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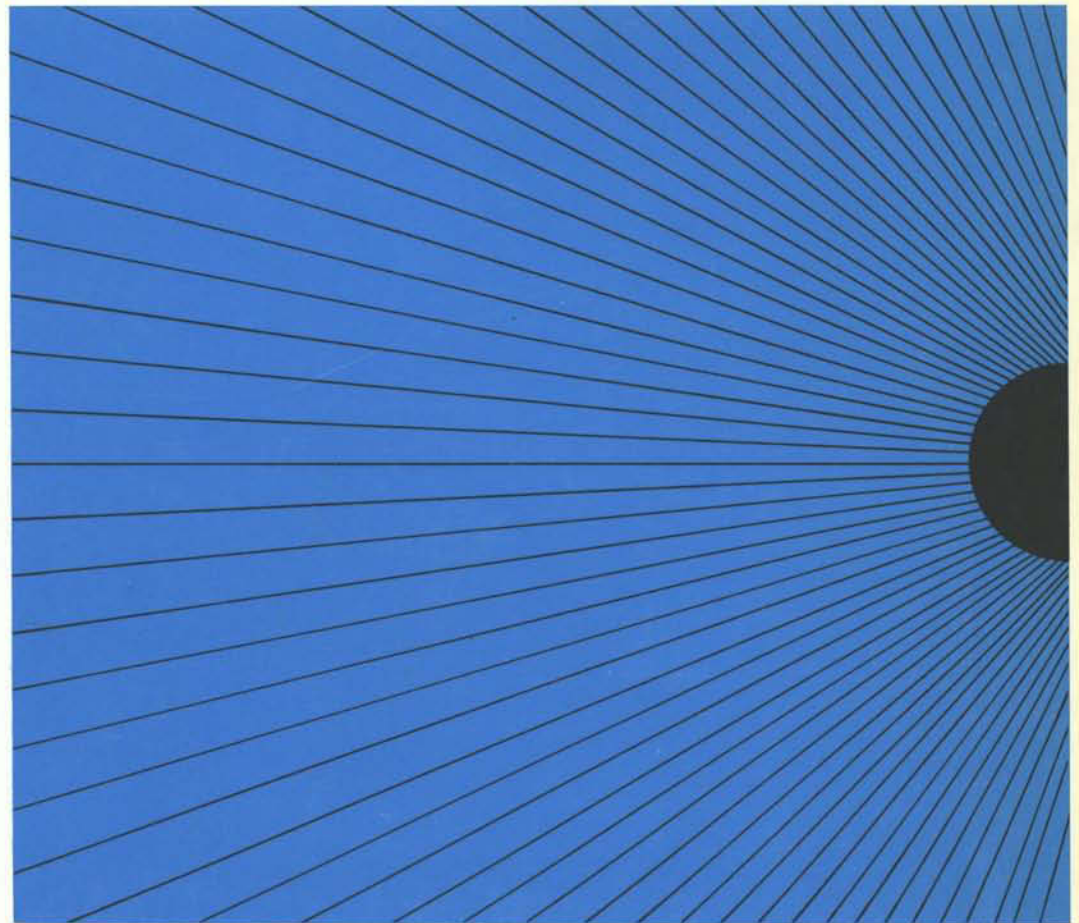
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Second Report of The Strategic Planning Committee

An Advisory Group to The Correctional Service of Canada
1982



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1982
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SECOND REPORT OF
THE STRATEGIC PLANNING COMMITTEE,
1982

*Correctional Service Canada, Strategic
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AN ADVISORY GROUP TO THE CORRECTIONAL SERVICE OF CANADA

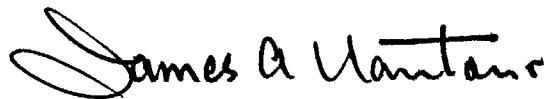
April, 1982

D.R. Yeomans
Commissioner of Corrections
The Correctional Service of Canada
340 Laurier Ave. West
Ottawa, Ontario

Dear Mr. Yeomans,

I am pleased to submit the Second Report of The Strategic Planning Committee for the period February, 1981 to March, 1982.

Sincerely yours,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "James A. Vantour". The signature is written in black ink and is positioned above the typed name and title.

James A. Vantour
Chairman
Strategic Planning Committee

MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE*

Dr. Jim Vantour, Chairman
Dr. Marie-Andrée Bertrand
Mr. John Braithwaite
Mr. Allen Breed
Dr. Tadeusz Grygier
Mr. Alfred Levin

Judge René Marin**
Mr. Bill McGrath
Professor Ken Norman
Mr. Tony Sheridan
Mr. Syd Shoom

Research Assistant: Cathy J. Gillis

* See Appendix A for biographical information on members
** Resigned April, 1981

MANDATE

The Committee's mandate requires that it consider possible future directions for The Correctional Service of Canada in light of events likely to occur within CSC, in other criminal justice components and in the wider socio-cultural environment.

Specifically, the Committee's mandate is as follows:

To assist The Correctional Service of Canada in proactive planning by estimating the probability of future events and conditions in criminal justice and related fields and analyzing their impact on CSC on various time horizons up to 15-20 years.

To accomplish this end, The Strategic Planning Committee will:

- a) exchange information with pertinent individuals and organizations;
- b) periodically inform CSC planners of its findings in order to guide near-future decisions and facilitate consideration of the future consequences of present decisions;
- c) examine the following:
 - the Ministry of the Solicitor General;
 - Canadian Criminal Justice System; and
 - Criminal Justice and Corrections in other jurisdictions, new directions and long-term proposals in the field...

... in the context of Canadian social, economic and cultural factors.

FOREWORD

This report is the second annual report from the Strategic Planning Committee - an independent committee of respected officials from the private, academic and criminal justice sectors gathered together to forecast the long-range future in which The Correctional Service of Canada must operate.

The Correctional Service will continue to use the work of the Committee in two ways. First, their views on the long range (15 to 20 years) future will be carefully analysed by Correctional Service planners and integrated into medium range (3 to 5 years) planning initiatives. Second, the Committee reports will again be widely distributed, both within and outside the Service in order to influence the thinking of those who must operate the Service today and prepare the Service for the future.

I anticipate that this report and others to follow will extend the planning horizon for all officials in the Correctional Service operations. In addition, I hope that a result will be that the Correctional Service will always be in step with the needs and expectations of Canadian Society.



D.R. Yeomans
Commissioner of Corrections

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SUMMARY :
SECOND REPORT OF
THE STRATEGIC PLANNING COMMITTEE
1982

The Committee's mandate is :

To assist The Correctional Service of Canada in proactive planning by estimating the probability of future events and conditions in criminal justice and related fields and analyzing their impact on CSC on various time horizons up to 15 to 20 years.

The Committee's tasks are :

- to develop reasonable and useful images of the future which will assist the decision-maker in facilitating the system's adaptation to the external environment, and;
- to increase understanding of the future consequences of present decisions.

The Committee has identified a number of broad areas from which changes in criminal justice and corrections appear to be generated - areas which, taken collectively, represent the significant milieu in which the criminal justice system functions and the parameters of the sources of change that could ultimately impact on CSC. Each of these areas is being developed in the form of a working paper. These papers will be used to develop plausible CSC futures.

This report includes two of our major working papers. They are :

- Demographic Factors
- Federal-Provincial Division of Responsibility in Corrections

In addition, a paper on Natives is included. This paper is a subsection of another major area: "Special Groups".

In each working paper, we have described the current situation and trends, some implications of these trends for CSC and, where appropriate, some "other possibilities" - factors that could alter the present trends.

A survey of current criminal justice literature is also reported. This paper is an overview of recent writings on the future of corrections.

We have also prepared two short discussion papers containing forecasts - or "red flags" for CSC - based on recurrent issues from the first annual report and our working papers. The first concerns Natives; the second addresses the future inmate profile.

Natives:

- Native inmates will continue to represent a significant portion of the inmate population. Given the anticipated numbers, their diversity and their politicalization, a concerted, imaginative and multifaceted approach to the Native inmate's situation is necessary.

Future Inmate Profile:

- There will be a greater concentration of dangerous and/or long-term inmates in federal institutions. The evidence in North America, the trends in other jurisdictions, the views of respected authorities and our own considered opinion cause us to present the possibility of "human warehouses" as a warning signal to correctional planners.

LONG-TERM STRATEGY

Summary of First Annual Report

The First Report of the Strategic Planning Committee was completed in January, 1981. In that report, we presented four theoretical models. These models collectively represent reasonable limits within which the correctional system can be expected to change over the next twenty years.

The models described in our first report are:

- Retribution
- Treatment and Rehabilitation
- Minimum Intervention
- Shared Responsibility

Having established these parameters within which change in criminal justice may occur, we directed our attention to an identification of the factors that could move the system and trends that are moving the system in the direction of one or more of the models.

This process consisted of:

- A study of other countries in order that we could benefit from a knowledge of trends and developments in other jurisdictions (Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Finland, Netherlands).
- A study of the literature to determine how others view the future of corrections and what factors underlie their forecasts.
- A request for briefs, to survey opinions on the future of corrections and the factors most likely to shape the future, from Canadian government and criminal justice agencies and organizations peripheral to criminal justice.
- Committee forecasts of probable directions based on the collective judgement and experience of its members.

The Sources of Change in Corrections

In tracing the origins of the current trends and the forecasts from the various sources, we identified a number of broad areas from which changes in criminal justice and corrections appear to be generated. These areas, taken collectively, represent the significant milieu in which the criminal justice system functions and the parameters of the sources of change that could ultimately impact on CSC.

These critical areas, or problematic factors, are those that are likely to move the current system in the direction of one or more of the four models. They are:

- Patterns of Community and Social Services
- Correctional Theory, Practice and Policy-Making
- Demographic Factors
- CSC Organizational Design and Practices: Implications for the Future
- Economic Factors
- Federal-Provincial Division of Responsibility in Corrections
- Special Groups (including Women and Natives)
- The Rule of Law
- Values and Attitudes

Other forces that may impact are, because of their diverse influence, subsumed under one or more of the above areas. For example, we recognize the probability of technological change impacting on criminal justice and are considering its effect in our examinations of **Economics, Values, and CSC Organizational Design and Practices.** Issues such as urbanization, unemployment and accountability are also subsumed under the broader areas listed above.

Other Environmental Factors

Other factors are not being examined because they are considered to be more-or-less stable conditions within which we must live and therefore are likely to have a constant impact on criminal justice and corrections. For example, we expect that Canada will continue as a political democracy and that liberal values will continue to predominate.

In addition, some factors have been identified as having minimal, if any, impact on criminal justice and therefore will not be discussed.

We are also ignoring short-term fluctuations such as changes in response to sensational events since over the long-run such decisions tend to average out.

Each of the significant areas identified above is being examined through the development of a "working paper."

Contents of Working Papers

Discussion of each of the sources of change will include:

- A description of the **current situation** with emphasis on the issue's present impact on CSC.

- An identification of **current trends**.
- A discussion of the **implications** of these trends for CSC. This is, essentially, a snap-shot of a future CSC situation based on the assumption that current trends will continue at more-or-less the same rate (a straight-line projection).
- An analysis of **other possibilities**, where appropriate. These include emerging trends, new developments or factors that could alter the present trends (that is, impact on the straight-line projection) resulting, perhaps, in a CSC situation different than that presently indicated by existing trends.

The straight-line implications and other possibilities outlined in each report are based only on changes in the area under consideration in a given working paper. For example, the impact of changing demographic factors in the federal-provincial division of responsibility is not dealt with in the "federal-provincial" paper. It will remain for the Committee to evaluate the interaction among causal factors such as changing demographic conditions and federal-provincial discussions in corrections, and develop a series of scenarios of possible and probable comprehensive futures for CSC.

We are not attempting to predict the future. Rather, we are developing alternative futures for The Correctional Service of Canada which will provide the Service with some awareness of probable changes in society and the implications for CSC. This information may become a critical component in the CSC planning environment by facilitating the development of a prison system that is sufficiently flexible to adjust to such a range of alternative futures. In this respect, today's decisions can be made with a greater awareness of long-term consequences.

Furthermore, the Committee's periodic reports may provide the impetus for further study of specific issues and events identified as potential problem areas.

COMMITTEE WORKING PAPERS

The Committee has completed two major working papers: **Demographic Factors** and **The Federal-Provincial Division of Responsibility in Corrections**. In addition, a paper on **Natives** has been completed as a sub-section of **Special Groups**.

Although, as we have indicated, all the papers must be combined for the development of scenarios, we believe that each paper will be of value in and of itself.

Bearing in mind the qualifications noted above, these papers are presented in the following pages and comments are invited.

DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

Working Paper No. 1

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CURRENT SITUATION

Population

Since 1951, Canada's population has grown by seventy-one per cent, from 14 million to 24 million on January 1, 1981.

Since 1951, the annual population growth (natural increase plus total net migration) has declined by 41%, from 426,102 to 251,372 in 1979. Population growth due to natural increase (births/deaths) has declined by 28% since 1951, from 265,379 to 191,556 in 1979.* Since 1972, population growth is a result of immigration, not natural increase (Table 1).

TABLE 1

Components of Population Growth - Canada

(1) Census Year	(2) Births	(3) Deaths	Natural Increase	(4) Immigration	(5) Emigration	Total Net Migration	(6) Total Growth
1951-61	446,834	132,014	314,820	154,285	64,400	89,885	404,705
1961-71	410,460	149,732	260,728	142,890	90,450	52,440	313,168
1971-76	351,601	164,625	186,976	168,204	71,440	96,764	283,740
1976-77	358,538	166,034	192,504	142,156	69,619	72,537	265,041
1977-78	358,459	168,504	189,955	106,512	78,491	28,021	217,976
1978-79	364,594	165,896	198,698	82,232	75,243	6,989	205,687
1979-80	362,367P	170,811P	191,556P	133,970P	74,154P	59,816P	251,372P

1. Average for years 1951-61, 1961-71, 1971-76.
2. Births by months are extracted from annual publication no. 84-202 for years 1951 to 1970, and from annual publication no. 84-203 for 1971 to 1978.
3. Deaths are extracted from annual publication no. 84-202 for 1951 to 1970 and from 1971 to 1978 see catalogue no. 84-206.
4. Data provided by Manpower and Immigration see publication no. 92-208 April 1980.
5. Identical to No. 3.
6. Annual total growth is the sum of the components used to generate postcensal estimates and it does not correspond to total growth obtained in using the intercensal population estimates.

Date: 10 June 1981 P= Preliminary
Source: Statistics Canada

* The decline is not distributed equally throughout Canadian society. Native population patterns are roughly 10 years behind the general Canadian population patterns. See the Strategic Planning Committee's working paper on Natives.

a. Fertility Rate

The Canadian fertility rate has been declining since 1959, when it was 3.9 births per childbearing woman, to a situation today where it is approximately two births per childbearing woman.

b. Mortality Rate

Canadian life expectancy has changed rapidly over the last several decades due to advances in medicine and an increased standard of living. In 1951 the average life expectancy for males was 66.3, and for females 70.8. By 1961 it had risen to 68.4 for males and 74.2 for females. The figures increased to 69.6 for males and 76.9 for females by 1976.

c. Age Distribution

The median age of the Canadian population increased from 26.2 years in 1971 to 28.8 in 1979. Although the total population has increased, the distribution of the increase among age groups has not been uniform.

The 0-14 year olds have declined from representing 30% of the population in 1971 to 24% representation in 1979. (Figure 1; Table 2.)

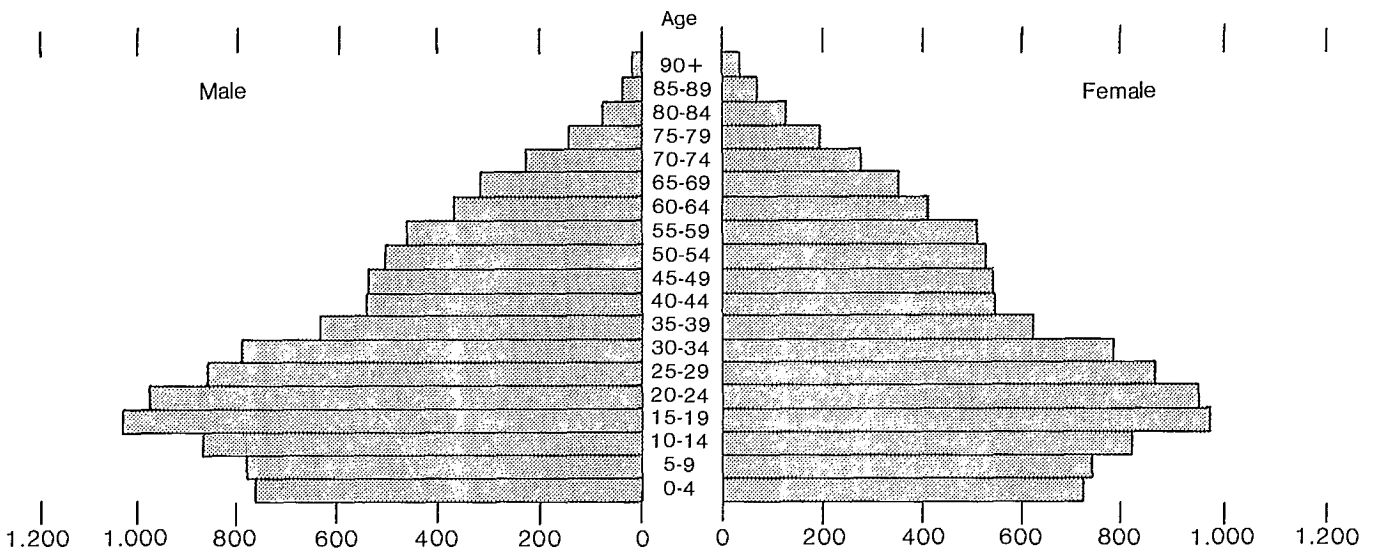
The 18-24 age group ("age-at-risk") has increased from 13% in 1971 to 14% in 1981.

The 25-34 age group expanded by 23% in the years 1974 to 1979 (five times faster than the general population) and by 1979 represented 17% of the population.

FIGURE 1

Age Pyramid of the Population of Canada

June 1, 1979



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue #91-202.

TABLE 2

Percentage Distribution of the Canadian Population by Age (1971-79)

AGE	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979
0 - 14	30	29	28	27	26	25	25	24	24
15 - 19	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
20 - 24	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	10	10
25 - 29	7	8	8	8	9	9	9	9	9
30 - 34	6	6	6	7	7	7	8	8	8
35 - 39	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
40 - 44	6	6	6	5.5	5.5	5.5	5	5	5
45 - 49	6	6	6	5.5	5.5	5.5	5	5	5
50 - 59	9	9	9	10	10	10	10	10	10
60 - 69	6	6	7	7	7	7	7	7	7
70+	5	5	5	5	5	6	6	6	6
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Prepared by: C.J. Gillis, Strategic Planning Committee, August, 1981

Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue #91-518 (1971-1976)
 Statistics Canada, Final Post Censal Estimates by Age/Sex Canada, 1977
 Statistics Canada, Catalogue #91-202

The dependency ratio (children under 17 and adults over 65 compared to the 18-64 group) has decreased from .861 (1961) to .634 (1979). This decrease is a result of a decline in the children dependency ratio. The number of dependent adults over 65 has increased steadily from 1961 (Table 3).

TABLE 3

Dependency Ratio (1961, 1971, 1976, 1979) Canada

	Total Dependency Ratio	Children Dependency Ratio (0-17 Years)	Aged Dependency Ratio (65 years +)
1961	0.871	0.727	0.142
1971	0.778	0.635	0.144
1976	0.683	0.536	0.147
1979	0.634	0.482	0.152

Prepared by: C.J. Gillis, Strategic Planning Committee, 1981

Source: Statistics Canada Catalogue #91-202
Statistics Canada Catalogue #91-518

d. Sex Distribution

There is generally equal distribution of the sexes within the total population. The only exception is in the 60-69 age group where females account for 53%, and in the 70-plus group where females represent 59% of that population.

e. Interprovincial Migration

The Canadian population has been shifting westward. Ontario and Quebec have experienced significant population losses, while Alberta and British Columbia have recorded increases through this process (Table 4).

TABLE 4

Interprovincial Migration

	1977	1978	1979	1980
Newfoundland	- 2054	- 1882	- 2136	- 635
Prince Edward Island	+ 1002	+ 43	+ 341	- 722
Nova Scotia	- 287	+ 1401	- 125	- 811
New Brunswick	+ 2166	+ 773	+ 779	- 1348
Quebec	-45997	-34367	-31562	-25224
Ontario	+ 9607	- 1641	-14462	-34664
Manitoba	- 5685	-10493	-15457	-13533
Saskatchewan	+ 4140	+ 261	+ 944	- 1589
Alberta	+24272	+28062	+31498	+40070
British Columbia	+13505	+19030	+31843	+40389
Yukon	- 240	- 63	- 342	- 647
N.W. Territories	- 438	- 1124	- 1322	- 1286

Prepared by: C.J. Gillis

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue #91-208.

Immigration

Immigration to Canada has fluctuated marginally over the past twenty years, with numbers averaging about 125,000 immigrants a year. However, since 1976 the total number of immigrants per year has been below the average immigration over the previous ten years (Table 5).

TABLE 5

Immigration by Year - Canada 1970-80

	Number	Increase % Decrease Over Previous Year
1980*	142,439	+27.1
1979	112,096	+29.9
1978	86,313	-24.9
1977	114,914	-23.1
1976	149,429	-20.5
1975	187,881	-14.0
1974	218,465	+18.6
1973	184,200	+51.0
1972	122,006	+ 0.09
1971	121,900	-17.5
1970	147,713	

* Preliminary

Prepared by: C.J. Gillis, Strategic Planning Committee, August 1981

Source: Immigration Statistics, 1973-1979, Manpower and Immigration 1980 - Estimates Section, Statistics Canada, 1981.

Projections per se are not available as traditionally immigration policy is set annually in consultation with the provinces and major industry. However, figures have recently been set for the next three years at roughly 140,000 immigrants/year, a slight increase over present levels.

a. Age/Sex

The age-sex compositions of both immigrants and emigrants have not varied much over time. Since 1975, female immigrants have exceeded male immigrants. On average, the largest female immigrant age group is 20-24 years, for males 25-29 years. Overall, the majority of all immigrants fall into the 20-34 age group representing, in 1979, 39% of all immigrants. However, in recent years there has been a percentage increase in the 15-19 year olds, 8% in 1973 to 11% in 1979, and in the 50-plus age group, 8% (1973) to 16% (1979). There has been a corresponding decrease in the 20-34 age group, 49% (1973) to 39% (1979) (Table 6). Fifty percent of all immigrants over 15 are married. In the unmarried category, males exceed females.

b. Origin/Destination

The greatest number of immigrants are from Britain, 12% in 1979, followed by the United States, 9% (1979), and Hong Kong, 5% (1979). This situation is subject to slight variations due to government policy. For example, in 1979 immigrants from Vietnam Socialist Republic accounted for 17.7% of all immigrants whereas, in previous years, their numbers were statistically insignificant.

An analysis of immigration by province of destination indicates that Ontario attracts the greatest number. However, there is a trend toward an increasing number of immigrants going to the Prairies and Quebec.

c. Intended Occupation

The percentage of immigrant workers has declined since 1973, from 50% to 43% in 1979. Professional/managerial and manufacturing/construction categories are the intended occupation of one-half the total immigrant work force. In this regard, it is interesting to note the category "other" has increased from 3% in 1973 to 21% in 1979 as intended occupation of immigrants.

TABLE 6

Immigrants by Age (1973-1979) Canada

Age Group	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979
	Number %	Number %	Number %	Number %	Number %	Number %	Number %
0 - 4	14,202 8	18,506 9	16,625 9	11,881 8	8,232 7	5,393 6	7,455 7
5 - 9	14,311 8	20,420 9	19,269 10	14,319 10	10,258 9	6,736 8	8,799 8
10 - 14	10,621 6	15,165 7	15,228 8	11,919 8	8,694 7	6,019 7	8,586 8
15 - 19	14,643 8	15,698 7	14,519 8	12,049 8	9,444 8	7,772 9	11,878 11
20 - 24	37,169 20	36,546 16	27,568 14	22,657 15	17,813 15	13,630 16	17,500 16
25 - 29	35,665 19	40,795 19	32,840 19	24,097 16	18,400 16	13,738 16	15,765 14
30 - 34	19,330 10	24,038 11	19,657 10	14,725 10	11,788 10	8,419 10	10,300 9
35 - 39	11,365 6	14,782 7	11,978 6	8,854 6	6,683 6	4,827 5	5,892 5
40 - 44	6,858 4	8,580 4	6,835 4	5,338 4	3,865 3	2,877 3	3,842 3
45 - 49	4,874 3	5,970 3	4,654 3	3,954 3	2,912 3	2,102 2	3,550 3
50 - 54	3,754 2	4,642 2	3,998 2	3,787 3	2,833 3	2,438 3	4,228 4
55 - 59	3,138 2	3,586 2	3,426 2	3,632 2	3,062 3	2,788 3	4,714 4
60 - 64	3,164 2	3,874 2	4,623 3	5,056 3	4,470 4	3,844 5	3,681 3
65 - 69	2,321 1	2,802 1	3,192 2	3,548 2	3,187 3	2,679 3	2,703 2
70+	2,785 1	3,061 1	3,469 2	3,613 2	3,273 3	3,051 4	3,203 3
Total	184,200 100	218,465 100	187,881 100	149,429 100	114,914 100	86,313 100	112,096 100

Prepared by: C.J. Gillis, Strategic Planning Committee, August, 1981

Source: Immigration Statistics (1973-1979)
Manpower and Immigration.

Emigration

There is little available or recorded demographic data on emigrants from Canada.

Allowing for yearly fluctuations, about 75,000 people a year leave Canada to take up residence in other countries (Table 7).

TABLE 7

Immigration & Emigration - 1962-1980 - Canada

Year	Immigration	Emigration
1962 F	74,586	76,738
1963 F	93,151	83,564
1964 F	112,606	92,430
1965 F	146,758	105,307
1966 F	194,743	91,490
1967 F	222,876	108,462
1968 F	183,974	100,035
1969 F	161,531	90,087
1970 F	147,713	80,961
1971 F	121,900	70,097
1972 F	122,006	63,238
1973 F	184,200	78,484
1974 F	218,465	78,049
1975 F	187,881	70,716
1976 F	149,429	67,858
1977 F	114,914	75,741
1978 F	86,313	77,217
1979	112,096	74,218
1980	142,439	74,460

F: Final Figure

Prepared by: C.J. Gillis, Strategic Planning Committee

Source: Statistics Canada, Estimate Section, July, 1981.

TRENDS

- Population

During the next 25 years, the population of Canada will grow by only 22% to 35%, compared to a growth of 64% during the period 1951 to 1976.

- Birthrate

The birthrate will remain as is or decrease slightly.

Canada is below the acceptable level of population replacement (2.13 births per childbearing woman). The normal practice to offset this situation is to increase immigration levels. This has not occurred due to the increased number of Canadians entering the labour force at the present time.

- Life Expectancy

It is forecasted that life expectancy will increase to 78 years for females by 1986 and to 72 years for males. However, sex-based mortality tables are being questioned as social and environmental considerations appear to outweigh genetic differences in life expectancy. It is possible, as women increase their participation in the work force, that they will experience an increase in stress and work-related illness and thus their life expectancy will decline.

- Age Distribution

The baby boom (those born between 1946 and 1965) presently represent one-quarter (6 million) of the Canadian population and are today between the ages of 16 and 36.* Consequently, the 1980s is the era of the young adult.

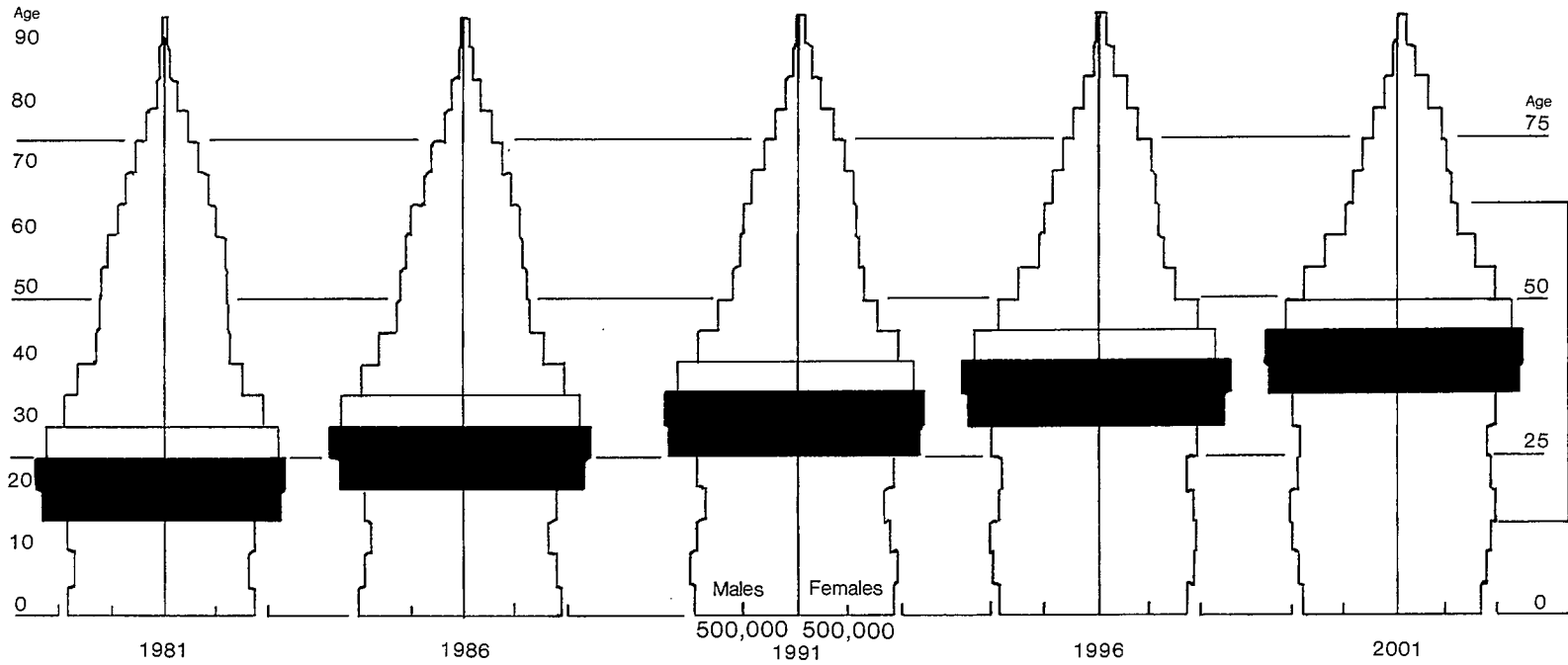
By the early 1990's, Canada will experience a middle age bulge, and by 2015 the baby boom generation will be approaching the current retirement age of 65. By 1989, 1 in 9 Canadians will be over 65; by 2000 it will be 1 in 4. This essentially will be a doubling of the middle age cohort and elderly population since 1971. It will double again by 2031 (Figure 2).

* The Native baby boom was approximately 10 years behind the national baby boom.

The big generation on the move

(The Baby Boom)

FIGURE 2
Age Distribution



Source: KETTLE, JOHN Presented at the Public Service Commission Executive Seminar "Canada's Aging Workforce", October 23, 24, 1980, Toronto, Ontario.

It is projected that the 25-34 age group will grow another 20% by 1986, the 35-44 group will increase by only 13% and the 50-plus component by 12%.

In 1979, 50% of the population was more than 28.8 years old. By 2001 one-half of the population will be more than 36 years old.

The Canadian population is getting older resulting in an aging work force. By 1991, the number of people entering Canada's labour force will have declined sharply. At present, 25% of the Canadian labour force is 15-24. By 1991, this will decline to 18%.

Children dependency will decline, while aged dependency will rise steadily until 2031. The overall total ratio, however, will decline.

- Immigration Rate

Statistics Canada forecasts an average level of immigration during the next 15-25 years of approximately 150,000 per year.

- Emigration Rate

Statistics Canada has also forecasted 75,000 emigrants per year (acknowledging that much less is known about emigration than immigration).

IMPLICATIONS

- The supply of young, educated workers may be too much for the economy to absorb in the immediate future.
- Financial and job expectations may not be met as the "baby boom" generation has less chance for promotion than their predecessors.
- By the early to mid-1990's, the "boomies" will leave a void behind so that there will not be enough people to do the jobs.
- School enrollments will fall and result in closings.
- Universities and colleges will have to adapt to a wide range of community uses (the education system is already under pressure to reduce budgets in the face of declining enrollments).
- Age-related services will be drastically affected.
- The demand for health care facilities for the elderly will triple.
- The task of providing for the elderly may fall to a greater degree to the government as the family's capacity for supporting aging parents is lessened.
- By 2030, Canada Pension Plans and other services to the elderly may represent 10% of the GNP compared to the present 3%.
- Social security programs could conceivably be bankrupt.
- There will be competition for funding among some government departments and this could produce a major crisis for corrections.
- By 1983, the baby boom generation will represent 40% of the electorate.
- Eventually, the elderly will be a strong lobby group. This, and their numbers alone, will result in considerable focus on the interests of senior citizens and the older middle-age.
- The aging of society will produce a conservative society in attitude/outlook.
- Business will try to promote early retirement.

- Eventually, however, without increased immigration, Canada will have a serious shortage of labour at low-skilled jobs which may force review of retirement practices.
- Canada's economic situation will be influenced by changes in the population.
- By the late 1980's there will be fewer people in the age-at-risk category which could impact on arrest and incarceration rates and offence patterns (i.e. less violent crime). Western Canada and the North may represent an exception due to the later impact of the Native baby boom.
- By 1995, there is a likelihood of an increase in the age-at-risk population as a result of a large number of baby boom parents delaying families until the early 1980's.
- The population shift to the west, combined with the Native baby boom, may result in the need for more federal and provincial correctional facilities in Western Canada.

NOTE

There are some unique qualitative aspects of the "baby boom" generation. This generation is "different" but not simply because of its numbers.

Its levels of education and affluence have exceeded those of all previous generations. It has been described as "a Superclass with an economic power that outstrips the GNP of most countries"; "an economic elite born to power".*

It will be the largest and most influential interest group ever and, therefore, the Committee must examine the lifestyle of this generation and how it may impact on Canada's future. This will be done in our working paper on **Values and Attitudes**.

* The reader may be interested in the following analyses of the "baby boom" generation:

JONES, Landon Y., *Great Expectations*. Ballantine Books, Toronto, Canada, 1981.

KETTLE, John, *The Big Generation*. McClelland and Stewart, Toronto, Canada, 1980.

NATIVES

Working Paper No. 2*

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*This paper is a sub-section of the major area:
Special Groups.

DEFINITION

The term "Indian" refers to **status** Indians; that is, persons registered or entitled to be registered as Indians according to the Indian Act.

"Native" refers to persons of Aboriginal descent. This includes status, and non-status Indians, Métis and Inuit.

The data on Indians is a summary of all available (and reliable) information. There is little data available on Métis and non-status Indians and figures pertaining to these categories must be interpreted with caution.

CURRENT SITUATION

Population

There are approximately 300,000 Indians in Canada (see Table 1).

The number of non-status Indians and Métis can only be estimated since they are not enumerated separately. The Ministry of Indian Affairs and Northern Development report 450,000 in 1977. The Native Council of Canada reports between 750,000 and one million.

There are between 18,000 and 22,000 Inuit.

a. Fertility

The Indian population has been increasing faster than the general population, particularly in the last 20 years, and now represents 1.3% of the Canadian population compared to 1.0% in 1961. The Indian growth rate reached a high point in the mid-sixties and has rapidly declined since, resulting in a "baby boom" effect approximately 10 years behind the national "baby boom" (Siggner, p. 13).

TABLE 1

Registered Indian and Total Populations 1966, 1971 & 1976 and Projections for 1981 and 1986

Year	Registered Indian		Total Population	
	Population	Average Annual Growth Rate	Population (000's)	Average Annual Growth Rate
	N	%	N	%
1966	228,667	3.0	20,014.9	1.6
1971	263,499	2.1	21,568.3	1.2
1976	291,171	1.8	22,992.6	1.4
1981	318,081	1.4	24,472.5	1.4
1986	340,739		26,258.6	

Source: A.J. Siggner, An Overview of Demographic, Social and Economic Conditions Among Canada's Registered Indian Population, Research Branch, P.R.E. DIAND, 1979.

b. Mortality

Death rates for Indians remain well above the national average. For example, the death rate for Indians 20-44 years old is four times that of the general population and their infant death rate is twice the general population (Siggner, p. 44).

c. Age Composition

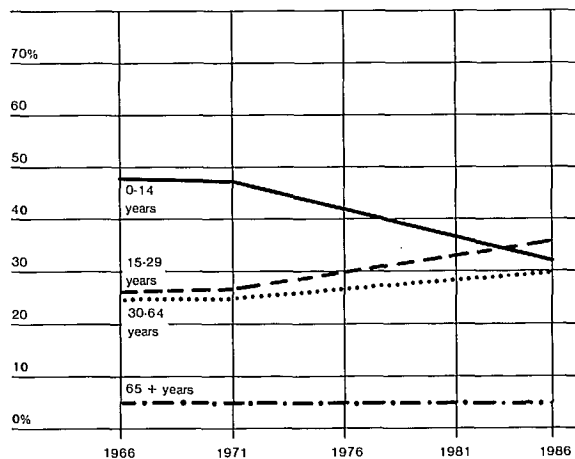
As a result of higher fertility rates and lower life expectancy, the Indian population is "younger" than the national population (see Table 2).

The percentage of the Indian population in each category is illustrated in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1

AGE COMPOSITION

% of Population in Each Age Category



Source:

A.J. Siggner. *An Overview of Demographic, Social and Economic Conditions Among Canada's Registered Indian Population*, Research Branch. P.R.E., DIAND, 1979

TABLE 2

Percentage Distribution by Selected Age Groups for the Registered Indian¹
and Total Populations, 1966, 1971, 1976 and Projections for
1981 and 1986

Year	Percentage Distribution by Age Group									
	0 - 14		15 - 29		30 - 64		65 +		15 - 64	
	Reg. Indian	Total Pop.	Reg. Indian	Total Pop.	Reg. Indian	Total Pop.	Reg. Indian	Total Pop.	Reg. Indian	Total Pop.
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
1966	47.7	32.8	24.4	22.7	23.7	36.8	4.2	7.7	48.1	59.5
1971	46.6	29.4	25.9	25.9	23.4	36.6	4.1	8.1	49.3	62.5
1976	42.1	25.5	29.3	28.3	24.5	37.5	4.1	8.7	53.8	65.8
1981	36.8	23.7	32.6	28.2	26.4	38.8	4.2	9.4	59.0	67.0
1986	31.9	24.5	34.2	25.3	29.7	40.4	4.2	9.8	63.9	65.7

¹ The registered Indian population between 1966 and 1976 is adjusted for late reported births.

Sources: Registered Indian population by age, sex and residence, for Canada, 1966 to 1977, Program Reference Centre, Indian and Inuit Affairs Program. Unpublished worksheets, Research Support Section, Research Branch, Indian and Inuit Affairs Program.

Prepared by: Research Branch, Indian and Inuit Affairs Program, D.I.A.N.D., 22-6-79.

d. Sex Distribution

As of December 31, 1979, 50.5% of the total Indian population was male. This proportion was consistent through all age groups and is similar to the sex distribution of the general population.

e. Geographical Distribution

Indians represent an increasing proportion of the population in the western provinces. For example, in Saskatchewan, the proportion of Indians in the population increased from 3.3% to 5.0% from 1966 to 1976. In Manitoba, the proportion changed from 3.3% in 1966 to 4.3% in 1976 (DIAND, 1980, p. 11).

Table 3 shows the distribution of the Native population (status Indians, non-status Indians, Métis and Inuit) in Canada in 1977.

TABLE 3

Distribution of Native Population, 1977

Province	Population	Status Indian Population	Estimated Metis and Non-Status Indian Population	Estimated Inuit Population	Estimated Total Native Population	% Native Population
Newfoundland	557.700	-	1.200	2.200	3.400	0.6
Prince Edward Island	118.200	466	1.400	-	1.866	1.6
Nova Scotia	828.600	5.417	8.100	-	13.517	1.6
New Brunswick	677.300	5.096	7.600	-	12.696	1.9
Quebec	6.234.500	31.333	78.200	4.410	113.943	1.8
Ontario	8.264.500	63.685	159.200	-	222.885	2.7
Manitoba	1.021.500	42.630	127.800	-	170.430	16.7
Saskatchewan	921.300	43.651	130.950	-	174.601	19.0
Alberta	1.838.000	34.537	103.600	-	138.137	7.5
British Columbia	2.466.600	54.192	162.500	-	216.692	8.8
Yukon Territory	21.800	2.766	7.200	-	9.966	45.7
Northwest Territories	42.600	7.397	10.500	16.150	34.047	80.0
Canada	22.992.600	291.170	798.250	22.760	1.112.180	4.8

Source: Victor F. Valentine. "Native Peoples & Canadian Society: A Profile of Issues and Trends": in Raymond Breton, Jeffrey Reitz & V.F. Valentine (eds.), *Cultural Boundaries and the Cohesion of Canada* (Montreal: The Institute for Research on Public Policy, 1980). p. 81.

Of 573 bands, 71%, representing about 65% of the total registered Indian population, are situated in either rural or remote locations.* This compares to less than 25% of the national population living in rural areas (Siggner, p. 19).

* Bands vary in size from 10 to 9,000.

There has been a rapid increase in the total number of Indians living off reserves since 1965 (a trend which is expected to continue at a more-or-less steady rate) and young adults are the largest component of the off-reserve Indian population (Signer, p. 14).

Social Conditions

The use of social assistance and welfare by Indians has increased from more than one-third of their population to slightly more than one-half in the last 10 to 15 years despite the fact that the dependent population (under 15 and over 65) has declined to approximately 41% of the Indian population in 1981, compared to 33% in the national population (Signer, p. 10).

An estimated 50 to 60% of Indian health problems are alcohol-related (DIAND, 1980, p. 21).

The percentage of violent deaths among Indians is three to four times higher than among the national population. Suicides, particularly in the 15-24 group, are more than six times the national rates.

Education

During the last 10 to 20 years, Indian educational levels and skills have improved. Participation in elementary schools is close to the national level. At the secondary school level, total Indian attendance has increased by 50% since 1969, although participation rates are declining from their peak in 1972-73. Retention through to the end of secondary school is about 20% compared to a national rate of 75% (Signer, p. 28).

The numbers of Indians enrolled in universities in 1979 was 2,700 (compared to only 57 in 1963). A smaller proportion of Métis, non-status Indians and Inuit are attending universities (Métis and Non-Status Indian Constitutional Review Commission, p. 11.).

Economic Conditions

Conditions for Natives have improved over the last 20 years. However, such improvement is relative. There are still glaring socio-economic inequalities between Natives and non-Natives and, compared to the national population, Natives remain disadvantaged. Native unemployment figures range from 35 to 75% (variance due to the absence of reliable surveys). Further, a substantial proportion of Native family incomes are derived from a variety of provincial/federal welfare assistance programmes.

Political Conditions

Native people have become more politically sophisticated and influential in the last 10 years. This fact is evident from the new Constitutional guarantee of Aboriginal Rights and, more significantly, the fact that Métis are now officially recognized as aboriginal people.

Political involvement is evident from the growth in the number of Native political associations. Although there are many national Native groups, the strength is most apparent in the provincial groups and tribal centres, especially in Saskatchewan, rather than in the national bodies. This situation has resulted from the fact that the national groups, including criminal justice groups, are creations of the government and, like the Bands, are an administrative concept, cutting across cultural lines. It is this cultural atmosphere that is critical in understanding the Native position vis-à-vis political developments. In this respect, government regulations are seen by many as outmoded and tending only to perpetuate a paternalistic government attitude. Thus Native leaders have established their strength in Native-based associations and not in government-imposed structures.

The Native Offender

The over-representation of Natives in the criminal justice system has been documented through incarceration statistics. There is little data on arrest statistics.

a. Arrests

In 1969, Bienvenue and Latif analysed adult arrest statistics that resulted in charges by the Winnipeg City Police. Although the native population at that time was approximately 3% of the urban Winnipeg population, it was found that Natives accounted for 27.2% of all male offences and 69.5% of all female offences.

Natives were over-represented in every offence category except drug offences. There was a high Native involvement in relatively minor crimes, particularly those that involve liquor (Bienvenue and Latif, 1974, p. 110).

b. Incarceration - Federal

Most available information on Native offences is based on federal incarceration data. Some provincial data is available and is discussed separately.

Indians and other Natives are over-represented in penitentiaries by about twice their proportion of the total Canadian population. In July, 1981, Indians and other Natives represented 8.3% of the federal inmate population (819 of 9,877). Of the 819 Natives in federal institutions, there are 578 Indians, 217 Métis and 24 Inuit. About 64% of federal Native male inmates are incarcerated in the Prairies. There are 16 Indians and two Métis in the Prison for Women, representing 9% of the total Prison for Women population.

Data* for 1979 indicates that 38% of Native inmates are incarcerated for violent crimes compared to 26% of non-Native inmates. A further 21% of Native inmates are incarcerated for robbery compared to 31% of non-Native inmates.

Thirteen per cent of all Native inmates have been convicted of manslaughter whereas only 5% of non-Native inmates have.

One per cent of Native inmates are incarcerated for narcotics offences compared to 11% for non-Natives.

The above statistics indicate an over-representation of Natives in the violent offence category and an under-representation in the drug offence category.

About 75% of Native inmates in federal penitentiaries are between the ages of 20 and 34 compared to 66% of the total federal inmate population.

Sixty-four per cent of Native inmates are serving sentences over three years, compared to 77% of non-Native inmates. Twenty-two per cent of all Native inmates are serving sentences of between five and fifteen years compared to 33% of non-Native inmates. Twelve per cent of both Native and non-Native inmate populations are serving life sentences.

Fifty-nine per cent of Natives have no previous federal penitentiary commitments, compared to 65% of the non-Native inmate population. Twenty per cent of both Natives and non-Natives have one previous commitment; 21% of Natives compared to 15% of non-Natives have two or more previous commitments.

* CSC, 1980

The granting of parole and other forms of release to Natives is lower than for non-Natives. About 25% of Natives who apply are granted parole, compared to about 42% of non-Natives (NPB, 1981).

Parole revocation without offence is higher for Natives than non-Natives (23% to 13%). Similarly, a greater proportion of Natives on Mandatory Supervision are revoked without offence than non-Natives (33% to 17%) (NPB, 1981).

c. Incarceration - Provincial

There is little data available on Native inmates in provincial correctional systems. The only available data is from Saskatchewan and the following applies only to that province.

Hylton's 1976-77 data indicates that

If only the population over 15 years of age is considered, then male Treaty Indians were 37 times more likely to be admitted (to a provincial correctional centre) while male non-status Indians were 12 times more likely to be admitted. In comparison to female non-Natives, female Treaty Indians ... were 131 times more likely to be admitted, while female non-status Indians and Métis were 28 times more likely to be admitted (p. 4).

Furthermore,

(A) male Treaty Indian turning 16 in 1976 had a 70% chance of at least one incarceration in a provincial correctional centre by the age of 25. The corresponding figure for a male non-status Indian or Métis was 34%, while for a non-Native male, the figure was 8% (Hylton, p. 4).

The high representation of persons of Indian ancestry is caused principally by a much higher chance of being jailed in the first place than by the readmissions of a small group (Hylton, p. 5).

In 1978-79 an average of 740 sentenced offenders were incarcerated in provincial correctional centres on any given day. Sixty-two per cent of these were persons of Indian ancestry. This figure has been fairly stable since 1972-73 (Saskatchewan Social Services, p. 5).

In addition,

Treaty Indians are about 100% more likely, and others of Indian ancestry are about 60% more likely than non-Natives to recidivate over a three-year period (Saskatchewan Social Services, p. 4).

The number of Native inmates incarcerated for default of payment is one in twelve. For non-Natives, the fine default figure is one in twenty-five. Both figures represent a significant decrease in recent years (Saskatchewan Social Services, p. 6).

Indians are incarcerated for more offences against provincial statutes and municipal by-laws than non-Indians (Saskatchewan Social Services, p. 7).

About 35% of probation caseloads in Saskatchewan are Natives (compared to 15% in 1968-69), but only 30% of P.S.R.'s are completed on Natives (Saskatchewan Social Services, p. 2).

The Fine Option Program is heavily utilized by persons of Indian ancestry, the Program estimate being that roughly 85% of the clients are of Indian ancestry (Saskatchewan Social Services, p. 8).

TRENDS

- The Indian growth rate reached a high point in the mid-sixties and has rapidly declined since, resulting in a "baby boom" effect approximately 10 years behind the national "baby boom".
- Indian migration from reserves to urban areas is increasing.
- The number of Indians in the "age-at-risk" age group is increasing.
- There is an increasing political and cultural awareness among Native people. At the institutional level, there has been a growth in the number of Native "programmes".

IMPLICATIONS

- The "baby boom" group will enter the labour force, the family formation stage and the housing market throughout the 1980's.
- The age group 15-29 will be approximately 34% of the Indian population by the mid-1980's, compared to 25% of the national population.

- The decrease in the number of dependent children will reduce the dependency rate.
- The per capita standard of living of Indian people will decrease.
- The increasing numbers of unemployed Indians could double by the early 1990's.
- There will be pressure for off-reserve migration or greater demands for housing and employment on reserves.
- The necessary amount of social assistance could grow substantially, particularly when unemployment is combined with the growing number of single female parent families.
- The number of potential recruits for post-secondary education will be limited and Indians may be ill-equipped for entry into the labour force.
- The number of deaths by accident and violence among young Indian adults will increase.
- Crime rates among Indians will increase.
- Both federal and provincial Indian incarceration rates will grow.

In summary, with a greater proportion of Indians in the "at-risk" age group, and without substantial changes in social, economic and/or the criminal justice system, the above implications will occur.

More specifically, their numbers, their increasing cultural awareness and their growing political strength may well force CSC to provide, with Native involvement in planning and implementation, more Native operated and focussed programs and perhaps to develop wilderness camps and urban release centres for Native penitentiary inmates.

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THE FEDERAL-PROVINCIAL DIVISION
OF RESPONSIBILITY IN CORRECTIONS

Working Paper No. 3

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INTRODUCTION

This paper focuses on the federal-provincial jurisdictional split in Canadian corrections. Briefly, it covers the history of the jurisdictional split, major proposals for change, the current situation and present trends. In addition, the implications of the present trends are discussed as well as some other possible scenarios. The major areas considered are incarceration and parole. Both these areas are in a state of change and jurisdictional boundaries are not as finite as they once were.

Basically, incarceration is characterized by a federal-provincial "two-year split". That is, the federal government is responsible for those offenders sentenced to two years or more and provincial governments are responsible for offenders sentenced to less than two years.

Parole was, until 1978, principally a federal authority, its jurisdiction extending over all inmates in federal institutions as well as those in provincial institutions for violations of the Criminal Code or other federal statutes. The only exceptions to the federal government's power was provincial jurisdiction over offenders incarcerated for violation of provincial statutes and the indeterminate portion of definite/indefinite sentences in Ontario and British Columbia.

There has been, since 1978, a gradual shift toward more provincial responsibility in this area.

INCARCERATION

History of the Jurisdictional Split

Section 91 of the British North America Act, 1867, states that:

- 91... the exclusive Legislative Authority of the Parliament of Canada extends to ...
28. The Establishment, Maintenance and Management of Penitentiaries.

Provincial powers are outlined in section 92 which reads in part:

- 92... In each province the Legislature may exclusively make laws in relation to ...
6. The Establishment, Maintenance and Management of Public and Reformatory Prisons in and for the Province ...

The rule regarding the "two-year split" in jurisdiction, although not mentioned in the B.N.A. Act, is contained in the Criminal Code and "is implicit in the Penitentiary Act" (Jaffary, p. 364) and, in fact, pre-dates the B.N.A. Act.

Jaffary indicates that

The two-year period was first fixed as the dividing line between local jails and penitentiaries, in a statute of the old Province of Canada enacted in 1842 (p. 364).

Further,

The whole scheme of the B.N.A. Act, as originally enacted, was to have the citizen look to the province for all social services supplied or regulated by the state (p. 366).

Section 92(7) of the B.N.A. Act gives the provinces the power "in relation to hospitals, asylums, charities and eleemosynary institutions..." (p. 366).

The administration of the Juvenile Delinquents Act, although it was enacted by Parliament, is exclusively a provincial responsibility and Section 93 of the B.N.A. Act provides provincial powers governing education.

The entire area of corrections, therefore, seems contrary to the general situation which gives provinces the responsibility for direct social services.

Proposals for Change

Over the years, a number of commissions have challenged the two-year split.

1. The Inter-Provincial Conference of 1887

It was recommended by the Quebec delegation that the federal government bear the cost of the administration of justice in all criminal matters, and

the maintenance of prisoners convicted for infringement of Federal laws; amendment of the criminal law so as to limit

to six months the period of incarceration in Provincial prisons; all incarceration for periods of over six months to be in the (federal) penitentiaries (Needham, p. 5).

2. *Report of the Royal Commission to Investigate the Penal System of Canada, 1938*

The "Archambault Report" recommended that all corrections should be brought under a centralized (federal) authority, with the provinces providing prisons only for offenders who violate provincial statutes, offenders on remand and prisoners who are serving short sentences.

The reasons for this proposal were for both economic purposes - the centralization of the prison system would result in considerable cost saving - and treatment purposes.

In respect to treatment, Archambault said:

It is obvious ... that if different treatment than that recommended by your Commissioners is given to the prisoners in provincial institutions, if classification and segregation are not uniformly instituted, if a different discipline is in effect, and the administration is not supervised by the same authorities, the success of the system recommended by your Commissioners would be jeopardized, and the evils discerned in the antiquated treatment at present in existence would be permanently extended. The federal authorities would be handicapped in the proper treatment of those who come to federal institutions already stamped with the imprints of the multiple provincial institutions (p. 340).

The Archambault proposal for the treatment of female inmates was one of decentralization, in effect, the abolition of The Prison for Women as a federal institution for females.

3. *Report of a Committee Appointed to Inquire into the Principles and Procedures Followed in the Remission Service of the Department of Justice of Canada, 1956*

The "Fauteux Report" encouraged centralization by proposing that the provinces retain the responsibility for offenders sentenced to less than six months and all others come under the authority of the federal government. The rationale was similar to that stated by Archambault: rehabilitation is more likely in a centralized system and any sentence of less than six months is meaningless in terms of rehabilitation.

Unlike the Archambault Report, however, Fauteux merely urged a "more intensified treatment program" for inmates in the federal women's prison, thus supporting centralization for female inmates.

4. 1958 Federal-Provincial Conference

In response to the Fauteux Committee recommendations, the federal government offered to assume more responsibility for incarceration. This offer received a mixed response, based in large part on the financial state of individual provinces. New Brunswick, for example, preferred centralization while Ontario favoured provincial responsibility for more inmates. Other provinces were ambivalent and no consensus was achieved.

5. *Report of the Canadian Committee on Corrections, 1969*

The "Ouimet Committee" failed to find an alternative to the two-year split and recommended that:

... there be provision for the federal government to contract for prison service from a province and for a province to contract for prison service from the federal government (p. 283).

The Committee proposed "no change" regarding the situation of the female inmate.

6. The Law Reform Commission of Canada, 1975

The approach of the Law Reform Commission represents, according to Needham,

a considerable departure both from existing practice and from those of its predecessors. The split would be structured along what are essentially *functional* grounds, *rather* than those of sentence length (p. 35).

Essentially, the Law Reform Commission proposed that sentences to imprisonment be imposed for one of three reasons:

- to protect society from violent offenders. It is proposed that all such offenders be incarcerated in federal prisons, the maximum sentence being twenty years.
- to denounce behaviour considered highly reprehensible and which constitutes a serious violation of basic values. This refers principally to property offenders. The Commission proposes a maximum of three years incarceration, to be served in either a provincial or federal institution.
- to coerce offenders, where other sanctions have failed. This provides a maximum of six months incarceration in provincial institutions.

The issue of the female offender has not been discussed to date by the Law Reform Commission.

7. The Steering Committee on Split in Jurisdiction in Corrections, 1978

The Steering Committee was formed in October, 1977 at the request of the Continuing Committee of Deputy Ministers (of corrections) to examine three options regarding the federal-provincial split:

- a) the provinces assume responsibility for all adult corrections;
- b) the federal government take over all adult corrections where prison terms exceed six months;
- c) the establishment of a joint federal/provincial corporation to take control of all corrections in a province.

The Steering Committee added two options for examination:

- Any combination of the first three options; and,
- The federal government takeover of all sentenced offenders.

The outcome of the study was a maintenance of the status quo but with a proposal that federal and provincial governments work toward the elimination of duplication and overlap. In this respect, eleven areas were identified by the Steering Committee as requiring attention. These areas were Programs, Facility Planning, Training Programs, Exchange of Services Agreements, Protective Custody Cases, Classification, Community Residential Centres and Community Programs Generally, Co-operation with other Provincial Agencies, Personnel Salaries, Research and Information Systems, and Parole and Probation Supervision (pp. 58-63).

The committee responsible for dealing with these areas, however, has been inactive for some time.

In summary, there have been many studies and discussions over the years regarding the federal-provincial split in jurisdiction but to date the "two-year split" seems unchangeable. However, Needham notes that, in recent years, "attention has focused on options that would give increased responsibility to the provinces" (p. 38).

PAROLE

History

Prior to 1899, the only mechanism by which an offender could be released from prison prior to the expiry of his sentence was through the Royal Prerogative of Mercy, the powers for which were vested in the Governor General.

The "Ticket of Leave Act" was passed in 1899 and provided that the Governor General, on the advice of a member of Cabinet, could grant leave from incarceration to any inmate in a federal or provincial institution who had been convicted of a Criminal Code offence.

An inmate was eligible for release at any time during his sentence and, at least in the early days, the decision was basically a clemency consideration. Supervision was delegated to after-care agencies or the police.

There were two exceptions to the federal authority:

- A 1913 amendment to the Prisons and Reformatories Act permitted Ontario to impose definite-indeterminate sentences. In 1916, the Prisons and Reformatories Act was modified to allow for the creation of an Ontario Parole Board with authority over the indeterminate portion.
- In 1948, in British Columbia, definite-indefinite sentences were introduced for offenders sixteen to twenty-three years old and a provincial parole board was created at that time.

The Ticket of Leave Act was replaced in 1958 by the Parole Act. This resulted in the creation of a National Parole Board, the members of which were appointed by the Governor in Council, and the National Parole Service (the supervisory branch). The Board was established as "an independent statutory body not answerable for its operations and decisions to any department or minister except for the supervision and direction of the National Parole Service" (Senate, p. 16).

The Board had jurisdiction over any offender incarcerated for a Criminal Code offence, regardless of whether the sentence was served in a federal penitentiary or provincial prison, but no jurisdiction over children, persons who violated provincial statutes or the indeterminate portions of definite/indeterminate sentences in Ontario and British Columbia.

Proposals for Change

The following commissions have examined parole in Canada:

1. *Report of a Committee Appointed to Inquire into the Principles and Procedures Followed in the Remission Service of the Department of Justice of Canada, 1956*

The "Fauteux Committee" prompted the enactment of parole legislation in 1958 resulting in the creation of the Parole Act, the National Parole Board and the National Parole Service.

The Committee noted that:

The duality of administrative functions under the Ticket of Leave Act and the Prisons and Reformatories Act has led to establishment of a confused, unbalanced and complex scheme of correction that is not conducive to a well integrated and co-ordinated progressive national policy (p. 59).

They recommended that:

The provisions of the Prisons and Reformatories Act that authorize the imposition of determinate plus indeterminate sentences should be repealed and the parole boards of Ontario and British Columbia should be abolished (p. 88).

They emphasized the need for uniformity of policy and practice in recommending:

the establishment of a national parole board, with headquarters in Ottawa, to have jurisdiction indicated hereunder. It has been suggested to us that regional parole boards would be a satisfactory alternative. We reject this suggestion, because we consider that only a national board, having over-all jurisdiction, will be able to develop and maintain a national parole policy and practice, and provide the uniformity of administration that we consider to be so essential in this aspect of the Canadian correctional field (p. 80).

In summary:

The Board should have exclusive jurisdiction over parole in relation to all persons who are serving sentences of imprisonment imposed under the criminal law of Canada ... (p. 81).

2. *Report of the Canadian Committee on Corrections, 1969*

The "Ouimet Committee" reiterated Fauteux's view that the Prisons and Reformatories Act should be amended to delete the provision for determinate plus indeterminate sentences in Ontario and British Columbia.

The Committee differed from Fauteux, however, in that it recommended:

that the federal government retain responsibility for parole as it affects all inmates of federal penitentiaries and that the provinces assume responsibility for parole as it affects all inmates of provincial institutions (p. 283).

The Committee also proposed that the National Parole Service be removed from the authority of the Board and be united administratively with the Penitentiary Service in order to provide a more coordinated service to the offender.

3. *Report of the Task Force on Release of Inmates, 1972*

The "Hugessen Report" recommended a decentralized federal system based on the five regions of the country.

The Committee proposed the establishment of "local Boards" to serve institutions or clusters of institutions:

7. Subject to review by Regional Boards, Local Boards should have jurisdiction to decide all parole cases involving inmates serving terms of less than five years who have no history of crimes of violence and do not fall into any other category specified by the Regional Board.
8. Regional Boards should have jurisdiction to decide all other parole cases (p. 51).

The Committee further proposed that:

15. The system of Regional and Local Boards would be applicable to provincial institutions. However, those provinces who wish to do so should be permitted to establish their own parole systems for prisoners held in provincial institutions (p. 52).

4. *Parole in Canada: Report of the Standing Senate Committee on Legal and Constitutional Affairs, 1974*

The "Senate Committee" supported the Fauteux Committee recommendation that the "definite-indeterminate" sentences provided in the Prisons and Reformatories Act should be abolished (p. 6).

Like Hugessen, the Committee favored a regionalized federal board with authority over inmates in federal institutions but went a step further regarding provincial boards. The Senate Committee proposed that "The authority to parole inmates sentenced to imprisonment in provincial institutions should be transferred to provincial governments" (p. 6).

5. In the late 1960's and early 1970's, a number of studies of provincial correctional systems were undertaken. It was generally agreed that provinces should establish provincial parole boards with authority over all inmates in provincial institutions. Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland were the exceptions to this view.

6. *Solicitor General's Study of Conditional Release, 1981*

One other major parole study was completed in 1981. This study, however, was basically an examination of internal operations of the National Parole Board. There were no recommendations regarding the federal-provincial jurisdictional split.

THE CURRENT SITUATION

There are a number of "exchange of service" agreements between the federal government and various provinces.

Transfer of Custody

One such exchange of service arrangement is the "transfer of custody" agreement with the territories and each of the provinces except Ontario and Prince Edward Island.

The first such agreement was in 1949 - an agreement by which inmates sentenced to two years or more in Newfoundland were allowed to remain in provincial institutions. (In April, 1975, an agreement between the governments of Canada and Newfoundland provided for provincial inmates - those sentenced to less than two years - to be transferred to federal institutions.)

Similar two-way transfer of custody agreements were signed with all other provinces and territories, except Ontario and Prince Edward Island, between 1973 and 1975.

The number of provincial inmates in federal institutions on September 30, 1981, was 24. There were no females under a provincial jurisdiction being confined in a federal penitentiary.

On the same date, the number of federal inmates in provincial institutions was 184. However, 109 of those were female and of those, almost one-half are confined in Quebec institutions.

A more detailed breakdown of the federal female inmate population is as follows:

Federal female inmates on register (September 30, 1981):	214
Currently registered at the Prison for Women	105 (78 on count)
Currently registered in provincial institutions:	
Quebec	53
British Columbia	32
Alberta	14
Manitoba	3
Saskatchewan	5
Nova Scotia	2
N.W.T.	0
New Brunswick	0
Newfoundland	0
	<u>109</u>

(There are no agreements with Ontario and Prince Edward Island)

In addition to the transfer of custody agreements, three provinces - Quebec, British Columbia and Alberta - have agreed to accept block transfers of federal female inmates to those provinces. British Columbia and Quebec will take all federal female inmates from their provinces, Alberta will take those from Saskatchewan and Manitoba as well as their own but will not accept inmates serving over ten years or those requiring psychiatric treatment. In exchange, the Federal government will provide funds for capital costs.

Generally, the exchange of service agreements have consequences for release provisions as well.

Under these agreements, federal inmates confined in provincial institutions must give up their rights to federal regulations and are subject to provincial parole boards where they exist.

Transfer of Parole Authority

As of September 1, 1978, provinces have the authority, through the Parole Act, to establish provincial parole boards with jurisdiction over any inmate in a provincial institution, including federal inmates confined in provincial facilities through the exchange of services agreement.

Both Ontario and British Columbia previously had boards with jurisdiction over provincial inmates incarcerated for violations of provincial statutes and the indefinite portion of definite-indeterminate sentences.* On February 1, 1980, the mandate of British Columbia's board was expanded to provide authority over all inmates **sentenced** to a provincial prison and federal inmates transferred to provincial facilities. Quebec (March 1, 1979) established a provincial parole board with jurisdiction over all inmates **sentenced** to a provincial prison and federal inmates transferred in under the exchange of service agreement.

Ontario expanded its authority on September 1, 1980, to cover all inmates **sentenced** to a provincial institution and, theoretically, federal inmates confined in provincial facilities. At present, however, there is no agreement with the federal government and thus no federal inmates serving sentences in Ontario's provincial prisons.

Where there are both exchange of service agreements and provincial parole boards, the provincial board's authority over federal inmates includes parole decision-making, unescorted temporary absences, community assessments and parole supervision.

There are some exceptions to this rule. Federal inmates in provincial institutions remain entitled to Mandatory Supervision. In addition, federal inmates serving life sentences or indeterminate sentences may be sent to a provincial institution only if the province agrees to respect federal release guidelines.

Where a province has not assumed parole responsibility for inmates in provincial institutions under federal legislation, the National Parole Board retains the authority to grant or refuse paroles.

* It should be noted that the provisions for definite-indeterminate sentences in Ontario and British Columbia have been repealed (Ontario on August 1, 1978 and British Columbia on June 15, 1981).

All provinces, with the exceptions of Saskatchewan and Manitoba have "exchange of parole supervision" agreements with the federal government and there are inter-provincial agreements which permit inmates to serve their sentences close to their home.

There are also agreements between the federal government and all provinces except Ontario, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, and the Yukon for exchange of services regarding community assessments and supervision of parolees in remote areas.

The federal government and the provinces of British Columbia, Ontario and Quebec have agreed that in cases where a provincial parolee from one of the above provinces relocates to a province without a parole board, the federal government would assume supervisory responsibility.

Treatment of Mentally Ill Offenders

The federal government has agreements with both British Columbia and Saskatchewan which provide for exchange of mental health services where appropriate. An agreement with Quebec provides only for federal government use of provincial mental health facilities. There is no federal unit in Quebec.

Although there are no formal exchange of service agreements between the federal government and the Province of Ontario, there is a long-standing informal agreement between the Ontario Region of CSC and the Provincial Hospital at Penetanguishene for the placement of federal inmates who are certified under the Mental Health Act in the Provincial Hospital. Such inmates are transferred on "return warrants" and remain under the jurisdiction of the federal government.

TRENDS

There is no indication that the two-year split will be changed in the near future. Nevertheless, there is clearly a trend toward provinces assuming greater control over corrections. This is illustrated by:

- the rights of the provinces, through the Parole Act, to either establish provincial boards or extend the authority of existing ones to assume responsibility for inmates serving sentences of less than two years;
- the fact that British Columbia, Quebec and Ontario have acted in that respect;

- the fact that an increasing number of female inmates serving sentences of two years or more are being confined in their home provinces in provincial institutions under the exchange of service agreements and that the federal government and three provinces have agreed to "block transfers" of federal female inmates to provincial institutions;
- the fact that, generally, the exchange of services agreements have meant that more federal inmates are subject to provincial authority than vice-versa.

IMPLICATIONS

- If the current trend continues, the two-year split is likely to remain.
- It will be increasingly modified by more federal-provincial sharing of resources and facilities.
- There will be more sharing of responsibilities which could result in a move toward the creation of some relatively autonomous correctional systems resulting in an increased duplication of services and bureaucracies.
- More inter-governmental liaison and coordination of policy will be necessary, which ultimately requires more support staff. Failing this, the quality of service throughout the country could become more disparate.
- The custody of female inmates serving sentences of two years or more will cease to be a federal responsibility functionally if not legally. Even if only "most" provinces assume responsibility for all their female offenders, those not doing so will likely arrange for the federal government to send female inmates to neighboring provinces since the few remaining may not justify a federal institution.
- There will be pressure on the federal government to assume some financial responsibility for the upgrading of existing provincial institutions to accommodate "long-term" female inmates.
- The federal-provincial sharing of resources and facilities could result in increased litigation and disputes since, in effect, two authorities are responsible for one inmate. Federal inmates confined in provincial institutions may demand access to opportunities that would have been available to them had they remained in federal institutions.
- The distinction between federal and provincial inmates could become increasingly blurred.

OTHER POSSIBILITIES

We do not believe that Canadian corrections will become either a total provincial responsibility or a total federal responsibility. Nor do we consider the prospects of a joint federal-provincial "crown corporation" a likelihood.

Rather, we see a continued jurisdictional split but with some shifts in the federal-provincial degrees of responsibilities.

Specifically, the following factors may alter the straight-line projection discussed in the preceding pages:

1. In the case of male adult offenders, there may be a trend toward some variation of the "functional split" in jurisdiction proposed by the Law Reform Commission.

In summary, the Law Reform Commission proposed that any sentence to imprisonment should be imposed for one of the three following reasons:

- To protect society from violent offenders. They proposed that all such offenders should be incarcerated in federal prisons, the maximum sentence being twenty years.
- To denounce behaviour which is considered to be highly reprehensible and a serious violation of basic values. This refers principally to property offenders. The LRC proposed a maximum sentence of three years to be served in either a provincial or federal institution.
- To coerce offenders; where alternatives to incarceration have failed. They proposed a maximum of six months incarceration in provincial institutions.

Two current factors suggest a possible move in the direction of the Commission's proposal. One is the perception, in the minds of some, of prison as a failure and the other is the fact that many no longer see rehabilitation/treatment as the fundamental purpose of prisons. In response to these views, there has been a strong thrust toward alternatives to incarceration for as many offenders as possible and a decrease in sentence lengths for crimes against property coupled with an increase in sentence length for violent crime.

The current thrust to keep as many offenders as possible out of prison and close to home suggests provincial authority over a greater number of offenders. Shorter sentences for property offenders will result in more inmates in provincial jurisdictions as well.

The end result of a community-based corrections orientation and the prevailing contentions about the limitations of treatment may well be that only long-term and/or dangerous and/or persistent offenders will be confined in federal institutions and for the sole purpose of protecting the public.

Should this situation occur, there are a number of logical outcomes:

- federal parole and community services **may** be considerably reduced in view of the clearly defined and somewhat limited role of federal institutions and replaced by provincial services;
 - more provinces will assume parole decision-making responsibilities by establishing provincial parole boards;
 - there will be an increased interest in remote access communities for long-term inmates in the federal system.
2. Some female inmates will remain in federal jurisdiction, both legally and operationally.

Some provinces, particularly the smaller ones, are unlikely to be able to provide appropriate services for a few dangerous and/or long-term female offenders. Their collective numbers from across Canada may warrant a small federal institution.

For example, as of September 30, 1981, 57 inmates confined in the Prison for Women (50% of its total population) were serving sentences of five years or more; and of those, 24 (21%) were serving life sentences.

Even if their numbers are few, a federal unit could be operated on a co-ed basis, or at least a separate female living unit with access to programmes for both males and females.

3. Despite pressures that may be brought about by the suggested functional split, it may be that few provinces will opt for establishing their own parole boards.

It makes little sense to duplicate services already provided by the federal government in the prevailing economic conditions. Furthermore, the sensitive nature of parole decision-making makes provincial parole boards undesirable from the point of view of the provinces. Federal regional board members could be augmented by provincially appointed representatives.

4. Regardless of whether or not the current Juvenile Delinquents Act is replaced, there will be pressure toward a uniform upper age of juvenile delinquency since the Charter of Rights will prohibit discrimination based on age. Both the current and proposed legislation pertaining to young offenders is likely to be challenged as unconstitutional with respect to age.

If, in any given province, the upper age of delinquency is increased from the present, that province may well be forced to devote its resources to expanding juvenile services. This is likely to prohibit, or at least delay, expansion in the area of adult corrections.

If the upper age limit is lowered in any province, there will be an increase in the number of adult offenders resulting in pressure on provincial institutions and, particularly, community correctional resources.

In this respect, the Government of Canada is now moving to establish a uniform age of eighteen across Canada.

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THE FUTURE OF CORRECTIONS:

A SURVEY OF THE LITERATURE

A background report for
The Strategic Planning Committee

In our first annual report, we noted a number of projects that would collectively constitute a reasonable data base for the Committee to begin its work.

For example, we acknowledged the value of some understanding of trends and developments in other countries. Our examination of other jurisdictions is resulting in a series of "background" or "working" papers for Committee use. In addition, those papers completed to date have been widely distributed in the hope that, in themselves, they may be of value to the criminal justice community.

At an early stage in our work, we sought the views of theoreticians and practitioners - through a request for briefs - on the future of corrections. A summary of their opinions was shared with the reader in our first report.

A third project was a survey of the current criminal justice literature - an attempt to monitor the recent publications addressing correctional futures. The end product of that exercise - an overview of the future of corrections, based on the views of respected scholars and practitioners - is presented here.

This paper does not necessarily reflect the views of the Committee members. It is a report of views expressed in the literature.

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INTRODUCTION

The study of the future is still in its infancy. Current corrections literature, and futures literature in general, lacks a clear definition of what constitutes the future. There is a tendency to discuss the future of corrections without acknowledging specific time frames. Where specified, it may be five years; it may be thirty. Very often, it is difficult to determine whether the short, intermediate or long-term future is being addressed.

Similarly, there is no consensus on the appropriate methodologies for studying the future. Strategies range from trend analysis to the expert opinions of practitioners and theoreticians.

In addition, most futures literature in corrections is relatively vague in description, perhaps due to the fact that most efforts to forecast are the result of academic interests and, therefore, do not require the specificity of a correctional agency's planning requirements. Further, any forecast in the field of corrections is subject to a number of confounding external variables that can, and do, impact on corrections.

There is a paucity of literature on the future of corrections in Canada but, although many aspects of crime are culturally-bound, a knowledge of trends and forecasts in other nations may provide insight into future developments in Canada. For example, many writers suggest that North America follows Western European and Scandinavian practices by 10 to 15 years (Rector, 1981). That Canada is not immune to international trends in crime or its treatment is substantiated by the fact that the problem of crime is addressed in international forums and there is a considerable exchange of experiences and expertise among nations.

Despite the limitations acknowledged above, there is agreement in the corrections literature on some major facts that can significantly impact on present practices and policies and consensus on a number of future directions. Of course, implicit in all the writings, is the assumption that certain socially intolerable behaviour will continue to be penalized in some way.

The literature surveyed represents primarily the informed opinion of practitioners and theoreticians and is based principally on demographic data, analyses of current criminal justice operations and an awareness of current correctional thought.

It is often difficult to distinguish between forecasts that are based on available knowledge and those based on intuition, or even those that represent the "hopes and beliefs of the prophets". No effort is made here to make this distinction. In fact, in our first report we noted that:

there is considerable evidence that the "experts" may be "prophets". That is, their writings - observations on how they see things - tend to influence the corrections scene. For example, the writings of the labeling theorists have, to a significant extent, influenced the current non-intervention-deinstitutionalization movement.

FACTORS AFFECTING THE FUTURE OF CORRECTIONS

Factors impacting on corrections originate from three sources:

- socio-cultural factors which are external to the criminal justice system and, for the most part, beyond its control;
- criminal justice factors over which correctional administrators have only limited control.
- new directions in corrections over which correctional administrators may exercise considerable control.

Socio-Cultural Factors

No major social institution can long remain out of step with socio-cultural developments in the larger society (Ohlin, 1974). Corrections, perhaps to a greater extent than criminal justice in general or most other social institutions, is affected by conditions and changes in the larger socio-cultural system. The prison, for example, has been described as a repository of changes that happen elsewhere, a terminal point of a much larger process of social change (Cohen, 1974).

Any attempt to forecast the future of corrections, then, must be sensitive to factors external to corrections itself. In this respect, there appears to be consensus on certain socio-cultural trends that will affect corrections.

i) Demographic Factors

Changing demographic factors play a major role in the continuation/discontinuation and emergence of trends affecting both number and types of offences and offenders.

It is well documented that a certain age group in the population (adolescent/young adult) is more likely to engage in traditional criminal activities than others, especially crimes of violence (Fox, 1976). Understandably then, the overwhelming emphasis in the literature regarding demographic changes is on statistical projections of the "at-risk" population and the subsequent implications.*

A projection of the future size of this age group may give some indication of corresponding crime and incarceration rates. Most U.S. projections indicate that there will be a decline in the "at-risk" age group after 1985 until the early 1990's, after which it will climb back to the 1985 level. Given this prospect, there is likely to be an absolute decrease, or at least stabilization, in the number of crimes of violence by 1990. Hasenpusch (1979) sees a similar trend for Canadian crime rates. In a straight-line projection to 1984, he forecasts a leveling-off in sexual offences, assaults and specific youth-related crime. But, with the eventual increase in numbers of adolescents and young adults, there will be a corresponding increase in violent crime (Wolfgang, 1977, Scott, 1977).

How the decline in the age-at-risk group will impact on the prison population is less certain. Fogel (1979), for example, states that the U.S. prison population "will drop in the early 1980's for a short period of time." Zimring (1975), on the other hand, through an analysis of census and birth data, sees an increase in the U.S. prison population until 1985, a subsequent drop from 1985 to 1990 and a rise to the 1985 level by the mid-1990's.

Flanagan (1977) concurs with Zimring's observation. He predicts a 20% decrease in the population at-risk between 1985 and 1995 and, further, that new highs in the prison population will be reached after 1995. He warns that even with a decrease in the at-risk age group, prison populations may not be significantly affected during such a period of decline. This is due, in part, to the possibility

* Various age classifications designating the "at-risk" population have been used, i.e. 15-24; 20-29; 17-20. For discussion purposes, 17-24 is used here.

that migration patterns may, in fact, result in an increase in the population at-risk in certain groups, namely the urban minorities. Gladstone (1979) supports this contention that demographic change may not be equally distributed throughout all segments of the population. Specifically, she states that the lower socio-economic strata, which traditionally has had a higher incidence of criminal activities than the general population, may be less affected by such changes. Flanagan's (1977) analysis of the prison population of the 1950's and 1960's indicated an increase in the number of inmates in the 1950's despite a decrease in the size of the at-risk group. The reverse occurred in the 1960's. He suggests that policy changes, hardening of public opinion and staggering economy may counteract any relief brought about by the decrease in the at-risk population. And, further, despite this decrease, the crime rate may grow.

It is precisely because of factors such as public attitude and economic uncertainty that any projections on future prison populations based on demographic data must be held as less than definitive. The possible exhaustion, or perceived ineffectiveness, of alternatives to incarceration could further counteract the change in this demographic factor.

Increasing urbanization has serious implications for the criminal justice system since, as noted, migration patterns may result in an increase in the population at-risk among urban minorities.

The nature of urban centres generates a large amount of crime, and forecasts indicate that the social problems associated with urban growth - concentration of low income groups, low levels of education and high unemployment - are not likely to be eased in the foreseeable future. Some writers contend the gap between the rich and poor segments of society will widen and, with it, frustrations and hostility will mount. Johnson (1974), and Travisono (1977) cite the increasing violence in urban society, particularly among poor minority groups, as indicative of future difficulties for corrections, impacting not only on the type of inmate entering the system but also on the prison conditions, inasmuch as they are manifestations of external society (Jacobs, 1977; Holt, 1977).

ii) Economic Factors

A number of writers urge consideration of the effects of economic factors on the crime and incarceration rates. The following key economic variables impact either directly or indirectly on corrections: rising unemployment (especially among youth), poverty levels, depressed economy, decreased welfare spending and criminal justice expenditures (Nagel, 1977; Gladstone, 1979; Greenberg, 1977).

Unemployment receives the greatest emphasis as a contributing factor in the crime and imprisonment rates. Nagel (1977) and Greenberg (1977) found a positive correlation between crime rates and the rate of unemployment. Close correlation has also been discovered between the rate of prison admissions and unemployment rates (Jankovic, 1977; Yeager, 1979; Greenberg, 1977; Nagel, 1977). There is not necessarily agreement as to the significance of these correlations. However, in tempering the positive correlation found between unemployment and crime, Gladstone (1979) notes that the slow growth in affluence in the future may result in a possible decrease in opportunities to commit crime, thus cancelling out the effects of unemployment on crime rates.

The emergence of the post-industrial society (Bell, 1967), with its emphasis on service and white-collar industries, and less reliance on production trades, is particularly relevant to criminal justice. Crime rates may conceivably increase if unemployment rises and social instability occurs among those not possessing the necessary education or skills to function effectively in the post-industrial world.

In summary, the "at-risk" population is clearly regarded as a critical factor in considering future crime and incarceration rates. The two other prevalent themes discussed here are urbanization and economic factors, the most notable of which is unemployment.

The impact of any one of these factors cannot be isolated from the other considerations and, as a result, definitive statements on causal relationships are, at best, tenuous.

Conceivably, there are other factors which are likely to impact on the future of corrections, such as developments in science, technology, education or a shift in values. These issues and their relationship to corrections are rarely discussed in the criminal justice literature and their impact is at present, in any event, unclear.

Criminal Justice Factors

Criminal justice factors generally noted in a consideration of the future offender population include sentencing guidelines, plea bargaining, discretionary powers of the judiciary and legislative action.

These factors are seen as beyond the control of correctional administrators (Carlson, 1977). However, awareness of possible new directions, such as a movement to mandatory flat sentences (Grosman, 1981) or to decriminalization, and the impact such directions have is critical to corrections.

i) Economic Offences

Many writers predict changes in crime patterns with crimes of violence showing a downward trend. Despite this downward shift, the incarceration rates for violent offenders are increasing, with a comparable decrease in long term incarceration for property offenders (Holt, 1977).

Given this trend, some authors see a shift toward the public viewing other types of offences as serious. Wilkins (1976) and Wolfgang (1977) predict white collar offences, particularly theft of information, will come to the fore in the 1980's/1990's. In fact, many writers contend that the computer thief will be the "criminal of the future" (Wolfgang, 1977; Bequai, 1978; Parker, 1976; Evans, 1979; Zalman, 1980). With advances in technology, especially in microprocessing and computerization, the opportunities for certain traditional property offences will decrease.

The electronic revolution now occurring will eventually alter the basis of our daily financial transactions to effect a cashless society. That paper money will become a rarity is well documented. In fact, the credit card is the first step toward the elimination of cash and cheques. Transactions will be effected by direct electronic funds transfers (EFTS), allowing individual transactions by telephone or individualized code cards. The implications of technology on money-based crime, according to experts, will be substantial, and will present a serious challenge to our system of justice.

Many writers predict a decrease in the number of traditional property offences, especially robberies, as these offences will be less remunerative. Further criminal activities that require cash transactions will be reduced as all financial transactions will be recorded, providing a deterrent element to such activities as receiving stolen goods. As traditional property crime decreases, increases in computer/credit card frauds will occur. Perpetrators will be individuals and organized criminal groups attracted by the lucrative pay-offs of such activities.

How the criminal justice system will respond to computer crime is unclear. Most experts contend that the legal system is not equipped to deal with such sophisticated crime. In fact, some authors argue that the computer criminal will "ring the death knell" to our entire system of justice (Vanderlee, 1980, Carroll, 1980, Bequai, 1978; Parker, 1976).

At present, sentences for white collar offences (including computer crimes) are lenient in comparison to those given for traditional offences. However, it may only be a matter of time before the

judiciary decides that a prison sentence is the only deterrent to such offences. The effect on the prison system could be significant. Current prison operations are geared toward traditional criminal stereotypes and emphasize security, training/education, counselling, prognosis for parole, etc. It is debatable whether white-collar offenders will require anything more than the denunciation that accompanies a sentence to imprisonment and such sentences may be quickly followed by parole. More fundamentally, whether or not this "future offender" will become the "inmate of the future" is open to speculation.

ii) Terrorism

Another emerging criminal activity that may eventually present the prison system with a new type of inmate is terrorism. Many experts in this field believe the worst is yet to come (O'Brien, 1979; Cavanagh, 1979, Wiegart, 1977; Briese, 1981). Although North America has been relatively immune from such activities, this may not be the case in the future, especially with the aid of computer technology and the sophistication of the international terrorist network. The implication of possible terrorist activities in North America could mean a number of "political" prisoners.

Another apparent trend is toward decriminalization of, or modification of sanctions for, victimless crimes. The extent to which, and the methods by which, such behaviours will be regulated is unclear.

Corrections Factors

i) Community-Based Alternatives

There is an overwhelming agreement that community-based concepts are becoming more developed and entrenched in the correctional process. Although a precise definition of community-based corrections is lacking, it generally denotes maintaining the offender within the community, a sharing of deviance control with other social institutions. Diverse forms of community-based operations are reported in the literature: traditional non-custodial sanctions, specialized centres, multi-purpose facilities, and pre- and post-release centres.

The rationale for the move to treatment of the offender in the community is based on several interrelated postulates. Economically it is attractive, compared to the present and projected costs of traditional imprisonment. Secondly, it is a logical outcome of the awareness of the ineffectiveness of prison to deter or rehabilitate. Thirdly, community-based corrections is said to provide a

more humane environment than the often destructive atmosphere of prison. There are two additional undercurrents to the contagion of community treatment: one is the impact of the labelling perspective and the other is the renewed interest in community responsibility for crime prevention/control. In respect to the latter, Luger (1974) considers the "community-based" movement to be reflective of the idea that the offender must learn to cope with and adjust to the world, and this cannot take place in the artificial milieu of an isolated institution.

The future role of community-based corrections receives varying emphases in the literature. It may be seen as an adjunct to prison (Conrad, 1975) or a critical component that can co-exist with improved prison operations (Luger, 1974). Cohen (1979) questions the spatial boundaries between prison and residential facilities, and whether community-based control/treatment will supplement or complement prison. Others see community-based corrections as encompassing the total future of corrections (Johnson, 1974, Duffee/Fitch, 1976; and Weeks, 1974).

Although there is generally a growing acceptance of the community-based corrections movement, it is not without critics or possible undesirable consequences.

Many writers are concerned that too much faith is being placed in diversion and other non-custodial sanctions. While the prison population may be reduced by channelling offenders into such alternatives, there are limits to the number of offenders suitable for community dispositions (Cohen, 1974, 1979; Flanagan, 1977). Additionally, McConville (1975) states that it would be unreasonable to assume that trends in the use of non-custodial alternative are irreversible. In fact, juvenile justice trends, which may be good predictors of events in adult corrections, support McConville's statement (Serrill, 1979, 1981; Isralowitz, 1979; Kiersh, 1981; Kelley, 1979; Sublett, 1979).

For example, the end result of the community-based corrections movement may not be economically desirable to the community as it implies the utilization of community resources and there is no assurance that such resources and services will be provided. The capability and endurance of community-based corrections is thus tied to and dictated by conditions and support in the community. Reference to community acceptance of this concept is noticeably absent in the literature. It is conceivable that the community will be neither involved in nor even enthusiastic about the movement.

Some authors express the fear that community-based corrections will become consolidated, thus creating a new set of correctional decision makers with undefined discretion and, in the end, this may prompt a revival of institutions (Rothman, 1973; Frank, 1979; and Cohen, 1979).

As for the possible impact on prisons, it is noted that, despite a trend to use alternatives, prison populations have doubled in the past twenty years (Gladstone, 1979). In this regard, Hawkins (1975) questions the value of spending resources and time in pursuing alternatives which are, by necessity, limited or expanded models of existing options. Rather, he suggests, we should invest in neutralizing the present system to effect a humane, efficient and imaginative prison operation.

ii) Prisons

There is a consensus in the literature that total reliance on community-based corrections is unrealistic and that, for at least the foreseeable future, isolation of the offender will continue to play a key role in punishment and represent the ultimate sanction of our society.

That certain individuals must be removed from the community and placed in prison is an axiom of contemporary society. Although community-based corrections may remove minor offenders from prisons, there is no assurance that incarceration will desist or decline. In fact, there is agreement that prisons, as entrenched social institutions, will endure for generations (Frank, 1979; Scott, 1977; Cohen and Taylor, 1972; Christianson, 1978; Hawkins, 1975; Morris, 1965, 1974; Van den Haag, 1980; Mathiesen, 1980; Luger and Lobenthal, 1974).

Even abolitionists concur that imprisonment is necessary for the 10 to 20% dangerous few (Rothenberg, 1976; Rector, 1975). Others suggest that it is possible to abolish imprisonment but the replacement controls may not be socially or morally acceptable (Luger and Lobenthal, 1974; Cohen, 1974; Savitz, 1974; McConville, 1975). Electronic surveillance, via telemetric implants, and injected chemical substances to influence and control behaviour are not beyond scientific or technological capabilities. However, these authors recommend that society pay the price of prison rather than the cost in political and civil rights implied in the alternative control measures.

Given the premise that prisons will exist, in conjunction with the continuing search for and utilization of alternatives, the literature presents a rather difficult but challenging future for corrections.

Although there are few descriptions of future prison programs, facilities and administration in the literature, there is collective opinion on at least one type of offender that prisons will have to accommodate and manage. There will be a growing number of long-term "dangerous" hardcore inmates in the system. Many authors comment on the currently increasing number of inmates serving long sentences, resulting from mandatory/flat sentencing laws, the reduced use of parole and the limiting of the powers of parole boards to release (Cohen, 1974; Holt, 1977; Christianson, 1974, 1978). Further, with the continued growth in community alternatives, including the diversion of minor (non-violent) offenders, a change in the composition of the prison population is forecasted.

Even with this rather vague description of the future prison population, the authors have forecasted some likely implications. The end product may be a residual pool of violent inmates. These inmates will be more difficult to manage - less likely to cooperate, more prone to violence and more articulate and aware of their rights. Conrad (1981) sees the trend of limiting imprisonment to violent offenders assuring a violent prison population and, specifically, increasing pressures on maximum security facilities. The potential, and probable, escalation of prison violence leads some writers to forecast an increase in the use of protective custody, as inmates seek to escape the rising levels of inmate-to-inmate violence (Holt, 1977, Jacobs, 1977; Conrad, 1981; Altemose, 1973).

Reintegration and socialization appear to be the purposes of community-based corrections but, for the future, the function of prisons is predisposed to be incapacitation and isolation. McConville (1975), asserting the demise of rehabilitation, sees the focus of prison as only to ensure humane containment, as treatment makes no sense for long-term inmates. Cohen (1974) envisions a human warehouse system, where society's "terminal cases" will be securely contained. Savitz (1974) and Fogel (1979) forecast incapacitation with non-coercive opportunities designed for self-improvement.

The programs and facilities necessary for the "new" inmate types are not addressed in the literature, aside from a call for "voluntary" therapeutic institutions (Morris, 1974) or for remote access communities or penal colonies (Wilson, 1975), or factory prisons (Burger, 1981). In essence, Savitz (1974) exemplifies the generalities when he states "the final aspects of corrections in 1990 will be to treat all those capable of treatment and constrain the hardcore untreatable."

Other issues, in addition to necessary program and facility changes, will confront the correctional administrator. The increasing attention to inmate rights and inmate government leads some to advocate participatory democracy as one remedy to the foreseeable disruption that will occur in prison (Holt, 1977; Clear and Clear, 1974, Murton, 1976).

The forecast of increased prison violence is evident throughout the literature, either explicitly or inferred from the recent inmate admissions. A continuation of this pattern is probable if the various writers are correct in describing the future inmate character and trends in the greater socio-economic system.

The value and lifespan of parole as a releasing mechanism is questioned by several authors. Many find its survival doubtful (Fogel, 1979; Buffrum, 1978, Conrad, 1975, Scott, 1977; Bronstein, 1977). The termination, or the continuing decreasing use, of parole as it now exists is foreseen, given the advent of mandatory flat sentences and the current questioning of the value of parole supervision, a function many feel law enforcement officials could handle. It is, however, probable, as Pallone (1979) contends, that parole will continue in some form for the next decade.

While recognizing these various trends, there are those who feel the prison system will experience little change. They doubt that prisons will ever develop to the point where only hopeless cases will be "segregated" (Frank, 1979; Cohen, 1974; McConville, 1975). Prisons, they suggest, will continue to receive a mix of offenders, including periodic offenders or short-termers where non-custodial sanctions have already been tried or are not publically acceptable. In the short term this may be the case. However, the trends and movements are unmistakable and there is considerable agreement that the future correctional conditions and ultimately the system's responses will change.

SUMMARY

There are no profound forecasts regarding the future of corrections nor are there any readily viable solutions provided for the issues and anticipated problems. What is evident are likely general directions for and features of the future correctional system. Further, these directions are interrelated with a number of factors external to the criminal justice system.

Given the statistical projections of the population at risk, taken in concert with other changing demographic variables, such as urbanization, wavering economy, post-industrial developments, and crime/incarceration trends, it appears that the prison population will increase through to 1985, level off until 1995, and increase thereafter.

The "law and order" phenomenon, counteracted with the movement toward decarceratory models for non-violent offenders, will conceivably result in a prison population characterized by long sentences and with a greater propensity toward violence. Inmates will thus experience a greater social stigmatization. The inmate population, a concentration of dangerous recalcitrant individuals, will present a challenge to the future of corrections. If these inmates are assumed untreatable, prison programs may merely serve to occupy the inmate's time. There is a possibility of a rise in psychiatric methods/programs as release dates approach. In this regard, release preparation and facilities will have to be more innovative than at present.

Institutional administrators will have to find new ways to cope, but with security continuing to be the overriding consideration. Small secure units, or even remote access institutions, could conceivably become realities.

Although rehabilitation could be reborn in the decarceration movement, with its emphasis on re-integration/resocialization, the future role of the prison appears destined to be incapacitation and deterrence. This is the most pessimistic forecast based on present uncertainties. However, awareness of this direction is the first step toward creating viable response mechanisms.

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FORECASTS

There are some common threads throughout the papers presented in this report. Some of the prospects outlined are elaborations of forecasts from the first annual report, based on further examination. Others concur with the views expressed in the briefs received by the Committee.

We have already indicated that an effort will be made to tie together trends and possibilities from the various papers to create meaningful scenarios on the future of corrections in Canada. Nevertheless, we believe that it is appropriate to acknowledge certain issues now because of their potentially significant impact on CSC. We qualify the following forecasts, however, with a reminder that our examination of the other areas could cause us to shift our ultimate forecasts. The issues presented here, then, are "red flags." They serve as warning signals for CSC to consider carefully the future consequences of present decisions.

NATIVES

Many committees and inquiries into corrections have expressed concern about the over-representation of Natives in the Canadian Criminal Justice System. This over-representation is due, in large part, to cultural, social and economic conditions as well as government regulations and corresponding restrictions which are beyond the control of CSC or corrections generally.

Given the trends and implications outlined in our Natives paper, there is unlikely to be any dramatic changes in these conditions. In fact, without substantial changes in the social, economic and/or the criminal justice system and with a greater proportion of the Indian population entering the "high risk" age group in the next few years, crime rates can be expected to increase and both the federal and provincial Indian incarceration rates are likely to grow.

The Need for a Criminal Justice Strategy

Whether or not there are dramatic improvements in the Native situation from other sources, CSC will have to take the initiative in developing a strategy for custody and treatment of Native inmates.

This is critical for the following reasons:

- Current trends in corrections are unlikely to alleviate the over-representation of Natives. For example, it is difficult to imagine the current thrust toward community-based alternatives to imprisonment significantly impacting on the Native offender population to the same extent as the non-Native unless these services are developed specifically for Native offenders in cooperation with Native communities.
- Natives are presently at a distinct disadvantage in the development of their release plans. The majority are incarcerated for crimes against the person and thus there is a tendency to confine them in high security institutions where they are less likely to be considered for various types of conditional release.
- There is an increasing cultural awareness among the various Native groups both in the community-at-large and in the institutions. Indeed, many are rediscovering, or perhaps discovering, their cultural heritage inside the walls. A recognition of their distinct situation is entrenched in the Constitution and will result in increased pressure for action from Native groups in the community, and from Native inmates.

Possible CSC Action

A straight-line projection indicates a greater proportion of Native inmates by the early 1990's than at present. In the absence of immediate CSC initiatives, the Native inmate of the 1990's will experience the same disadvantages as those presently incarcerated.

Many groups submitting briefs to our Committee emphasized, as does the Committee, the need for more Native staff in all CSC operations, staff training in Native sensitivity, distinctly Native programmes and more Native release centres.

Current security classification of Native inmates should be reviewed with risk potential rather than offence being the primary determinant for institutional placement. A review of Native/non-Native time served and reasons for parole/revocation decisions may identify the inadequacies in programming for Natives and point to possible methods of correcting the imbalance over the long-term.

Furthermore, we encourage the consideration of the viability of separate Native-operated "institutions" such as wilderness camps and on-reserve release centres. Notwithstanding this, however, we note that in the future, increasing numbers of Natives will reside in urban centres and this pattern must be taken into account in developing appropriate Native programmes and resources. The assignment to a wilderness facility would be unrealistic and of little benefit to such inmates. For these people, greater access to urban release centres would be more appropriate.

Conclusion

Native inmates will continue to represent a significant portion of the inmate population. Given the anticipated numbers, their diversity and their politicalization, a concerted, imaginative and multifaceted approach is necessary. But, any initiatives and planning must have Native input and must take into consideration a recognition of the diversity of Native, and even Indian, groups. That is there is not a single "Native problem" and consequently no single "Native solution."

FUTURE FEDERAL INMATE PROFILE

It is distressing to read the opinions of many respected scholars and professionals who are forecasting that the prison of the future will serve only to "constrain", to provide "human containment."

Leonard Savitz (1974:76), for example, forecasted that "the final aspect of corrections in the 1990's would be the treatment of all those capable of treatment and the constraining of the hard-core untreatable".

In discussing the growing number of "lifers" in British prisons, Stanley Cohen (1974:408) suggests that:

Prisons for this group of offenders are destined to become **human warehouses**: places where people are stored until society can think of something else to do with them.

These are but two of the many opinions in the futures literature that suggest that the prison will serve only to incapacitate and deter.

The Future Inmate

These forecasts are not without some foundation. There is a substantial move toward the use of community alternatives. This direction is based on the premise that "prisons don't work" and on the economics of incarceration. The changes could ultimately result in fewer minor and property offenders being incarcerated. At the same time, sentences for violent offences are increasing in length (including longer minimums to be served before parole eligibility).

These two developments could mean fewer but generally longer sentences to imprisonment. There will also be a greater concentration of inmates who have committed crimes against the person.

In addition, current challenges to the parole function, if successful, could result in inmates serving greater portions of their sentences in the institution. On the other hand, an increased use of parole could result in early release for even more non-violent and minor offenders, still leaving prisons with a concentration of inmates serving long sentences.

The end result for the future may well be federal institutions housing long-term dangerous or incorrigible inmates - described by Cohen (1974) as "terminal cases" - with very few non-violent or property offenders.

In addition to the futures literature, which is predominantly American, there is some Canadian support for this contention. One of the views expressed in the briefs to our Committee (*First Report of the Strategic Planning Committee*, 1981:49) was that the "increased emphasis on alternatives to incarceration" will have the effect of decreasing "the number of property, fraud and minor assault offenders in the federal prison system" leaving federal prisons with "a higher proportion of dangerous/long-term inmates".

Our examination of the trends in the federal-provincial jurisdictional split in corrections, discussed elsewhere in this report, further substantiates this direction. The creation of a number of autonomous correctional systems, or even a further blurring of the distinction between federal and provincial inmates, through exchange of service agreements, suggests that minor offenders will be under the jurisdiction of the provinces and long-term or violent offenders will remain federal. If the "other possibility" discussed by the Committee becomes a reality - i.e. the functional split in jurisdiction - then "only long-term and/or dangerous and/or persistent offenders will be confined in federal institutions..." In either case, the trend in federal-provincial corrections further enhances this direction.

The prospect outlined above is not limited to North America. Our research on other criminal justice jurisdictions reveals similar trends. *The Committee of Inquiry into the United Kingdom Prison Services* (1979:42) suggests that "it is the 'hardening' of the population that is thought to be the main feature in recent years". That is, the:

decrease in the proportion of offenders sentenced to imprisonment seems to have occurred because the courts disposed of a wider range of non-custodial sentences and were increasingly willing to use them. The effect of this, together with the introduction of parole, has been to 'cream off' into non-custodial sentences the 'best risks' and to concentrate in the prisons an increasingly difficult, intractable and longer term group of offenders.

The Netherlands is experiencing increasing use of alternatives to imprisonment and, at the same time, increases in sentence lengths for selected offences, the result being "a building up of the most serious offenders in prison population" and a more "difficult prison population" (*Strategic Planning Committee Background Report No. 5*, 1980:8).

Denmark, too, has increased its use of community-based alternatives, leaving the "possibility of a small hard-core prison population serving long sentences..." (*Strategic Planning Committee: Background Report No. 3, 1980:7*).

For the same reasons, Finland is also experiencing a "hardening of the prison population, with a decrease in first-time offenders and lengthier sentences for repeaters..." (*Strategic Planning Committee: Background Report No. 4, 1980:7*).

In addition to the apparently widespread factors noted above, there are two other contributing factors in the Canadian case. The recent reclassification of institutions into many security levels and the current CSC efforts at "cascading" - the placement of the inmate in the least restrictive environment necessary - may further contribute to the kind of prison population described above.

Consequences

What are the consequences of such a direction for The Correctional Service of Canada?

Our survey of the literature, discussed elsewhere in this report, reveals the belief that:

The end product may be a residual pool of violent inmates. These inmates will be more difficult to manage - less likely to cooperate, and more prone to violence...

Canadian opinion, as reflected in the briefs received, supports this contention: "The increase in number of long-term and/or dangerous inmates" in combination with certain other factors such as the openness of institutions, the emphasis on inmate rights and its subsequent effect on disciplinary methods, may contribute to "a more violent prison environment and an increase in the number of protective custody inmates" (*First Report of the Strategic Planning Committee, 1981:50*). Indeed, there is evidence to support this contention (Vantour, 1979).

Our survey indicates that many American authorities agree that there will be an increase in the use of protective custody.

Furthermore, an increase in the inmate suicide/homicide rate may result should the above conditions prevail.

Traditional classification systems and programmes may have to be re-evaluated for the future inmate population. Indeed, the traditional prison may prove to be an unsuitable facility for the future inmate.

Some respondents to our request for briefs indicated "a need to build a separate facility for long-term inmates". There is a further suggestion, both in the briefs and the literature, that the penal colony concept for such inmates, or for violent recidivists, should be studied. It is not unreasonable to expect separation of the various inmate groups (one such group may be the older, non-productive inmates) and the subsequent need for specialized approaches and facilities.

Conclusion

We encourage the use of non-custodial sanctions, and recognize many benefits to be gained from such a direction, but we share the views discussed above which forecast a "hardening" of the system. The Committee is studying factors that may impede the thrust toward the kind of prison population of the future which we have outlined above. Nevertheless, we believe that this trend will continue for some time. Despite a possible backlash to it some time in the future, its impact will undoubtedly be felt in the interim.

Our system must be able to accommodate the concentration of inmates described above while at the same time flexible enough to adjust should the current trend eventually be disrupted.

The evidence in North America, the trends in other jurisdictions, the views of respected authorities and our own considered opinion cause us to present this possibility of "human warehouses" as a warning signal to correctional planners.

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MEMBERS - STRATEGIC PLANNING COMMITTEE

Dr. Jim Vantour, Ph.D.

Chairman, Strategic Planning Committee, The Correctional Service of Canada.

Consultant in Criminal Justice and Corrections.

He was Associate Professor of Sociology at Carleton University, (1969-81) and Coordinator of the University's Criminology and Corrections Program (1977-79).

He was Assistant Director of the Senate of Canada's Examination of the Parole System (1974), Chairman of the Solicitor General's Study Group on Dissociation (1975), Advisor to the Service on dissociation matters and Special Advisor to the Deputy Commissioner, Policy and Planning, The Correctional Service of Canada.

He is the author of a number of government reports on parole and dissociation.

Dr. Marie-Andrée Bertrand, D.Crim. (U. of C.-Berkeley)

Professor, School of Criminology, Université de Montréal.

Dr. Bertrand has a distinguished academic career and is recognized for her contributions to the areas of female criminality and theoretical aspects of deviance and social control.

She has served as a member of several criminal justice related commissions including the Commission on Emotional and Learning Disorders in Children (1966) and the LeDain Commission (1973).

Dr. Bertrand has written several books on female criminality, has published extensively in professional journals and is a former editor of the *Canadian Journal of Criminology*.

She was elected president of the Federation of Unions and Associations of University Professors of Quebec, January, 1980.

Mr. John Braithwaite, M.S.W.

Deputy Commissioner, Communications, The Correctional Service of Canada.

Mr. Braithwaite's long affiliation with Canadian corrections includes extensive institutional experience in the British Columbia system as well as a number of senior positions in federal corrections.

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Mr. Allen F. Breed, B.A.

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Mr. Breed is a recognized authority in the fields of juvenile and criminal justice. He was State Director, Department of the Youth Authority, California and Chairman of the Youth Authority Board.

He serves on numerous criminal justice commissions and is a consultant to many Federal and State criminal justice agencies.

Mr. Breed lectures on correctional management and juvenile justice and has published widely in leading journals.

Dr. Tadeusz Grygier, Dip.Pol.Sci. and Ec., LL.M., Ph.D., F.B.Ps.S.

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Dr. Grygier is an internationally known scholar in the field of criminal justice. He has made a significant contribution to law, psychology and criminological theory through his research and writing and has had extensive practical experience in criminal justice, which includes serving as an advisor to the Deputy Commissioner, Policy, Planning and Administration, The Correctional Service of Canada.

He is a member of a number of national and international scientific societies.

Mr. Alfred Levin, B.A., M.A.

Manager, Consumer Affairs Department of the Royal Bank of Canada, Head Office, Montreal.

Mr. Levin has more than 20 years research and administrative experience in all aspects of Economic and Sociological Research.

He joined the Royal Bank in 1966 to set up The Marketing Research Department. In 1970, he was a member of an inter-disciplinary task force looking into Canada's next 10 years and the effects of computerization. He was responsible for the invention, development and promotion of Community Branches of the Royal Bank now in operation in Montreal, Toronto, Winnipeg and Vancouver, and created Royal Bank Money Habit Workshops, a behavioural approach to money management using the participatory self-teaching process.

Mr. Levin has published numerous articles in professional journals, books and business periodicals.

Mr. W.T. McGrath, M.S.W.

Executive Director, Canadian Association for the Prevention of Crime.

Mr. McGrath has had a long association with Canadian criminal justice and corrections. He has been a member of various task forces including the Canadian Committee on Corrections (1969), the Commission of Inquiry into Disturbances at Kingston Penitentiary (1971) and the Working Group on Maximum Security Penitentiaries (1971). He is the author/editor of five books on Canadian criminal justice.

Kenneth Norman, B.A., LL.B., B.C.L. (Oxon)

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Mr. Norman is also a Member, Human Rights Tribunal Panel, Canadian Human Rights Commission, part-time member of the Public Service Staff Relations Board and has been counsel to the office of the Ombudsman, Province of Saskatchewan and the Office of The Canadian Indian Claims Commission, Ottawa.

He has published a number of scholarly and professional articles in the fields of administrative and labour law and is the author of a number of commissioned studies for government at both provincial and federal levels.

Mr. Tony Sheridan, M.S.W.

Deputy Commissioner of Corrections, British Columbia.

Mr. Sheridan has had extensive experience in the British Columbia correctional system.

He is a member and past executive officer of a number of criminal justice associations, has held sessional appointments at the University of British Columbia and the University of Victoria, and has contributed to Canadian correctional literature.

Mr. Sydney Shoom, M.S.W.

Regional Director, Institutions Division (Eastern Region), Ontario Ministry of Correctional Services.

Mr. Shoom has extensive consultative, community, and institutional experience in the Ontario and Saskatchewan Corrections systems. He has served on a number of correctional advisory groups.

He has published numerous papers on various areas in Corrections including female criminality, counselling, and Canadian penal history.

Research Assistant: Cathy J. Gillis, M.C.A.

PUBLICATIONS

A number of background documents on criminal justice in selected countries are being prepared for the Committee's information. At the request of the Commissioner of Corrections, these reports are being published and distributed to criminal justice agencies, CSC personnel and provincial corrections departments.

Those currently available are:

- Report No. 1 Sweden
- Report No. 2 Norway
- Report No. 3 Denmark
- Report No. 4 Finland
- Report No. 5 Netherlands
- Report No. 6 England and Wales

COMMITTEE PRESENTATIONS

During the past year, the Chairman and members of the Committee have had the opportunity to exchange views on "the future of corrections" with a number of organizations and groups.

Presentations were made at the following:

- "Future of Corrections" Seminar (Sponsored by the Ministry of Correctional Services, Government of Ontario) March, 1981, Quinte Detention Centre, Napanee, Ontario (J. Vantour and S. Shoom).
- The National Wardens Conference (Sponsored by The Correctional Service of Canada) April, 1981, Ottawa (J. Vantour).
- Canadian Congress for the Prevention of Crime, July, 1981, Winnipeg, Manitoba (J. Vantour).
- 111th Congress of Correction (Sponsored by the American Correctional Association) August, 1981, Miami Beach, Florida (J. Vantour).
- The Advanced Correctional Study Seminar, September, 1981, Maplehurst Correctional Centre, Milton, Ontario (S. Shoom).
- The Advanced Correctional Study Seminar, December, 1981, Maplehurst Correctional Centre, Milton, Ontario (S. Shoom).
- Branch Management Meeting, Corrections Branch, Ministry of Attorney General, British Columbia, 1981, Victoria, British Columbia (T. Sheridan).
- Senior Management Meeting, Ministry of Attorney General, British Columbia, 1981, Victoria, British Columbia (T. Sheridan).
- Probation Officer Training Course, Corrections Branch, Ministry of Attorney General, British Columbia, 1981, Victoria, British Columbia (T. Sheridan).
- Probation Officer Training Course, Corrections Branch, Ministry of Attorney General, British Columbia, 1981, Victoria, British Columbia (T. Sheridan).

We welcome these opportunities and are grateful to the above groups for their interest and their input to our task.