONE

Social Characteristics:

Figure 1 shows that boys between the ages of 16 years 6 months and 17 years 6 months represent 43.5% of the population. The total distribution of age shows a positively skewed distribution, the peak age being 16 years 6 months. Nearly 75% of the population falls within the lower half of the 16-21 year old age group eligible for committal to detention centre.

Marital Status: Only 3% of the population are married.

Family Structure:

Ninety-four per cent of the boys studied were living at home at the time of their offence. Of the 200 boys under review, 77% had both parents at home, 15% had mothers only, 6.5% had fathers only, and in 1.5% cases neither mother nor father were present.

Eighty-three boys or 41.5% of the population were the oldest child in the family (Figures II and III).

38.5% of the population had no younger brothers, and 43% had no younger sisters (Figures IV and V).

Parents' Employment:

Figure VI shows that under 50% of the inmates' fathers worked in skilled or semi-skilled jobs. Slightly less than one third of the boys' fathers were not working at the time of the study, and of these 8.5% were recognised as unemployed for the purposes of social security.

As far as the boys' mothers were concerned, 49% went out to work; 21.5% in a full-time capacity, the remainder part-time.

Area where subject lives:

Examination of Figure VII shows that town dwellers represent 30.5% of the population. Boys from new housing areas accounted for 19.5% of the inmates studied, whilst country dwellers accounted for 9%. Mobility:

The population did not show a great deal of mobility in terms of the area in which they lived. Over sixty-six per cent (66.5%) had lived in the same area for more than ten years, and only 10.5% had lived in their present area for two or less years.

Mobility, in terms of the number of times the inmates' families had moved house, showed that 44.5% had moved house once or not at all. Fifteen per cent had moved house four or more times, with one per cent of the population having moved house nine times.

Educations

Consideration of the last school attended by the inmates showed that 47.5% attended Junior Secondary, 39% attended Senior Secondary and 11% were last in Approved School. Fee-paying school (1%) and Special School (1.5%) accounted for the remainder.

The number of schools attended indicates considerable mobility and unsettled education for 22.5% of the population, who had attended four or more schools in their ten years' schooling. Forty-four per cent had attended two schools and 26.5% had attended three schools over the same period.

The majority of the boys (91.5%) left school when fifteen years of age. Of the remainder 6.5% were sixteen, 1% were fourteen and 0.5% were seventeen and eighteen when they left school.

Employment:

Consideration of the employment record of the boys in the study revealed that only 22% were recognised as having a trade. The remaining 78% comprised 16% semi-skilled workers, 61.5% unskilled, and one boy who had been convicted soon after release from Approved School and had not yet worked. Figure VIII shows that the majority of boys have a rapid turnover in jobs. Less than 20% of the boys have remained in their original job or have changed their job once only. One boy had the astonishing number of 23 jobs since leaving school.

It is to be expected from the above figures that the longest time spent in a job would be relatively short. This is in fact confirmed by Figure IX. Of the population studied, 27% were

unemployed prior to being sentenced to detention, 10% having been unemployed for three months or more.

Social Behaviour:

The drinking habits of the population are difficult to assess accurately. Accordingly, the drinking behaviour of the population studied shows that 24% of the population claim to be non-drinkers and 24% to be infrequent drinkers. The remaining 52% go out drinking with greater frequency. Of those who drink regularly the vast majority (98%) are likely to make it a social occasion. The amount of alcohol consumed is shown in Figure X. Just under 50% of the inmates studied (47.5%) had been drinking at the time of their offence or just prior to it.

Spare-time activities of the boys were usually conducted in groups, though as far as gang membership was concerned, only 40.5% of the population were recognised gang members.

Home Behaviour:

Ninety-three per cent of the inmates claim that they get on well with their family. Concerning discipline at home the response is somewhat varied, with 17.5% representing discipline as strict, 31% as fair and the remaining 51.5% judging discipline as loose.

The behaviour pattern of the inmates' families is varied.

In 52% of the cases the inmate in the study is not the only offender in the family.

Criminal Behaviour:

Figure XI shows that the number of previous convictions ranged from 0 (2.5%) to 15 (0.5%). Just under 60% of the population had four or more previous convictions.

The predominant type of previous conviction is given in the following Table.

TABLE 22
Predominant type of previous conviction

Predominant type of offence		Property	Social Nuisance	Sex	Car theft and Road Traffic Act	Mis cell aneous*	Nil
%	1	38.5	17	0	4	37	2.5

^{*} Miscellaneous represents the offender who has committed several offences of a different nature.

Those inmates who had previous experience of penal institutions amounted to 26.5% of the population. Table 23 gives a more detailed breakdown of this group.

TABLE 23
Previous institutional treatment

Previous Institutional treatment	Not applicable	Remand Home	Approved School	Borstal	Young Offenders Institution	Multiple
%	73.5	10	8.5	0.5		6.5

Examination of the offence for which the inmate was committed to the detention centre was on two levels; according to the legal classification and according to a more sociological classification.

Figure XII gives the distribution according to the legal classification of the offence.

The three predominant types of offence are Breaking and Entering (33.5%), Theft of a motor vehicle (19.5%) and Assault (18%). Theft, Breach of the Peace and Disorderly Behaviour, and Contravention of the Prevention of Crimes Act, 1953, S.1 are represented in approximately the same proportions. The sociological classification of the offence is given in Figure XIII. Property offences are once again the most numerous, followed this time by violent offences and car theft and Road Traffic offences.

Summary

The average detention centre inmate in the study was aged 17 years 7 months, was single and likely to be living at home with both parents. He had an older brother and sister as well as a younger brother and sister. There was an approximately equal likelihood that his father was skilled, semi-skilled or unskilled and that his mother went out to work.

The majority of the boys were town or city dwellers, though a fair proportion of inmates came from new housing areas. Inmates had apparently lived in the same area for a considerable length of time and had, on average, moved house on two occasions.

Most of the boys were ex-Junior or Senior Secondary pupils, though 11% had last been in Approved School. The average number of schools attended was about three, and most boys left school when fifteen years of age.

Most of the population had no trade and were unskilled workers. Though their employment record was erratic, the average number of jobs since school being 5.29, most of the inmates were in work at

the time of their offence. On average the longest time spent in a job was just over one year.

Consideration of the drinking habits of the boys showed that just over half often went out for a drink and about a quarter of the population did not drink. The amount of alcohol consumed over the weekend period was, on average, nearly 200 Gms./ml.

Just under half of the inmates in the study were recognised as gang members and in just over half of the cases there was another offender in the family.

The previous criminal history of the boys showed that the average number of previous convictions was 4.95 and that property offences figured prominently in these. Just over 25% of the boys had previous penal institutional experience. Property and violent offences, together with theft of a motor vehicle, were numerically the most important offence categories. The offence was more likely to have been committed in the company of another person.

SECTION TWO

Psychological Characteristics

The psychological test data is presented in the following order;
Cattell's Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire results, the
Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire results and finally
the Interpersonal Personality Inventory results.

The 16 P.F.

TABLE 24

16 P.F. Mean Scores

(1) First Order Factors

	Factor	Mean	S.D.
	A (outgoing) B (intelligent) C (stable) E (dominant) F (enthusiastic) G (conscientious) H (venturesome) I (sensitive) L (suspecting) M (self-sborbed) N (sophisticated)	5.15 6.61 4.55 6.89 7.21 3.71 4.48 4.66 6.56 5.77	2.22 1.54 1.76 5.76 5.56 2.54 5.33 3.34 2.53 5.67 6.77
	Q (apprehensive) Q (radical) Q (self-sufficient) Q (self-controlled) Q (tense)	7.38 7.23 6.20 4.46 6.20	6.28 4.85 6.44 3.73 3.47
(2)	Second Order Factors		
	1 Anxiety II Extraversion	5.00 6.97	2.38 2.14

As can be seen from the above Table and from the Sixteen Personality Factor Test Profile (Figure XIV) the population mean scores for each factor show the population as a group to be aggressive (E+), happy-go-lucky (F+) and expedient (having a weaker super-ego strength, (G-). Emotionally they are less stable than average (C-) and present a picture of being tense (Q_4+) , very apprehensive (O++) and suspicious (L+).

They tend to be realistic (I-) and self-sufficient, preferring to make their own decisions (Q_2 +). They tend slightly towards being self-absorbed (N+) but apparently have little self-control (Q_3 -).

A high mean Q Factor score indicates that, as a group, they are radical and experimenting.

They are unsophisticated (N-) and on Factor A they appear to be about average; being neither particularly reserved nor particularly outgoing and warm-hearted (A+).

On the shy-venturesome scale of Factor H they appear to be threat sensitive and restrained (H-).

The population as a whole score high on the intelligence factor (B+).

The Hostility and Direction of Hostility Questionnaire.

TABLE 25

H.D.H.Q. Mean Scores

	Mean	S.D.
Hostility	25.92	7.10
Direction of Hostility	-3.42	7.56
Sum E	17.40	7.22
Sum I	9.57	7.64

Table 25 shows that the population as a group evidence high hostility and are extremely extrapunitive in nature. (Direction of Hostility = -3.42).

The extrapunitive measure, Sum E, is high compared with the low intropunitive measure, Sum I.

The Interpersonal Personality Inventory.

TABLE 26

I.P.I. Mean Scores

	Mean	S.D.
Fake Bad	5.63	6.55
Fake Good	4.78	3.54
Maturity score	28.44	6.49

The maturity level score for the inmates as a group fell within the inconclusive range of 28 - 29.

The distribution of scores in Figure XV, however, gives some indication of the breakdown of maturity level scores. Subjects scoring 27 or below are classified as 'low' maturity; subjects whose scores are 30 or above are classified as 'high' maturity.

SECTION THREE

The rapid development of numerical taxonomy, attributable presumably to the growth in computer technology, provides a technique of "evaluation by numerical methods of the affinity or similarity between taxonomic units and the employment of these affinities in erecting a hierarchic order of taxa." (Sokal and Sneath, 1963).

The notion of taxonomic grouping is well established historically.

As far back as the second century A.D., Galen, a Greek physician,

postulated the existence of four principal types - the melancholic,

the choleric, the sanguine, and the phlegmatic, linking them with the

'humours' or secretions of the body. Whether typological classification

of personality originated with Galen or not, it is now acknowledged as

an "absolutely fundamental part of the scientific study of human

personality", (Eysenck and Rachman, 1967). Indeed, subsequent typologies,

developed on the basis of sophisticated analytic techniques, still describe

personality in terms not entirely different from those of Galen.

Explanation and quotation on the methodological aspects of the analysis is taken from the Clusten 1A Manual (Wishart, 1969). This

study incorporated a "suite of Fortran IV programs called Clustan which is designed for the collective study of several methods of cluster analysis and other multivariate procedures". Program Correl was used to compute the similarity matrix required for the program Hierar. This similarity matrix is a "triangular array of N* (N-1)/2 coefficients such that each element measures the similarity between individuals", in this instance on the variety of psychological and social variables.

computation using the program Hierar "starts with N clusters each containing a single individual, which are numbered according to the input order of the individuals. In each of the (N-1) fusion steps, those two clusters which are "similar" are combined and the resulting union cluster is labelled with the lesser of the two codes of its constituent clusters . . . Hierar completes all the (N-1) fusions and summarises the sequence in a "dendrogram table". Selection of the most meaningful fusion points, depending on whether a loose association or a strict association is required, is left to the user.

The result is the classification of the subjects into a hierarchical system of syndromes or clusters so that every individual in any category is more like every other individual in that category than it is like any individual of any other category.

While classification by cluster analysis is a useful and important tool of the numerical taxonomist, the technique still presents some difficulties. There is a need for a test of significance of clusters which would add to the meaningfulness of the data. In the meantime

the only safeguard is the objective scrutiny of the data and an unhiased assessment of its worth.

Hierarchical analysis of the population using selected offence related variables and a secondary analysis on psychological variables in this section is followed in section four by the hierarchical analysis of the population according to psychological characteristics. The secondary analysis, in this instance, is on the secio-criminological variables of the population.

Such taxonomic grouping of the population by hierarchical analysis, using first a high fusion point, which indicates a comparatively loose association, will be described, followed by a description of the analysis when a more discriminating low fusion point is used. A more detailed examination of the resulting clusters, the manner in which they differ from the overall population and the manner in which they differ from each other, will be given to the latter taxonomy.

Using a high fusion point to give a crude level of association, the hierarchical analysis of the population by offence related variables resulted in a fall-out of three clusters. These were readily identifiable in socio-legal terms as violent offenders, property offenders and others. This residual category contained mainly car thieves and social nuisance offenders. A detailed breakdown of the three clusters is given below.

In the following analysis the Binary Frequency ratio refers to the percentage occurrence of a variable in a cluster / the percentage occurrence of this particular variable overall. This figure is given to provide a rough estimate of the extent to which any particular characteristic is peculiar to any particular cluster. The percentage

occurrence of a Binary Variable is the number of times a variable occurs in a cluster, expressed as a percentage.

THREE CLUSTERS

Cluster 1: Number of cases = 65.

Identifying Factor

Present Offence - Social Nuisance Sex Offence Car Theft and Road Traffic Acts

Distinguishable from the other clusters on the following variables :-

	Binary Frequency Ratio	% Occurrence of Binary Variable
Present Offence		
Social Nuisance	3.08	24.7
Sex Offence	3.08	4.7
(Legal Classification)		
Breach of Probation	3.08	1.6
Malicious Offences	3.08	1.6
R.T.A.	3.08	7.7
(Social Classification)		
Car Theft and R.T.A.	3.08	70.8
(Legal Classification) Breach of Peace/Disorderly		
Behaviour	3.08	21.6
Theft of motor vehicle	3.00	58.5
Predominant type of previous conv	iction	
Car Theft and R.T.A.	2,70	10.8
(Legal Classification)		
Present Offence Sex Offence	2.31	4.7
Drinks alone	2.06	3.1
Previous Institutional Treatment		
Approved School	1.63	13.9

This cluster (N = 65) is mainly comprised of car thieves (58.5%) and social nuisance offenders, i.e. those convicted of Breach of the Peace or Disorderly Behaviour (21.6%). The remainder includes boys convicted of Road Traffic Act offences, malicious offences, Breach

of Probaction and sex offences. The previous criminal records of this cluster revealed that 10.8% of the cases had a history of car theft or offences against the Road Traffic Act. Nearly 14% of the cluster had been in Approved School. The cluster contained a higher proportion of solitary drinkers.

Cluster 2: Number of cases = 55

Identifying Factor

Present Offence - Violence

Distinguishable from the other clusters on the following variables :-

	Binary Frequency Ratio	% Occurrence of Binary Variables
Predominant type of previous com	viction	
Violent	3.64	3.7
Previous Institutional Treatment		
Berstal	3.64	1.9
Present Offence		
(Legal Classification) Assault	3.64	65.5
(Social Classification) Violence	3.64	100
(Legal Classification) Contravention of Prevention of Crimes Act, 1953, S.1.	3.64	29.1
Assault and Robbery	3.64	9.1
Previous Convictions		
Social Nuisance	1.72	29.1

All the members of cluster 2 (N = 55) were violent offenders. Their offences were in the violent categories of Assault (65.5%), Contravention of the Prevention of Crimes Act, 1953, S.1. (29.1%) and Assault and Robberty (9.1%). They had a previous criminal record of violence (3.7%) or social nuisance offences (29.1%).

Cluster 3: Number of cases = 80

Identifying Factor

Present Offence - Property

Distinguishable from the other clusters on the following variables :-

	Binary Frequency Ratio	% Occurrence of Binary Variables
Present Offence		
(Social Classification) Property	2.50	100
Previous Institutional Treatment		
Young Offenders' Institution	2.50	2.5
Present Offence		
(Legal Classification)		
Breaking and Entering	2.39	80.0
Theft	2.35	18.8
Previous Convictions		
Nil	2.00	5.0
Property	1.34	51.3

The largest cluster, cluster 3 (N=80), contained property offenders. This category included those sentenced for breaking and entering (80%) and those sentenced for theft (18.8%). Their previous criminal record showed that 51.3% had a history of property offences. The cluster contained a higher proportion of first offenders and ex-Young Offender Institution inmates than the other clusters.

In an attempt to discover whether these offence based categories corresponded to an equivalent and distinct psychological grouping the three clusters were analysed by psychological variables. There were, however, no significant differences between the three clusters.

TEN CLUSTERS

When a higher criteria of similarity (i.e. a lower fusion point) was accepted, the resultant analysis gave ten apparently meaningful clusters. Though these were still identifiable by offence types the clusters were, in fact, considerably more discriminatory.

Violent offenders, property offenders, car thieves and indeed the limited number of sex offenders were further separated into more discrete groups. The last three clusters in this analysis had very small numbers and while it is necessary to view clusters with less than ten persons with extreme caution, they are included to give the complete picture. The manner in which they fall out in the analysis suggests that they have some meaning as distinct categories in this population.

Cluster 1: Number of cases = 39

Identifying Factor

Present Offence - Car Theft and Road Traffic Offences

Distinguishable from the other clusters on the following variables:-

Present Offence	Binary Frequency Ratio	% Occurrence of Binary Variable
(Legal Classification) R.T.A.	5.13	12.9
Predominant type of previous c	onviction	
Car theft and R.T.A.	4.49	18.0
Present Offence		
(Social Chassification) Car Theft and R.T.A.	4.35	100
(Legal Classification) Theft of motor vehicle	4.08	79•5
Drinks Alone	3.42	5.2

This cluster (N = 39) consisted of car thieves and Road Traffic Act offenders. Their previous criminal history revealed a tendency for the same type of offence. This cluster contained a higher proportion of solitary drinkers.

Cluster 2: Number of cases = 17

Identifying Factor

Present Offence - Violence

Distinguishable from the other clusters on the following variables :-

	Binary Frequency Ratio	% Occurrence of Binary Variable
Present Offence		
(Legal Classification)		
Assault and Robbery	7.06	17.7
Non-drinker	3-93	94.2
Present Offence		
(Social Classification)		
Violence	3.64	100
(Legal Classification)		
Assault	3.60	64.5
Contravention of Prevention		
of Crimes Act, 1953, S.1.	2.95	17.7
Previous Institutional Treatment		
Remand Home	2.95	29.5
Not drinking at time of offence	1.91	100
Predominant type of previous conv	iction	
Property	1.84	70.6

All the members of cluster 2 (N = 17) were violent offenders, 11 of whom were committed to detention centre for Assault, 3 for Contravention of the Prevention of Crimes Act, 1953, S.1., and 3 for Assault and Robbery. The predominant type of previous offence was Property. Examination of the previous institutional treatment of this group revealed that 5 had been in Remand Home. They were, in the main, non-drinkers and none of

them had committed their offence whilst under the influence of alcohol.

Cluster 3: Number of cases = 38

Identifying Factor

Present Offence - Violence

Distinguishable from the other clusters on the following variables :-

	Binary Frequency Ratio	% Occurrence of Binary Variable
Predominant type of previous convi	ction	
Violent	5.27	5.3
Previous Institutional Treatment		
Borstal	5.27	2.7
Present Offence		
(Legal Classification) Contravention of Prevention		
of Crimes Act, 1952, S.1.	3.95	23.7
Assault	3.66	65.8
(Social Classification) Violence		***
Aroteuce	3.64	100
Predominant type of previous convi	ction	
Social nuisance	2.17	36.9
Present Offence		
(Legal Classification)		
Assault and Robbery	2.11	5.3
No other offenders in family	1.54	73.7
Drinks with friends	1.35	100

This was another violent group (N = 38). A breakdown of their present offence behaviour shows 65.8% sentenced for Assault, 23.7% for Contravening the Prevention of Crimes Act, 1953, S.1. and 5.3% for Assault and Robbery. Their previous criminal history was less serious than that of cluster 2, 36.9% being previous social nuisance

offenders and 5.3% being previous violent offenders. This group contained a higher ratio of ex-Borstal boys. All of the group went out drinking with friends and the majority were the only offenders in their family.

Cluster 4: Number of cases = 14

Identifying Factor

Present Offence - Social Nuisance

Distinguishable from the other clusters on the following variables :-

Present Offence	Binary Frequency Ratio	% Occurrence of Birary Variable
(Legal Classification) Breach of Peace and Disorderly Behaviour	14.29	100
(Social Classification) Social Nuisance	12.50	100
Previous Institutional Treatme	nt	
Multiple	3.30	21.5
Predominant type of previous c	onviction	
Social Nuisance	2.11	35.8
Miscellaneous	1.36	50.0
Drinks with friends	1.25	92.9

Cluster 4 (N = 14) was made up of rather persistent social nuisance offenders. All had been committed to Detention Centre for Breah of the Peace or Disorderly Behaviour. The previous criminal history of the group was one of social nuisance (5) or of miscellaneous offence behaviour (7). Over one-fifth of the group had been institutionalised at least twice before. The majority went drinking with friends.

Cluster 5: Number of cases = 60

Identifying Factor

Present Offence - Property

Distinguishable from the other clusters on the following variables :-

	Binary Frequency Ratio	% Occurrence of Binary Variable
Previous Institutional Treatment		
Young Offenders Institution	3.34	3.4
Present Offence		
(Legal Classification) Theft	3.13	25.0
Present Offence		
(Social Classification) Property	2.50	100
(Legal Classification) Breaking and Entering	2.19	73.4
Drinks with friends	1.35	100
Predominant type of previous conv	iction	
Property	1.17	45.0
Not a gang member	1.13	66.7

Cluster 5 (N = 60) was the largest group. It was comprised of property offenders, 73.4% being sentenced for breaking and entering and 25% for theft. Forty-five per cent were readily identifiable from their previous convictions as property offenders. The majority did not belong to a gang and all of them went drinking with friends.

Cluster 6: Number of cases = 20

Identifying Factor

Present Offence - Property

Distinguishable from the other clusters on the following variables :-

	Binary Frequency Ratio	% Occurrence of Binary Variable
Predominant type of previous	conviction	
Wil	6.00	15.0
Non-drinker	3.96	95.0
Drinks alone	3.34	5.0
Present Offence		
(Legal Classification) Breaking and Entering	2.99	100
Previous Institutional Treatm	ent	
Approved School	2.95	25.0
Present Offence		
(Social Classification) Property	2.50	100
Predominant type of previous	conviction	
Property	1.82	70.0
Not drinking at time of offen	ce 1.81	95.0
Previous Institutional Treatm	en t	
Remand Home	1.50	15.0
Not a gang member	1.01	60.0

This cluster (N = 20), like cluster 5, consisted of property offenders. All were committed for breaking and entering, and most of them (14) had a previous record of property offences. Cluster 6 contained more first offenders than any other group. It consisted of relatively sophisticated criminal boys, five having been in Approved School and three in Remand Home. Members of this cluster were either non-drinkers (19) or solitary drinkers (1). The majority had not been drinking at the time of their offence and did not belong to a gang.

Cluster 7: Number of cases = 8

Identifying Factor Present Offence - Social Nuisance 1 Car Theft 7

Distinguishable from the other clusters on the following variables :-

	Binary Frequency Ratio	% Occurrence of Binary Variable
Present Offence		
(Legal Classification) Malicious Offence	25.0	12.5
Previous Institutional Treatment		
Approved School	5.89	50.0
Present Offence		
(Legal Classification) Theft of motor vehicles	4.49	87.5
Previous Institutional Treatment		
Remand Home	3.75	37.5
Predominant type of previous conv	iction	
Property	2.28	87.5
Present Offence		
(Social Classification)		
Social Nuisance	1.57	12.5
Drinks with friends	1.35	100

Cluster 7 (N = 8) comprised mostly of car thieves. This was a criminally sophisticated group whose previous criminal record was one of property offences. Fifty per cent of the group had been in Approved School and three had been in Remand Home. All of them went out drinking with friends.

Cluster 8: Number of cases = 1

Identifying Factor

Present Offence - Sex

Distinguishable from the other cluster on the following variables :-

	Binary Frequency Ratio	% Occurrence of Binary Variable
Present Offence		
(Social Classification) Sex	66.67	100
(Legal Classification) Sex	50.00	100
Previous Institutional Treatment		
Approved School	11.77	100
Predominant type of previous convi	ction	
Miscellaneous	2.71	100
No other offenders in family	2.09	100
Drinks with friends	1.35	100

The one boy in cluster 8 was sentenced for a sex offence. He had committed several previous offences and had been sentenced to Approved School. He was the only offender in his family and was a social drinker.

Cluster 9: Number of cases 2

Identifying Factor

Present Offence - Sex

Distinguishable from the other clusters on the following variables :-

	Binary Frequency Ratio	% Occurrence of Binary Variable
Present Offence		
(Social Classification) Sex	66.67	100
(Legal Classification) Sex	50.00	100
Predominant type of previ	ous conviction	
Property	2.60	100
Non-drinker	2.09	50.0
Not drinking at time of t	he offence 1.91	100
Not a gang member	1.69	100
Predominant Institutional	Treatment	
Not applicable	1.37	100

Both boys in this cluster (N = 2) were sentenced to detention centre for sex offences. Both had previous convictions for property offences and for both boys this was the first experience of a penal institution. Neither belonged to a gang and neither had been drinking at the time of their offence.

Cluster 10: Number of cases 1

Identifying Factor

Present Offence - Social Nuisance

Distinguishable from the other clusters on the following variables :-

	Binary Frequency Ratio	% Occurrence of Binary Variable
Present Offence		
(Legal Classification) Breach of Probation	200.0	100.0
Present Offence		
(Social Classification) Social Nuisance	12.5	100

Cluster 10 contd.	Binary Frequency Ratio	% Occurrence of Binary Variable
Predominant type of previous conv	iction	
Miscellaneous	2.71	100
No other offender in family	2.09	100
Not drinking at time of offence	1.91	100
Not a gang member	1.69	100
Previous Institutional Treatment		
Not applicable	1.37	100
Drinks with friends	1.35	100

This cluster contained one boy sentenced to detention for breach of his Probation Order. He had committed a variety of previous offences but had not been in a penal institution before. He was the only offender in his family and did not belong to any gang.

Comparison of the mean scores of the ten clusters and those of the overall population on the psychological variables was a useful indicator of how each cluster differed from the overall population. This is given in Table 27 on the following page.

TABLE 27

Comparison of the mean psychological profile of the 10 questers with the mean profile of the

VARIABLE		-		2					S		9	H	2	H	8	H	6		10	-	otal Pe	Total Population
	Mean	80	Mean	90	Mean	os	Mean	os	Mean	os	Mean	SD M	Mean	08	Mean SD	_	Mean	65	uean	90	Mean	OS
16 PF A	5,26	2,09	5,12	2.09	5,16	2,26	5.07	2.09	5,42	2,32	4.60	2,21 5	5.25	1.3	9	_	4.50	2,12	8		5,15	2,22
60	6.72	1.45	5.94	1.78	6.50	1.43	7.00	1.30	6.71	1.21	7.10	1,37 6	6.63	98.	s		6.50	2,12	80	_	6.61	1.54
S	4.64	1.78	5.12	1.87	3.79	1.91	4.14	1.46	2.02	1.33	4.30	1.53 4	4.63	15.	•		4.00	1.41	-		4.55	1.76
w	6.28	2.10	6,18	1,85	7,06	2.08	7.21	2.12	6,33	2,39	6.65	2,30 7	7.50	2,62	6		4.50	3,54	9	_	6.89	5,76
	6.74	2.11	6.7	1.74	68.9	2.00	7.29	1.71	7.18	1.86	6.25	2.40 7	7,38	2.00	60		6,50	3,54	8	-	7.21	5,56
9	3.3	1.66	3,82	1.85	3,29	1.84	3,36	1.45	3,92	1.73	2.95	1.19 3	3,38	2.07	0		4.00	2,83	s		3.7	2,54
=	4.56	2,60	3,65	2.15	4.34	2.69	4.64	2.79	3.73	2.58	4.45	3.03	4.88	2.17	-		3,50	0.7	9		4.48	5,33
-	4.28	1.59	4.47	1.84	4.63	1.3	4.93	1.82	4.50	1.78	3,95	1.45 4	4.00	.31	10		2.00	2.88	9		99.4	3,34
-	6.15	2.27	5,65	1.90	7.32	2.29	7.86	1.89	6,63	1.85	6.00	2.11 6	6.88	.89	2	-	3,50	2,12	60		6,56	2,53
×	5.8	1.91	5.7	1.21	5.06	2.08	4.86	1.61	5,45	2.08	5.80	2,14 5	5,63	1.30	8		4.50	2.12	9		5.77	5,87
=	3.90	1.70	4,35	1.90	4.16	1.3	4.29	1.59	4.58	1.82	4.05	1.88	4.38	-92	4		4.00	000	s		4.84	6.77
0	7,95	5.67	2.06	2,06	6.95	2.00	98.9	2.07	6,68	2,15	6.10	2,51 5	5.78	2.43	80		8.50	D. 74	-		7,38	6.28
6	6.74	2.05	6.12	2,32	7,13	1.74	6.43	1.87	7.17	1.99	6.45	1.61 6	6.50	69.	s		8.50	6.7	9		7.23	4.85
92	5.72	2.00	6.12	1.87	5,50	2.09	5.79	2.55	5,48	2.00	6.15	2.25 5	5,50	2.20	2		7.00	1.41	60	_	6.20	6,44
63	4.54	2.13	4.47	2.12	4.13	2.15	3,36	2.06	4.12	1.90	4.35	1,87	3.63	0.74	10		2.00	2,83	4		4.46	3.73
90	5.87	2,34	5,65	2.26	6,53	2,51	5,93	2.79	6.40	2.47	5.30	2.41 6	6.50	2,39	s		2.00	1.41	6	_	5.20	3.47
Anxiety	5.0	2,35	4.44	1.3	5.17	2,37	5.44	2,50	4.90	2,34	4.65	2,89 5	5.74	2,30	4.6		3.65	17.68	10.1		2.00	2,38
1-6	6,92	2,69	6,56	1.94	7.41	2.19	7.27	2.15	7.01	1.69	6.24	2.52 6	6.78	89	7.9		7,25	1.91	8.0	_	66.99	2,14
IDNG A.H.	6,31	2.49	7,29	2,34	7,89	2,35	7.57	2,50	6.65	2.27	7.65	2.85 8	8.75	2.19	2		6.00	1.41	9		7.04	2,54
r.D.	6.77	2.25	7.41	2,06	7,16	2.25	8.00	2.08	7.30	5.09	6.65	2,62 8	8.00	1.51	9		2.00	0.00	9		7.10	2,29
P.H.	2.72	1.57	3,35	2,00	3,16	2.00	3.2	1.42	2.73	1.84	3,65	2.72	4.50	2.20	8		4.00	4,24	•		3.05	1,99
s.c.	5.26	2.11	5.47	2.67	4.7	2.40	5.50	2.98	5.43	2,00	4.65	2,48 5	5,38	1.41	8		7,50	2,12	8		81.9	2,35
0.6.	3,62	1.76	3,76	1.52	3.8	6.	4.07	1.90	3,53		4.10	2.02	20	5	4		2.00	0.00	s		3,58	1.80
Hostility	24.67	6.19	27.29	6.21	26.0	6.7	28.36	6.76	25.65		26.70	8.09 31	11.13	5.25	31		27,50	0.71	8	8	25.92	7.10
Mostility	-1.67	6.29	-3.24	6.54	5.92	7.39	F .7	8.00	-2.32	7.33	4.55	8.27 6	6.25	53	0.		2.00	7.07	9.0	-7	3.42	7,56
F.B.	4.36	2.21	6.41	2.90	4.3	2.16	4.86	1.66	5.03	2,08	5.50	2,14 6	6.50	82.3	*		2.00	2.83	-		5.63	6,55
F.6.	4.7	1.94	4.94	2,28	8.00	2.67	4.00	1.92	4.67	2.76	5.05	2.67 5	2.00	88	~		5,50	4.95	60	_	4.78	3,54
daturity level	29.15	5.46	28.47	4.78	28.89		29.00	3.85	27.73		30.00	-	-	1.20	37		20,00	4.24	=	8	28.44	6.49
Sum E	15.79	4.41	17.24	5.90	18,08	5,20	18.79	4.39	16.68		17.95	6.16 18	8.50	7.93	9		15.00	2,88	2	-	17.40	7,22
Sum 1	8.87	3,46	11,82	10.4	7,53	3.64	9.57	4.36	8.97	3.21	8.73	4.19 13	13,38	11.25	72		12,50	2,12	5		.57	7.64
	1				1	1	1	1			1	-	1	1	1	4				-	-	-

Whilst the mean psychological profile of each of the clusters was approximately similar to that of the overall population, there was a noticeable difference on the following variables.

<u>Cluster 1:</u> This cluster was less extrapunitive and had a lower Sum E score on the HDHQ. It also had a lower Fake Bad score on the IPI.

Cluster 2: On the 16PF, cluster 2 was less suspicious (L-) and less experimenting (Q_1-) . It was more hostile and had a higher sum I score on the HDHQ.

Cluster 3: This cluster was more extrapunitive in nature and had a lower score on the intropunitiveness measure, sum I.

Cluster 4: This group was less controlled (Q3-) than the overall population. The HDHQ scores showed it to be more hostile and to have a higher sum E score.

<u>Cluster 5</u>: This cluster was noticeably less extrapunitive in nature.

<u>Cluster 6</u>: This cluster was less apprehensive (0-) and was more extrapunitive than the overall population. It had a higher mean maturity level score.

Cluster 7: Cluster 7 was less apprehensive (0-) than the overall population. On the HDHQ it scored higher on acting out hostility (AH+), projected delusional hostility (PH+) and delusional guilt (DG+). It was much more hostile and extrapunitive in nature, scoring high on sum E and on sum I. It had also a higher maturity level score on the IPI.

Clusters 8, 9 and 10 had very small numbers and differed on many of the variables.

Cluster 8: This group had one person in it. He was less intelligent (B-), more aggressive (E+), more shy (H-), more tender-minded (I+), less imaginative (M-), less experimenting (Q_1-) , less self-sufficient (Q_2-) , less controlled (Q_3-) and less tense (Q_4-) than the average detention centre inmate tested. On the HDHQ he scored higher on criticism of others (CO+), lower on projected delusional hostility (PH-) and higher on the self-criticism measure (SC+). He was more hostile, more intropunitive, and scored higher on sum E and sum I. On the IPI he scored lower on Fake Bad and Fake Good and much higher on the maturity level score.

Cluster 9: On the 16PF, this cluster differed from the overall population on the following variables. It was much less aggressive (E-), much more tender-minded (I+), and much more suspicious (L-). It was more practical (M-), more apprehensive (O+), more radical (Q₄+) and had a lower anxiety level. On the HDHQ it scored lower on criticism of others (CO-), higher on self-criticism (SC+) and higher on delusional guilt (DC+). The group was more hostile and very intropunitive in nature, having a lower sum E score and a higher sum I score. It had a much lower maturity level score.

Cluster 10: Once again this was a cluster numbering one person. He was more outgoing (A+), more intelligent (B+), and more assertive (E+) than most of the other inmates. He was emotionally less stable (C-) and more expedient (G+). He had a much higher score on factor H (venturesome) and on factor I (tender-minded) and was more

suspicious (L+), more radical (Q₄+), less self-sufficient (Q₂) and more tense (Q₄+) than the overall population. On the 16PF second order factor anxiety he scored twice as high as the population mean, and he was higher on the Invia-Exvia scale. On the HDHQ he was lower on acting out hostility (AH-), was less critical of others (CO-) and was lower on the projected delusional hostility (PH-) measure. He was more self-critical (SC+) and suffered more from delusional guilt (DG+) and in consequence was extremely intropunitive, scoring low on Sum E and high on sun I. On the IPI he scored higher on Fake Bad, lower on Fake Good and was the lowest on the maturity level scale.

Between Cluster Comparison

Many of the between cluster differences on the psychological variables are significant at an extremely high level. These are presented in Table 28 on the following page.

TABLE 28

Between Cluster Significance Levels on Psychological Variables

H D H G	Sum -						<5%		>2%							>2%		*							100				
0 H	Sum		Ö	\$																									
	Mat. Level							>2%						<2%					8				A 96			>5%		<u>兴</u> 木	<0.1%
P 1	F.6.																												
	F.8	%I>					>5%		>5%		%%																		
	Dir. Host.		×1×													>2%													Ŕ
OSTILITY AND DIRECTION OF IOSTILITY AUESTIONNAIRE	Host.																								3/C A				
TIO	8																												
OUE:	88																												
EE	Hd.						×1%																		※				
HOST IL ITY	Q.		H				Ť			Н										Н				-					路
HOS HE			50				-									9				Н		-		-	10				>2%
	AM		×1×				X									× ×									× X				
	4																												
	N N																												
	88																												
	93																												
JE SE	42																												
QUEST IONNA IRE	ō,											ī																	
TION	0																												
S and	2																												
	*										_													-					
16 PERSONALITY FACTOR	-		>2%	42%					36								S S		×	×2%	8		× ×			>5%			
LIT	-							>5%																				<2%	2 %
SONA	I							L												Н									
PER	9																							>2%					
16	u																												
	ш			-	-			-	1														-	-					
	ပ								20%							<0.1%				2%				<5%					
											28	%		1															
	«																												
	CLUSTER	- 2	- 3	1 - 4	5 - 1	9 - 1	1-7	6 -	2 - 3	2 - 4	2 - 5		- 7	6-	3 - 4	3 - 5	9 -	3 - 7	6 -	. 5	9 -	- 7	4 - 9	5 - 6	5 - 7	6-9	6-7	6-9	6-6

The differences between clusters on the stated variables are significant at a level within the range p = > 5% to p = 0.1%. A detailed coverage of the between cluster differences using the mean, standard deviation, t-value and significance level is given in Appendix 3.

The following section will be confined to a more general coverage. Clusters 8 and 10, each numbering one person, will not be included in this particular analysis.

Car Thieves and Road Traffic Offenders (Cluster 1) differed from violent offenders. They were lower on the Fake Bad scores of the IPI than the non-drinking violent offenders (Cluster 2). They were less suspicious and had a lower acting out hostility on the HDHQ than the other violent offenders (Cluster 3). They were less extrapunitive and had a lower general measure of extrapunitiveness, sum E.

Compared with property offenders (Cluster 4) they were less suspicious and once again had a lower sum E score. They differed from the other car thieves (Cluster 7) on the HDHQ. They were lower on acting out hostility and on projected delusional hostility, and had a lower general measure of intropunitiveness, sum I. They were lower on the Fake Bad measure of the IPI. They were less tenderminded and had a higher maturity level score than sex offenders (Cluster 9).

The non-drinking violent offenders (Cluster 2) differed from the other violent offenders (Cluster 3). They were emotionally more stable and less suspicious. They had a higher Fake Bad score on the IPI and were higher on sum I, the general measure of intropunitiveness.

Compared with both groups of property offenders (Clusters 5 and 6) they were less intelligent. They had a higher Fake Bad score than Cluster 5. They had a higher maturity level score than sex offenders.

The other violent offenders (Cluster 3) were emotionally less stable than property offenders (Cluster 5). On the HDHQ they wored higher on acting out hostility and were more extrapunitive in nature. They had a lower score on sum I, the general measure of intropunitiveness. Compared with the breakers and enterers in Cluster 6 they were more suspicious.

They had a lower score on sum I than the car thieves and social nuisance offenders of Cluster 7.

Violent offenders had a higher maturity level score and were more suspicious than sex offenders.

Boys sentenced for Breach of the Peace or Disorderly Behaviour

(Cluster 4) were more suspicious than property offenders (Cluster 5 and

6). They were emotionally less stable than Cluster 5.

Compared with sex offenders they were more suspicious and had a higher maturity level score.

The drinking property offenders (Cluster 5) were emotionally more stable and more conscientious than their non-drinking counterparts (Cluster 6). Compared with car thieves and social nuisance offenders

(Cluster 7) they were lower on acting out hostility and on projected delusional hostility. They were less hostile and had a lower sum I score.

The drinking property offenders were more suspicious and were higher on the maturity level scale than sex offenders (Cluster 9).

The non-drinking, breaking and entering offenders (Cluster 6) were less tender-minded and scored higher on the maturity level scale than sex offenders (Cluster 9).

Car thieves and the social nuisance offender (Cluster 7)

differed from sex offenders (Cluster 9). They were less tenderminded, were more critical of others and more extrapunitive in nature.

They had a much higher maturity level score on the IPI.

SECTION FOUR

The hierarchical analysis of the population according to their psychological characteristics was conducted at two levels; namely, at a high fusion point giving a loose level of association and then at a low fusion point, to give a more discriminating analysis.

In the analysis the variables, characteristic of a cluster, were selected according to their F-ratio score, i.e. the standard deviation of the cluster / the standard deviation of the whole. "The general idea is that small F-ratios indicate continuous variables which have relatively low variation within the cluster and are therefore good 'diagnostics'". The t-value has been included in the analysis, since large deviations from zero for the t-values indicate the characteristics whose cluster values differ from the population mean. (Clustan, I.A. Manual 1969).

The taxonomy derived by hierarchical analysis on psychological variables, using a high fusion point, divided the population into three clusters. The most exacting discriminator was the HDHQ.

A detailed description of the clusters is given below.

Three Clusters

Cluster 1: N = 77		CLUSTER		OV	ERALL
<u>Variable</u>	t-value	Mean	Standard <u>Deviation</u>	Mean	Standard Deviation
Self-criticism	0.85	7.18	1.54	5.18	2.35
Hostility	0.45	29.04	4.61	25.92	7.10
Direction of Hostility	0.72	25.92	5.45	20.58	7.56
Delusional Guilt	0.61	4.71	1.32	3.58	1.80
B (Intelligence)	0.10	6.82	1.07	6.61	1.54
Fake Good	-0.33	3.75	2.05	4.78	3.54
Sum E	-0.09	16.70	4.75	17.40	7.22
Sum I	0.71	12.83	5.73	9.57	7.64

The boys in this cluster are characterised by high hostility, though they are slightly intropunitive in nature. They are more self-critical than the other boys and suffer more delusional guilt. They are more intelligent and have a lower Fake Good score on the IPI.

Cluster 2: N = 48 Variable	t-value	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
Sum I	-0.39	7.27	2.74	9.57	7.64
F (Happy-go-lucky)	0.49	7.90	1.14	7.21	5.56
Direction of Hostility	-1.17	12.25	4.19	20.58	7.56
Sum E	1.12	22.92	3.11	17.40	7.22
Fake Good	-0.31	3.81	1.52	4.78	3.54
O (Apprehensive)	-0.24	6.19	2.03	7.38	6.28
Hostility	0.63	30.23	4.92	25.92	7.10

The boys in Cluster 2 are extremely extrapunitive. They have a lower than average sum I score and a higher than average sum E score.

On the 16PF they are more happy-go-lucky (F+) and less apprehensive (O-) than the rest. They have a lower Fake Good score.

Cluster 3: N = 75

Variable	t-value	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
Sum I	-0.48	6.80	2.78	9.57	7.64
Sum E	-0.62	13.96	3.12	17.40	7.22
0 (Apprehensive)	-0.18	6.39	2.07	7.38	6.28
Direction of Hostility	0.02	20.85	4.90	20.58	7.56
Acting out Hostility	-0.65	5.53	1.78	7.04	2.54
Hostility	-0.86	20.76	4.61	25.92	7.10

The boys in this cluster are less hostile than the average intake.

They are extrapunitive in nature, and have a lower sum I and sum E score.

They are less likely to act out their hostility and are less apprehensive (0-).

The distribution of the clusters on a Hostility - Direction of Hostility axes is shown in Figure XVI.

The three clusters were analysed according to their social characteristics. The incidence of selected social characteristics is given in tabular form in Table 29 on the following page. A more detailed coverage of the social characteristics is given in Appendix 4

Highly hostile but slightly intropunitive boys (Cluster 1) differed from highly hostile and extremely extrapunitive boys (Cluster 2). Fewer of their fathers were in work and a higher proportion of the boys' fathers were deceased. Fewer came from urban areas (85.71% compared with 100.0%) though they had in fact lived in the same areas for a longer period. Fewer of the intropunitive boys had a trade but on the whole their work record was slightly better, 72.83% being in work at the time of their sentence compared with 70.83% of the extremely extrapunitive group.

TABLE 29
Incidence of Social Characteristics for 3 Clusters

3 CLUSTERS		NUMBER		PERCEN	PERCENTAGE OF CLUSTER			PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL POPULATION		
VARTABLE	C1 N=77	C2 N=48	C3 N=75	GI	Ç2	C3	C)	C2	C3	
Mean Age	17.66	17.85	18.09			4.15				
Father working	53	37	47	68.83	77.03	62.67	26.5	18.5	23.5	
Father not working	12	8	20	15.58	16.67	26.67	6.00	4.00	10.00	
Father deceased/other	12	3	8	15.58	6.25	10.66	6.00	1.50	4.0	
Average number of siblings	4.0	4.50	4.56							
Lives in urban area	66	48	67	85.71	100.0	89.33	33.00	24.00	33.5	
Lives in rural area	11	0	8	14.29		10.67	5.50	0.00	4.0	
Lived in area > 5 years	15	12	13	19.48	25.00	17.33	7.50	6.00	6.5	
Lived in area < 5 years	62	36	13	80.52	75.00	82.67	31.00	18.00	31.0	
Av. no. times moved house	2.03	2.08	2.01			-				
School attended										
Junior/Senior Secondary	67	41	65	87.01	85.42	86.67	33.50	20.50	32.5	
Approved School	10	6	6	12.99	12.50	8.00	5.00	3.00	3.0	
Average number of schools	2.7	2.96	2.94							
Subject has a trade	16	15	13	20.78	31.25	17.33	8.00	7.50	6.5	
Employed before sentence	59	34	53	76.62	70.83	70.67	29.50	17.00	26.5	
Average number of jobs	4.27	4.98	5.2							
Longest time in job										
Less than I year	32	15	32	41.56	31.25	42.67	16.00	7.50	16.0	
More than I year	45	33	43	58.44	63.75	57.33	22.50	16.50	21.5	
Offence	149									
Violent + social nuisance	27	23	21	35.06	47.92	28.00	13.50	11.50	10.5	
Property + car theft	48	25	53	62.34	52.08	70.67	24.00	12.50	26.5	
Subject has no close friends	9	5	15	11.69	4.17	20.00	4.50	1.00	7.5	
Atohol consumed					1 13					
Under 200 gms/ml.	43	17	32	55.85	35.42	42.67	21.50	8.50	16.0	
200 - 500 " "	29	19	35	37.66	39.58	46.67	14.50	9.50	17.5	
Over 500 " "	5	12	8	6.49	25.00	10.66	2.50	6.00	4.0	
Olse follne at home										
Strict	11	12	12	14.29	25.00	16.00	5.50	6.00	6.0	
Fair	24	20	18	31.17	41.67	24.00	12.00	10.00	9.0	
Loose	42	16	45	54.54	33.33	60.00	21.00	8.00	22.5	
Gang member	29	28	24	37.66	59.33	32.00	14.50	14.00	12.0	
Average number of	3.92	4.94	4.63				1			
previous convictions	J.52	4.74	7.00							
Predominant type of pre. con.										
Violent + social nuisance +	41	26	43	53.25	54.17	57.33	20.50	13.00	21.5	
Property + R.T.A.	33	20	32	42.86	41.67	42.67	16.50	10.00	16.0	
Prev. Institutional treatment	20	18	15	25.97	37.50	20.00	10.00	9.00	7.50	

The intropunitive boys were less likely to have had a stable period in the one job. Also, they differed in offence behaviour, more of the intropunitive boys tending towards property offences, whilst the extremely extrapunitive group - though they had many property offenders - also had the highest proportion of violent and social nuisance offenders. The intropunitive group contained a higher proportion who had no close friends. In the drinking behaviour of the two groups the most obvious difference was the lower weekend drinking pattern of the intropunitive group compared with the heavy drinking behaviour of the extremely extrapunitive group. Discipline in the home varied; fewer of the intropunitive boys described discipline as strict, less as far, and more as loose. As far as gang membership was concerned, the intropunitive boys were less likely to belong to a gang. They also had fewer previous convictions and were less likely to have had previous institutional treatment.

The highly hostile but slightly intropunitive group, when compared this time with the low hostility but extrapunitive group (Cluster 3) differed on the following variables. They were slightly younger and more of their fathers were working. Slightly fewer of them came from urban areas, more had a trade and more were in work at the time of their sentence. Their offence behaviour differed in that the highly hostile but intropunitive group had a higher proportion of violent and social nuisance offenders compared with the low hostility but extrapunitive group, in which the vast majority were property offenders. As regards levels of weekend drinking neither group contained many heavy drinkers, but the highly hostile and intropunitive

group had more light drinkers. They had a higher proportion describing discipline at home as fair and a lower proportion describing it as loose. Slightly more of them were gang members. Their previous criminal history showed them to have fewer previous convictions, more previous institutional experience including approved school experience and roughly similar previous criminal behaviour.

Highly hostile and extremely extrapunitive boys (Cluster 2) differed from the low hostility and extrapunitive group (Cluster 3) as follows. They were slightly younger and more of their fathers were in employment. More of them came from urban areas but less of this group had lived in their area for more than five years. A higher proportion had been in Approved School. Almost twice as many of the highly hostile boys had a trade and their job record was better overall, having had a greater permanency in one job. They had a higher proportion of violent and social nuisance offenders, with a correspondingly lower proportion of property and car theft offenders. Many more had close friends compared with the other group. They tended to drink more heavily and discipline at home was described as more strict and more fair. A considerably higher proportion of the extremely hostile group belonged to a gang. Their previous criminal history showed them to be roughly similar in experience though the behaviour of the extremely hostile group may have been more extreme since they contained a considerably higher proportion with previous institutional experience.

Comparison of the clusters on a more discriminating offence type classification reveals the following between cluster differences.

Highly hostile but slightly intropunitive boys (Cluster 1) differ

from highly hostile and extremely extrapunitive boys (Cluster 2).

They have a higher proportion of car theft and road traffic offenders, a slightly higher proportion of non-drinking violent offenders, and a much lower proportion of drinking, violent offenders. They have more social nuisance offenders, more drinking property offenders, and less non-drinking property offenders.

Compared with the low hostility but slightly extrapunitive group (Cluster 3) they have more non-drinking violent offenders and slightly fewer drinking violent offenders. They have more social nuisance offenders, fewer drinking property offenders and fewer non-drinking property offenders.

The highly hostile and extremely extrapunitive boys (Cluster 2) when compared with the low hostility, but slightly extrapunitive boys (Cluster 3), differ as follows. They have a lower proportion of car thieves and twice as many drinking violent offenders. There are less drinking property offenders among the highly hostile group but more non-drinking property offenders.

This data is presented in Table 30 on the following page.

Whilst this analysis affords a fairly comprehensive social description of the groups and is useful as such, the full import of the analysis cannot be completely evaluated at this stage. It does, however, indicate the between group differences particularly in the areas of employment behaviour and criminal behaviour.

Eight Clusters

In a more discriminating analysis it was decided to examine the population at a fusion point yielding eight clusters. Whilst the

TABLE 30
Incidence of Offence Types within 3 Clusters

3 CLUSTERS		NUMBER			CENTAGE CLUSTER		7.00	ENTAG L POP	E OF ULATION
OFFENCE VARIABLE	G1 N=77	C2 N=48	C3 N=75	CI ·	C2	C3	CI	G2	G3
Car Theft + R.T.A.	17	5	17	21.93	10.40	22.61	8.5	2.5	8.5
Violence Non-drinker	8	4	5	10.32	a.32	6.65	4.0	2.0	2.5
Violense Brinker	n	15	12	14.19	31.20	15.96	5.5	7.5	5.0
Social Nuisance Breach of Peace/Dis. Behaviour	7	3	4	9.03	6.24	5.32	3.5	1.5	2.0
Property Brinker	23	11	26	29.67	22.83	34.58	11.5	5.5	13.0
Property Non-drinker	5	7	8	6.45	14.56	10.64	2.5	3.5	4.0
Car Theft + Social Nuisance	3	3	2	3.87	6.24	2.66	1.5	1.5	2.0
Sex	ı	0	0	1.29	0	0	0.5	0	0
Sex	1	0	,	1.29	0	1.33	0.5	0	0.5
Breach of Probation	1	0	0	1.29	0	0	0.5	0	0

examination of a taxonomy of ten would have given the analysis a greater degree of symetry, an analysis of eight clusters is, for all practical purposes, more than sufficient. Previous experience indicates that the use of an even lower fusion point to give ten clusters would only have resulted in extra clusters of one or two persons. In the subsequent analysis of eight clusters, the measure on which most of the groups were separated was, once again, the HDHQ.

Cluster 1:	N =	25
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CLUSTER

OVERALL

<u>Variable</u>	t-value	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
Sum I	0.46	11.56	2.04	9.57	7.64
Sum E	0.42	19.33	2.26	17.40	7.22
Direction of Hostility	0.33	23.15	3.21	20.58	7.56
Hostility	0.73	30.85	3.67	25.92	7.10
Criticism of Others	0.41	8.06	1.41	7.10	2.29
Self Criticism	0.71	6.87	1.51	5.18	2.35

The boys in this cluster are extremely hostile (30.85) but are less extrapunitive than the average inmate (-0.85). They have a higher than average score on Sum E and Sum I and are more critical of others and more self-critical.

Cluster 2: N = 33

			Standard		Standard
<u>Variable</u>	t-value	Mean	Deviation	Mean	Deviation
F (Happy-go-lucky)	0.60	8.12	0.77	7.21	5.56
Sum I	-0.58	6.30	2.52	9.57	7.64
Sum E	0.96	22.09	2.86	17.40	7.22
Direction of Hostility	-1.27	11.55	4.58	20.58	7.56
Acting out Hostility	0.92	9.36	1.59	7.04	2.54
Hostility	0.35	28.45	4.19	25.92	7.10

The boys in Cluster 2 have a higher than average hostility score and are the most extrapunitive group. They score high on sum E and low on sum I and tend to act out their hostility. On the 16PF they are very happy-go-lucky (F+).

-0.20

-0.71

Cluster 3: N = 23		CLU	STER		VERALL
			Standard		Standard
<u>Variable</u>	t-value	Mean	Deviation	Mean	Deviation
Sum I	0.72	12.87	1.45	9.57	7.64
Direction of Hostility	1.66	32.74	2.89	20.58	7.56
Self-criticism	1.22	8.04	1.00	5.18	2.35
Sum E	-0.99	12.09	2.62	17.40	7.22

24.96

1.65

3.34

1.05

25.92

3.02

7.10

1.99

Cluster 3 inmates have a lower than average hostility score. They are extremely intropunitive (8.74) having a high sum I and low sum E score. They are self-critical and less prone to paranoid hostility.

Cluster 4: N = 15

Projected Delusional

Hostility

Hostility

Variable	t-value	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
Direction of Hostility Sum I	-0.96 0.03	13.8	2.56 1.85	20.58	7.56 7.64
0 (Apprehensive)	-0.13	6.53	1.45	7.38	6.28
Fake Good Self-criticism	-0.42 -0.07	3.53 5.07	1.15	4.78 5.18	3.54 2.35
Sum E	1.47	24.73	2.79	17.40	7.22

This group is highly extrapunitive (-10.2) having a high sum E and a slightly lower sum I score than average. They are slightly less self-critical than the rest. They are less apprehensive (0-) and have a lower Fake Good score than average.

Cluster 5: N = 23

<u>Variable</u>	t-value	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
Sum I	-1.00	4.17	2.04	9.57	7.64
Direction of Hostility	-0.67	15.87	2.97	20.58	7.56
Self-criticism	-1.29	2.35	1.24	5.18	2.35
Sum E	-0.50	14.57	2.83	17.40	7.22
0 (Apprehensive)	-0.45	5.52	2.06	7.38	6.28
Q ₄ (Tense)	-0.93	3.87	1.60	6.20	3.47

Cluster 6: N - 34		CLUS	TER	OVE	RALL
			Standard		Standard
	t-value	Mean	Deviation	Mean	Deviation
Sum I	-0.23	8.09	2.12	9.57	7.64
Direction of Hostility	0.50	24.35	3.58	20.58	7.56
Self-criticism	-0.08	5.06	1.24	5.18	2.35
O (Apprehensive)	-0.03	6.85	1.83	7.38	6.28
Acting out Hostility	-0.97	4.74	1.46	7.04	2.54
Sum E	-0.87	12.68	3.20	17.40	7.22

These boys are very slightly intropunitive in nature (0.35) and have a lower sum E and sum I score than average. They are less likely to act out their hostility and are less self-critical than the other boys. They are not as apprehensive (0-).

Cluster 7: N = 18	t-value	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
Sum E	-0.30	15.61	2.19	17.40	7.22
Direction of Hostility	-0.02	10.61	3.13	20.58	7.10
Sum I	-0.30	7.72	2.38	9.57	7.64
Acting out Hostility	-0.27	6.64	1.17	7.04	2.54
Maturity level	-1.40	21.56	2.97	28.44	6.49
Hostility	-0.46	23.33	4.08	25.92	7.10

This group is less hostile than the average inmate. They are extrapunitive in nature (average) and have a low sum E and sum I score. There is slightly lesser tendency towards acting out hostility. On the IPI they have a much lower maturity level score.

Cluster 8: N = 2			Standard		Standard
	t-value	Mean	Deviation	Mean	Deviation
Q (Self sufficient)	-1.30	3.00	0.00	6.20	6.44
Fake Good	-0.23	4.00	0.00	4.78	3.54
A (Outgoing)	0.37	6.00	0.00	5.15	2.22
Fake Bad	-0.48	4.00	0.00	5.63	6.55
0 (Apprehensive)	-1.25	3.00	0.00	7.38	6.28
Sum E	-3.04	1.50	0.50	17.40	7.22

The boys in this cluster score extremely low on sum E. On the IPI

they have a slightly lower Fake Good and Fake Bad score. On the 16 PF they are more outgoing (A+), much less apprehensive (0-), and less self-sufficient.

A pictorial representation of the distribution of the eight clusters on the Hostility - Direction of Hostility axes is given in Figure XVII.

The eight clusters were in turn subjected to analysis according to their social characteristics. Once again, the incidence of selected social characteristics is given in tabular form (Table 31) on the following page. A fuller coverage is set out in Appendix 5.

The following description is based on a general comparison across the Table and indicates that the secondary analysis of the eight clusters reveals comparatively few differences between the clusters on social characteristics. Only the most distinct clusters will be noted.

The most extrapunitive group (Cluster 2) had a higher proportion of boys who had lived in an area for less than five years, and contained boys with a more stable work record. It had a higher proportion of violent and social nuisance offenders and a higher proportion of heavy drinkers. It also contained more gang members.

The lower hostility but extremely intropunitive group (Cluster 3) had the following distinguishable characteristics. It had more boys whose fathers were deceased and the boys had a lower number of siblings. A higher proportion of these boys came from rural areas. They also tended to have had fewer jobs than the other groups and to have had a lower number of previous convictions.

Another highly extrapunitive group (Cluster 4) had more siblings than the others and its members tended to have held more jobs.

TABLE 31
Incidence of Social Characteristics for 8 Clusters

VARIABLE	G#	C2	C3	C4	C5	66	67	68
VARIABLE	N=52	N=33	N=23	N=15	N=23	N=34	N=18	N=2
Mean Age	17.5	17.91	18.09	17.72	18.00	18.12	18.14	16.63
father working	38	27	14	10	15	22	13	
Father not working	8	3	3	5	8	9	3	1
Father deceased/other	6	3	6	0	3	3	2	0
Average number siblings	4.06	4.12	3.01	5.68	4.44	4.63	4.50	9.00
Subject lives in urban area	48	33	16	15	20	30	17	2
Subject lives in rural area	4	0	7	0	3	4	1	0
Lived in area < 5 years	10	8	4	4	6	6	8	
Lived in area > 5 years	42	25	19	11	17	28	10	
Subject moved house 3 or less times	43	27	50	13	20	32	13	2
School Attended								
Junior/Senior Secondary	45	29	51	15	22	28	15	1
Approved School	7	3	2	3	0	4	2	•
No. Schools Attended			2124	200				
3 or less	45	28	16	11	16	25	11	2
Average number of jobs	4.56	4.70	3.57	5.60	5.83	5.50	4.72	5.00
Longest time in job								
Less than I year	21	9	10	6	10	13	9	
Nore than 1 year	31	24	13	9	13	21	9	
Offence								
Violent + social nuisance	20	16	6	7	9	6	6	
Property + car theft	31	17	16	8	14	28	#1	1
Alcohol consumed								
Under 200 gms/ml.	26	12	16	5	10	15	7	
200 - 500 " "	23	11	6	8	11	14	10	0
Over 500 " "	3	10	1	2	2	5	1	
Gang member	21	19	7	9	9	9	6	1
Average number previous convictions	4.12	4.06	3.39	6.07	4.43	5.18	3.83	5.00
Predominant type prev. convictions								
Violent + social nuisance + mixed	30	18	10	8	15	18	10	1
Property + R.T.A.	20	13	12	7	8	16	8	1
Previous institutional treatment	13	11	5	7	5	7	3	2

Criminal characteristics showed this group to have a higher proportion of violent offenders and to have more gang members. As a group the boys have had more previous convictions and more previous experience of institutional treatment. It also had a higher proportion of 'light' drinkers.

Analysis of the eight clusters by offence type is given in Table 32 on the following page.

This Table shows that the most extrapunitive group (Cluster 2) has more drinking violent offenders. The extremely intropunitive group (Cluster 3) contained more car thieves. Another extrapunitive group (Cluster 5) also contained more drinking violent offenders. The slightly intropunitive group (Cluster 6) contained a higher proportion of drinking property offenders, whilst the less hostile group of average extrapunitiveness (Cluster 7) had a higher proportion of non-drinking violent offenders.

Whilst the social characteristics of the groups (revealed by this analysis) could be the subject of extensive speculation, the usefulness of this data cannot be fully demonstrated within this study.

TABLE 32
Incidence of Offence Types within 8 Clusters

OFFENCE VARIABLE	C1 N=52	C2 N=33	C3 N=23	C4 N=15	C5 N=23	C6 N=34	C7 N=18	N=2
Car Theft + R.T.A.	10	3	7	2	5	8	3	-
Violense Non-drinker	5	4	2	•	1	1	3	,
Viotence Drinker	9	10	2	4	6	5	2	•
Social Nulsance Breach of Peace/Dis. Behaviour	6	•	•	2	2	ı	•	
Property Orinker	16	9	7	2	6	14	5	•
Property Non-drinker	3	5	2	3	2	4	2	•
Car Theft + 1 Social Nuisance	2	,	-	2	1	,		1
Sex							•	
Sox			•	-		•	1	
Breach of Probation			1			_		_

Summary of Results

Analysis of the social and personal characteristics of Detention Centre boys showed the average age to be 17 years 7 months. They were, on average, the middle child in a family of five children.

Nost were urban dwellers and had lived in the same area for a considerable length of time. Their employment record showed them to be mostly unskilled, to have changed their employment frequently, though most were in work at the time of their offence. Approximately one quarter of the population did not drink and on average the weekend consumption of alcohol amounted to nearly 200 gms/ml. Criminally they were fairly sophisticated, tending towards property and violent offences. Over 25% had previously been in a penal institution.

Psychological characteristics of the boys indicated an extravert population. They were an aggressive, happy-go-lucky group, tending towards emotional instability. As a group they scored high on the intelligence factor and average on second-order anxiety. They were highly hostile and extremely extrapunitive on the HDHQ. The maturity level score on the IPI proved inconclusive.

Hierarchical analysis of the population (at a high fusion point) according to selected offence related variables, resulted in the formation of three distinct groups characterised by offence behaviour; car theft and social nuisance, violence and property offences. A subsequent analysis of the groups by psychological variables showed no significant differences on these variables. When a higher criteria of similarity was accepted, ten more discriminating clusters were produced. These were identifiable, once again, by their offence

behaviour, though in this instance personal characteristics, namely drinking behaviour, influenced the taxonomic structure. The secondary analysis of these ten clusters, by psychological variables, revealed between cluster differences which were significant at an extremely high level. The psychological features on which the clusters had clearly distinguishable differences were the "sensitive", the "suspecting" and the "emotional stability" factors of the 16 PF, the general hostility and extrapunitive measures of the HDHQ together with the general measure of intropunitiveness, and on the Fake Bad measure of the IPI.

When the population was subjected to hierarchical analysis according to their psychological characteristics, a fall out of three and eight clusters was accepted. In both instances the most exacting discriminator between the clusters was the HDHQ. A secondary analysis of the three clusters and of the eight clusters according to their social and personal characteristics revealed within cluster differences on several social characteristics notably employment and offence related behaviour.

The difficulty in attaching significance to such taxonomies was noted.

DISCUSSION

The sentence of detention in a Detention Centre was introduced in the late 1940's in an effort "to assist courts who are faced with the difficulty of having to deal with the young offender who does not really seem to need the prolonged stay that an approved school or Borstal institution requires to be effective, but who does seem to need some reminder that he is getting into ways that will lead him into great difficulties with society if he continues in them".

(Home Secretary, Official Reports (Commons) 1947-48, Vol.444, C.2138). No person was to be detained in a detention centre "if he has been previously sentenced to imprisonment or Borstal Training".

(Criminal Justice Act, 1948, Sec. 18(2)(a)).

The implication was that committal to a detention centre should come relatively early in a boy's criminal career. It is surprising, therefore, to find that just under 60% of the boys in the Scottish Detention Centre had four or more previous convictions and over 26.5% had previous experience of a penal institution. While it may very well be that for "young men who may be inclined to think that the law can be treated with impunity, but are not settled in law breaking, this kind of intensive application to a training programme can be of much benefit." (Report of the Scottish Advisory Council on the Treatment of Offenders, 1960) there is no guarantee that it is appropriate for criminally sophisticated boys with a history of institutional experience. Indeed the very presence of such boys may well constitute a serious disadvantage to the rehabilitation of those boys who are not yet so familiar with the ways of crime.

It was conjectured, in an earlier section, that the detention centre population would show some evidence of social and personal disorganisation. Whilst the employment and offence related behaviour of the population confirms this, the disorganisation is differentially distributed within the group. Generally, the social and personal characteristics of the detention centre inmate do not reveal anything particularly surprising. There is a high concentration of rather similar backgrounds; boys living at home, the middle child in a fair-sized family. Most of the boys came from urban areas and had lived in the same area for a considerable length They do not resemble the popular image of the young thug. of time. While their work record is erratic, most of the boys were in employment at the time of their sentence, and their drinking behaviour is, on the whole, unexceptional - a quarter of the population being non-drinkers. Indeed a comparative study of a non-delinquent population, drawn from the same areas as these boys, may indicate that the delinquent boys are largely typical of the areas from which they are drawn. be remembered that we know little of the non-delinquent population of the urban area. Were a prospective study of the criminal careers of young delinquents to be contemplated, or a programme of preventative action be implemented, there would be little difficulty in focussing on the appropriate areas of need.

It was anticipated on the basis of Eysenckian learning theory
that detention centre population would obtain high scores on the
Introversion-Extraversion continuum. Eysenck (1970) has argued that
socialised behaviour rests essentially on a basis of conditioning and

that conditionability is largely a matter of temperament. It is the person who fails to develop moral and social responses due to his low conditionability and his extraversion who tends to become labelled as the psychopath and the criminal. One would expect, therefore, that the detention centre population would score high on the Introversion-Extraversion continuum and this is in fact confirmed by the high second-order extraversion factor score on the 16 PF.

Catell, while he also indicated that the delinquent was high on the extraversion factor, claimed that delinquents differed significantly from the average non-criminal on comention (the tendency to go with a group), anxiety and maladjustment, and self-centredness. They also showed low super-ego strength, were over responsive, showed "aloof independence and were less stable. The Scottish detention centre population, though they were self-sufficient (Q_2+) , tended to approximate to this description. They were low on factor G (super-ego strength) and low on factor C (emotional stability). They had low self-control (factor Q_3-) and were suspicious (factor L+). They were, however, about average on the second-order anxiety factor.

Both Cattell and Eysenck stress that susceptibility to delinquency depends to a large extent on temperament, particularly emotional stability. Eysenck regarded emotional instability when combined with extraversion as particularly criminogenic. In an attempt to measure the degree of emotional upset in the detention centre population the HDHQ was administered. The population in fact showed a particularly high level of hostility and extrapunitiveness. On the basis of hierarchical analysis according to psychological variables, there is evidence that within the population there

are sub-groups which display extremely hostile and extrapunitive features, even in terms of this population. If (as Philip, 1968 argued) the HDHQ is a good measure of psychological upset, then this is a very disturbed population. The detention centre regime, however, is not considered suitable for a psychologically handicapped population (Banks, 1966). Indeed, it was never intended to be a therapeutic community of any kind and bearing in mind the philosophical basis of its existence, one would not expect it so to be. There is, in short, no provision in a detention centre for boys with a high level of psychological upset.

The extreme level of extrapunitiveness found in the population constitutes a further indication of the considerable degree of lack of socialisation in these boys, and would tend to confirm the idea of Eysenck and Trasler that the "social training process" has been defective either through constitutional inability to condition easily, or through imperfect training.

It was also anticipated that the detention centre inmates would come in the low maturity level on the Interpersonal Personality Inventory. However, the results are inconclusive. This test which apparently has been used with such effectiveness in the United States of America does not appear to have the same potential in the United Kingdom. There is some indication, however, that an analysis of the Fake Good and Fake Bad scores may show them to be better discriminatory measures than the crude maturity level score itself. Certainly this study lends no support to Maxwell Jones' contention that this instrument represents a criminological 'break-through'.

Separation of data by cluster analysis is a useful and important method of numerical taxonomy. At this stage, however, it is not possible to know if the taxa produced are in fact worthwhile.

There are two necessary requirements of taxonomic method. Firstly, the taxa should be replicable, i.e. a similar analysis using the same type of data on another group of detention centre boys, should result in the same breakdown of taxa; secondly, the taxa should be meaningfully related to data which is independent of the variables from which the taxa were obtained. This study has gone some way to fulfilling the second requirement in that taxa derived from offence behaviour alone have been shown to be related to psychological variables.

One of the least expected findings was the systematic relationship between offence behaviour and psychological characteristics. Hierarchical analysis of the population, at a low fusion point, resulted in ten groups, identifiable by offence types. When the offence types were analysed according to their psychological variables there were between cluster differences at a significantly high level.

compared with the overall population car thieves were less extrapunitive and had a lower sum E score. They were less suspicious than
the other groups. Whilst they were extrapunitive in nature, they appeared
to be a distinct group in whom hostility was apparently dissipated through
stealing and riding around in cars. Their previous criminal history was
one of car theft and indeed, for many boys who steal cars, this almost
becomes a syndrome. An imaginative social programme of very inexpensive
use of car tracks has been suggested by Morris and Hawkins (1970) and may
go some way to accommodating the needs of this type of offender.

Non-drinking violent offenders were more hostile than the overall population and were less suspicious. Compared with the drinking violent offenders they were more stable. They tended to be less intelligent than property offenders. This group, it would appear, is more likely to get into a violent situation without necessarily realising it, or foreseeing the consequences of provocative behaviour. The drinking violent offenders were an extrapunitive group who were emotionally less stable than property offenders. The previous criminal behaviour of this group (one of disorderly behaviour and breach of the peace) would suggest that high extrapunitiveness and the consumption of alcohol is a potent combination which may predispose a person, if not to violence, then to socially unacceptable rowdiness.

The high hostility of social nuisance offenders is confirmed by the analysis which separates out boys convicted of disorderly behaviour or breach of the peace on the general hostility measure of the HDHQ. As a group they also tend to be less controlled (Q_3-) on the 16PF, which may explain the low tolerance of disagreement which often leads to this type of offence being committed.

Property offenders, like violent offenders, were separated according to whether they were drinkers or non-drinkers. The drinking property offender was noticeably less extrapunitive than the overall population and, surprisingly, was emotionally more stable and more conscientious than his non-drinking counterpart. The non-drinking breaking and entering group was more extrapunitive. They were criminally more sophisticated, having a past record of institutional treatment.

Bearing in mind the effect of a high level of extrapunitiveness coupled

with the consumption of alcohol it may be significant that in a potentially dangerous situation such as breaking and entering, the extrapunitive boys are all non-drinkers.

Sex offenders were a hostile but intropunitive group and were the only boys to be consistently separated according to their level on the IPI. They were of extremely low maturity.

The hierarchical analysis of the population according to psychological variables and the subsequent analysis on criminological characteristics confirmed the association between offence behaviour and psychological state. The high hostility but slightly intropunitive boys had a higher proportion of property offenders, as had the lower hostility but slightly extrapunitive group. The extremely hostile and extremely extrapunitive group had the highest proportion of violent offenders and contained more boys with previous institutional experience.

The evidence of this study, then, is that not only is there a generally high measure of psychological upset in the overall population but that this can be referred specifically to particular types of offence behaviour. This is apparently a strong case for the establishment of appropriate treatment communities for the particular type of boy now being subjected to the disciplinary, and somewhat punitive, regime of the detention centre. The existence of sub-groups within the population, which may require particular attention, confirms the California Youth Authority practice of matching treater or treatment programme and offender - appropriately known as the "horses for courses" policy.

While the penal ideal is now generally reformative and rehabilitative,

the detention centre regime was designed to administer a "short sharp shock", and while this may be appropriate for some offenders there is no evidence that it is appropriate for the present population.

Indeed any evidence is strictly to the contrary; these are not 'normal healthy lads' who can be 'smartly whipped into line'!

The other findings resulting from the hierarchical analysis are less obviously useful. The weekend drinking pattern of the population apparently distinguishes between the intropunitive boys and the degrees of extrapunitiveness in the other groups. The intropunitive boys had a low consumption rate compared with the progressively more heavy drinking of the slightly extrapunitive and the extremely extrapunitive groups. As has been noted before, this may suggest that there is some link between drink and the impulsive behaviour of the extrapunitive population. particularly the violent and social nuisance offenders. The employment related behaviour of the highly hostile and extremely extrapunitive boys is somewhat unexpected. All came from urban areas; a higher proportion of their fathers were in work and they themselves had the highest proportion of skilled tradesmen or apprentices. They tended to remain in a job for a longer period. Most of this group were gang members and were fairly well integrated socially. This would suggest that perhaps this group is a normal product of a particular environment and reinforces the need for a study of non-delinquent boys in high density urban areas. For this group the appropriate level of intervention may well be the gang itself. The value of the insights derived from the association between social characteristics and psychological characteristics is, however, difficult to assess. They can in fact only be understood as further research is

undertaken among other delinquent and non-delinquent populations.

The most important finding in this study is that psychological variables, particularly those reflecting generalised psychological and emotional upset, discriminate between those with differing offence characteristics. The significance of this for the existing ready, but often inappropriate, procedure for the assignment of offenders to institutions should not be underestimated.

The philosophical basis for the detention centre regime reflected in debates, Advisory Council Reports and in the statutory provisions, is that detention centres were for comparatively inexperienced offenders not established in wrong doing. The regime was to be exacting with brisk discipline and hard work. The Criminal Justice (Scotland) Act, 1963, S.1.(1), dealing with the restriction on the imprisonment and detention of young offenders states, "no court shall impose detention on a person under 21 years of age, unless the court is of opinion that no other method of dealing with him is appropriate". In other words, when a boy is committed to detention centre he is sentenced on the basis that this is appropriate to his needs. Subsection 2 continues, "For the purposes of determining in pursuance of the provisions of subsection 1 of this section whether any other method of dealing with a person mentioned therein is appropriate, the court shall obtain information about that person's circumstances from his probation officer or otherwise and shall consider the information; and the court shall take into account any information before it which is relevant to his character and to his physical and mental condition". In fact the information on an offender which the court receives does not of necessity contain information on the offender's psychological state

and only in a minority of cases has a recent psychological assessment been made. There are therefore two questions of interest; the quality and machinery of the selection procedure and the appropriateness of the detention centre regime.

On the evidence of this study, which shows the detention centre population to have a high level of emotional upset, there could have been no psychological assessment of this population at the time of If there was, however, then the sentencing magistrate was ill-advised to send such boys to the detention centre. Banks (1966) makes the suggestion that the courts might be helped by having more specialised information. "A good educational psychologist, trained and experienced in recognising handicaps, working with the probation service and having discretion to refer cases for further medical and psychiatric investigation, could do a great deal to reduce the number of rather pathetic misfits who, it seems, find their way into a regime designed primarily for the mentally and physically fit." This undoubtedly would be a step in the right direction, but a more radical innovation would be to confine the magistrate to a finding of guilt and leave the placement and treatment aspects of the sentencing process to a trained professional or informed panel.

The appropriateness of the detention centre regime, however, is another matter of interest. Banks (1966) described the situation where over 20% of the boys in her study were sent to detention centre when they were not psychologically suited to the regime as a "disturbing fact". How much more disturbing is the situation when the vast majority of the population demonstrate a high degree of emotional upset? The obvious conclusion is

that many of the boys were inappropriately sentenced to an unsuitable regime. To suggest that they be sent elsewhere, however, is impracticable since there is at present no other unit equipped to cater for such a psychologically disturbed population. The question must now be raised whether the number of boys who are not particularly disturbed, and who may therefore presumably benefit from the present detention centre regime, is sufficiently large to justify its retention in the present form which explicitly precludes any therapeutic component, or whether it would not be more practical to introduce an alternative regime. On the evidence of this study it is clear that while the courts continue to send, to detention centres, boys with offence related characteristics similar to those reported here, then there is an urgent need to develop a treatment facility of some form in this centext.

It is not the place of a lawyer to comment on the kind of treatment facilities that psychologists and psychiatrists might set up for this population. It is, however, within the lawyer's remit to draw attention to these aspects of the inadequacy of the present philosophical and statutory basis of the Detention Centre.

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GLENOCHIL DETENTION CENTRE DAILY ROUTINE

TATALANTEN A TEN

		WEEKDAYS
5.45	a.m.	Reveille. Inmates wakened by night patrol.
6.00	a.m.	Staff on duty. Rooms opened. Inmates wash dress P.T. kit.
6.10	a.m.	Tea issue.
6.15	a.m.	A wing P.T. or drill. Three groups 10 mins. each group. One group P.T. or drill whilst other groups wash and shave.
		B wing as above in turn.
7.00	a.m.	Breakfast.
7.30	a.m.	To rooms and change for work.
7.45	a.m.	To parade ground.
8.00	a.m.	Inspection by P.O. and parties to work.
10.00	a.m.	Break for falling out.
10.10	a.m.	Return to work parties.
11.40	a.m.	Cease work.
12.00	p.m.	Dinner.
12.30	p.m.	To rooms and change for work.
12.45	p.m.	To parade ground.
1.00	p.m.	Inspection by Warden. Thereafter to work parties.
3.00	p.m.	Break for falling out.
3.10	p.m.	Return to work parties.
4.25	p.m.	Cease work. Wash and change for tea.
4.45	p.m.	Tea
5.15	p.m.	Staff to tea.
6.00	p.m.	Prepare for evening classes.
6.25	p.m.	Evening classes or organised games.
8.00	p.m.	Classes cease. Recreation until -
8.30	p.m.	Supper.
9.00	p.m.	Staff off duty.
9.30	p.m.	Lights out.

Each inmate will leave his work party during the day for approximately one hour's physical training.

New admissions will have marching drill for 30 minutes daily for approximately 5 days or until such time as they are proficient.

SATU	RDAY			WEEKENDS
	a.m.	to	As per week days.	
	a.m.	to	Staff to breakfast.	
8.45	a.m.		House cleaning.	
10.00	a.m.		Break	
10.10	a.m.		Laundry changing and trouser pressing.	
11.30	a.m.		Wash and change for dinner.	200
12.00	p.m.		Dinner	
12.45	p.m.		To rooms preparing for games etc.	
1.45	p.m.		Organised games and visits.	
3.45	p.m.		Wash and change for tea.	
4.30	p.m.		Tea	
5.30	p.m.		Reading period.	
6.00	p.m.		B.B.C. news and sports results.	
6.30	p.m.		To rooms clothes pressing and repairs.	
7.30	p.m.		Recreation or silent reading if preferred.	
8.30	p.m.		Supper	
8.45	p.m.		To rooms.	
9.00	p.m.		Staff off duty.	
9.30	p.m.		Lights out.	
SUNDA	Y			
	a.m.	+0		
	a.m.		As per week days.	
7.30	a.m.	to	R.C. Service.	
8.30 9.00	a.m.	to	C. of S. Service.	
9.15	a.m.	to	Staff to breakfast	
10.30	a.m.		Parade. Inspection by Warden. Rooms inspect: Warden. Letter writing.	lon by
12.00	p.m.		Dinner	
12.45	p.m.		To rooms preparing for games. Visits. Letter	writing.

1.45 p.m.	Games and visits.
3.15 p.m.	C. of S. and R.C. Bible class.
4.15 p.m.	Wash and change for tea.
4.30 p.m.	Tea
5.30 p.m.	Reading period.
6.00 p.m.	Shower all inmates.
7.00 p.m.	Recreation.
8.30 p.m.	Supper
8.45 p.m.	To rooms.

Staff off duty.

Lights out.

9.00 p.m.

9.30 p.m.

PERSONALITY QUESTIONNAIRE (HDHQ)

1.	Most people make friends because friends are likely to be useful to them.	True	False
2.	I do not blame a person for taking advantage of someone who lays himself open to it.	True	False
3.	I usually expect to succeed in things I do.	True	False
4.	I have no enemies who really wish to harm me.	True	False
5.	I wish I could get over worrying about things I have said that may have injured other people's feelings.	True	False
6.	I think nearly anyone would tell a lie to keep out of trouble.	True	False
7.	I don't blame anyone for trying to grab everything he can get in this world.	True	False
8.	My hardest battles are with myself.	True	False
9.	I know who, apart from myself, is responsible for most of my troubles.	True	False
10.	Some people are so bossy that I feel like doing the opposite of what they request, even though I know they are right.	True	False
11.	Some of my family have habits that bother and annoy me very much.	True	False
12.	I believe my sins are unpardonable.	True	False
13.	I have very few quarrels with members of my family.	True	False
14.	I have often lost out on things because I couldn't make up my mind soon enough.	True	False
15.	I can easily make other people afraid of me, and sometimes do for the fun of it.	True	False
16.	I believe I am a condemned person.	True	False
17.	In school I was sometimes sent to the principal for misbehaving.	True	False

18.	I have at times stood in the way of people who were trying to do something, not because it amounted to much but because of the principle of the thing.	True	False
19.	Most people are honest chiefly through fear of being caught.	True	False
20.	Sometimes I enjoy hurting persons I love.	True	False
21.	I have not lived the right kind of life.	True	False
22.	Sometimes I feel as if I must injure either myself or someone else.	True	False
23.	I seem to be about as capable and clever as most others around me.	True	False
24.	I sometimes tease animals.	True	False
25.	I get angry sometimes.	True	False
26.	I am entirely self-confident.	True	False
27.	Often I can't understand why I have been so cross and grouchy.	True	False
28.	I shrink from facing a crisis or difficulty.	True	False
29.	I think most people would lie to get ahead.	True	False
30.	I have sometimes felt that difficulties were piling up so high that I could not overcome them.	True	False
31.	If people had not had it in for me I would have been much more successful.	True	False
32.	I have often found people jealous of my good ideas, just because they had not thought of them first.	True	False
33.	Much of the time I feel as if I have done something wrong or evil.	True	False
34.	I have several times given up doing a thing because I thought too little of my ability.	True	False
35.	Someone has it in for me.	True	False
36.	When someone does me a wrong I feel I should pay him back if I can, just for the principle of the thing.	True	False

37.	I am sure I get a raw deal from life.	True	False
38.	I believe I am being followed.	True	False
39.	At times I have a strong urge to do something harmful or shocking.	True	False
40.	I am easily downed in an argument.	True	False
41.	It is safer to trust nobody.	True	False
42.	I easily become impatient with people.	True	False
43.	At times I think I am no good at all.	True	False
44.	I commonly wonder what hidden reason another person may have for doing something nice for me.	True	False
45.	I get angry easily and then get over it soon.	True	False
46.	At times I feel like smashing things.	True	False
47.	I believe I am being plotted against.	True	False
48.	I certainly feel useless at times.	True	False
49.	At times I feel like picking a fist fight with someone.	True	False
50.	Someone has been trying to rob me.	True	False
51.	I am certainly lacking in self-confidence.	True	False

INTERPERSONAL PERSONALITY INVENTORY (IPI)

- 1. My parents wanted me to "make good" in the world.
- 2. If I were a millionaire I am sure I could get anything I want.
- 3. I would never go out of my way to help another person if it meant giving up some personal pleasure.
- 4. I would rather have the respect of other people than be rich.
- 5. He who laughs last laughs loudest and longest.
- 6. Most people would be better off if they never went to school at all.
- 7. Actually I am not as sensitive as I think the average person is.
- 8. I get angry sometimes.
- 9. If I saw some children hurting another child I am sure I would try to make them stop.
- 10. Voting is nothing but a nuisance.
- 11. It isn't too important to me whether other people like me or not.
- 12. Compromising with others with a different religion or ideals is the same as lowering your own standards.
- 13. The main satisfactions a man gets from the job usually are in the terms of the kind of people he has to work with.
- 14. Everyone naturally loves his parents because they are his parents.
- 15. I get upset fairly often while locked up in a place like this.
- 16. I have very few quarrels with members of my family.
- 17. I do not read every editorial in the newspaper every day.
- 18. Man is powerless in the hands of fate.
- 19. I have learned that everyone really knows right from wrong so there is no need for argument.
- 20. I often think "I wish I were a child again".

- 21. There are times when I have been discouraged.
- 22. There is a good type and a bad type that almost all people can be separated into.
- 23. I usually try to do what is expected of me and to avoid criticism.
- 24. I would rather be a steady and dependable worker than a brilliant but unstable one.
- 25. I have often met people who were supposed to be experts who were no better than I.
- 26. Policemen "bawl out" people largely to satisfy their own sense of importance.
- 27. I feel about my parents the same now as I did when I was a child.
- 28. I don't really care much for reading newspaper stories about crime or criminals.
- 29. Most young people get too much education.
- 30. I hardly ever ask other people for advice.
- 31. In school most teachers treated me fairly and honestly.
- 32. I always follow the rule that what people don't know won't hurt them.
- 33. I like everyone I know.
- 34. Actually the most important single thing for a man to give his family is good support so that they will have all the things they need.
- 35. I have enjoyed listening to symphony music.
- 36. Sometimes when I am not feeling well I am cross.
- 37. I could be perfectly happy without a single friend.
- 38. Sometimes I find myself admiring certain people a great deal.
- 39. I can see no reason why a person would ever vote to increase his own taxes.
- 40. It would be kind of dumb to vote for increasing your own taxes.
- 41. I have been angry at one or more people in my life.
- 42. It is returning to our forgotten and glorious past that real social progress can be achieved.

- 43. I don't like poetry.
- 44. I have sometimes slacked off on my duties when I thought I could get away with it.
- 45. I admire anyone in authority.
- 46. I must admit that people sometimes disappoint me.
- 47. Women should stay out of politics.
- 48. To become really civilized we should know about great stories and art.
- 49. When in a group of people I have trouble thinking of the right things to talk about.
- 50. I doubt if anyone is really happy.
- 51. All is fair in love and war.
- 52. In most groups I am in I usually handle some of the leadership responsibility.
- 53. If a child is unusual in any way his parents should get him to be more like other children.
- 54. I certainly feel useless at times.
- 55. I never seem to get hungry.
- 56. In most groups I am in I usually accept some of the leadership responsibility.
- 57. Sometimes at elections I vote for men about whom I know very little.
- 58. I don't feel critical about my father and mother and don't remember that I ever did.
- 59. People seem to ask my advice on decisions fairly often.
- 60. I would cheerfully do any job to which I was ordered regardless of how sensible it seemed to me.
- 61. I never worry much about politics and war.
- 62. I always tell the truth.
- 63. Sometimes I forget things that I've been told.
- 64. I have always spoken in the same way.

- 65. It is very important to me to find out what makes people "tick".
- 66. Some people exaggerate their troubles in order to get sympathy.
- 67. I almost never go to sleep.
- 68. I would rather win than lose in a game.
- 69. A person who won't take the responsibility of others will never grow up.
- 70. I would fight if someone tried to take my rights away.
- 71. I cannot do anything well.
- 72. People can be divided into two distinct classes; the weak and the strong.
- 73. Sometimes I've felt resentment when told to do something.
- 74. I gossip a little at times.
- 75. If I hadn't such bad luck I would be a lot better off today.
- 76. Off-hand I can't think of anyone I really admire.
- 77. I never have any trouble breaking with or dropping a friend.
- 78. People usually make friends because they know they may need friends later on to help.
- 79. Sometimes I feel like swearing.
- 80. Once in a while I put off until tomorrow what I ought to do today.
- 81. I do not like to loan my things to people who are careless in the way they take care of them.
- 82. It is impossible for an honest man to get ahead in the world.
- 83. I can't see that answering all these questions is going to be of any use to anybody.
- 84. Sometimes I've known authority to be wrong.
- 85. The Bible should be understood as meaning exactly what it says.
- 86. I don't think I have ever had the problem of thinking faster than I could speak.
- 87. There should be a fixed sentence decided on in advance and published for each offence.

- 88. Once in a while I laugh at a dirty joke.
- 89. It would make me feel terrible if I thought I had been mean to somebody.
- 90. Education is more important than most people think.
- 91. A person should not be expected to do anything for his community unless he is paid for it.
- 92. Standing up for the rights of others is everyone's duty.
- 93. Nowadays more and more people are prying into matters that should remain personal and private.



16 P. F.

WHAT TO DO: Some tests tell us what you can do best, but this one helps us know you better. Since no two people are the same, there are no right or wrong answers to most of these questions, but only what is true for you.

You have a separate answer sheet. On the ANSWER SHEET, there is a number for each question and by the number there are two little boxes, like this: \Box \Box . Mark your answer for each question by putting an X in one of the boxes to show the side that fits you better, LIKE THIS:

EXAMPLES:

1. Would you rather		
play baseball	or	go fishing

If you would rather play baseball, mark the first box, the left one, like this: \square . If you would rather go fishing, mark the second box, the right-hand one, like this: \square \square .

2. Do you like to play			
jokes on people	or	do you not	like to do that
If you like to play joke	es on peop	ole, mark the	first box, the left
one, like this: 🗷 □.			
the second box the right-			M

3. After 2, 3, 4, 5, does 6 come next or does 7 come next

In this last example, there is a right answer. It is the one on the left. But there are very few questions like this.

Inside there are more questions like these. When you are told to, start with number 1 and answer the questions. Keep these three things in mind:

- 1. Give only true answers about yourself. It will help you more to say what you really think.
- 2. You may have as much time as you need, but go fairly fast. Give the first answer that comes to you and do not spend too much time on any question.
- 3. Do not skip any questions. Answer every question one way or the other.

DO NOT TURN PAGE UNTIL TOLD TO DO SO

1.	Would you rather help children play games	or	help fix watches
2.	Is ½ of 7 closer to 3	or	closer to 5
3.	Do you always feel like doing what you planned	or	do you ever plan things and then not feel like doing them
4.	Is it fun to tell an obvious lie with a straight face	or	could you never do that
5.	Do you like to tell jokes	or	do you not like to do that
6.	Are you a strict person who does everything as well as possible	or	do you do some things just well enough to get by
7.	Do you show up well in social things	or	would you rather stay quietly out of the way
8.	Would you rather be an artist	or	a mechanic
9.	Do you make smart remarks that hurt people's feelings when they deserve it	or	do you never do that
10.	If you were good at both would you rather bowl	or	play chess
11.	After a busy day do you fall asleep easily	or	do ideas keep running through your mind
12.	Do you have times when you feel sorry for yourself	or	does that never happen to you
13.	If you had a lot of money to give away would you give it to science research	or	would you give it to a church
14.	When you are on a train or bus would you rather look out of the window	or	talk to people
15.	If a man wears a beard and dresses sloppily would you stay away from him	or	might he be nice to know
16.	When someone is bad tempered toward you, do you get over it quickly	or.	does it bother you for some time

17.	In an office would you rather see people	or	draw house plans
18.	After 3, 5, 7, 9, does 11 come next	or	does 10 come next
19.	When people don't listen to you, do you get impatient	or	does it not bother you
20.	Most of the time would you rather "play it safe"	or	take a chance
21.	Would you rather spend an evening quietly at home	or	at a lively party
22.	Do you avoid saying things that bother people	or	do you sometimes like to
23.	Are you the one who gets the party going	or	do you wait for someone else to do it
24.	Are you always glad to fix mechanical things	or	would you rather sit around and talk
25.	Do you think that most people tell the truth even if it might hurt them	or	do they tell the truth only when it won't hurt them
26.	When there is hard work to do, do you try to take rest breaks more than most people	or	less than most people
27.	Can you stand things to be all mixed up	or	does it bother you
28.	Do you ever feel that there is danger without any good reason	or	do you never feel that way
29.	Would it be better if everyone went to church regularly	or	is that not too important
30.	Do you like to take an active part in social things and committee work	or	are you most interested in things that you can do by yourself
31.	Do your friends sometimes think your mind is not on what you are doing	or	do they never think that
32.	Are you almost never jealous	or	are you often jealous

33.	Does it bother you to be the center of interest in a group of people	or	do you like it
34.	If John is taller than Bill and Mike is shorter than Bill, is Bill the tallest	or	is John the tallest
35.	Do people misunderstand you when you mean well	or	does that never happen
36.	Do you sometimes speak angrily to your parents	or	is it wrong to do that
37.	Do you like things to be quiet	or	do you always like exciting things
38.	Do you think people need to observe the rules more strictly	or	that they need to have greater freedom
39.	Do you feel shy in front of people when you need to talk	or	can you usually stand right up and talk
40.	Would you rather be a good musician	or	a good soldier
41.	When people are unreasonable do you keep quiet	or	do you feel a strong dislike for them
42.	Would you rather be a book-keeper	or	an artist
43.	Does it bother you if people think you are odd or strange	or	does it not bother you at all
44.	Even in the middle of a group of people do you sometimes feel lonely and worthless	or	do you almost always feel good
45.	Do we need more attention to old well-tried ideas about social matters	or	more calm thinking of a new kind
46.	Are you always glad to get to- gether with a group of people	or	would you rather do things your own way when you want to
47.	Do you often jump into things too fast	or	do you take your time
48.	Do you get very sad about little things	or	is that never a problem for you

49.	Would you rather take care of		
	trees in a forest	or	teach children in a school
50.	Does little mean the same as thin	or	the same as small
51.	Do you often get angry with people too quickly	or	are you slow to get angry
52.	Would you rather do without something than put a waiter to a lot of extra trouble	or	do you feel that extra trouble is part of his job
53.	Do you like to be serious most of the time	or	are you happy and laughing most of the time
54.	Do you just ignore messy streets	or	do they bother you
55.	Would you rather have a job where you work by yourself	or	a job where you had to go to one meeting after another
56.	Would you rather be a school-teacher	or	a great hunter
57.	When a person is not doing the		
	right thing do you show him up even if it takes some trouble	or	do you just let it go
58.		or	do you just let it go fix the machines when they break down
58. 59.	even if it takes some trouble Would you rather hire workers to run machines		
	even if it takes some trouble Would you rather hire workers to run machines Should we live more by the rules of the group	or	fix the machines when they break down
59.	even if it takes some trouble Would you rather hire workers to run machines Should we live more by the rules of the group Are you afraid of something for no particular reason	or or	fix the machines when they break down by our own ideas
59.60.61.	even if it takes some trouble Would you rather hire workers to run machines Should we live more by the rules of the group Are you afraid of something for no particular reason Do you think that new ideas make old-time preachers look	or or	fix the machines when they break down by our own ideas do you never feel that way
59.60.61.	Would you rather hire workers to run machines Should we live more by the rules of the group Are you afraid of something for no particular reason Do you think that new ideas make old-time preachers look silly Would you rather spend a holiday in a quiet place	or or	fix the machines when they break down by our own ideas do you never feel that way are the new ideas silly
59.60.61.62.	Would you rather hire workers to run machines Should we live more by the rules of the group Are you afraid of something for no particular reason Do you think that new ideas make old-time preachers look silly Would you rather spend a holiday in a quiet place Is it all right to leave beds un-	or or or	fix the machines when they break down by our own ideas do you never feel that way are the new ideas silly in a resort

65.	Would you rather have a house alone in the deep woods	or	where lots of people live
66.	After 2, 4, 6, 8, does 10 come next	or	does 9 come next
67.	Do little things get on your nerves a lot	or	are little things not important
68.	Do you sometimes say things that hurt people's feelings	or	do you try very hard never to do that
69.	Do you like to make people laugh with funny stories	or	do you not like to do that
70.	Is it very important to follow all rules	or	are there some rules you should not follow
71.	Is it easy to go up and meet an important person	or	would you rather not
72.	In a play would you rather be a jet pilot	or	a famous writer
73.	When someone is unreasonable and narrow-minded, are you still polite	or	do you show him up
74.	Can people change your mind by appeals to your feelings	or	do your feelings not have anything much to do with what you think
75.	When someone corrects you or blames you for something, do you try to show you are right	or	do you accept the blame
76.	Would you rather be the one in charge of a group of people	or	just be one of the group
77.	Do you like thinking games better	or	do you like sports better
78.	Can you spend a whole morning without wanting to speak to anybody	or	would you never feel like that
79.	Are you a practical person	or	more of a dreamer
80.	Do you feel comfortable and calm	or	are you often upset

81.	Would you rather teach children about their own feelings	or	build a new building
82.	After N, P, R, T, V, does X come next	or	does W come next
83.	Do your feelings usually come from what is going on around you	or	do you get strong feelings that come without any real cause
84.	If you have to tell someone a lie do you have to look away	or	can you look at him
85.	Do you really enjoy all large groups of people such as parties or dances	or	would you rather be alone much of
86.	Do you usually do what you		the time
	want to do	or	what will be best for other people
87.	When you join a new group does it take some time to fit in	or	do you fit in right away
88.	Would you rather have a job writing children's books	or	fixing electrical machines
89.			
	are honest only because they are afraid of getting caught	or	that most people would be honest anyway
90.	Can you take either side in an argument just to be sure that all sides are thought about	or	would you not want to take the side you didn't believe in
	argument just to be sure that	or	
	argument just to be sure that all sides are thought about Are you always careful to believe only half of what you read		you didn't believe in can you depend upon the things you
91.	argument just to be sure that all sides are thought about Are you always careful to believe only half of what you read When someone fusses at you in public does it not bother you	or	you didn't believe in can you depend upon the things you read
91.	argument just to be sure that all sides are thought about Are you always careful to believe only half of what you read When someone fusses at you in public does it not bother you too much Do you think we need stricter	or	you didn't believe in can you depend upon the things you read do you get very embarrassed and upset
91. 92. 93.	argument just to be sure that all sides are thought about Are you always careful to believe only half of what you read When someone fusses at you in public does it not bother you too much Do you think we need stricter laws about Sunday Would you rather paint pictures Do you like to make plans so that you will not waste time	or or or	you didn't believe in can you depend upon the things you read do you get very embarrassed and upset more freedom to do what we like run a social club
91. 92. 93.	argument just to be sure that all sides are thought about Are you always careful to believe only half of what you read When someone fusses at you in public does it not bother you too much Do you think we need stricter laws about Sunday Would you rather paint pictures Do you like to make plans so	or or	you didn't believe in can you depend upon the things you read do you get very embarrassed and upset more freedom to do what we like

97.	Do people say you talk too much	or	are you quiet
98.	After 3, 6, 12, 24, does 36 come next	or	does 48 come next
99.	When you get upset do you cool down again very quickly	or	does it take a while to calm down
100.	In a strange city would you stay away from the parts of town that people say are dangerous	or	would you walk any place you wanted
101.	Do people say that you are a serious person	or	that you are happy-go-lucky
102.	Do you feel that some jobs do not need doing so well as others	or	that any job should be done as well as you can
103.	Do you find it hard to speak to a large group of people	or	do you like it
104.	Would you rather read about battles and war	or	about people's feelings
105.	If someone gets mad and yells at you, do you stay quiet and calm	or	do you yell back
106.	Do you like to tackle problems that other people have made a mess of	or	would you rather start from the beginning
107.	Do you think we should be very slow to lose the wisdom of the past	or	should we move faster to try new things
108.	Do your friends think you have many new ideas	or	that you are good at following the ideas of others
109.	If you had more money than you need, would you keep it in case you need it later	or	would you give some to a church
110.	Would you rather work with a committee	or	on your own
111.	Are you a person who gets things done	or	a dreamer
112.	When you are going to catch a train or a bus do you get tense and nervous	or	do you feel you have enough time

113.	In your spare time would you rather join a hiking club	or	a club that helps people
114.	Is red more like blue	or	more like orange
115.	Do you always have lots of energy when you need it	or	do you often feel too tired
116.	Are you critical of other people's work	or	are you not like that
117.	Do people say you are lively	or	do they say you are quiet
118.	Do you think that most people take life too seriously	or	not seriously enough
119.	Do you speak your mind no matter how many people are around	or	do you hold back when a lot of people are around
120.	Would you rather fix machines that don't work	or	think about what life means
121.	If a neighbor cheats you in some small thing, would you rather		
	show him up	Of	just let it go
122	show him up	or	just let it go
122.	•	or	just let it go would you not like that kind of work
122. 123.	Would you like to be a writer about music and plays		
	Would you like to be a writer about music and plays Would you rather ride in a car with someone else driving	or	would you not like that kind of work
123. 124.	Would you like to be a writer about music and plays Would you rather ride in a car with someone else driving When the teacher calls your name are you glad to show	or	would you not like that kind of work do you like to drive a car are you afraid you have done
123. 124.	Would you like to be a writer about music and plays Would you rather ride in a car with someone else driving When the teacher calls your name are you glad to show what you can do Do you think our country should keep its army strong	or or	would you not like that kind of work do you like to drive a car are you afraid you have done something wrong that we should depend on good will
123. 124. 125.	Would you like to be a writer about music and plays Would you rather ride in a car with someone else driving When the teacher calls your name are you glad to show what you can do Do you think our country should keep its army strong Do you like to be active in	or or	would you not like that kind of work do you like to drive a car are you afraid you have done something wrong that we should depend on good will among all countries
123. 124. 125.	Would you like to be a writer about music and plays Would you rather ride in a car with someone else driving When the teacher calls your name are you glad to show what you can do Do you think our country should keep its army strong Do you like to be active in social things If someone gets mad at you would you get upset too	or or or	would you not like that kind of work do you like to drive a car are you afraid you have done something wrong that we should depend on good will among all countries would you rather be alone



NAME									
AGE (Neares	st Year)	SEX (M or F)		_ DATE _				
OTHER (Add	dress, Occupatio	n, etc.)							
/2				INSTR	UCTIONS				
	Mark your o Be sure the Make each	number is	the same	as the que				est booklet.	Do not w
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	3 🗆 🗆	19	35 🗆 🗀		67 🗆 🗆	83 🗆 🗀	99		C
	5	21 🗆 🗆	38 🗆 🗆	54 🗌 🔲	70 🗆 🗆	86 🗌 🗎		118 🗆 🗀	F
	7 🗆 🗆	23 🗌 🗎	39 🗌 🗎	56 🗆 🗆	71 🗆 🗆	87 🗆 🗆	104		H
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	13 🗆 🗆	29 🗆 🗆	45 🗆 🗆	61 🗆 🗆	77 🗆 🗀	93 🗆 🗆	109 🗆 🗆	125 🗆 🗆	Q ₁
	15	31	47	63	79	95 🗆 🗆 96 🗆 🗆 End of Page	111 🗌 🔲 112 🔲 🖂 End of Page	127	Q ₃

Factor	Cluster	Mean	S.D.	t.val.	%P
Fake Bad (IPI)	1 2	4.36 6.41	2.21 2.90	-2.90	<1
Comparison of Cluster 1 with	Cluster 3				
L (Suspicious)	1 3	6.15 7.32	2.27	-2.25	>2
A.H. (Acting out Hostility)	1 3	6.31 7.89	2.49	-2.86	<1
Direction of Hostility	1 3	-1.67 -5.79	6.29 7.29	2.66	>1
Sum E	1 3	15.79 18.08	4.41 5.2	-2.09	<5
Comparison of Cluster 1 with	Cluster 4				
L (Suspicious)	1 4	6.15 7.86	2.27	-2.52	<2
Sum E	1 4	15.79 18.79	4.41 4.39	-2.19	<5
Comparison of Cluster 1 with	Cluster 7				
A.H. (Acting out Hostility)	1 7	6.31 8.75	2.49	-2.57	>1
P.H. (Paranoid Hostility)	7	2.72 4.5	1.57	-2.72	<1
Fake Bad (IPI)	1 7	4.36 6.5	2.21 2.78	-2.40	>2
Sum I	7	8.87 13.38	3.46 11.25	-2.13	<5
Comparison of Cluster 1 with	Cluster 9	ned S			
I (Tender minded)	1 9	4.28 7.0	1.59	-2.30	>2
Maturity level	9 1 9	29 . 15	5.46 4.24	2.32	>2

Comparison	of	Cluster	2	with	Cluster 3.	
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Cluster	Mean	S.D.	t.val.	%P
2	5.12	1.87	2.40	<2
3	3.79	1.91		
2	5.65	1.90	-2.63	1
3				
2			2.31	>2
3				200
2			2.27	>2
3	7.53	3.64		
h Gluster 5				*
2			-2.25	<2
5				
2	- 200 C/E - 200 C/U			
5	5.03	2.08	2.2	>2
h Gluster 6				
2	5.94	1.75	-2.26	>2
6	7.1	1.37		
2	28.47	4.78	2.39	<2
9	20	4.24		
h Cluster 5				
3	3.79	1.91	-3.91	<0.1
3			2.60	>1
5				
3	THE CONTRACTOR OF THE PARTY OF		-2.29	>2
5				
5			-2.05	>2
3			2.06	<5
6	6.05	2.11		
	2 3 2 3 2 3 2 3 2 3 2 3 3 2 3 3 5 3 5 3	2 5.12 3 3.79 2 5.65 3 7.32 2 6.41 3 4.79 2 11.82 3 7.53 h Gluster 5. 2 5.94 5 6.77 2 6.41 5 5.03 h Cluster 6. 2 28.47 9 20 h Cluster 5. 3 3.79 5 5.07 7.89 5 6.65 3 -5.79 5 -2.32 7.53 5 8.97	2 5.12 1.87 3 3.79 1.91 2 5.65 1.90 3 7.32 2.29 2 6.41 2.90 3 4.79 2.16 2 11.82 10.4 3 7.53 3.64 h Gluster 5. 2 5.94 1.75 5 6.77 1.21 2 6.41 2.90 5 5.03 2.08 h Gluster 6. 2 5.94 1.75 6 7.1 1.37 h Cluster 9. 2 28.47 4.78 9 20 4.24 h Gluster 5. 3 3.79 1.91 5 5.07 1.33 7.89 2.35 5 6.65 2.27 3 7.89 2.35 5 6.65 2.27 3 7.53 3.64 5 8.97 3.21	2 5.12 1.87 2.40 3 3.79 1.91 2 5.65 1.90 -2.65 3 7.32 2.29 2 6.41 2.90 2.31 3 4.79 2.16 2 11.82 10.4 2.27 3 7.53 3.64

Factor	Cluster	Mean	S.D.	t.val.	%P
Sum I	3 7	7-53	3.64	-2.69	>1
	7	13.38	11.25		
Comparison of Cluster 3 w	ith Cluster 9.				
L (Suspicious)	3	7.32	2.29	2.30	>2
	3 9 3	3.5	2,12		
Maturity level	3	29	3.82	3.09	<2
	9	20	4.24		
Comparison of Cluster 4 w	ith Cluster 5.				
C (Emotionally stable)	4	4.14	1.46	-2.31	2
	5 4	5.07	1.33		
L (Suspicious)	4	7.86	1.88	2.23	>2
	5	6.63	1.85		
	14.8 14.98				
Comparison of Cluster 4 w	ith Cluster 6.		1		
L (Suspicious)	4	7.86	1.88	2.57	<2
	6	6.05	2.11		
Comparison of Cluster 4 w	ith Cluster 9.				
L (Suspicious)	4	7.86	1.88	3.04	<1
- (9	3.5	2.12		
Maturity level	4	29	3.82	3.09	<1
	9	20	4.24		
		M A			
Comparison of Cluster 5 w	ith Cluster 6.		* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *		
C (Emotionally stable)	5	5.07	1.33	2.16	<5
	5 6 5	4.3	1.53		
G (Conscientious)	5	3.92	1.73	2.33	>2

>2

Comparison of Cluster 5 with Cluster 7.	Comparison	of	Cluster	5	with	Cluster	7.
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Factor	Cluster	Mean	S.D.	t.val.	%P
A.H. (Acting out Hostility)	5	6.65	2.27	-2.47	>1
	7	8.75	2.19		
P.H. (Paranoid Hostility)	5	2.73	1.84	-2.50	>1
	5	4.5	2.2		
Hostility	5	25.65	5.51	-2.66	>1
	7	31.13	5.25		
Sum I	5	8.97	3.21	-2.46	>1
	5 7 5 7	13.38	11.25	70000	100.00
Comparison of Cluster 5 wit	h Cluster 9	•			
L (Suspicious)	5	6.63	1.85	2.35	>2
- (9	3.5	2.12		
Maturity level	5	27.73	4.71	2.29	>2
	9	20	4.24		
			77-7		
Comparison of Cluster 6 wit	h Cluster 9				
I (Tender minded)	6	3.95	1.43	-2.69	<2
- (7.00	2.83		
Maturity level	9	30	4.86	2.79	>1
	9	20	4.24		
			77-7		
Comparison of Cluster 7 wit	h Cluster 9				
I (Tender minded)	7	4.0	1.31	-2.4	<5
a Anaman Cammani	9	7.0	2.83		
C.O. (Criticism of others)	7	8.0	1.51	2.69	>2
	9	5.0	0		
Direction of Hostility	7	-6.85	4.53	-2.89	2
	9	5.00	7.07		
Matarity level	7	30	1.2	6.75	<0.1
	9	20	4.24	0.12	

APPENDIX 4
Incidence of Social Characteristics for 3 Clusters

VARIABLE	01 N=77	C2 N=48	C3 N=75	% C1	% C2	% C3
Mean Age	17.66	17.85	18.09			
<u>Maritel status</u> Married		2	3	1.29	4.16	4.0
Single	76	46	72	98.70	95.84	96.0
Living at home Not living at home	75	43	72	94.81	89.58	96.0
			•		10.41	
Mother and father absent	5	0		2.59	0	1.3
Father at home	7	1	5	9.09	2.08	6.6
Mother at home	14	6	10	18.18	12.50	13.3
Both parents at home	54	41	59	70.12	85.41	78.6
Parents' absence permanent	22	6	15	28.57	12.50	20.0
Parents' absence intermittent	1			1.29	2.08	1.3
Father's work						
Skilled	10	14	17	12.98	29.16	22.6
Semi-skilled	28	12	14	36.36	25.00	18.6
Unskilled	15	11	16	19.48	22.91	21.3
Unemployed	5	1	11	6.49	2.08	14.6
Retired	2	0	3	2.59	0	4.0
Disabled	3	3	3	3.89	6.25	4.0
Attending hospital	2	4	3	2.59	8.33	4.0
Deceased		1	7	14.28	2.08	9.3
Don't know	1	2	1	1.29	4.16	1.3
Whether mother goes to work						
No	33	23	41	42.85	47.91	54.6
Part-time	21	17	17	27.27	35.41	22.6
Full-time	18	8	17	23.37	16.66	22.6
Deceased	5	0	0	6.49	0	0
Number of older brothers						
0	33	55	28	42.85	45.83	37.3
	22	16	28	28.57	33.33	37.3
2	12	7	14	15.58	14.58	18.6
3	6	3	3	7.79	6.25	4.0
4	3	0	2	3.89	0	2.6
5	0	0	0	0	0	0
6	1	0	0	1.29	0	0
7	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0	0	0
9	0	0	0	0	0	0
Average number older brothers	1.06	0.81	0.97			

VARIABLE	C.	C2	C3	%	95	%
	Ne 77	N=48	N= 75	CI	<u>G2</u>	C3
Number of schools attended						
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	7	2	5	9.09	4.16	6.66
2	37	19	32	48.05	39.58	42.66
3	19	18	16	24.67	37.50	21.33
4	8	3	11	23.37	6.25	14.6
5	3	2	7	3.89	4.16	9.3
6		2	3	1.29	4.16	4.0
7	0	2	1	0	4.16	1.33
8	1	0	0	1.29	0	0
9		0	0	1.29	0	0
Average number schools attended	2.70	2.96	2.94			
Age on leaving school						
14 years	- 1	1	0	1.29	2.08	0
15 "	70	44	69	90.91	91.66	92.0
16 "	6	2	5	7.79	4.16	6.6
17 "	0	1	0	0	2.08	0
18 "	0	0	1	0	0	1.3
Subject has a trade	16	15	13	20.77	31.25	17.3
Subject has no trade	61	33	62	79.22	68.75	82.6
						1775
Last job Not applicable		0	0	1.29	0	0
Skilled	15	16	13	19.48	33.33	17.3
Semi-skilled	10	9	13	12.98	18.75	17.3
Unskilled	51	23	49	66.23	47.91	65.3
		20	72	40.20	47.21	00.5
Length of unemployment						
prior to sentence						
Not applicable	59	34	53	76.62	70.83	70.60
0 - 2 months	5	5	9	6.49	10.41	12.0
2 - 3 "	5	4	6	6.49	8.33	8.0
3 - 6 "	4	3	6	5.19	6.25	8.00
6 - 12 "	3	2	0	3.89	4.16	0
12 - 15 "	1	0	1	1.29	0	1.33
2 years	0	0	0	0	0	0
Number of younger brothers						
0	39	14	24	50.64	29.16	32.00
	16	14	21	20.77	29.16	28.00
2	12	11	16	15.58	22.91	21.33
3	6	7	6	7.79	14.58	8.00
4	3	1	5	3.89	2.08	6.66
5	0	1	1	0	2.08	1.33
6	1	0	2	1.29	0	2.66
7	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0	0	0
9	0	0	0	0	0	0
verage number younger brothers	0.98	1.37	1.31			

VARTABLE	C1 N=77	C2 N=48	C3 N=75	% CI	% C2	% C3
Number of older sisters						
0	34	20	31	44.15	41.66	41.33
1.	24	16	23	31.16	33.33	30.66
2	12	8	11	15.58	16.66	14.66
3	4	3	7	5.19	6.25	9.33
4	i	0	3	1.29	0	4.00
5		0	0	1.29	0	0
6	,	0	0	1.29	0	0
7	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0	0	0
9	0	·	0	0	2.08	0
Average number older sisters	0.97	1.04	1.04		2.00	٠
Number of younger sisters						
0	33	22	31	42.85	45.83	41.3
	33	9	16	42.85	18.75	21.3
2	4	8	19	5.19	16.66	25.3
3	4	5	7	5.19	10.41	9.3
4	3	i	2	3.89	2.03	2.6
5	0	0	0	0	0	0
6	0	i	0	0	2.08	0
7	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	0	2	0	0	-	0
9	0	0	0	0	4.16	0
Average number younger sisters	0.97	1.37	1.11		0	v
Average number of siblings	4.00	4.60	4.56			
Subject gets on well with family	70	43	73	90.91	89.58	97.3
Does not get on well	7	5	2	9.09	10.41	2.6
area where subject lives						
Ity centre	13	13	8	16.88	27.08	10.6
City outskirts	17	10	20	22.07	20.83	26.6
Fown	20	14	27	25.97	29.16	36.0
New Estate	16	11	12	20.77	22.91	16.0
Country district	10	0	8	12.98	0	10.6
Other	1	0	0	1.29	0	0
ength of stay in area						
0 - 6 months	0	1	3	0	2.08	4.0
6 - 12 "	1	2	3	1.29	4.16	4.0
1 year	2	1	0	2.59	2.08	0
2 "	3	2	3	3.89	4.16	4.0
3 - 5 years	9	6	4	11.68	12.50	5.3
5 - 10 "	8	8	11	10.38	16.66	14.6
10 + "	54	28	51	70.12	58.33	68.0

VARIABLE	CI	C2	63	%	*	%
	N=77	N=48	N= 75	CI	C2	C3
No. of times family has moved house						
0	13	5	11	16.88	10.41	14.66
	20	15	25	25.97	31.25	33.33
2	18	14	14	23.37	29.16	18.66
3	14	6	15	18.18	12.50	20.00
4	8	6	7	10.38	12.50	9.33
5		0	- 1	1.29	0	1.33
6	2	. 1	•	2.59	2.08	1.33
7	0	0		0	0	1.33
8	0	0	0	0	0	0
9		1	0	1.29	2.08	0
Average number	2.03	2.08	2.0			
Kind of sahool tast attended						
Junior Secondary	37	23	35	48.05	47.91	46.66
Senior Secondary	30	18	30	38.96	37.50	40.00
Fee-paying	0	0	2	0	0	2.66
Special	0	1	2	0	2.03	2.66
Approved	10	6	6	12.98	12.50	8.00
Number of jobs since school				- 1		
0				4 00	0	0
	1	0	0	1.29		
	9	5	3 7	11.68	10.41	4.00
3				9.09	14.58	9.33
	17	9	11	22.07	18.75	14.66
5	15	6	13	19.48	12.50	17.33
6	12	3	8	15.58	6.25	10.66
7	4	6	9	5.19	12.50	12.00
	2	4	12	2.59	8,33	16.00
9	3	2	4	3.89	4.16	5.33
	3	5		3.89	4.16	1.33
10	5	0	5	2.59	0	6.66
11	0	2	0	0	4.16	0
		0	1	1.29	0	1.33
18		0	0	1.29	0	0
16	0		0	0	2.08	0
23	0	1	0	0	2.08	0
	0	0		0	6	1.33
Average number	4.27	4.98	5.20			
Longest time in job						
No job		0	0	1.29	0	0
3 months	10	6	8	12.98	12.50	10.66
6 "	11	6	16	14.28	12.50	21.33
9 "	10	3	8	12.98	6.25	10.66
12 "	15	13	13	19.48	27.08	17.33
15 "	3	2	3	3.89	4.16	4.00
18 "	12	7	9	15.58	14.58	12.00
24 "	- 11	7	7	14.28	14.58	9.33
30 "		2	3	1.29	4.16	4.00
3 years	3	2	8	3.89	4.16	10.66

VARIABLE	C1 N=77	C2 N=48	C3	% C1	C2 %	%
	110 (1	11=45	N=75		02	C3
Offence for which sent to detention						
Violent	19	19	17	24.67	39.58	22.66
Property	28	18	34	36.36	37.50	45.33
Social nuisance	8	4	4	10.38	8.33	5.33
Sex	5	0	1	2.59	0	1.33
Car theft + R.T.A.	20	7	19	25.97	14.58	25.3
Drinking at time of offence	33	26	36	42.85	54.16	48.0
Not drinking	44	22	39	57.14	45.83	52.00
Subject often goes for drink	41	29	34	53.24	60.41	45.3
Not often	36	19	41	46.75	39.58	54.6
Subject drinks with friends	57	38	54	74.02	79.16	72.0
Subject drinks alone	2	0	1	2.59	0	1.3
Not applicable	18	10	20	23.37	20.83	26.6
Subject has close friends	68	46	60	88.31	95.84	80.0
Subject has no close friends	9	2	15	11.68	4.16	20.0
Alcohol consumed						
0	17	10	21	22.07	20.83	28.0
50 - 99 gma/ml.	5	4	1	6.49	8.33	1.3
100 - 199 "	21	3	10	27.27	6.25	13.3
200 - 299 "	14	7	15	18.18	14.58	20.0
300 - 399 "	- 11	7	8	14.28	14.58	10.6
400 - 499 "	4	5	12	5.19	10.41	16.0
500 - 599 "	1	3	5	1.29	6.25	6.6
600 "	4	5	3	5.19	10.41	4.0
700 "	0	1	0	0	2.08	0
800 "	0	3	0	0	6.25	0
Discipline <u>strict</u> at home	11	12	15	14.28	25.00	16.0
" fair " "	24	20	18	31.16	41.66	24.0
floose # #	42	16	45	54.54	33.33	60.0
Subject has companions at home	73	46	68	94.81	95.84	90.6
Subject has no companions	4	2	7	5.19	4.16	9.3
Bang member	29	28	24	37.66	58.33	32.0
Not gang member	48	20	51	62.33	41.66	68.0
Subject alone at offence	15	9	19	19.48	18.75	25.3
Subject not alone	62	39	56	80.51	81.25	74.6
Other offender in family	39	24	41	50.64	50.0	54.60
No other offender in family	38	24	34	49.36	50.0	45.33

VARIABLE	C1 N=77	C2 N=48	C3 N=75	% C1	% C2	% C3
Number of previous convictions	1			****		
0	3	2	0	3.89	4.16	0
	7	2	10	9.09	4.16	13.33
2	12	8	10	15.58	16.66	13.33
3	16	4	10	20.77	8.33	13.33
4	12	6	10	15.58	12.50	13.33
5	9	7	9	11.68	14.58	12.00
6	9	4	12	11.63	8.33	16.00
7	4	8	2	5.19	16.66	2.66
8	1	3	4	1.29	6.25	5.33
9		1	5	1.29	2.03	6.66
10	2	1	1	2.59	2.03	1.33
0	1	0	0	1.29	0	0
12	0	1	0	0	2.08	0
13	0		0	0	2.03	0
14	0	0	1	0	0	1.33
15	0	0	1	0	0	1.33
Average number	3.92	4.94	4.63			
Predominant type of						
previous conviction						
Violent		1	0	1.29	2.08	0
Property	30	19	28	39.96	39.58	37.33
Social nuisance	11	10	13	14.28	20.83	17.33
Sex	0	0	0	0	0	0
Car theft + R.T.A.	3	1	4	3.89	2.03	5.33
Mi xed	29	15	30	37.66	31.25	40.0
NII .	3	2	0	3.89	4.16	0
Previous Institutional treatment					1 1	4
Not applicable	57	30	60	74.02	62.50	80.0
Remand Home	8	7	5	10.38	14.58	6.66
Approved School	9	3	5	11.69	6.25	6.66
Borstal	0	1	0	0	2.08	0
Young Offenders Institution	0	1	1	0	2.08	1.33
Muttiple	3	6	4	3.89	12.50	5.33
Any	20	18	15	25.97	37.44	19.95
egal classification of offence						
Preaking	23	16	28	29.86	33.33	37.33
Theft	7	2	7	9.09	4.16	9.33
Theft of motor vehicle	18	6	15	23.37	12.50	19.95
Assault + Robbery	1	2	2	1.29	4.16	2.66
Assault	15	10	11	19.48	20.80	14.66
Breach of Peace/Disorderly behaviour	7	3	4	9.09	6.25	5.33
ontravention of Prevention						
of Crimes Act. 1953 s.l.	3	5	3	3.89	12.50	4.00
load Traffic Offenses	0	1	4	0	2.08	5.33
falicious offences	0		0	0	2.08	0
Sex offences	2			2.59	2.08	1.33
Breach of probation		0	0	1.29	0	0

APPENDIX 5
Incidence of Social Characteristics for 8 Clusters

VARIABLE	C1 N=52	G2 N=33	C3 N=23	C4 N=15	C5 N=23	C6 N=34	C7 N=18	C8 N=2
Mean Age	17.5	17.91	18.09	17.72	18	18.12	18.14	16.63
Marital status								
Married		2	0	0	1	0	2	0
Single	51	31	23	15	22	34	16	2
Subject lives at home	50	29	21	14	22	33	17	2
Not at home	2	4	2	1	1		1	0
Mother and father absent	1	0		0	- 1	0	0	0
Father at home	3	0	4	1	0	3	2	0
Mother at home	6	4	8	2	3	4	3	0
Both parents at home	42	29	10	12	19	27	13	5
Parents' absence permanent	9	4	13	2	4	6	5	0
Parents' absence Intermittent	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0
Father's work								
Skilled	9	10	1	4	6	5	6	0
Semi-skilled	18	9	10	3	2	9	3	0
Unskilled	11	8	3	3	4	8	4	1
Unemployed	4	0	1	1	2	7	2	0
Retired	2	0	0	0	1	2	0	0
Disabled	0	0	2	3	2	0	1	1
Attending hospital	2	3	0	1	3	0	0	0
Deceased	6	1	5	0	2	3	2	0
Don't know	0	2	- 1	0	•	0	0	0
Whether mother goes to work								
No	22	14	10	9	16	15	10	1
Part-time	16	13	4	4	3	9	5	1
Ful t-time	11	6	7	2	4	10	3	0
Deceased	3	0	5	0	0	0	0	0
Number of older brothers								
0	18	18	15	4	10	12	6	0
	19	10	2	6	9	11	8	1
2	9	5	3	2	4	8	2	0
3	3	0	3	3	0	2	1	0
4	3	0	0	0	0	•	1	0
5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Average number	1.12	0.61	0.74	1.27	0.74	1.09	0.94	3.5

VARIABLE	C1 N=52	C2 N=33	C3 N=23	C4 N=15	C5 N=23	C6 N=34	C7 N=18	C8 N=2
Number of younger brothers								
0	24	11	14	3	5	12	7	1
	10	8	6	6	6	10	5	0
2	10	8	2	3	5	9	2	0
3	5	5		2	3	1	2	0
	3	0	0	1	1	2	2	0
5	0		0	0		0	0	0
6	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	1
7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Average number	1.09	1.33	0.57	1.47	2.00	1.15	1.28	3.00
Number of older sisters								
0	22	15	12	5	13	11	7	0
1	16	13	6	3	5	12	6	2
2	9	3	3	5	3	6	2	0
3	3	1		2	2	3	2	0
	210	0	0	0	0	2	1	0
5	0	0		0	0	0	0	0
6	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Average number	1.02	0.94	0.87	1.27	0.74	1.21	1.11	1.00
Number of younger sisters								
0	23	15	9	7	10	12	9	1
	22	8	11	1	5	9	2	0
2	3	5	1	3	7	9	3	0
3	1	3	2	2	1	3	3	1
4	3	0	0	1	0	1	1	0
5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6	0	- 1	0	0	0	0	0	0
7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	0	- 1	0	1	0	0	0	0
9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Average number	0.83	1.24	0.83	1.67	0.96	1.18	1.17	1.5
Average number of slbtings	4.06	4.12	3.01	5.68	4.44	4.63	4.50	9.00
Subject gets on well with family	49	30	19	13	23	33	17	2
Subject does not	3	3	4	2	0	1	1	0
Area where subject lives								
City centre	8	10	4	3	1	4	3	1
City outskirts	13	6	4	4	7	12	1	0
Town	14	8	5	6	8	13	6	
New Estate	13	9	3	2	4	1	7	0
Country district	4	0	6	0	3	4	1	0
Other	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0

VARIABLE	C1 N=52	C2 N=33	C3 N=23	C4 N-15	C5 N=23	C6 N=34	C7 N=18	G8 N=2
Length of stay in area		11-00	11-65	1,010	11-60		N-10	1142
0 - 6 months	0		0	0		0	2	0
6 - 12 "	0	2	1	0	i	1	ï	0
i year	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
2 years	3	0	0	2	3	0	0	0
3 - 5 "	5	4	3	2	1	3	0	1
5 - 10 "	5	7	3	1	4	2	5	0
10 + "	37	18	16	10	13	28	10	1
Number of times family								
has moved house								
0	8	3	5	2	4	5	2	0
•	13	12	6	3	6	15	4	1
2	15	8	2	6	7	5	2	1
3	7	4	7	2	3	7	5	0
4	6	5	2	- 1	2	1	4	0
5	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
6	2	0	0		0	0	1	0 .
7	0	0	0	0	0		0	0
8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9	0	1		0	0	0	0	0
Avarage number	2.02	2.09	2.09	2.07	1.83	1.69	2.50	1.5
Kind of school last attended								
Junior Secondary	25	17	12	6	14	14	7	0
Senior Secondary	20	12	9	6	8	14	8	1
Fee-paying	0	0	0	0		1	0	0
Special	0	1	0	0	0		1	0
Approved School	7	3	5	3	0	4	2	1
Number of schools attended				The same of the sa				
	5	0	5	2	1	4	0	0
2	27	15	9	4	10	17	5	1
3	13	13	5	5	5	5	6	1
4	4	1	4	5	4	4	3	0
5		2	5	0	3	3	1	0
6	0	1			0	1	2	0
7	0	1	0		0	0	1	0
8		0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Age on leaving school								
14 years	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
15 "	48	30	50	14	22	29	18	5
16 "	4	•	2		•	4	0	0
	0		0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	'	0	0
Subject has a trade	- 11	12	4	3	3	4	6	
Subject has no trade	41	51	19	12	20	30	12	1

VARIABLE	C1 N=52	C2 N=33	C3 N=23	C4 N=15	CS N=23	C6 N=34	C7 N=18	C8 N=2
Last Job								2000000000
Not applicable	0	0		0	0	0	0	0
Skilled	10	13	4	3	3	4	6	1
Semi-skilled	7	4	3	5	6	5	2	0
Unski lod	35	16	15	7	14	25	10	
Time unemployed prior to sentence								
Not applicable	40	24	17	10	16	23	14	2
0 - 2 months	5	5	0	0	4	5	0	0
2 - 3 "	3	1	2	3	2	3		0
3 - 6 "	3	2	1	1	0	3	3	0
6 - 12 "	- 1	1	2	1	0	0	0	0
12 - 15 "	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0
2 years	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Number of jobs since school								
0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
	4	3	4	2	2	1	0	
2	7	6	0	1	0	2	5	0
3	13	8	4	1	3	8	0	0
4	9	2	6	4	5	4	4	0
5	5	2	7	1	2	4	2	0
6	4	5	0	1	3	4	2	0
7		4	1	0	6	3	3	0
8	3	0	0	2	0	2	2	0
9	2	0	0	2	0	1	0	
10	2	0	0	0	1	4	0	0
11	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
12		0	0	0	0		0	0
14		0	0	0	0	0	0	0
16	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
18	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
23	0	0	0	0		0	0	0
Average number	4.56	4.70	3.57	5.60	5.83	5.50	4.72	5.0
Longest time in a lob								
No job	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
3 months	7	3	3	3	1	4	3	0
6	8	3	2	3	5	7	4	
9 8	6	3	4	0	4	2	2	0
12 "	12	7	2	6	4	9	0	1
15 "	2	1	1	1	1		1	0
18 "	8	7	4	0	3	4	2	0
24 "	8	6	3		2		4	0
30 #		2	0	0	2		0	0
3 years	0	1	3			5	2	0

VARIABLE	C1 N=52	G2 N=33	C3 N=23	C4 N=15	C5 N=23	C6 N=34	C7 N=18	C8 N=2
Offense for which convicted								
Violent	14	15	4	4	7	5	5	-1
Property	19	13	9	5	8	18	8	0
Social nuisance	6		2	3	2	1		0
Sex offence	1	0		0	0	0		0
Car theft + R.T.A.	12	4	7	3	6	10	3	1
Subject drinking at time of offence	25	16	8	10	12	18	6	0
Subject not drinking	27	17	15	5	11	16	12	2
Subject often drinks	32	21	8	8	10	16	8	1
Subject not often drinks	20	12	15	7	13	18	10	1
Subject drinks with friends	40	26	16	12	19	23	12	1
Subject drinks alone	1	0	1	0	0		0	0
Not applicable	11	7	6	3	4	10	6	1
Subject has close friends	47	32	19	14	21	23	16	2
Subject has no close friends	5	1	4		2	11	2	0
Alcohol consumed	10	7	6	3	4	11	6	
50 - 99 gms/ml.	2	3	3	i	0	0	i	0
100 - 199 0	14	2	7		6	4	0	0
200 - 209 "	12	5	2	2	3	8	4	0
300 - 399 "	7	4	4	3	4	2	2	0
400 - 499 "	4	2	0	3	4	4	4	0
500 - 599 "		3	0	0	5	2	1	0
600 "	2	4		1	0	3	0	1
700 "	0		0	0	0	0	0	0
800 n	0	2	0	•	0	0	0	0
Discipline <u>strict</u> at home	8	6	2	6	4	5	3	1
" fair " "	16	15	8	5	6	7	5	0
B loose # #	28	12	13	4	13	22	10	1
Companions at home	50	32	21	14	21	31	16	2
No companions at home	2	1	2	1	2	3	2	0
Gang member	21	19	7	9	9	9	6	1
Not gang member	31	14	16	6	14	25	12	1
Alone at offence	8	6	6	3	4	11	4	1
Not alone at offence	44	27	17	12	19	23	14	1
Other offenders in family	29	14	9	10	14	17	10	1
No other offenders in family	23	19	14	5	9	17	8	1

VARIABLE	C1 N=52	C2 N=33	C3 N=23	C4 Ne15	C5 N=23	C6 N=34	C7 N=18	C8 N=2
Number of previous convictions				1.4				
0	2	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
	2	2	5	0	4	5	1	0
2	8	4	4	4		3	6	0
3	15	4		0	5	3	2	0
4	6	6	5	0	5	3	2	
5	6	4	3	3	2	4	3	0
6	6	3	2		3	7	2	
7	3	4	1	4	0			0
8	0	3	1	0	1	2		0
9		0	0	1	0	5	0	0
10	2		0	0		0	0	0
ii .		0	0	0	0	0	0	0
12	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
13	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
14	0	0	0	0	0		0	0
15	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Average number	4.12	4.06	3.39	6.07	4.43	5.18	3.83	5.00
Predominant type of previous conviction								
Violent	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Property	18	12	11	7	7	14	7	1
Social nuisance	8	8	3	2	6	2	5	0
Sex offence	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Car theft + R.T.A.	2	1		0		2		0
MI xed	22	9	6	5	9	16	5	
n#1	2	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
Previous Institutional treatment			4					
Not applicable	39	22	18	8	18	27	15	0
Remand Home	5	3	2	4	2	3	0	1
Approved School	7	1		2		3		
Borstal	0		0	0	0	0	0	0
Young Offenders Institution	0		0	0		0	0	0
Multiple		5	2	1	1		2	0
Any	13	11	5	7	5	7	3	2
Legal classification of offence								
Breaking	14	11	9	5	9	15	4	0
Theft	5	2	2	0	0	3	4	0
Theft of motor vehicle	15	3	5	3	A	9	2	1
Assault + Robbery	1	2	0	0	1		0	0
Assault	11	7	3	3	3	A	4	i
Breach of Peace/Disorderly behaviour	6		1	2	2			0
Contravention of Prevention of Crimes Act. 1953 s.1.	2	5			2	o	•	ō
Road Traffic Offenses	0		0	0	2			0
				1/2/				0
Malicious offences	0	()	63		(3)	63	63	
Malicious offenses Sex offenses	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

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