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Abolitionism
Building an Avant-Garde Criminological Antitheory

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ABOLITIONISM
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«Maybe we should not have any criminology.
Maybe we should rather abolish institutes, not open them.
Maybe the social consequences of criminology
are more dubious than we like to think.
I think they are».

Nils Christie, 1977

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Abstract

The following study consist an effort of structuring a complete, abolitionist speech within t bounds of possibility. The difficulty of such an effort appears to be considerable, because of t nature of abolitionism. Since its appearance, abolitionism is far from any ideological camp relativ status quo Moreover, abolitionism, as a form of criticism, aims not only at the demonstration of t manunctions of the criminal justice system but also at the dispute (discredit) of the institution itself.

In accordance with the criminological reports, which have been made in the past, the ba grounds and principals of the abolitionist model have been classified in five categories (the sens crime, the process of criminalization, the prison, the criminal justice system and the victim). T classification serves the better elaboration of the theoretical frame of abolitionism and the lu perception of its philosophy In this context I add my personal perspectives about the future of t abolitionist model while at the same time I point out some «traps» that should he avoided.

It is actually true what the philosopher wrote: «It is the pursuit of the «impossible» which h always motivated man to realize and recognize the «possible» while those scared who ke themselves within the limits of the «seeming possible» they never manage to go further».

Abolitionism rang the knell of the way criminology has been dealt with.

Forward

«It is a paradoxical situation we are in: Modern states have stopped regulating the econor Instead they regulate the poor. The absence of the other task - regulating the economy - make: convenient to find another arena for political exposures. And insecurities regarding potential pro from those at the bottom make it also convenient to have law and order as the central one strengthened law and more punitive order. The US is fast developing its system into one where t majority of the minority-population is controlled by penal law. But not only minorities. I send off th edition of my little book on *rime control as Industry these days*. I was forced to revise the book, d to the extreme changes in the US-figures. In 1991, time for writing first edition, they had 4

prisoners per 100 000 inhabitants. In 1993, time for preparing second edition, they had 537. In 2001 this year they have 709. Today they might be at 715. More than 8 percent of young males in the US is at present under control of the penal law, - in prison or at parole or probation. Russia has 6 prisoners per 100 000 of the population, but Putin won the election under the slogan: «The dictatorship of the law».

In this situation, it is extraordinarily important to resist this development. Abolitionism is a social movement, based on a coherent set of ideas, and a leading force behind this resistance. This book is to my knowledge, the first one to attempt to give a coherent description of this set of ideas. I am impressed by the enormous reading that is behind the book, its energy in presenting the main arguments, and I do also think the material is well organised.

The trend in most industrialised countries is in the direction of more and more use of imprisonment. It is therefore this book is so important just now. But nonetheless, we have also to penetrate the opposite question: Can a modern state exist without penal law and without prisons? Personally, I doubt that. We might reduce our prison-populations enormously, maybe down to half or two-thirds of the present level in Western Europe. But at the very bottom, we might meet problems where a modern state would need to use force, and then in the form of penal law and imprisonment. There are certain conflicts that can not be solved through mediation, conflicts that would have developed into a situation where the weak part might have been forced to succumb to the strong one, independent of any abstract «rights». I see in these exceptional cases no better instrument for the protection of all parties than the penal courts. I am for the great number of cases an abolitionist, but a minimalist when it comes to a few, impossible conflicts. As I read the author of this book, he goes all the way as an abolitionist. That is his morally well founded right. And it helps to clarify the benefits - and the possible weaknesses - in that interesting position.

It is a book well worth reading

Oslo May 3, 2000

Nils Christie

Foreword

There are neither «good prisons» nor «prisons-models». Nevertheless, the «penitentiary illusion» insists to ignore an obvious evident: the suppressing and corruptive character of prison does not allow any latitude for a humanized law and a socially - proper and individually - centered model of treatment. Consequently, there is no other way, but restoring, the «rehabilitative ideal» and mainly avoiding confinement.

I wonder if we live through the era of «de»(?)

De-criminalization

De-legalization (de-penalization)

De-judicialization???

De-institutionalization

I am not so sure.

However, what I am in the position (stale) to assure is that the study of Charalampos Karagiannidis leads (guide) us to the neglected paths of abolitionism, a theory which had fallen into many errors but which mostly had claimed right predictions. Our over-paged penal codes, our overloaded courts, plus (and) the overpopulation in prisons consist the best witnesses of an oncoming failure.

The feeling that I get from the study of Charalampos Karagiannidis is a synonym to the sense of freedom. «Set the prisons free» could be the catchword(-word-slogan). «Solidarity instead

repression» could be the message

The way has been paved again It's time to see by whom and how is going to be stepped on(??

Y. Panoussis

Preface

A social scientist can and in fact is obligated to act in a political way This does not mean that s/he should act as a politician but rather as a «prime mover» on the basis of his autonomy offered his specific position in the process of producing new ideas (Bourdieu, 1997).

On the other hand, the penal abolitionist is responsible for the determination of an extremely positive function; the analysis and abolition of fictitious or falsely formulated problems. It is in his responsibility to pull up and bring about real problematic situations that do not have access to expression. It is in his responsibility to stand critical not only towards mainstream but also towards «new» or «critical» criminology which in its effort to reconcile irreconcilable points of view and practices, has rendered itself - to use Pierre Bourdieu's onomatopoeia - «the left hand of state authority» (1996 and 1997).

In this respect, penal abolitionism raised some questions and offered some answers. For example it raised the question «does crime exist or is it just a myth?» and answered that «there is no such thing as crime because...». In essence, I will try to comprehensively epitomise the abolitionist ideology

in order to make the essential evaluation and I will aim to produce an accurate picture of the philosophy of penal abolitionism in order to make a *de profundis* analysis of this criminological paradigm

Moreover, I felt the necessity to add my own views on the future of penal abolitionism by pointing out some serious pitfalls the paradigm in question should avoid.

My conclusion will be that the answers given by penal abolitionism are convincing, powerful and stimulating. Penal abolitionism is the noble part of critical criminology and offers viable solutions to confront the «criminal phenomenon».

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Finally I am grateful to my family for their love and support.

Introduction

*«It is about a society in free fall.
To reassure itself,
it repeats endlessly...
“So far, so good”
“So far, so good”
“So far, so good”
It is not the fall that matters
It is the landing.»*

LA HAINE - Mathieu Kassovitz

There is a fundamental problem with dealing, let alone writing a dissertation, on abolitionism problem rooted in the gap between what we see and what we know. For perhaps it is only what think we know. The starting point for this dissertation, written in two different places, and in fact between two different «realities», is to present something real, tangible and visible which clash furiously with preconception. Furthermore, what is perhaps beyond question is that penal abolition and the debate that surrounds it provokes great emotion and passion. It is in my intention to set out some of the concepts that provoke this response.

In an era when centralisation and State have reached the most explosive point of historical negativity and the scientist and intellectual function in a system that rewards for their men conformity (Said, 1994 and Chomsky, 1995), the process of decomposition is becoming general disrupts traditional values and institutions. But it is the same process that creates new themes conversation, new ways of struggle and new forms of organisation by demanding a brand new approach not only in Theory but also in Praxis. For it is the highly industrialised, late capitalist society that is «beginning to endanger the very physical foundation of existence of people in society» (Mathiesen, 1983: 5).

On the other hand, the language of abolitionism seems to be at least strange, and the politics abolition, more or less, utopian. It is not strange that abolitionists were always considered as the «threatening Other» even within the frame of the so-called critical or radical criminology. Clearly speaking, the penal abolitionist fights a battle in a conceptual war with, so far, countless victims; dead people who are «warehoused» in the «gardens of law», and thousands of suicides in a declared war on the platform of the «language of the prevailing law and order».

The suspicion of critical criminology towards abolitionism can easily be explained; it is the «bankruptcy» of the existed socialism that afflicted the spirit of utopia - with the dialectical and dynamic meaning of the word - and hope, the vision and the search for radical solutions, the ideas and the programs that look forward to a social renaissance.

But the movement of Abolitionism offers the opportunity to see an alternative vision a abolitionists hold the eternal faith to the alternative offer; in every case and problematic situation, indifferently to what extent is it imposed, there lies always the alternative resolution, the «other way».

For the struggle of abolitionists is not only a struggle for the abolition of the criminal justice system is a struggle for verification of human rights.

As we are close to the turn of a new century, there still exists the necessity for a new beginning new beginning intellectually, spiritually and politically in our criminological thought (Quinney, 197

And for a really radical criminology we need not radical mediums but radical approaches; that means that the very «why» of it must be radical. However, the path of abolitionism is in fact a «hard road». But, poetically licence and to use Herman Hesse's terminology (Siddartha, 1922) the path of abolitionism is the path that leads to the essential «Befreiung» (Liberation), which is the condition qua non for «Freiheit» (Freedom). It is a lively time for abolitionism; the socio-political situation is not as bleak and difficult as many defeatist representatives of «critical» criminology might suggest. And bearing in mind that main elements for a «good» theory are the clarity of conception, the accuracy and the logical integration (Parsons, 1961), penal abolitionism will succeed.

This dissertation has two clear aims:

- a. to produce an accurate, clear and in depth picture of penal abolitionism and
- b. to demonstrate the questions raised by abolitionism and critically evaluate them.

Without court, conventional criminology is a failure, abolitionism must then be the answer; for the clarity of thought, honesty of heart and buoyancy of spirit.

The Penal Abolitionism

«At its core, criminal law is still based on the same repressive assumptions as the Inquisition from which it originates. From the beginning it has been seen to create problems instead of solving them. A penal reaction after the fact is not preventive but desocializes an ever-increasing number of people. Therefore it would be better to abolish penal means of coercion, and to replace them with more reparative means. This briefly is the abolitionist message.»

Rene van Swaaningen, *«What is Abolitionism?»*, 1986

Penal abolitionism is a methodical avant-garde criminological antitheory and includes theoretical pursuits, non-systematic elaboration and mainly practical solutions. Furthermore, this model functions as a criminological agenda and the essential basis of discussion for the solution of serious social problems such as crime and criminality, the criminal justice system, the prison system and the prisoners, the need for decriminalisation and de-institutionalisation and many others. In essence, it is possible to say that penal abolitionism incarnates and reflects the critical criminology of its time (Dimopoulos, 1989) by aiming at the deconstruction of the traditional criminological agenda. Another aim should be seen as «a process of rethinking the meaning and categorisation of terms and to do so that none can be assumed to have substance» (Heidensohn and Silvestri, 1998) while offering an alternative and non-punitive approach to «crime». In Stan Cohen's words (1986: 3).

«Abolitionism has turned out to be more durable and uncompromising of these critiques (“new” “critical” criminology). It assumes labelling theory's relativism and its insistence on the problematic status of deviant labels - but moves beyond interactional questions of stigma and identity to a historically informed sense of “crime” as unique form of social control. It assumes the critical school's attack on conventional criminology and its alternative theory of law and the state - but instead of searching for a socialist criminology and crime policy (“left realism”), it envisages the eventual abandonment of crime and criminology as viable constructs».

In the first place, penal abolitionism is an avant-garde criminological paradigm because it introduces a new point of departure for the criminological thought; the problematic situation. Simply put, crime does not exist. It is another myth well orchestrated by the «pyramidal» style of criminal justice system and the State authority.

«Acts are not, they *become*. So also with crime. Crime does not exist. Crime is created. First there are acts. Then follows a long process of giving meaning to these acts. With this as our point of departure, we have to frame our questions in another way than the usual» (Christie, 1998: 121).

In order to understand the concept of «crime» or, to use the abolitionist terminology, the concept of the problematic situation, one should first of all understand not only the institution of the criminal justice system that defines it; it is the social and political process that is needed to be taken in

account and put into our magnifying glass.

Thus, penal abolitionism is simply the revolution in criminology, the end for the system of thought of the past, and a brand new philosophy for the study of crime that stands adamantly against the duality of conventional criminology. It is under the abolitionist perspective that criminology for the first time has reached to an «open end»; the criminological pursuit has limitless development potential. In the second place, penal abolitionism is an anti-theory because, first and foremost, it is a theory of *Praxis* or to set it in the right perspective, *Praxis of theory*. That is the most prodigious and noble characteristic of it. Like Marxism, the abolitionist metamorphosed the dialectics from a subjective dimension into an objective one and the philosophical and sociological critique into social action. Thus, paraphrasing Murray Bookchin (1969: 12) «if theory and praxis are completely separated, abolitionism is not destroying itself, it commits suicide». Therefore, although abolitionist ideas are powerful, there is no future for penal abolitionism to make any progress if it is supposed to remain just another theory. Penal abolitionism elegantly combines theory and praxis instead of being just, in Prof. Fritz Sack's terms (1996), a «paper-and-pencil» criminology. As Frances Heidensol Marisa Silvestri nicely put it (1998: 7);

«It is not, on the whole, the power of ideas which makes them fly. Ideas will have wings when political, historical and social situations are propitious. For them to launch effective missiles (to use a metaphor to snapping point) requires local, if not global, conflict and a major production industry support».

In the field of the scientific research, the penal abolitionism invariably provokes us into doing new and renovating research in the «classic» criminological or not works of the past (e.g. the outstanding article of Thomas Mathiesen «The Viewer Society», about Foucault's «Discipline and Punish» *theoretical Criminology Journal*) in order to let them be more critical, more investigative and, in brief, more readable.

Penal Abolitionism has its roots in the 1960's in the Scandinavian countries, but was also developed as a paradigm for the study of crime in England, Canada and the United States of America (Mathiesen, 1986). However, it was during the Ninth World Congress of Criminology in Vienna, Austria (1983) when for the very first time academics presented themselves as abolitionists (Swaaningen, 1986). Therefore, it is not risky to say that penal abolitionism is the youngest criminological paradigm for the study of crime. And by contrast with Left Realism, penal abolitionism is neither only a left-wing reply to mainstream criminology nor it represents the «Left's Law and Order Campaign» (Steinert, 1985). Penal abolitionism rejects conventional political categories and redefines the terms of the political debate (Haan, 1987).

The cornerstones of penal abolitionism are three basic principles, which function in an interactionist way and stimulate each other;

a. Criminal Justice system is a social problem and its problematic character originates from the fact that the present social order is an unjust one. Moreover, what state and criminal justice system like to call crime control is a plain industrially structured social control.

b. As a result, the definition given to «crime» is questionable, manipulative and the concept of crime itself has a clear ideological concept. The concept of crime has no ontological dimension; it is just a social construction.

c. Consequently, state authority and its criminal justice system has no legitimacy to punish lawbreakers. Criminal justice system is an ideological apparatus and its power to punish people has no valid justification. And prison is not the «normal» response to «crime».

In this respect, what penal abolitionist is dreaming of is the replacement of the left realist «square of crime» with the «triangle of problematic situation»; «the two disputants, and the surrounding community, allowing the definition of the situation to arise out of the interaction itself rather than being pre-formulated in a juridical language sustained by the state» (Lea, 1999).

As a criminological paradigm, penal abolitionism has a spiritual affinity with another criminological paradigm, the Left Realism, with a sociological theory, the critical Frankfurt school of Social Theory and with a philosophical and political cosmic theory, Anarchism.

Penal abolitionism and left realism both problematized with the very concept of crime and have

many common approaches. It is true that along with penal abolitionism, only left realism felt the necessity to deal with and problematize with the concept of crime. Left Realists also treat «crime» as problematic but what differentiates both left realism and penal abolitionism from other criminological theories is the answer, the «remedy» given to this problem; it is a non-punitive (realistic) and reflective approach to them, without falling in the trap of neo-classicist answers or «just deserts» approach. It is exactly this common approach that raised serious and interesting debates in the middle of the 1970s. It was left realism and penal abolitionism that revitalised critical criminology and fight for the overthrow of the immobility of critical criminology. And both the criminological paradigms believe that what is needed for a true radical criminology is the integration of theory with practice (Matthews and Young, 1992: 8) and call for attention to the reciprocal nature of crime and punishment, where each begins with the other in an almost cyclical fashion. Moreover, left realism asserts the action-reaction model for the study of crime and the work of the left realists implicates the «get-tough-on-crime» policies of Thatcherism. And, both abolitionism and left realism point to the social injustice that provokes criminalization. Finally, the criminological paradigms in discussion believe - and it is logical - that the process of criminalization is in fact a process that invariably transforms itself and embodies the terms of action for individuals. However, what seems to be the difference, is the left realist belief that community and its members have an active role in this process.

On the other hand, penal abolitionism and the Critical Frankfurt School of Social Theory (represented by Horkheimer, Adorno, Marcuse and Habermas), stood adamantly against structural inequality, authority and power (Horkheimer, 1984 and Habermas, 1987, Marcuse, 1988). The theorists of the Critical Frankfurt School «advanced the importance of debunking, demystifying and deconstructing domination and the knowledge claims predicated upon power structures» (The Critical Criminology Homepage). Moreover, the Critical School made a great attempt to show that what is hidden in science is not some neutral formulations but rather a lot of repressive interests. In this respect, it seems that the materialist and liberal tradition in the field of criminology was developed by penal abolitionism.

Finally, Anarchism adopts a radical stance towards crime and believes that it is not possible to confront crime by any means of state authority. Criminal is another human being and what is needed is to build up new patterns of communication based on the principle of «no pain infliction». In the anarchist point of view, self-discipline and self-liberation are the sides of the same coin. And in this extent, the anarchist hope for an immediate abolition of the State is depended upon the faith in the viability of the social instincts of man. For example, Bakunin was sure that it is the *tradition* that will force people with antisocial habits to obey the communitarian values and needs. Therefore, there would be no need to force the community to use oppressive measures against them. Moreover, Kropotkin demonstrates that the instinct of people for *mutual aid* is instinct. And this instinct will function as the essential guarantee in an anarchist community (Bookchin, 1969). Finally, as Reijnders van Swaaningen had already mentioned, Peter Kropotkin «is amongst all anarchists the most explicit in his ideas that criminal law is one of the most repressive instruments of the state, which should disappear with the abolition of the state itself» (1995: 19).

In terms of penal abolitionism's terminology, hypothesis and method of research, the criminological paradigm in question proves that it is an avant-garde criminological antitheory.

In terms of terminology, the abolitionist vocabulary is revolutionary. Abolitionists refuse to use the traditional criminological vocabulary and call for alternative interpretations of the original act (e.g. «crime» is just a problematic situation and «criminal» is the culprit for this situation). The different neutral terminology of abolitionism is not just a caprice or an alibi for modernism. Nils Christie elegantly explains and shows the point of departure for our criminological *activity* (Christie, 1997: 22);

«By taking state categories as our point of departure, we are captured by the meanings given by the official system of registration. We are therefore in danger of losing the myriad of alternative possible meanings ... It is time to counteract this development and stick to our point of departure - not crimes - are the basic material for our activities».

In this respect, penal abolitionism refuses to follow the imposed observance of the excuses, i

the language of criminological rationalism. Penal abolitionism comes in straight juxtaposition with mainstream criminology and gives rise to much controversy. Tout court, it questions all the *self-evident* of conventional criminology.

In terms of *hypothesis and method of research*, penal abolitionism takes for granted that the hope for exceeding the current immobility in critical thinking is the spread of new ways of practicing (Vitale, 1996), rather than the offer of just another one criminological perspective with a «new» etiology for crime. Therefore, penal abolitionism does not let itself to be seduced into legal reasoning but offer socio-political argumentation (Mathiesen, 1983).

Abolitionist thought is taking place through depictions. One and only study of the abolitionist writing is enough to show that abolitionists feel great aversion towards the conceptual and the abstract. It is the words in these works themselves that have an aesthetic and poetic texture; words that by only hearing them, we can imagine them to be surrendered in the images and depictions of life itself. Therefore, the language of abolitionism is tough and simultaneously haughty for it exploits most of times daring hints.

On the other hand, abolitionists use the dialectical method as its scientific method for the study of a problematic situation; for the abolitionist thought is concrete though, that is dialectical thought. As

the cornerstone of this method is the assumption that society is an animate thing under a continuous evolution. In this respect, for penal abolitionism the «obvious» is rare and everything needs to be constantly substantiated.

Furthermore, penal abolitionism as a criminological paradigm uses the sociological research method of the participant observation (Hulsman, 1997 and Snare, 1996) in order to approach and study the problematic situations and to urge for finding passages never used before. Let's for example remember the case of professor Guy Houchon (University of Louvain - Belgium) who voluntarily stayed in prison as inmate for two years (1967-1968) within the bounds of participant observation; «During this period I had the great opportunity to live for 12 months imprisoned and voluntary imprisonment offered me the chance to engage in a participant observation of prison life he asserted ten years ago (Houchon, 1989: 75).

Thus, what is important for abolitionists is exactly the personal and lived experience, rather than an abstract and distant criminological theory; «Don't go to the library» advised the abolitionist Nils Christie (1997: 18) to new students and scientists, in his recent article for *Theoretical Criminology* journal. Furthermore, in an abolitionist point of view, an «abstract and removed from everyday life is not something to which they aspire» (Quinney, 1994: 1). In this respect, the abolitionist analysis invades at the very framework of criminal justice system without losing its contact with the fact and reality.

Abolitionists invariably turn their back to frameworks that are in harmony with criminal statistics and «hard» data. It seems that they share the opinion that it is these statistics and data themselves that need to be explained rather than what they are trying to explain (Wiles, 1971). Like Left Realists (Mattioli, 1998-1999), penal abolitionists share the opinion that prison statistics need to be used critically and the use of prison system has to be evaluated as all cultural phenomena. In an abolitionist point of view there is no strong relation between crime rates and imprisonment level and a different approach to prison statistics is needed. Thus, prison statistics does not reflect crime rates but they are just «reflections of broad structural and cultural phenomena within the various countries» (Christie, 1991: 54). As the abolitionist Nils Christie recently concluded (1990/1991: 53);

«In that perspective the number of prisoners in a country is not seen as a necessity, created by crime. Instead it is seen as a result of a magnitude of forces and counterforces, all open for choice. With this perspective prison figures are also open for evaluations. Prison figures are not seen as determined by crime. We determine. In this perspective the use of prison is seen as other cultural phenomena.

On the other hand, the fact that crime surveys are not of great importance for a criminological research is taken for granted even by criminal justice system agencies. For example the latter was noticed by the Central Research Unit of the Scottish Office in their latest Research Findings Paper. We read that (The Scottish Office-News Release October 10, 1997):

«Crime surveys do not provide a complete picture of crime. They do not cover crimes committed against businesses (e.g. fraud, shoplifting etc.); crimes which people may not be aware of (e.g. environmental crimes); nor victimless crime (e.g. drug offences). The accuracy of crime surveys is limited by the reliability of answers given by respondents and sampling and non-sampling errors».

Moreover, it is the personal experience that is in fact the most important potential source of data. In Nils Christie's words, «there is little in the field of criminology we have not yet experienced. The problem is access to us. Access, and respect for what we find» (Christie, 1997: 14). In this respect, the abolitionist research is autonomous. The research is based on problems as they are defined and observed in real life in the social tissue, rather as defined by the state apparatus.

Regarding the so-called *scientific objectivity*, penal abolitionism adopts a rather Marxist, i.e. materialist and dialectical, stance. There is nothing that can exist in a state of total isolation independent from the conditions of its existence and with no relation with its environment. Things appear, exist and disappear, not irrespectively of the other things, but in close relation with them. The nature of things itself is transformed because of this relation (Cornforth, 1975). Karl Marx and Frederick Engels, as early as in 1848 wrote about in their «Communist Manifesto» (1998: 50-51);

«Does it require deep intuition to comprehend that man's ideas, views and conceptions, in one word, man's consciousness, changes with every change in the conditions of his material existence, his social relations and in his social life?».

The myth of the «scientific objectivity» is in fact an invention of positivism (and neo-positivism). In this paradigm for the study of crime that invent also the well known «consensus model» of social organisation (Michalowski, 1977). The positivist paradigm emphasised on the determinate nature of individuals and on the unity of scientific method and value-neutrality of science. Therefore, (neo)positivism accepted the unacceptable view that a social scientist and his personal values derived from the study of the world «could be separated» (Michalowski, 1997: 29). On the other hand, penal abolitionism and critical criminology in general always shared the opinion that there is not such thing as «scientific objectivity». In Richard Quinney's words, «we have no reason to believe in the objective existence of anything» (1994: 2).

And it is true that a social scientist - as any individual - is living in the society, has his own political, economic and cultural values, in short his own «background». In Quinney's words

«Our thinking about law and crime only confirms an official ideology that supports the existing social and economic order. As long as we fail to understand the nature of law in contemporary society, we will be bound by an oppressive reality. What is urgently needed is a critical philosophical and legal order (Quinney, 1975: 181).

In this respect, the penal abolitionists could never be characterised as «objective» scientists. The scientific clarity and neutrality is an invention, it is something of a fiction and an alibi (Karydis, 1998). And penal abolitionists could easily be characterised as total subjectivists.

Penal abolitionism is a criminological paradigm that should perpetually provoke (Ruggiero, 1998) and call for an endless confrontation with conventional and technocratic criminology by refusing to receive with no evaluation the abstract, metaphysical and invalid knowledge they prefix. Therefore, instead to pretend the objective scientists, penal abolitionists choose to adopt the method of the *external interpretation* of crime, criminal justice system and the capitalist (and state-capitalist) structure of society as a whole. While the internal interpretation gives a boost to the absorptive and assimilative role of capitalist system, the external interpretation of penal abolitionists shows off the versatile crisis of this system and demands its overstepping by abolition. And while internal interpretation does not challenge the framework of criminal justice system but rather improve and consolidate it on new and stronger basis, the external interpretation of abolitionism questions and provokes and suggests (Mathiesen, 1974 and Dimopoulos, 1989).

Finally, the abolitionist perspective and proposal would never reach to an end. Penal Abolitionism as an avant-garde criminological antitheory, would never offer the definite «recipe» for confronting «crime». As Thomas Mathiesen asserted many years ago, the perspective of abolitionism would invariably and inevitably «unfinished». It is exactly the continuous transformation that will liberate in the highest degree. Therefore, a transformation should not be something limited and fixed but rather something that invariably starts from the beginning.

This is - and should continue to be - the abolitionist proposal; a real alternative perspective which does not reduce the essential elements of diversity of forms and open-minded change. This is - should be - the abolitionist perspective; a real radical body of opinion which transforms the negative into thesis.

«This alternative is one where justice does not consist of ready-made principles to be excavated through methods applied within law or within social sciences, but as principles formulated in the process of finding them. It is a concept where the truth does not exist except in the moment of creation. It is a conception of each human being as a moral agent, each and everyone as prophet!» (Christie, 1990/91: 56).

And it is exactly this very aspect of penal abolitionism, the powerful element of the «unfinished» that is confronted with scepticism even by critical criminologists (Scheerer, 1986: 12). But, what critical criminologists fail to see is that abolitionism, even the very word itself, means «work in progress». It is a criminological paradigm that invariably is «engraving» itself. On the other hand, penal abolitionists do not «leave the formulation of alternatives to those in power» as was concluded by Sebastian Scheerer. The abolitionist alternative is well known; it is the «alternative» reform that was left to be formulated by others. More to the point, penal abolitionism is not a reform perspective. That is to say that the abolitionist analysis is a dialectical analysis; an «unfinished» analysis that would never reach to an end; it will end up and start again. And the main issue of penal abolitionism is not to reform but to mount a struggle to abolish the function and foundation of the prison (Aptheker, 1971) and criminal justice system.

Abolitionism and the Concept of Crime

*«Mankind is really bad.
So hit him on the hat.
Have you hit him on the hat.
Maybe he will be no longer bad.»*

Bertolt Brecht, «Dreigroschen Oper»

Central position in the abolitionist rationale and reasoning is possessed by the concept of crime. This sounds logic, if we consider that «first of all we were obligated to sustain on the knowledge of the law of gravity in order to be able later to fly, in essence to be able to effectively *defy* the law of gravity». The French sociologist and philosopher Pierre Bourdieu recently wrote (1996). Therefore, in the abolitionist point of view, it is crucial for the success of our criminological inquiry to search for a way to problematize with the concept of crime.

Alas, we can not aim at the desirable absolute abolishing of the penal repression if firstly we do not problematize with the cornerstone of the penal system, the concept of crime itself. The «black swan» of the Dutch Critical Criminology, the abolitionist Louk Hulsman recently located the need for an anascopic view of society, a view that will inevitably help us during our scientific research

the real concept of 'crime'. Linking the need for this anascopic view with the search for the concept of crime he asserted that (Hulsman, 1986: 30)

«When we do not problematize - and reject - the concept of crime, we are stuck in a catascope view of society in which our informational base (both the "facts" and their interpretational framework) depends mainly on the institutional framework of criminal justice. It means therefore that we do not take account effectively of the critical analyses of this institutional framework by critical criminology.»

As it was noticed in the abstract of this paper, conventional criminology created an image, form some standards and fixed through time relative notions like «crime», «criminality» and «criminal» really interesting to analyse and understand the way that criminal law carefully elaborates and sets its own abstract notions.

According to Noam Chomsky, professor of linguistics at Massachusetts Institute of Technology since 1955 (1997), the language is first of all a tool for our thought; if we underestimate the language, we underestimate the thought. Formulated in bold terms we can say that, the control language simply forms and shapes our conception and comprehension of reality. Accordingly, more and more we hear the «language of the prevailing Law and Order» (Marcuse, 1970) to say - a here lies the power of the language - that there is nothing else more capable to be opposed against the conventional criminal doctrine and policy. And the great degree of evidence that is held by the traditional criminal policy is clearly due to the great work of «engraving» in the social tissue by the State apparatus, politicians, academics, the mass media, and last but not least, the omnipresent «public opinion» (Bourdieu, 1997).

And, the powerful Marcuse's «language of the prevailing Law and Order» is becoming more and more repressive as it calls for tougher «wars on crime» and «zero tolerance». The indices of the move towards right-wing «law and order» are as plain as day (Haan, 1987: 323):

«Increasing hostility against minorities and deviants; renewed efforts to criminalise behaviour not currently subject to criminal sanction; efforts to expand and empower the repressive apparatus; redistribution of public expenditure to the benefit of policing and the administration of criminal justice; and increasing severity of punishment fuelled by a refreshed belief in deterrence and retribution».

Thus, criminal justice system guides in full consciousness the language (bearing in mind the great power hidden in the process of onomatopoeia) in order to bring about confusion and lack of comprehension. Thus, paraphrasing George Orwell (Politics and English Language) «the language of the *penal law* is more or less an attempt to justify the unjustifiable» (my italics). Therefore, in an abolitionist point of view, the word crime should «gradually disappear from our language» (Bianchi 1986b), as it holds a stigmatising, arbitrary and dangerous character and power.

On the other hand, criminological theories seem to be separated into different schools and directions and the related debates seem to be interminable when in fact they all have the same point of departure; the concept of crime. However, both the construction of these theories and the maintenance of the debates must be seen as a means of control of whatever people may think. In a condition that all the participants accept the established and assumed hypothesis, the existence of the concept of crime, as their central and main keystone, the criminological debate should be seen as never-ending. Furthermore, the current immobility in the criminological thought is elegantly portrayed in the above debates; more or less the arguments are being exchanged with a solemnity and offer little or no additional value in the social analysis of the penal subject matter or the knowledge in general (Houchon, 1989).

On the other hand, it is not risky to say that, in essence, these various criminological theories misinterpret the concept of crime, bearing in mind that criminology itself «has predominantly been a repressive science», as Herman Bianchi argued recently (Bianchi, 1986b). Under the guidance of these theories we lead ourselves far away from the understanding of the real concept of problematic situations. Thus, we create substitutes for the understanding and - that is the worst part of it - we create channels for «evasion» from the will to understand, from the necessity to understand. And the criminal law bureaucracy simply continues to have the monopoly for «crime» definition (Bianchi

1986b).

Unfortunately, nowadays even critical and progressive criminologists seem to lose the plot, as they are stacked in a neo-classicist acquiescence by jumping on the «Law and Order» bandwagon, and the criminal justice system and the penal policy as a whole get more and more repressive. Heinz Steinert problematized and observed that (Steinert, 1985: 328)

«It is easy to see the problem. “Crime” has such a strong appeal as an “inner enemy”, a “war crime” is such a good banner for all the “righteous people” to unite behind, and it is exactly the working class that especially falls for this appeal. So the left *must* set something against this. But we should know, as sociologists, that criminal law is not instrumental in seriously reducing undesirable conduct, that it is in fact an *ideological* apparatus that uses human victims to demonstrate a morality (including, first and foremost, a “work-ethic”) and certainly not an effective instrument to bring about such a morality and the corresponding order of social relations. And we could know from historical experience that the political organisations have not all been immune to a bit of law & order politics themselves.»

It is true that criminology traditionally reflects and reinforces the values of the State and that the vast majority of criminologists «assume a State definition of crime, taking as their initial reference point the legal code as the subject-matter of investigation and analysis» (Platt, 1975: 96). But it is also true that past attempts to redefine crime even in critical context appeared to be simple-minded. It is not the legal definition of crime the pathway that leads us to the acceptance of the fiction of neutral law, as the critical criminologist from the United States of America Tony Platt argues (*ibid.*: 103), but the definition of crime *itself*.

On the other hand, abolitionism is among the most critical perspectives towards the concept of crime in the European criminological community and abolitionists showed a great interest in criticizing the concept of crime as such, and adopt a totally different view of criminality «than the simplistic - punishment axioma which is considered as the “normal” way of dealing with conflicts» (Swaanilid, 1986: 12). In essence, abolitionism stood adamantly against the assumption that the masses are unable to take care of themselves and badly need «guardianship», that is to say, guidance by the authority. In an abolitionist point of view, it is starkly obvious that «guardianship eventually erodes the foundations of democracy itself for, in the long run, it diminishes citizens’ competence» (Haan, 1991: 350).

According to the abolitionist principles, the picture of the reality of the criminal justice system appears untenable and the abolitionist critique went so far as to claim that:

- a. the criminal events are not exceptional,
- b. criminals are not a special category of people and
- c. the development of criminal law is not one slowly progressing humanisation.

Abolitionism refuses to accept the positivist definition of crime offered by the conventional criminology. Invariably it lays emphasis not only on the ideological character of the definition «crime» but also on the «hopelessly repressive and class-biased character of criminal law and its proven ineffectiveness for creating order» (Steinert, 1985: 327). The definition of crime is «systemic and confined within the limits of the criminal justice system and, in a broader context it was said that in fact «crime» is merely a social construction (Haan, 1996). Therefore, abolitionists would not disagree with the opinion expressed in the *Critical Criminology* (1975) of Taylor, Walton and Young that, the present social order is unjust, the «equal opportunities for everyone» is another myth and last but not least that «the definition of what is or is not a crime is biased by unequal relations within the social order» (Haan, 1990: 4).

It is true that the Marxist criminologist Anasenov was the first who claimed that the notion of crime was born simultaneously with the emergence of the class structured and class divided state, to be followed by another Marxist, E. Pashukanis who considered criminal law as an organized class terrorism (Alexiadis, 1989). That sounds logic if we considered that the sovereign political and economic class is the class that controls the sovereign institutions, like the criminal justice system. And those who control the sovereign institutions ensure their power to a great extent by imposing

their definitions and their will. Historically we can conclude easily that the concept of crime is created by the process of criminalization; crime simply exists because of this process and the process of criminalization has its own historicity (Dimopoulos, 1989). Crime is a «myth» (Steinert, 1985). An interesting point is to say that mainly neither «crime causes problems to society» nor «society causes the problem of crime» (Young, 1997b: viii); the criminal justice system invents crimes and puts in trouble the community. It is not a reverse of causality that has occurred but rather a creation of causality.

In essence, the concept of crime has not any substantial content because it is a divertible human decision that determines which problematic situation would be considered as «crime» (Hulsman, 1997). There is no common denominator neither in the definition and the motives of those engaged in nor in the penal measures that are provided for against them. The one and only link that binds them together is a pure technical one; a typical competence of the criminal justice system to deal with a problematic situation. It is the law that determines what is crime, it is the law that creates the criminal. Tout court, crime is a product of criminal justice systems rather than the converse. Crime has no ontological reality and unequal (both qualitatively and quantitatively) actions are characterised and given a common element of unity through criminalization as «crimes» (Hulsman, 1986 and 1997).

«Within the concept of criminality a wide range of situations are linked together. Most of them, however, have separate properties and no common denominator: violence within the family, violence in an anonymous context in the streets; breaking into private dwellings; completely divergent ways of receiving goods illegally; different types of conduct in traffic; pollution of the environment; and some forms of political activities. Neither in the motivation of those who are involved in such events, nor in the nature of the consequences, nor in the possibilities of dealing with them (be it in a preventive sense, or in the sense of the control of the conflict) can any common structure be discovered. All these events have in common is that the criminal justice system is authorised to take action against them.» (Louk Hulsman, 1986: 27, in fine).

Thus, in an abolitionist point of view, the problem «crime» is stripped of all the labels and stereotypes that were invented through time in order to be characterised and functionally takes on a social role in the framework of the general social tissue (Wolfgang and Feracutti, 1995). The core of crime has a clear ideological character and crime is an inadequate social construction (Hulsman, 1997); the myth of crime simply (Haan, 1987: 326);

«serves to maintain political power relations and lends legitimacy to the expansion of the criminal control apparatus and the identification of surveillance and control. Public attention is distracted from more serious social problems and injustices. It justifies inequality and relative deprivation. In short, the bigger the social problems are, the greater the need for the crime myth. Thus, not only should we discard the concept of crime, but we should get rid of the theories of crime as well».

On the other hand, in an abolitionist point of view, there are no felonies or misdemeanours but simply *unique* and unparalleled problematic situations (Hulsman, 1986 and 1997).

More to the point, the world is more complex than traditional criminology likes to think and the same goes for the actions, the «sins» or crimes this very criminology likes to «clearly» classify a rank in advance. On the other hand, penal abolitionists like to wonder;

«What about those offenders who have suffered so much beforehand in life that they, in a way, have been punished long before they committed the crime they now have to be punished for? What about the difference between the poor thief and the rich one, the brilliant and the stupid, the well educated and the uneducated?» (Christie, 1981: 45).

Abolitionism is obligated to reveal all the successive veils of distortion that surrounds the concept of crime and let people see the truth. And in essence, this struggle is not so difficult as it appears to be. Plain people are more ready to accept a new model for the definition of the problematic situation and if re-skilled than, for example, a university-based elite; it is well known that propaganda and the «language of the prevailing Law and Order» (Marcuse, 1970) is applied perfectly among the

educated parts of society than the non or less educated. As Noam Chomsky argued so far (Chomsky, 1995) well-educated people are either receiving «high doses» of propaganda because they read more, or they are used as a vehicle of propaganda and belong to the so called «privilege elite». For, as we know, the greatest social changes brought about not from actions by great men who transferred their will and their noble ideas to the passive mass; it is exactly the evolution of the internal power of the society that will bring the change (Cornforth, 1975). And it is in abolitionist's responsibility to struggle for a radical social change, struggle for humane human life. The existence of the above can clearly explain why the abolitionist is considered as the «threatening Other» or, at least, romantic.

On the other hand, it is true that the existence of «crime» was invariably been characterised with a metaphysical concept by conventional criminology. Crime is something evil that needs to be confronted by any means (Holy Inquisition in the past, «war on crime» and «zero tolerance» nowadays). However, in an abolitionist point of view, the appearance of problematic situations is not only something natural but also something essential. Conflicts are seen as «potential for activity, participation» (Christie, 1977: 7).

In essence, abolitionists manifestly discover a technique for demonstrating the two subject parameters, i.e. community and problematic situations, which although are developing in counterpoint way, they finally harmonised. It is exactly the community's field of power where the essential stretching for life is creating and it is the same field where the energy for the change and transformation is developing. In this respect, penal abolitionism adopts a fully social approach to «crime» away from criminal justice system's abstract regulations and tricky legitimations (e.g. «social dangerousness») of penal intervention (Swaaningen, R.V. and Beijerse, J., 1993: 138-140). Thus the abolitionist perspective is inevitably driving us from the *thesis* to the *antithesis*, in order to help make the clearest possible *synthesis*.

Abolitionism and the Process of Criminalisation

«Crime is not the object but the product of criminal policy. Criminalisation is one of the many ways for constructing social reality.»

Louk Hulsman, «Critical Criminology and the Concept of Crime», 1986

In an abolitionist point of view, it is extremely essential to deal with and concentrate our research on the process of criminalization. It is exactly the understanding of this process that will offer us the platform to understand the notion of crime itself. Therefore, Richard Quinney is right when asserting (1994) that, what is important in the study of crime is everything that happens before crime occurs.

And what occurs before crime is a divertible human process that creates and classifies simply human acts; the process of criminalization.

Formulated in bold terms, we should say that, while the other strong part of critical criminology, the Left Realism, believe that community has an active role during the process of criminalisation (Lea, 1992), abolitionists see the process as a wholly state generated process (Matthews, R. and Young, J., 1992).

According to Raymond J. Michalowski (1977), the process of the primary criminalization has been structured on three basic models of social organisation; the consensus model, which could be regarded as the conservative one, the pluralist model, which could be seen as the liberal, and finally the conflict model, which is the radical model of social organisation.

In the first place, the *consensus model* is closely related to positivism and supports the consensus formation and foundation issue of criminal law. The organising principles of the model are

(Michalowski, 1977:23);

- a. The law reflects the collective will of people and is merely the written statement of the collective will.
- b. The law serves all people equally. It neither serves nor represses the interests of any particular group of individuals.
- c. Those who violate the law represent a unique subgroup, which fails to live according to the standard definitions of right, and wrong agreed upon and followed by the majority of society members.

The consensus model offers the positivist paradigm for the study of crime; it accepts the unacceptable view that law serves all the people equally and reflects an abstract collective will. However, the paradigm in question fails to explain the existence of the «white-collar» criminality and other organised forms of «crime», like for example state organised crime, which hardly can be defined as crime committed by «a unique subgroup».

In the second place, the *pluralist model* holds «liberal» views. The model emphasises upon the complexity of society's structure; those in favour of the model believe that society consists of diverse social groups and conflicts among them are often. Regarding the principles of this interactionist perspective, Raymond J. Michalowski wrote (1977: 33);

- a. Criminality is a quality, which resides not in behaviour, but in the response to it.
- b. Behaviours responded to as criminal are given the label of criminal and the individual whose behaviour is labelled as criminal is also labelled criminal.
- c. Individuals are labelled as criminals through a process of interaction and there is a tendency for individuals to be identified with that label.

According to the pluralist model, the diverse social groups agree to dispute settlements by using law as mechanism for conflict resolution. In Chambliss and Siedman words

«While society is no doubt made up of interest groups with divergent goals and values, it is everybody's interest to maintain a political framework, which permits these conflicts to be resolved through peaceful bargaining, always reserving the right of the minority group through peaceful persuasion and dissent (Chambliss, W.J. and Siedman, R. «Law, Order and Power», 1971, page as quoted in Michalowski, 1977: 24).

The pluralist model is more complicated and less unsophisticated than that of consensus, but it is based on illusions. What the advocates of the model in discussion like to forget is the fact that the legal system is not value-neutral and that the legal mechanisms for conflict resolution are not above disputes themselves. The legal system reflects the needs and supports ex officio the interests of the sovereign political-economic class. The court, the official ideology and the interests of the class came through up with and invented the pluralist model.

Finally, it is the *conflict model* that fits precisely to the abolitionist principles. The conflict model is the radical model; society consists of diverse social groups being in a non-stop conflict state of affairs. As a model for the study of law and society, the conflict perspective emphasises on the coercive and repressive nature of the legal system; therefore it is applicable to the abolitionist rationale. The legal system is just the «teeth» of those with power and supports the maintenance of their power (Baratta, 1989). Actions that put in danger the maintenance of their power can easily be characterised as deviant acts and be criminalized.

«The legal system is an apparatus that is created to secure the interests of the dominant class. Contrary to conventional belief, law is a tool of the ruling class. The legal system provides a mechanism for the forceful and violent control of the rest of the population. In the course of battle the agents of the law (police, prosecutors, judges, and so on) serve as the military force for the protection of domestic order. Hence, the State and its accompanying legal system reflects and serves the needs of the ruling class. And it may be added that the legal system prevents the dominant classes from becoming powerful. (Quinney, 1975: 192-193).

According to Michalowski (1977: 26), the organising assumptions of this model are;

- a. Society is composed of diverse social groups while existing differing definitions of right and wrong and the conflict between these social groups is one of political power.
- b. Law is designed to advance the interest of those with power to make it. The law is not a neutral forum for dispute settlement.
- c. A key interest of those in power to make and enforce the law is exactly the maintaining of their power.

More to the point, law is not a body of rules established through consensus by those who are governed, but it serves the interests of the ruling class; «those who benefit from such a conception are those who rule» (Quinney, 1975: 192). Therefore, criminal law is the State's instrument for maintaining and perpetuating the existing social and economic order. In Richard Quinney's words (1975: 195);

«The criminal law is used at home by the ruling class to maintain domestic order. Ruling class interests are secured by preventing any challenge to the moral and economic structure of the ruling class. In other words, the military abroad and law enforcement at home are two sides of the same phenomenon: the preservation of the interests of the ruling class. The weapons of control are in the hands of the ruling class. Their response to any challenge is force and destruction. The weapons of crime control, as well as the idea and practice of law itself, are dominated by the ruling class. An order is in the interest of the ruling class».

In this respect criminology must either be abolished or it should change its very subject matter. The focal point for criminology as a science must be neither crime nor criminal; it is exactly the social and political vehicles of criminal policy that are needed to put into our magnifying glass.

Chambliss's words «if we are to explain crime, we must first explain the social forces that cause some acts to be defined as criminal while other acts not» (1976: 102).

In an abolitionist point of view, crime has no ontological dimension or value (Hulsman, 1986 and Haan, 1990) and criminalization is a nice way of constructing social reality. According to the Dutch abolitionist Louk Hulsman, when someone wants to criminalise, this implies that he;

- a. Deems a certain occurrence or situation as undesirable;
- b. Attributes that undesirable occurrence to an individual;
- c. Approaches this particular kind of individual behaviour with a specific style of social control, including the style of punishment;
- d. Applies a very particular style of punishment which is developed in a particular (legal or professional) context, and which is based on a scholastic (last-judgement) perspective on the world. In this sense, the style of punishment used in criminal justice differs profoundly from the styles of punishment in other social contexts;
- e. Wants to work in a special organisational setting, e.g. criminal justice. This organisational setting is characterised by a very developed division of labour, a lack of accountability for the process as a whole, and a lack of influence of those directly involved in the «criminalized» event, on the outcome of the process» (1986: 33).

The abolitionist reasoning of the criminalization process is based on dialectic principles and follows an interesting induction. If the above «chain» of thoughts broke there will be no «crime». There will be no need to construct a «crime», thus no invention will take place. That is to say that «crime» does not exist before its criminalization and after this process it exists as a construction, an invention of the criminal justice system.

Abolitionism and Prison

«What is to be done about criminals? Here is a criminal question that perpetuates the trap we (abolitionists) do not want to fall; the eternal rejection of the individual.»

Catherine Baker, «Does the Abolition of Prison mean the abolition of justice, law and society?», Second International Conference on Prison Abolition, Amsterdam, The Netherlands, 1985

If it true that prisons are in fact the weights and measures of freedom, dignity and humanity that characterise our society, it is obvious that we must do something with these prisons.

The disciplinary authority (power) covers all the sides of capitalist system and among them is course prison (Foucault, 1991). The disciplinary authority in question, reticulates the entirety of social relations, therefore even «criminal» ones (Dimopoulos, 1989). Thus, the contemporary punishing function of penal law aims not only at the harmonisation of «crime» with the penal threat punishment, but also at the penal and social control of individuals. The idea of treatment and handling of «criminals», for example, had more and more been used for their submission in a regime of total control, if we take into account that this «treatment» often lasts longer than their rehabilitation and social re-incorporation demand (Dimopoulos, 1989). And despite the fact that prison system is a fiasco (Scham, 1996) «this fiasco is to a large extent maintained as a secret... Prison is still maintained as a major way of solving conflicts as if it were effective and just» (Mathiesen, 1990).

Imprisonment is the principal form of punishment in every criminal justice system and punishment is institutional violence, for it constitutes restrictions on prisoner's rights and repression of his basic needs by legal or illegal actions from a legal or de facto representatives of an authority (Barat 1989). The cause for the heavy reliance and the emphasis of criminal justice system was successfully localised and analysed on a solid Marxist socio-political basis by Rusche and Kirchheimer and (1968-69 see also Mathiesen, 1990: 36);

«Of all the forces which are responsible for the new emphasis upon imprisonment as punishment, the most important was the profit motive, both in the narrower sense of making the establishment pay in the wider sense of making the whole penal system a part of the state mercantilist program».

Moreover, in all critical moments in our history, periods of civil disobedience and lurch of the establishment, prison functioned as a suitable political instrument for mass intimidation, subversion and terror against working class people (Christie, 1981).

It is true that nowadays condition sine qua non of every criminal policy is prison: it is the essential counterbalance, the ontological towards the structured, the specific towards the abstract. Primary criminal justice system socialises the concept of crime via indictment and, secondarily, the «criminal» himself via imprisonment; respect for hierarchy, blind obedience, permissible occupations, compulsory labour, deprivations and so on. As the abolitionist Catherine Baker poetically licence put it «prison is not the disease of our days and does not have anything monstrous; it is simply the capping-stone of every society and every social framework of social affairs» (Baker, 1992: 14). Total court, penal sanction is essential for the maintenance of their «law and order».

«We all have realised that there will never be a society without law and order. We have realised the seriousness of the situation so clear that we strengthen the bars and guillotine of our minds. It is crazy we naturally ask for state's authority guardianship to our lives because we consider ourselves totally "irresponsible" and "uncountable". But the State is just a machine, a mechanism in an ever more outrageous thing pay; behind state there is human willingness. Human is there accompanying his law. Down with human!» (Baker, 1992: 14).

In his remarkable work, «Discipline and Punish: The Birth of Prison» Michel Foucault observed

that «the penitentiary technique and the delinquent is are in a sense twin brothers» and elegar concluded that (Foucault, 1991: 255);

«It is said that the prison fabricated delinquents; it is true that it brings back, almost inevitable before the courts those who have been there. But it also fabricates them in the sense that it h introduced into the operation of the law and the offence, the judge and the offender, t condemned man and the executioner, the non-corporal reality of the delinquency, that links th together and, for a century and a half, has caught them in the same trap.»

But what is also true, is that, despite the heavy reliance of criminal justice system on prison, tr conviction and imprisonment are in no way an «one way street». As Mark Poster observed Foucault's outstanding work «... Foucault's depiction of Damians' suffering convinces one that system of punishment other than our system is possible» (Poster, 1984: 98). And it is exactly t other «way», the other system of «punishment» that abolitionists have dreamed of; a system th would encourage and strengthen the conciliatory possibilities among litigants (Christie, 1977), condition that we would overstep the dichotomic logic of penal law (Christie, 1981).

However, we should recognise two elements of historical success for prison system. In the f place, the prison system succeeded to produce and reproduce «criminals» coming from t disadvantaged and underprivileged sections of the population (Reimen). Thus, it creates a suital enemy, the «right» penal population. In the second place, and that is of great importance, the p system succeeded to «enact the relations of inequality that characterise our society as *normality* reproduce these relations in a material and ideological point of view» (Baratta, 1989, 11-12). In t respect, we can justify Foucault's (1991) analysis and easily understand prison system's survival.

On the other hand, penal abolitionism's critique towards prison system was always harsh (Chris 1986b). The requisitions for law and order supply revengeful and punitive reflex and the suggest measures from the side of criminal justice system have invariably in common the character repression. Punishment in general is «an intended evil», that reflects general cultural tradition (Christie: 674). Thus, paraphrasing Hal Pepinsky «crime, generates solidarity by channelling people's anger away from those at hand who provoke it most directly onto politically safe targ (Pepinsky, 1999). And, to use Nils Christie's terminology, the prisoner is *suitable enemy*; enem against whom, we, the «law abiding people» are united. The enemy is easy to be identified (Bo Hale, 1986 - Haan, 1987). People of colour, young and poor, drug addicts from the «underclas; and when it comes to «family values», women; In Hal Pepinsky's words (1999: 1-3);

«Governmental response to crime has become more punitive, and focused more heavily not o on drug enforcement, but on enforcement against racial minorities, and on immigrant population Even where prisoners were released in large numbers in the late 1980's - as in the Soviet Unio Poland - prisons have rapidly refilled».

Therefore, black people clearly experiencing the racist nature of the prison system. For exampl according to the data of the National Institute on Drug Abuse, black people represent 12% of t population in the United States of America and 13% of the total number of the drug addic However, black people represent 45% of the arrests, 55% of the convictions and 74% of prison possession only of illicit drugs. Moreover, half of the penal population in the States are black pe (Grivas, 1997). In this respect, institutional racism in the criminal justice system incarcerates Blac disproportionate numbers.

Indeed, in an abstract and legislative level, penal correction as a peculiar form of sanction see that is oriented towards the ideas of upbringing and rehabilitation. But it is true that t materialisation of this peculiar form of sanction slightly differs from a plain serving of a classi «deprivation of freedom» punishment. A deprivation that has in its core painful, punitive a repressive nature (*lex talionis*);

«Those who are punished are supposed to suffer. If they by and large enjoyed it, we wo change the method. It is intended within penal institutions that those at the receiving end shall (

something that makes them unhappy, something that hurts» (Christie, 1981: 16).

In this respect, Michel Foucault's analysis of prison system appears to be true all along the line. Both «deprivation of liberty» and «rehabilitation idea» are core elements of the prison system as it appeared simultaneously in the history of penal repression. It seems that nothing changed; rule guide for the function of prison system continues to be the unceasing and despotic discipline.

«One thing is clear: the prison was not at first a deprivation of liberty to which a technical function of correction was later added; it was from the outset a form of "legal detention" entrusted with an additional corrective task, or an enterprise for reforming individuals that the deprivation of Liberty allowed to function in the legal system. In short, penal imprisonment, from the beginning of the nineteenth century, covered both the deprivation of liberty and the technical transformation of individual» (Foucault, 1991: 233 and book's note no. 1).

More than a century after the signing and ratification of the Treaty of Human Rights, tortures and malpractice are more or less, common practice for the penitentiary system of many countries, in order to bend prisoners» morality. It is true that Amnesty International has already mentioned that not only authoritarian but also democratic countries of the West apply some kind of tortures and malpractice on prisoners. Life in prison is painful because the prison system is dedicated to bring about «punishment delivery». Brutal disciplinary measures and brutal acts are often used to ensure silence, discipline and subjection of prisoners by guards and prison managers who thrive on having authority over prisoners' psychological problems.

On the other hand, it seems that nowadays crime pays; the profit «does not come from the work of the slave or prisoner, but from the work of handling them» (Christie, 1990/91: 55). The privatization of prison offers the opportunity for greater profits and «prisoners are converted from workers into products, from humans to things» (Christie, *ibid.*).

Furthermore, the abolitionist critique of the rehabilitative ideal is reasonable all along the line; in court, rehabilitation as a model of justice collapsed because it is based on false and dangerous principles. Prison system is not an efficient means of bringing deviants back to normal societal life (Mathiesen, 1965) and never led to prisoner's «return to competence» (Mathiesen, 1990). Angelika Scham (University of Oslo) recently asserted «empirical evidence showed that coercive treatment or rehabilitation did not work, or even that they were counterproductive. Locking up prisoners in other words, made these people worse, though it symbolically reassured the law-abiding citizen who could feel "safer" in their pretty neighbourhoods» (1996: 3). And in fact what criminal justice system has in mind when it speaks about «reinsertion», is a pathetic submission to the current state of affairs because the repressive penal sanction is a form of alienation (see however Ancel, 1969: 512-513). On the other hand, the rehabilitative ideal, the so-called «medical model» has only strengthened the destructive power of the criminal justice system (Bianchi, 1986b).

«Rehabilitation - with its treatment programmes, indeterminate sentences, and enforced therapy and counselling - was inherently manipulative and tended to substitute for law, judge, and jury, the expertise and the cultural standards, of psychiatrist and social worker. The prisoner, in other words, was made an object of diagnostic study and evaluation, whose release depended upon his ability to respond to the prescriptions of white-collar professionals for the 'cure' of his deviant behaviour» (Barker, 1986: 92).

The rehabilitative ideal, the so-called medical model instead of decreasing the number of inmates, in fact functioned as a criminogenic machine; the increase in prison population is as plain as day. The effect of imprisonment is not rehabilitating and reforming the prisoners; recidivism rates have always been high (Poster, 1984 and Mathiesen, 1990). Thus, crime rates are increasing and prison population is climbing to «red alert» levels. And in turn, prison simply re-supplies the «circuit» with more and better products» (Farsedakis, 1990:12). A Foucaultian vicious circle created by penal repression is taken place;

«So that one should speak of an ensemble whose three terms (police-prison-delinquency) support one another and form a circuit that is never interrupted. Police surveillance provides the prison with offenders, which the prison transforms into delinquents, targets and auxiliaries of prison supervision which regularly send back a certain number of them in prison» (Foucault, 1991: 282).

In an abolitionist point of view, the rehabilitative ideal remained constant, immutable and unsuccessful;

«To a large extent the rehabilitation ideas are the same today as they were at the time when the prison was invented and ... to the extent that rehabilitation has in fact been attempted, it has to an overwhelming degree not functioned according to plan. In rehabilitation, the "return to competence" has not taken place».

In an abolitionist point of view, the ineffectiveness of the prison system and rehabilitative ideal is taken for granted (Mathiesen, 1990). An opinion that even mainstream criminologists like Marc A. Rothstein, the founder of the so-called «New Social Defence» find it difficult to confront (Ancel, 1995: 511) Christie pointed out the defeat of the treatment ideology, and asserted (Christie, 1981: 48) that;

«Prisons are filled with people in need of care and cure. Bad nerves, bad bodies, bad education; prisons are storing houses for deprived persons who stand in need of treatment and educational resources. Those fighting «treatment for crime» are of the opinion that humans should not be sentenced to imprisonment to give society the opportunity to treat them. But if human beings are in prison to receive punishments, they ought to get a maximum of treatment to improve their general conditions and soften their pain. Treatment for crime has lost its credibility. Treatment has not».

The prison system is dangerous as it does not rehabilitate but rather functions as a «university of crime» which «serves to reinforce patterns of offending, and in the same cases, to produce more accomplished and more ingrained criminals» (Matthews, 1997: K2, referring to what the established liberal consensus maintains). On the other hand, the prison system stigmatises; the «garbage can society» (Mathiesen, 1990), the pariahs, the «underdogs», the dropouts are the products of the criminal justice system and penal mechanism. More to the point, prison ruins lives;

«What criminological research nowadays has taught us is, however, that the idea of being able to improve the punished individual through a punishment implying deprivation of liberty, is an illusion. On the contrary, today it is generally acknowledged that these kinds of punishment lead to poor rehabilitation and a high recidivism rate. In addition, they often have a destructive effect on the personality» (Regeringens proposition, 1982/83 No. 85: 29, translated from the Swedish by Thore Mathiesen, 1990: 47, in fine).

Furthermore, under the medical model, a prisoner had to face an indeterminate sentence and his fate is depending on uncertain scientific results of psychiatrist and psychologists. The prisoner does not be judged for his crime but by his «performance» in prison.

«In many countries though, the enthusiasm for prison as a therapeutic community had produced the indeterminate sentence, making it possible for a delinquent who behaved badly in prison to avoid the possibility of a much longer stay in prison than the seriousness of his crime warranted. Prison behaviour became a more decisive factor in assessing the length of one's stay in prison than the seriousness of the crime» (Bianchi, 1986: 150).

And what is exactly contradictory is that it is under the «medical» model of justice where prisoners suffering from serious illness such as cancer and HIV are often given ineffective remedies to relieve the pains. It is common secret that women inmates are routinely denied access to physicians and especially as it impacts women prisons there is lack of adequate medical care. Unfortunately, the criminal justice system under the pretext of rehabilitating, ill-treats prisoners with medical problems by the

of inhumane and punitive imprisonment and aggravates their situation. In essence, prisons are becoming more and more new sources of infection (Faugeron, 1998) and «the places which act encourages people or provides the conditions for high risk behaviour» (Dr Gerry Stimson/Monitoring Research Group, «The Killer Inside» videotape, 1989).

And, lest we forget, it is inside the prison system where the most dangerous-mixed drugs are pouring into without the authorities being able or making any serious effort to stop the flood. The criminogenic function of criminal justice system is verified by the paragraph 112 of the report of the Committee of the European Parliament for Drug Problems; in most of the cases occasional drug users start to use them frequently and become drug-addicts in the «paradise» of the criminal justice system (Grivas, 1990). However, the above situations are not only prison problems, i.e. problems behind the wall; «prison is not a different world and the way that AIDS and the other problems are handled inside could be crucial for those outside as well» (The Killer Inside, 1989).

Moreover, there is no lack of evidence in numbers for the destructive power of the punitive penal system; the Howard League for Penal Reform for example revealed that during 1998 there were 10 self inflicted deaths (source: HM Prison Service Suicide Awareness and Support Group, 1998 see Table 2) in prisons in England and Wales. And, unfortunately, these are the most deaths that have been recorded in any one-year. Clearly speaking, the whole penal system is a serial killer and drags prisoners to the ultimate act of self-destruction. Frances Crook, the Director of the Howard League asserted that (Howard League For Penal Reform, 1999):

«During the last year more people than ever before have been affected by the death of a loved one in prison. The very fact that 83 people have felt so distressed and isolated that they have threatened their own life is an indictment on the whole penal system. The sheer numbers speak for themselves»

Finally abolitionist Thomas Mathiesen was exactly right in his conclusion that prison does not rehabilitate but in fact dehabilitates (Mathiesen, 1990); and the same goes to Claude Faugeron and his conclusion that prison does not rehabilitate but neutralise prisoners (1998). For all the contradictory declarations and expectations, imprisonment imposed by criminal justice system has deeply implanted in itself the sentiment of revenge. In essence, revenge and retribution are core and notorious elements of the repressive penal mechanism. Therefore, it is not the feel of security that justify the existence of prison and makes us feel good; tout court, it is the desire for revenge that has been cultivated by the criminal justice system. In Foucaultian terms, prison system succeeded to enslave not only the body of prisoner; the slavery of mind is the ultimate target.

Moreover, during the past decade penal abolitionism harshly criticised the so-called «justice model», because of a renewed interest that occurred by critical criminologists to justify punishment and curtail state authority's expansionist punitive approach towards «crime». Justice model has emerged as an «alternative» to the rehabilitative ideal as a model of punishment and justice, inspired by the Kantian model on the issue of justice (Cavender, 1984).

Formulated in bold terms, we should say that «justice model» aim at the reintegration of the criminal by punishing the «criminal» with a just return. In this respect, «just deserts» means equal punishment for equally serious crime. The main representative of this model of justice is Andrew Von Hirsch (Christie, 1981 and Haan, 1987).

However, as a critique of penality in every form, penal abolitionism demonstrated the contradictions and dangers of «just deserts» while other critical criminologists quickly reject it as a plainly «bourgeois» (Paternoster, R. and Bynum, T., 1982).

«Key concept like deterrence and retribution are taken out of context and thereby stripped of their myriad implications. As a result, they are used as catchwords, as if they were in and of themselves justifications for punishment. Fundamental issues have been avoided or simply neglected as, for instance, how the claim may be made in the first place that certain things are wrong and ought to be punished... In other words, the idea of "just deserts" only if the laws are fair and the social system guarantees equity, if not equality» (Haan, 1987: 327-328).

Thus, by criticising the «justice model», penal abolitionism showed that there is a clear ideological

- in terms of legitimacy - crisis in prison system. However, in contrary to what Bottoms and Prest argued (1980), the ideological crisis caused not because of the failure of the «rehabilitative idea» but because of penal reasoning and rationale; a prison is inherently repressive means of social control.

In this respect, penal abolitionism does not consider prison system as only a nexus of limitations and restrictions but, mainly, as this very clear and real end of the intolerable logic of socialisation, neutralisation and normalisation. It is in abolitionists duty to fight in every scientific and activist field against this special framework of society that inevitably leads to repression and annihilation (Baker, 1992). As an immediate step towards this goal is the creation in every country of an independent separated body for prisoners complaints. This opinion find all the existed British organisations a «committees for prisoners» rights in total agreement (NACRO, Prison Reform Trust, Howard League etc., see «Strangeways» video).

However, conventional criminology continues to sacrifice the individual to the State and personal liberty to the severity of repression. Likewise, mainstream criminologists reckon as their duty to patch the holes of the social tissue in order not to secure the prosperity of society but rather secure the survival of a system of repression and punishment. And on the other hand, Marxist criminology continues to sustain the myth of criminal justice system;

«Marxist criminology falls within the conventional bounds of assuming that true criminals differ from most other members of a social system, and that crime and criminality can best be controlled by giving the true offenders special treatment» (Pepinsky, 1980: 299).

Penal abolitionism wants the infliction of punishment in terms of only deprivation of liberty to be taken place at least ultimately. Therefore, penal abolitionism calls for a «de-emphasis on utilitarian functions» in order to reduce pain delivery from the prison system. And, it is the «reduction of utilitarian thinking around punishment that opens the way for alternative paradigms» because «free of utilitarian thinking we would be confronted with a need for an evaluation of the penal approach as a cultural phenomenon» (Christie, 1990/91: 55-56).

As an avant-garde criminological paradigm, «unjust pain» is not something to which it aspires. Abolitionist Nils Christie brought in focus the need for protection from unjust pain delivery in his inspiring book «Limits to Pain» and advocated that

«My own view is that the time is now ripe to bring these oscillatory moves (penal theories and practices) to an end by describing their futility and by taking a moral stand in favour of creating severe restrictions on the use of man-made pain as a means of social control. On the basis of experience from social systems with a minimal use of pain, some general conditions for a low level pain infliction are extracted. If pain is to be applied, it has to be pain without a manipulative purpose and in social form resembling that which is used when the people are in deep sorrow. This might lead to a situation where punishment for crime evaporated. Where that happened, basic features of the State would also have evaporated. Formulated as an ideal, this situation might be just as valuable to make explicit and to keep in mind as situations where kindness and humanity reign-ideals never reached, but something to stretch towards» (Christie, 1981: 5-6).

Clearly speaking, the necessity for the abolition of criminal justice system's institutions was dictated by the ascertainment that these institutions are unsuccessful to confront the problems of social tissue and engendered and reproduced institutional violence. In this respect penal abolitionism holds as «lighthouse» for its policy the need for de-encirclement of criminological research from the domination of penal law and the formation of conditions and stipulations for the exceeding capitalist socio-political system and post-capitalist society.

The abolition of prison, however, is inside the logic of history (Baker, 1992); nowadays a worldwide, a sweeping critique against the inhuman institution is taken place by scientists in every scientific field. And penal abolitionism calls for the abolition of prisons by offering a new slogan (neue losung) that seems to be taken seriously. The poster of the of the Council of Europe showing a flight of birds throwing a cage in the sea under a multi-language title is a plain example

inspiration from the ideas and politics of penal abolitionism (Alexiadis, 1989).

Clearly, great problems demand great solutions. Abolitionism undermines the prisoncr authority, creates links in and out of prisons fights the death penalty and torture methods, and c juridical support. Invariably abolitionism fights against the propaganda of the prevailing socio-pol establishment that adopts «tough on crime» rhetoric and «zero tolerance» politics and spreads t «fear of crime» disease in the social tissue. Consequently, penal abolitionism calls for radi limitation of penal system, depenalization and decriminalisation of criminized acts, moratorium prison construction and gradual abolition of prison system through radical spoilage of criminal la criminal justice system. Because prison is more than a plain institution; it is a pattern of soc organisation, a symbolic system that creates for individual a certain way of thinking that emphasis on violence and downgrading of human relationships.

In the questions «what is to be done with the penal system», penal abolitionists refer us to t answer given by the anarchist (and abolitionist - Swaaningen, 1995: 132) Russian philosopher, Kropotkin (1927);

«The prison kills all the qualities in a man which make him best adapted to community life makes him the kind of person who will inevitably return to prison to end his days in one of the stone tombs over, which is, engraved «House of Detention and Correction». There is only o answer to the question «what can be done to better this penal system?». Nothing! A prison cann be improved. With the exception of a few unimportant little improvements, there is absolutely no to do but demolish it».

It is true. The course «crime-prison-crime» hardly has a return. For the prison «scars prisoners a life time and dispatch the weakest or spiritually shatter the others» (Panousis, 1998: 136).

Let's think now of a fellow human being entering the prison and facing our criminal justice syste what she/he supposed to be expected? The answer is quite simple...

Psychological pressure, verbal abuse, deprivation of food and medicine, isolation, confinement a control unit, violence and tortures, gang activity, guard brutality, inadequate ventilation a lightning, days in the «hole», limitation of communication and space, overcrowding, social relatic based on authority, scandalous imprisonment conditions, stigmatisation, deprivation of heterose relations, deprivation of autonomy, deprivation of security in relation to other inmates, disciplin punishments, closed-circuit television screens, brutal acts, isolation cells, dangerous conditions drug-use, terror and suppression, physical and sexual abuse of women prisoners, changes prisoners» personality, ideologies of the past that become the rule and been enforce muta mutandis nowadays like «poena est estimation delicti» (Papinius) and «malum passionis prop malum actionis» (Grotius), brainwashing, chemotherapy and other enforced therapies, pathetic a corruptive imprisonment, the wear and tear of prison, a life of boredom and useless toil...

«Think of a man shut up under these circumstances ... for a year, eighteen months or two yea and left to frood upon the past, with no companionship, save his own sad thoughts - his mind ul stagnant, with nothing to relieve the silent solitude and the monotonous torture of his confineme it any wonder, then, that after a long period of imprisonment, a prisoner often comes out enfeebled in body and mind that he is absolutely unfit for any employment and thus falls an ea prey to temptation? Our jails, like our laws and our social system, manufacture criminals. That is they are fit for» (Nicoll, 1992: 6).

Penal Abolitionists are right; «not only can we say most certainly that prison does not rehabilita but most likely we can also say that in fact it dehabilitates» (Mathiesen, 1990), because «the per system is there to hurt people, not to help or cure» (Christie, 1981). It is time to listen more close prisoners and their grievances. It is time to acknowledge their rights. As immediate steps toward policy of abolition I will add the following measures which are compatible with the principles of per abolitionism:

a. Legitimatization of all prisoners» rights that derive from the European Convention for Hum Rights.

- b. Abolition of disciplinary measures and any method of malpractice and ill-treatment of prisoners especially in cases of active or passive resistance of their side.
- c. Easy access to prisons by the mass media.
- d. Legitimatization of prisoners» right to create organisations, to read newspapers and communicate with their family and close environment with no restriction.
- e. Legitimatization of prisoners» right for free and not imposed vocational training.

Abolitionism Against Prison Construction

*«Try this out:
For a real taste of prison life,
try living 23 hours a day in your bathroom.
Remove everything but the toilet,
use the bathtub as a bed,
lock the door,
and make yourself comfortable.»*

A prisoner in New York Prison Zone Web-Journal

The rates of incarceration are increasing geometrically, because of a continuous increase in punitiveness by the criminal justice systems. As an inevitable result, the prison system is expanding and what is currently seen is a high demand for new prisons. Not surprisingly, abolitionism is strongly opposed to the use of prison as a way of punishment and pleads for a ban on further development of the system, i.e. a ban on the building of new prisons.

The abolitionist Thomas Mathiesen (Professor of Sociology of Law, University of Oslo - Norway) clearly stated that criminal policy and the use of prison are in fact dependent on the political inclination and choice of the authorities. Thus, the issue of prison building has a pure political nature.

«Building is often seen as a technical question of architecture, construction, and short-term trends in inmate population. But the question is essentially political. Politics is a question of deciding priorities of values. Therefore, the issue of prison building is a question of deciding priorities of values. Is this the way we want to treat fellow human beings? Is this how we want to meet the criminal problem? These are some of the questions of value involved» (Mathiesen, 1986: 89).

In an abolitionist point of view, the arguments towards a policy of limiting and shrinking the prison system appear to be forcible. An expansion of the prison systems is not only unnecessary but also is not reasonable. And although prison for centuries has been the central core of the State's policy of social control, the situation is divertible. Apart from the well known arguments of the ineffectiveness of prison in terms of individual and general prevention, the destructive effects of imprisonment on the prisoner's personality, its degrading and humiliating character, and the obvious argument of economy, the abolitionist arguments against the building of more prisons are even more solid and forcible.

In the first place stands the argument of the *irreversible character* of prison building. Once a prison is built it would never be «undone» and simply criminal justice systems have to use it. In Thor Mathiesen's words;

«The irreversible character of prison building, the fact that prison building in this sense should be seen as a part of a long-ranging historical process rather than as a short-term pragmatic measure

in itself a major reason for not embarking on any construction programme today» (Mathiesen, 1986: 87).

On the other hand, a new prison is not coming to replace the old prison but rather to be added to the current situation. Thus, a new prison is not a substitute but an addition and that shows clear expansionist character of the prison system.

In the second place, and this is the major forceful abolitionist argument against new prison construction, is the argument of cultural values. Simply, in the eyes of the general public, «prison building necessarily signifies a positive value in building and *solidifies* the prison solution in our society» (Mathiesen, 1986: 88).

But what about the queues, the overcrowded prisons and the waiting (sic) lists? Abolitionists argue that a ban on the building of new prisons is feasible and offers reasonable solutions;

- a. lowering the limit for release on parole
- b. changing sentencing rules, (reducing the number of custodial sentences and shortening the length of custodial sentences) and most of all
- c. extensive use of pardoning and repentance as a means of clearing blame.

Finally, one of my deepest concerns about prison construction is coming from the fact that more and more state authority use to entrust universities and research centres with the task of designing new prisons. And not surprisingly, it is behind the well-known and broadly accepted myth of scientific objectivity where a social consensus and apathy are been established, while simultaneously the repressive penal mechanisms are been upgraded.

From Bentham's Panopticon to Electronic Monitoring

«Taken as a whole, things are much worse than Michel Foucault imagined. The total situation clearly calls for political resistance.»

Thomas Mathiesen, «The Viewer Society», 1997

Despite the fact that the new technology holds a great liberating force and influence - both corporal and spiritual - in itself (Bookchin, 1979), it seems that somehow exists a fetishism for the word «new technology» in itself; a fetishism that invariably seems to forgive even the most repressive and horrific plans and programs for a «war on crime». And, on the other hand, more and more achievements in the fields of Biochemistry, Medicine, Psychology and others determine the penitentiary and the whole penal system.

«Home confinement», «intensive probation programs» and «electronic monitoring»... The future of penal repression approaches more and more the Orwellian-Foucaultian nightmare and looks dark (Lilly, 1990).

«This then is how we must imagine the punitive city. At the cross-roads, in the gardens, at the sides of the roads, in workshops open to all, in the depths of mines ... will be hundreds of theatres of punishment» (Foucault, 1991).

The planting of electronic devices into the bodies of «criminals» and the enabling of twenty-four hour observation by the «big-brother» is horrific and inhumane. Therefore, it received a harsh criticism by the abolitionists (Bianchi, 1986) for it is an insidious extension of state apparatus of social control. However, electronic monitoring (also known as «tagging») is not so new; as an idea within the bounds of the penitentiary harm; back in 1964, there were related experiments, conducted under the guidance of Ralph Schwitzgebel in Harvard University. Later on, the judge Jack Love, in New Mexico

(biblio) continued the same experiments.

These experiments were called «electronic rehabilitative systems» and the main reason for the propulsion of them was the great pressure of economically mighty companies. Simply, there was a great wish to promote and sell their technological equipment and the naive and fatuous public confidence in the technological devices functioned - and still functions - as an unforeseen support in their efforts.

Furthermore, despite the arguments of those in favor of the use of electronic monitoring, that in an «in freedom» (sic) form of punishment, it is plain as day that electronic monitoring is a form of punishment. In an abolitionist point of view, it is not risky to say that electronic monitoring is even more dangerous than plain imprisonment. As an alternative to freedom, electronic monitoring, which is widely promoted by criminal justice systems, clearly faces the scepticism of abolitionism and critical criminology. In essence, electronic monitoring as many other pseudo-alternatives to prison could be seen as another form of criminogenic stigmatisation (Christie, 1981).

Imprisonment, let alone prisoner's rehabilitation, should be ruled at least by the basic well known penal principles of analogy, necessity and equalising function.

However, electronic monitoring is operated on cases such as «drink and drive» offences or petty thefts where an ordinary probation would be ample. Moreover, it is obvious that constant and indistinguishable monitoring, expands the official social control and outrages not only the prisoner's but also the third party's sense of justice and freedom (e.g. family, friends etc.). In John Walters (Chief Probation Officer in Middlesex) words («No Soft Option» - videotape);

«The introduction of electronic tagging as a means of monitoring behaviour is a sinister development in the relationship of the State and the citizen. And I would not like to see it operating in the work of the probation service».

On the other hand, as left realism has already showed, the use of electronic monitoring has in fact had a very little impact on the prison population. Electronic monitoring, in contrast, brought about family breakdowns, reduction in the family income (because the offender pays a fee for the equipment) and stigmatisation. However, what seems to be extended by the use of electronic devices are the profits of the producer companies (Matthews, R. and Berry, B., 1989).

Penal abolitionists are obligated to stand adamantly against electronic monitoring by pointing out ideological, ethical and moral reasons. The resistance against this humiliating means of control is of high priority. Market is not exactly the right thing to stimulate innovations in penal policies. Michel Foucault (1991) has already warned us «disciplinary power tends to multiply, differentiate and expand».

Abolitionism and the Criminal Justice System

In an abolitionist point of view, crime is the product of criminal justice systems rather than the converse. Criminal justice system, the child of «Holy Inquisition» (Swaaningen, 1986) has a catastrophic, repressive, punitive, exceptional and inflexible character, and offers no solution to the fundamental problems of racism and sexism (Ward, 1986). The system leads to a partial reconstruction of reality (Swaaningen, 1995). Moreover, criminal justice system is more problematic than crime itself in a moral sense (Hulsman, 1981), being «dysfunctional to its own end» (Swaaningen, 1995: 120 and Christie, 1998: 123); it is the state and its criminal justice system that intentionally and systematically afflicts pain upon other people (Swaaningen, 1995) and has stigmatising effects. Therefore, abolitionists savagely criticised this system for its rationale and actual functioning and penal abolitionism invariably supports the abolition of this system in order

revitalise the social tissue (Swaaningen, 1986). The criminological paradigm in question is in fact obligated to expose the futility and cruelty of every prison system along with the hypocrisy that is the base of every criminal justice system.

And all that in a time when what is observed is a technocratic expansion of the punitive criminal justice system in order to protect the privileges of one class (Baratta, 1989 and Smaus, 1996).

In the first place, criminal justice system is based upon a «pyramidal justice» style of dispute settlement that multiplies its classifications with geometrical progression. The «pyramidal justice»

discussion stands far away from any description, comparison and evaluation by the populous, i.e. people who really receive its orders and controlled by (Christie, 1998). By contrast with the «equalitarian justice» of abolitionism, the «pyramidal justice» is simply imposed and controlled from «far and above»; it was created without the participation of the social tissue. Thus, there is no place left for the creation of horizontal justice due to the reduction of opportunities for a real social contract.

On the other hand, abolitionism, both as a movement and a criminological paradigm, has realised that the decision between freedom and hierarchy depends upon the ability to create strong networks of horizontal and equal relations against the pyramidal one of authority and repression.

«The wiping out of the state punitive apparatus would open new horizons through a stronger and healthier coexistence towards a new justice» (Hulsman, 1997: 207).

A new thoughtful thesis was set-up by abolitionism; a thesis that provides recent elements for a better comprehension of criminal justice system and the means of coercion imposed by the system but also elements for the comprehension of the function of criminal justice system's «satellites», i.e. the courts, the police and the mass media.

And last but not least, the recent article by the abolitionist Thomas Mathiesen in the *Theoretical Criminology* journal, under the title «The Viewer Society» (1997) offers a harsh abolitionist critique of the mass media and the institutional elite for constructing «reality». As Nils Christie recently concluded: «our present penal policy is an indicator of a general expansion of the state control systems» (1998: 123).

Foucault himself, has offered an enviable description of the function of criminal justice system. Criminal justice system is an anti-subversive system that introduces a definite number of contradictions into masses. It creates an endless mutual competition between proletarians and non-proletarians (Foucault, 1987). And «proletarianization» is the condition that should be always one of the main targets for the system; people must accept and agree on their current conditions and situation as proletarians.

In the second place, criminal justice system could be characterised as - not only selective (Ruggiero, 1999) - but in essence marginalized; it deals only with a small part of criminal acts while the vast majority of criminalized acts go for one or another reason unreported and unrecorded. These acts simply stand «behind the veil» and constitute the so-called «dark figure» of criminality while criminal law turn out to be a rather unimportant and unnecessary instrument of conflict resolution.

«In my opinion, the amount of unrecorded crime is systematically underestimated. Anyway, there is no doubt that actual criminalization of criminalizable events - even in the field of traditional crimes - is a very rare event indeed. In a country like Holland, far less than one percent of those criminalizable events actually criminalized in the courts. Non criminalization is the rule, criminalization a rare exception» (Hulsman, 1986: 32-33).

Clear examples of this «dark figure» are the racially motivated attacks. In the case of Britain, government figures suggest that these attacks are nowadays far more frequent than in the past; only a very small proportion are recorded and even fewer reach the British courts. In this respect, the criminal justice system do not take full account of the racist nature of these events. However, it should be noticed that it is not only a problem of criminal justice system, a problem of policy; it is a problem of state itself («Race, Violence and Law», 1993 - videotape).

In the third place, criminal justice system produces and maintains social inequalities as the penal system ex officio serves the ruling class while criminal law is an instrument of class domination («

character of criminal law») that should not be underestimated by critical criminology; the fact that criminal law remains «in the background as a last resort» does not mean that criminal law is «second-order law» as Heinz Steinert believes (Steinert, 1977). Criminal justice system simply would have no reason to exist without its rules. Therefore, criminal law is not only a means of repression but also the heart of the matter. Criminal law and prisons are first and foremost about social control «about creating a more politically obedient and economically useful population» (Olson 1994) through a process of creating an imaginary «criminal class». (Barfoot, 1993).

Thinking in a higher level of abstraction, the punitive system of criminal justice «appears to be rather a functional subsystem for the material and ideological reproduction (legitimacy) of the social system as a whole», i.e. the existing relations of authority and ownership (Baratta, 1989: 11).

Therefore, the usual «clients» for criminal justice systems are the poor, the working class people «politically incorrect» (Bourque 1994) and essentially the «generalised-other» of any country (Katz 1996); the immigrants. Thus, the function of criminal justice system is extremely selective not only regarding the offered security of goods and interests but also regarding «the process of criminalization and the related recruitment of the penal population» (Baratta, 1989: 11).

«Those who are officially recorded as “criminal” constitute only a small part of those involved in events that legally are considered to require to be criminalized. Among them young men from the most disadvantaged sections of the population are heavily over-represented» (Hulsman, 1986: 27)

Furthermore, the impact of crime itself is uneven for the most victimised people belong to the poorer and more vulnerable sections of the population. And it is exactly this section of the population that pays too high the price of the financing of criminal justice system (Matthews, R. and Young, 1992).

In the fourth place, criminal justice system is deservedly considered as a «thief» by penal abolitionists; conflicts are being stolen from its owner (Christie, 1977). In essence, the states and agencies take in hand personal subjects; thereby every peaceful and non-punitive settlement becomes inevitably impossible.

«The violation of the law, this concrete action, is of such importance that it sets the whole machinery of the state in motion and decides in almost every detail everything that will subsequently take place. The crime - the sin - becomes the decisive factor, not the wishes of the victim, not the individual characteristics of the culprit, not the particular circumstances of the local society.

excluding all these factors, the hidden message of neo-classicism becomes a *denial of the legitimacy of a whole series of alternatives which should be taken into consideration*» (Christie, 1981: 44-45).

The criminal justice system invariably continues to exclude from its process all those involved in problematic situations («offender», «victim» and close social environment). As the Norwegian abolitionist Nils Christie (1977: 1-5) argued so forcibly:

«Conflicts have been taken away from the parties directly involved and thereby have either disappeared or become other people's property ... criminal conflicts have either become other people property - primarily the property of lawyers - or it has been in other people's interests to channel conflicts away».

However, the fact that the vast majority of «crimes» goes unreported and unrecorded («dark figure») does not mean that these problematic situations remain unsettled. Most interpersonal conflicts follow peaceful settlement with no implementation of the punitive criminal justice system.

Therefore, despite the high rates of imprisonment, a conflict rarely and occasionally is referred to the criminal justice system (Hulsman, 1997).

In the fifth place, there are many indicators showing that crime control means to a great extent social control. Victimless crimes (e.g. homosexuality or drug use) and moral offences make clear that crime control via criminal law and criminal justice system is inevitably a means for social control. For criminal law «is an inefficient instrument for imposing the good life to others» (Bayer, 1993: 13).

Formulated in bold terms, we should say that criminal law does not lead to justice but «to something essential about the society, its structures and power relationships» (Gronfors and Stalstrom, 1986), through society's sexual norms, and moral issues and attitudes.

On the other hand, crime control via criminal justice system is social control as it comes economic issues, i.e. productivity. For example, one of the strongest tools for capitalism in order support its own interests and needs is the control of sexuality. However, according the basic capitalist principles, homosexuality should be considered as a «non-productive» behaviour. The lack of sexual production and new industrial labour (i.e. children) is the real reason for the criminalization of this behaviour in discussion. A criminalization well structured and covered with pseudo-moral issues was constructed and a new type of «criminals» were created; the homosexuals, a highly discriminated and stigmatised minority of «sexual deviants» (Gronfors and Stalstrom 1986). And unfortunately criminologists became - more or less - the guardians of sexual normality.

Another indicator that crime control by criminal justice system and criminal law is in fact social control was offered by the neo-feminists in the field of criminology. Pat Carlen (1984) showed how criminal justice system created a passive stereotype of woman and establishes an unreasonable interest of criminal law in woman's sexuality and sexual behaviour. In this respect, criminal justice system managed to make an invasion to women's life, an invasion of her body and her mind. According to Pat Carlen

«The history of law on rape also shows a traditionally rape is been treated as a property offence. That is to say that rape is been seen as an offence by a man against another man's property. Punishment did not reflect the harm done to a woman, it simply reflected her value to men» (Carlen 1984).

More to the point, we should conclude that the abolitionist critique towards penal law and criminal justice system is justified. The punitive character of criminal justice system produces more problems than the problems it is supposed to solve, while criminologists seem to be like doctors who secretly love the disease they are supposed to be fighting. And it is criminal justice system that creates conflicts instead of arranging them and «many times the same conflicts reappear in a more serious form or appear new ones because exactly of the penal intervention» (Baratta, 1989: 11).

For all the above reasons, abolitionists advocate the abolition of criminal justice system and show great interest to the civil procedure as a mechanism for conflict resolution for the so-called «minor and «medium» criminality. For example, non-violent and tolerant approaches to the problem of «crime» are commonly used among the Quakers community; the cornerstone of Quakers' policy towards this problem is the notion of «invasiveness». Such approaches are the payment of some kind of fines from the offender to the victim, education, processing and practice of methods for self-defence, non-forced therapy, help by friends and relatives. The hardest approaches are simply the non-collaboration between the community and the offender or in some case ostracization.

Simultaneously, penal abolitionism is in favour of a policy of minimal penal intervention for more serious criminality and offers a model of analysis towards a really alternative penal policy through a strategy of maximum limitation of the penal (institutional) violence. Because, «our fate, and our saving grace, is to be compassionate beings. In all humility and whatever may be known is known love» (Quinney, 1994: 2).

It is true that, in contrast to the civil procedure where the judge deals with a claim *if and as far as* there is clear right and reasonable interest of the plaintiff, and where the parties are treated more equally, the criminal law procedure is rather authoritarian way of dealing with conflicts. The civil law would be a suitable means to achieve Bianchi's «economie» (Swaaningen, 1995 and 1997) than the criminal law. Abolitionists are right in their conclusion that

«the judge in criminal matters does not take into account, and focuses on abstract ideas like the disturbed legal order, the so-called «seriousness» of the committed act(s), and the intentions of the accused. He punishes on the vague standards of «equivalence of rights», based on dubious notions like retaliation, general prevention, confirmation of the norms and so on, which correspond in no way whatsoever to the damage caused by the action» (Knap, 1986: 215).

The criminological paradigm in question direct our attention to rational and reflexive reactions problematic events (Haan, 1990) and suggest autonomous and informal ways of conflict resolution like neighbourhood justice and popular courts, for criminal justice system is beyond repair. If punishment but reconciliation is the abolitionist suggestion as a reaction to problematic events.

On the other hand, the bureaucratic framework of every criminal justice system automatically lead to the so-called professional deformity of those involved within. And the reason for this deformity is the specialisation of judges; the existence of «specialised non-specialists». The abolitionist perspective is clear:

«The ideal is clear; it ought to be a court of equals representing themselves. When they are able to find a solution between themselves, no judges are needed. When they are not, the judges ought to be their equals» (Christie, 1977):

Moreover, in an abolitionist point of view, the promotion of dispute-settlement, regulation and management of the conflict is a possible and viable alternative for conflict resolution. The duty of abolitionists is to struggle towards re-skilling people to do so. On the other hand, both abolitionists and left realists share the opinion that the poor and deprived sections of the population are suspicious towards to informal and decentralised systems of conflict resolution (Lea, 1999) while privileged categories in society «have far better possibilities than the underprivileged to settle their disputes in a non-penal or punitive way» (Bianchi 1986: 155). But what left realists fail to see, is exactly the great need to prepare the structures of dispute-settlement, to convince the deprived and underprivileged parts of society for the need of a non-punitive approach to «crime» by demonstrating the class-biased character of penal law and at last to convince them to get involved in the preparation of these structures. It is time to take criminal justice system seriously not the «crime». In Bianchi's view «the underprivileged suffer quite badly from false consciousness: they have been educated to believe that a punitive attitude is the best criminal policy» (Bianchi, 1986: 156). That is what must be changed.

It is true; «any alternative is a matter of profound social change» (Lea, 1999). Therefore, the modern penal abolitionist has to «translate his message into political terms» (Bianchi, 1986:15). Crime and crime control are social relations as defined by the state apparatus. In order to see them as lay-oriented social relations we must adopt an anascopic view of life world and deal with them not as pre-existing problems but as «by-products of criminal justice system itself» (Lea, 1999). The false consciousness is the problem. And Herbert Marcuse was right;

«The power of the master depends on the slave himself who believes to and maintain this power» (Marcuse, 1965: 23).

Finally, penal abolitionists should make every endeavour to spread the abolitionist ideas among the judiciary. And as good example towards this aim we can mention the French «Syndicat de la Magistrature», a syndicate that offers the opportunity for real and equal representation to all members of judicial body and aims at the breaking «with the sectarianism and monolithic structure of the judiciary and instead be antielitist, antihierarchical and pluralist» (Haan, W. et al, 1989: 479).

This syndicate, based on anarcho-syndicalist traditions and principles, launched on 8 June 1970 and until this moment organised conferences on human rights, legislation, prison reform, class justice while simultaneously organised a lot of judicial strikes for political matters and not only for negotiating better salaries and working conditions. And, despite the fact that judges are most of the times recruited from the upper stratum of society and despite the clear limits and related contradictions, the judiciary of the «Syndicat de la Magistrature» many times «worked to demystify the images of law», and represented the anger of a social class that is frustrated by seeing law enforced selectively against «the normal clientele of justice» (Haan, W. et al. 1989: 480). In this respect, the syndicate succeeded to shift attention from technical aspects of law and focus it on the real social problems.

More to the point, penal abolitionism must build bridges of collaboration with these kind of syndicates and work together for the overstepping of the current situation; judiciary should not

based on ritualistic and authoritarian principles. The enemy is well known and too strong to be confronted in an elitist way of acting.

Abolitionism and the Driving Forces Behind Penal Repression

Nowadays, the police, the mass media and the political establishment are major social interest groups for every society. Penal abolitionists were always sceptical about their actual role in drawing out moral panic and altering the socio-political climate in the area of criminal and penal politics. Therefore, penal abolitionism confronted them as a real threat and as the actual driving force

behind the growing penal repression. It is common to see the police, the mass media and the political establishment united and participated in major public outcry against «high rates of criminality» (Mathiesen, 1996). In this respect, the triangular mechanism appears to be extremely powerful; it is

the «power to define what we think about and how we think about it. It is the power that shapes collective consciousness and attitudes, and in so doing, motivates people to respond to specific stimuli, and respond in a specific way» (Muntaquin, 1995). But alas, it is well known that whenever authority fails to paralyse and dislocate by coercion and force, it is dislocated by subjection; by giving crutches to society, and we are all going about on crutches owned and controlled by this same apparatus.

In the first place, police is one of the most powerful institutions within the criminal justice system and hardly holds any liberal and non-punitive policies. It is in its duty not treating human beings like cases, and that is of great importance. As an institution, police is always ready to jump onto the tough-on-crime» bandwagon and many times police officers are charged for malpractice such as

bending the rules, planting evidence, stop and search with no reason at all and physical abuse.

Instead of functioning as a service as critical criminology wants, it functions as a force. However, penal abolitionism and critical criminology in general will invariably call for a change of ethos for police, demonstrating its malpractice and the inevitable decline in the public perception of police efficiency. On the other hand, the force-police, used to target offenders not only in an ineffective way but a provocative one (e.g. eagle eye prominent» policies»). In the «Frontline Britain» programme of the «Network First» series we heard that police many times act as an «agent-provocateur»;

«Young black men are given particularly close attention from the police from the police.

London, there are five times more likely to be stopped and searched than whites. In high crime areas, young blacks are likely to be seen by the police and by many of the white majority as an identical enemy».

In the second place, mass media are being nourished by stories of high criminality and searched intensively for sensational individual cases; «it is part of the very development of the modern mass media and of the modern concept of the “newsworthy” to do just that», as Thomas Mathiesen

elegantly put it (1996: 3). The media pick, choose and show us according to what they perceive of interest and «safe» to their public. Thus, «mass media apply and cash in heavy profit on the concept of crime» (Christie, 1990/91: 54). In this respect, rather than justify the media stereotype, we argue that it is precisely the media distortion that causes the bulk of problems. Tout court, mass media bring about a «pattern of one dimensional thought and behaviour» (Marcuse, 1991). And the Canadian abolitionist prisoner Yves Bourque (1994: 4) concluded in his paper under the title «Prison Abolition», the six o’ clock news will report a regrettable incident like so:

«Today, a young bank teller was shot in cold blood in the course of a robbery. When he was apprehended by the police, it was found that twenty-six old so and so had just recently be

released on parole after having served only four of a seven year sentence for robbery. More news later..».

It does not say:

«Yesterday again, a young bank teller was shot in the course of a robbery at the corner of such and such street. A humanitarian organisation that is now helping the parents of the victim cope with their immense grief and anger has told this media that the apprehended twenty-six year old had since age seventeen, undergone six years of “legal” physical and psychological torture, degradation and systematic dehumanisation at the hands of the penal authorities. Socially and emotionally assassinated so and so had once told the institutional psychiatrist that the scars of cigarette burns on his penis, inflicted by police in a forced questioning pertaining to the denunciation of a major heroin dealer, had caused him to try to commit suicide at least three times while in prison and on his mother’s house. More news later, now, this report on the devastating effects of the cruise missile».

It is true; crime pays through a process of its «Hollywoodization» (Greenfield, S. and Osborn, 1999). Nowadays, people-viewers eat «crimes» in their television set like candies and murders are best sellers. Mass media, police and political establishment feed the circuit; criminal justice system invariably need scapegoats, it needs «criminals», in order to achieve their own existence. Marx had a clever observation when he wrote that:

«The criminal produces not only crimes but also criminal law, and with this also the professor who gives lectures on criminal law and in addition to this inevitable compendium in which this same professor throws his lectures onto a general market as commodities ... and the criminal moreover produces the whole of the police and criminal justice, constables, judges, juries, etc.» (Marx, 1961: 387-388).

In the third place, political establishment managed with the help of mass media to form an omnipresent «public opinion», to create to a large extent a public concern about crime and win a silent (sic) majority to the support of increasingly coercive measures and unusual exercising of control on the part of the state, particularly over young, black, unemployed males» (Haan, 1987: 324). In shaping with the help of mass media the collective consciousness and attitudes, the political establishment has the opportunity and ability to pass into law draconian sanctions. There is no doubt that many times fear of crime is spread maintained and been used by the political establishment in order to bring about and legitimise penal measures that encroach human rights (Farsedakis, 1989)

And once again, state authority and its criminal justice system choose the most suitable enemy to carry out their actions. In Nils Christie’s words (1990-91: 54)

«Crimes ideal for state actions are those carried out by powerless groups in the periphery (young, poor, mentally confused), people with appearance that blocks identifications (hippies, gypsies, foreign workers, immigrants) and people performing acts generally disapproved of, and with only a limited similarity to deviant acts carried out elsewhere».

I will try to show of the interactionist way that political establishment, police and mass media function by mentioning a recent example that occurred in Greece; the building of the stereotype of the dangerous Albanian immigrant (Karydis, 1992,1996,1996b, 1998 and Psimmenos, 1995). This example that will show clearly the «incestuous relationship» of the triangle mentioned above.

Greece, although a traditional country of emigration, became a country of immigration since the beginning of 90’s and, latest statistics showed that today immigrants constitute 5% of the total population and 10% of the economically active population (Karydis, 1996). The vast majority of immigrants are Albanians (52,51%); young and impoverished people coming from an «intra Euro country of third world» and holding the faith of a better life. This part of the population became however the scapegoat of Greek society, a suitable «folk devil».

Mass Media has a crucial and decisive contribution to the creation of the negative concepts towards immigration and to the construction of negative stereotypes. A content analysis of the press and television programs during the first years of the massive influx of economic refugees reveals that unemployment and criminality were the main issues connected to migration. Clearly speaking, mass media contributed to the creation of a moral panic and propaganda of the political establishment and adopt «tough on crime» rhetoric while spreading the «fear of crime» disease. They often characterised immigration as a social scourge and urge to adopt an even harsher migratory policy and legislation. In essence, Pierre Bourdieu's «Portraying of Despair» led to the creation of bias and the discouragement of impartiality.

On the other hand, political establishment greatly contributes to the reconstruction of crime as a social reality, motivated by political and vote-haunting reasons. So, they fast urged for a harsher more punitive migration policy.

And, finally the police reproduced with great pleasure this same reconstruction of crime. The increase in crime rates that occurred in Greece was easily attributed nearly exclusively to the undocumented immigrants and not to its lack of accountability.

However, the results of the stereotyping are disastrous. Undocumented immigrants live constantly under the fear of state repression and deportation. They are obligated to deal with men of the underworld in order to enter the country and ones in Greece they are exploited as a cheap labour force. More to the point, we observe the existence of an institutional violence that tolerates and provokes incidents of racial hatred and xenophobia.

The criminal stereotype function nowadays as an alibi for the use of violence against Albanian immigrants and therefore, in a left realist «action-reaction» perspective, immigrants adopt a defensive negative stance (Lea, 1992).

However, many research studies demystified the myths of unemployment and increasing crime rates caused by immigrants. For example, immigrants occupy roles and positions in the labour market which local labour force do not wish to occupy either because they are heavy and not well paid and dangerous. On the other hand, despite the fact that according to the stereotype immigrants are responsible for the high crime rates, research showed that the crime committed by migrants in Greece are usually low-profile ones; criminal offences provoked by their illegal status (e.g. illegal entry) property crimes motivated by poverty or even for survival reasons (Karydis, 1998).

The situation that is created through the interaction between these driving forces is developing the worse. However, abolitionism considers this situation as a good reason to call for a much stronger political resistance. Penal abolitionists point out the need for building «alternative public space» a space that will provide no access for a destructive invasion from mass media, police and politicians. Thomas Mathiesen's words, «the point is to contribute to the creation of an alternative public space in penal policy, where argumentation and principled thinking represent the dominant value» (Mathiesen, 1996: 5). Therefore, what is needed is

«Firstly, liberation from what I would call the absorbent power of the mass media. Secondly, restoration of the self esteem and feeling of worth on the part of grass roots movements. And, thirdly, a restoration of the feeling of responsibility on the part of intellectuals ... partly directed towards refusal to participate in the mass media show business and partly directed towards re-vitalisation of research taking the interests of common people as a point of departure» (Mathiesen, 1996: 5).

In this respect, it is time to take criminal justice system and its driving forces seriously. It is time to throw away our crutches and walk our road in solidarity. Abolitionists, are right; the spirit of resistance and activism is not dead (Mathiesen, 1996). The existing mobility in the neo-feminist and ecological movement are clear examples.

Finally, the «fear of crime» that is born on the irrationality of the mass media functions as a form of social exclusion, and is a major social problem. This fear has unfortunate side-effects (Simpson, and Yexley, 1992) as it can exclude the parts of the population that fear most from getting involved in social, political or work activities. And the abolitionist answer to aggravation and exploitation of this fear by the mass media can not be other than the struggle towards the upgrading of the role of woman and the activation of elderly people in the social web. There lies the debt for abolitionism

neo-feminism; the role of the «harmless» and «dependent» victim that is been offered by criminals and justice to women should be refused and radically criticised along with any repressive way thinking (Swaaningen, 1989: 297).

Abolitionism and the Pitfalls of Today

«There is no crueller tyranny than that which is perpetrated under the shield of Law and in the name of Justice.»

Montesquieu, 1742

Although it is well known that abolitionism as a movement met great victories throughout history the movement did not succeed to avoid pitfalls set by the system of repression and - mainly - did not show the necessary flexibility to avoid the «power of absorption» of this same powerful system. The abolitionist Herman Bianchi, offered three clear examples for this situation in his opening address on 25th June 1985 for the Second International Conference on Prison (now Penal) Abolition in Amsterdam (Bianchi, 1986).

a. The successful abolitionist struggle for the abolition of the privileges of the clergy and of the aristocracy in the end of the 18th century was followed by a new more humiliating status quo of bureaucracy and in fact, a new aristocracy of economic enterprise.

b. The successful abolitionist struggle for the abolition of slavery was followed by an unlimited economic exploitation of a large part of the population, and

c. The victorious abolitionist struggle for the abolition of state organised and a commercial organised criminal network of female abuse, in essence, followed controlled prostitution in the end of the 19th century.

However, it is exactly the mistakes of the past that would be the guiding light for the abolitionist struggle and resistance in the future. Here lies the great debt for any abolitionist; to offer justified argumentation, to uncover the fallacies of criminal justice system and to re-skill the de-skilled community. Nils Christie was exactly right in his conclusion that the role of the criminologists is not to be perceived as useful problem-solvers, but as problem raisers (as cited in Bottomley, 1979). Herman Bianchi's words;

«Perhaps, we are not far from the truth in assuming that the cause for this kind of trap in the struggle for the abolition of any kind of social injustice, lies exactly in the fallacies of justified argumentation ... As long as a greater part of the population acquiesced to these kind of arguments they offered ample opportunity to rulers and the privileged to manipulate the whole nation. What happened was that new institutions took over the supposed duties of the previous ones and so social injustice could quite often just continue. And, for some time, people were beguiled until they became aware of the social deceit, by which time it was too late» (Bianchi, 1986: 148).

So, in the first place stands the well-known argument of the necessity of imprisonment as a means of protection of the community from crime. This argument is itself one of the greatest pitfalls for abolitionists. Therefore it must be confronted with great attention. Abolitionists can and in fact are obliged to uncover the fallacy and to continue advocating for a radical non-intervention. For example, the argument that abolitionist principles are almost impossible to apply in modern capitalist societies, as it comes in terms of prison abolition, is one of the most expressed by the opponents of penal abolitionism. However, this opinion is a fallacy and can easily be confronted by mentioning that a highly industrialised, complex, multicultural, and overpopulated urban society

like the Netherlands is nearly achieving a de facto abolition of prisons (Haan, 1986 see also Tak
And all that happened through a policy of high tolerance and radical non-intervention; in esser
through a policy based on abolitionist principles and rationale. It is the critical criminology in t
Netherlands and the Scandinavian countries, the stronghold of Penal Abolitionism, who succeed
to uncover the fallacy and show the way;

«We all know this protection to be a fallacy, because it protects us only for the time being. The
convict might, under certain circumstances, be less well adapted to good social life than befo
There is a better reason, however, for taking the argument seriously. If the abolitionist does not
the authorities and the administrators of justice will most certainly do so, and use it to manipul
public opinion and fear, most graciously helped by the media» (Bianchi, 1986: 153).

On the other hand, abolitionists should avoid the pitfall of the so-called need for humanisation
the prison system or for humane criminal justice administration. That is not a priority for abolitioni
is at least controversial to fight for the abolition of a system worth rejecting and in the same time
to reform it. Herman Bianchi's comparison was successful; «anti-militarists do not discuss a hum
war» (Bianchi, 1986: 154). Tout court, abolitionism means a *de facto* abolition of prison, of pena
and of criminal justice system. The reforms are likely to strengthen the institutions of «pain deliver
(Hudson, 1998). And this is of great importance; the abolitionists should avoid the pitfall of a n
bureaucracy by abolishing the bureaucracy of the criminal law system. There lies the great dept
critical criminology; the struggle must not be operated towards the creation of a skilled and effect
criminal justice system's agencies but what is needed is to reskill the community.

In the second place, lies the pitfall of the so-called «alternative» penal sanctions in the form
community service. Although at the very first sight the sanction of community service appears to
humane, edifying and «political correct», a close look shows that this penal sanction hides gre
dangers. The «alternative» penal sanction of community service is in clear contrast with t
abolitionist principles and the hermeneutical circle of the abolitionist thought. It is not only
abolitionists stood adamantly against imposed community work so early as in the end of the 18
century (Bianchi, 1986) and proposed prisons instead.

Community service as an alternative penal sanction continues to be penal labour as far as it
imposed. The scepticism of abolitionism towards the penal labour - even in the form of commu
service - and the sequential rejection of it must come across to terms of glorification of labour its
The abolitionist rejection of labour does not mean rejection of the creative and productive ability
the individual; it means rejection of the imposed labour. It is rejection of the capitalist order
production and consumption. It is the rejection of the capitalist system whom relations of produc
prevent and distort these abilities (Banlieues, 1998). In essence, rejection of the penal labour (i
or outside prison) means rejection of the order as a form of expropriation of time, relations and
itself.

Labour is still a structural element of prison system. Nowadays, the prisoner - most of tim
convicted for minor offences - is encouraged or is forced to offer his work outside prison in the fo
community work. However, the semantic coincidence of prison/community service with labour do
not aim at the production of work because it is plain as day that this production is quantitatively a
many times qualitatively negligible.

Abolitionists must avoid the pitfall; the goal for community service is the prisoner's acceptance
the «employer-labourer», i.e. «master-servant» relationship. As Michel Foucault elegantly put
(1991: 242-243);

«Penal labour must be seen as the very machinery that transforms the violent, agitate
unreflective convict into a part that plays its role with perfect regularity and 'if in the final analysis
work of the prison has an economic effect, it is by producing individuals mechanised according t
general norms of an industrial society' the making of machine men, but also of proletarians ... Wh
then is the use of penal labour? Not profit; nor even the formation of a useful skill; but t
constitution of a power relation, an empty economic form, a schema of individual submission and
adjustment to production apparatus».

Moreover it was observed that these kind of imposed community work sanctions resulted in a «widenning». In Herman Bianchi's words, «they have widened the impact of penal policy on society». Most community work sentences have been in those cases where prosecution would have been suspended in recent decades» (Bianchi, 1986: 152).

Formulated in bold terms, we should say that abolitionism has to continue the harsh critique of these «alternative» penal sanctions and to strongly demand sharp reduction of the incarceration rates (i.e. sentencing less people to shorter terms), moratorium in prison construction and promotion of legal and social alternatives to the punitive system. And the latter means promotion of dispute settlement, promotion of regulation and management of the conflict (Bianchi, 1986). Moreover abolitionism as a real critical criminology, should continue nurturing a mistrust towards penological experts, and refusing to provide them with «new fodder for their penal obsession» (Haan, 1990: 5)

Furthermore, penal abolitionism should continue to harshly criticise the trend of criminal justice system in punishing minor offences with short-term imprisonment. In addition to the lack of usefulness of the short-term imprisonment, it brings disastrous results to the life and future of the prisoners. The so-called *sharp-short shocks* of the British penologists breaks away prisoners from their family, professional and social environment. Sharp-short shocks are a recall from free life, a prisoner's life and environment (family, work etc.), most of the times non divertible (Ancel, 1999). Finally, equally destructive is the institution of detention under remand. A detention awaiting trial is not only a temporary deprivation of liberty but also and mainly a prisonization and stigmatisation of a prisoner whom guiltiness have not been proved.

Another serious pitfall for penal abolitionism is the underestimation of the seriousness that is hiding behind the so-called «state organised crime». Although it is of great criminological interest, abolitionists did not take it seriously until now and escape from their criminological inquiry. However the criminological paradigm in discussion has to confront this form of problematic situation in terms of state repression.

In essence, crime is not only an indirect - through criminalization procedure - product of the state. It is also a direct one as we face it in the form of the state-organised crime. In his remarkable paper under the title «State Organised Crime», William Chambliss offered a clear definition for it (1989: 184);

«Acts defined by law as criminal and committed by state officials in the pursuit of their job as representatives of the state. Examples include a state's complicity in piracy, smuggling, assassinations, criminal conspiracies, acting as an accessory before or after the fact, and violating laws that limit their activities. In the latter category would be included the use of illegal methods of spying on citizens, diverting funds in ways prohibited by law».

For the localisation and analysis of this type of criminality, Chambliss went back to history and discovered outstanding examples of state organised crime, in the forms of state supported piracy which helped «to equalise the balance and reduce the tendency towards the monopolisation of capital accumulation» (Chambliss, 1989: 188), and state supported smuggling (France in Indochina, United States of America in Vietnam, Laos, Cambodia and Thailand). In William Chambliss' words (1989: 192);

«In violation of US laws, members of the National Security Council (NSC) the Department of Defence, and the CIA carried out a plan to sell millions of dollars worth arms to Iran and use the profits from these sales to support the Contras in Nicaragua».

Furthermore, state organised crime includes tortures and assassinations with the help of secret intelligence organisations, like for example the Iranian SAVAK or the Chilean DINA. There are a number of illegal practices such as the opening and photographing of the mail of citizens, illegally entering and searching in people's homes, domestic surveillance through electronic devices, dangerous and unethical experiments on human subjects which violates civil rights and endanger their lives, disruption and harassment of anti-regime groups.

And one of the recent examples is the COINTELPRO program. During the civil unrest of the 1960s and 1970s, the FBI created a program called COINTELPRO or Counter Intelligence Program. This program was designed to destroy any organisation considered by the US Government, FBI, CIA to be politically or socially dissident. FBI's secret program undermined the popular upsurge of the 1960's and eliminates the radical political opposition inside the United States by sabotaging constitutionally protected political activity.

By using the techniques of infiltration, bad-jacketing, forgery and provoking violence with a divide-and-conquer strategy between groups and law enforcement, the FBI hoped to nullify their progress. Those targets included groups focused on antiwar demonstrations, Black civil rights (particularly the Black Panther Party, Native civil rights and equal rights for women). According to Brian Glick, author of «War at Home», FBI disclosed official counterintelligence programs such as; the Communist Party of the United States (1956-1971), «Groups Seeking Independence for Puerto-Rico» (1960-1971), the «Socialist Workers Party» (1961-1971), the «New Left» (1968-1971) and others (Glick, 1999). In essence COINTELPRO managed to

«distorted the public's view of radical groups in a way that helped to isolate them and to legitimize open political repression, reinforced and exacerbated the weakness of these groups, making it difficult for the inexperienced activists of the Sixties to learn from their mistakes and build so durable organisations, helped to push some of the most committed and experienced groups to withdraw from grassroots organising and to substitute armed actions which isolated them and deprived the movement of much of its leadership and by operating covertly weakened domestic political opposition without shaking the conviction of most US people that they live in a democracy with free speech and the rule of law» (Glick, 1999: 2-3).

However, these actions reached at the zenith point in the late 60's turmoil (Gitlin, 1998). On the other hand, a few things are known about the connection of these secret agencies and the mass media. Recently Todd Gitlin observed that this field is «terra incognita» although there are some pieces of evidence for a possible co-operation FBI-CBS-New York Times, in areas like New York, Chicago, Los Angeles and Milwaukee for the period 1956-1971 (Gitlin, 1998).

Finally among the victims of state organised crime are the million of people who suffer terrible pains because of an *official validated* exposure of their body to pollution, poisons and chemicals. These are the victims, or to use Vincenzo Ruggiero's term «the invisible victims» (1992) whom the technological dream has broke down after the latest proofs (and headlines) of the existence of industrial vulnerability and sensitivity (Bhopal, Chernobyl, Three Mile Island, Love Channel, RC Valdez) and the well-known - now - hole of ozone (Sale, 1998).

Abolitionism should also avoid the pitfall of selectivity; the criminological paradigm in discussion should not only stand for the abolition of the prison sentence. It has to invariably provoke to take «crime» seriously, thus to deconstruct it and face the reality of the problematic situations, and to work for political resistance. The latter means that penal abolitionism should not isolate its struggle for abolition of criminal justice system from the struggle for justice in terms of power and proper relationships, because criminologist's research and activity is not something abstract; it is a social and political fact. Otherwise, penal abolitionism will remain another theoretical experiment, a «safe caprice of some criminologists, and «will lose the material and ideological framework of its struggle and any prospect of success» (Baratta, 1989: 12). Penal abolitionists should always bear in mind the great power of absorption and neutralisation that is hidden in the process of selection. In abolitionist words, «this selective concentration on particular aspects and features is side-tracking a neutralising in relation to the actual goals of the movement» (Mathiesen, 1983: 6).

Another pitfall of today that penal abolitionists should make every endeavour to avoid is the underestimation of prostitution and the lost of a great chance to build a strong connection with the growing movement of neo-feminism. Unfortunately, apart from the fact that penal abolitionists many times mentioned prostitution as a clear example of victimless crime that should be decriminalised, far as I search, not much research has been made on this problematic situation. However, the struggle of prostitutes for autonomy and self-regulation should be a high-priority for abolitionists.

Bearing in mind the basic abolitionist principles, we should say that, in an abolitionist point of view

prostitution should be seen as a very serious and complex problematic situation. Its complex originates mainly from the current class structured and sexist society. It is true that abolitionists have already fought the phenomenon of prostitution in the past; historically, abolitionists have dedicated themselves to rescuing women from prostitution, and training women to find alternative careers and security in marriage. But nowadays, although the goal must be the same, i.e. emancipation of prostitutes in order to bring about the essential abolition of prostitution itself, the approach should be different.

Therefore, in countries where prostitution is considered as «crime», abolitionists have to fight for the decriminalisation (prostitution=victimless crime and no victim=no crime). On the other hand, in countries where prostitution is already decriminalised, things are more complex, therefore the fight takes place in many levels.

The abolitionist and neo-feminist movement are obligated to prevent the abuse and stigmatisation of prostitutes (self employed and others), eradicate laws that deny freedom of association, freedom to travel to prostitutes or laws that obligate prostitutes to pay extra taxes but no extra benefits. And guarantee prostitutes all human rights and civil liberties (freedom of speech, travel, immigration, work, marriage, motherhood, unemployment insurance, health insurance and housing). Moreover, prostitutes should be educated to periodical health screening from sexually transmitted diseases not in a way that will control and stigmatise them; thus mandatory checks only for prostitutes are unacceptable. Moreover, mass media must be harshly criticised for any attempt by their side to stigmatise prostitutes.

Without court, prostitutes have the right to have their own private life and this is of high importance for abolitionists.

The movement should make every endeavour to build committees and organisations in every level that would help to insure the protection of the rights of the prostitutes and to whom prostitutes can address their complaints. Simultaneously this organisation should confront phenomena of sex trade and international trafficking. And it was Christine Bergman, the social democrat minister for women's subjects in Germany who holds a clear picture of the problem for her country and advocated the necessity for building this kind of organisations of prostitutes. Organisation that will function like trade unions and strong pressure groups for the rights of prostitutes. Therefore, the abolitionist movement and penal abolitionism as its criminological part is obligated to show the hypocritical stance of the state. The left realist Roger Matthews, Advisor of the «All Party Group on Prostitution» in Britain (1995) elegantly described the hypocritical stance of the British state apparatus;

«The state itself says to woman in general that it approves prostitution and gives the «green light» to enter the prostitution... but for women who operate on the streets or outside of the brothels it says that it is illegal exercise and you will be punished - so it is a hypocritical position... Police actions like the arrest of a large number of prostitutes or to be more precise re-arrest the same prostitutes, obviously not a satisfactory way to deal with the problem».

There is great need to support the struggle of women and men whom exploitation is coming from both the state and other people of the community. Because, and there lies the great depth of the problem, abolitionists, prostitution is inherently exploitative (violence per se) and what is needed is to fight the phenomenon not the victims of a phenomenon that is created by its supposed moral enemies. The ultimate aim is the abolition of prostitution, envisioning a world where no one sells sexual services to another person for any reason.

Abolitionism and the Victim

The trial in a criminal court is fundamentally non-communicative; what we observe are just para-monologues between the judge-lawyers and the offender; the victim is absent. Criminal justice ignores the victim. It is the party that stands behind the veil during the procedure in a criminal court. As Nils Christie has already concluded, «victims of crime have lost their rights to participate in conflicts» (1977: 1). The State speaks for the victim. However, «one of the reciprocal changes that abolitionism presents is the way in which problems are defined». That is to say that «no omniscient organisation will tell us what is right and what is wrong, but the disputants determine that for themselves» (Swaaningen, 1986: 17). In the respect, penal abolitionism «snapshots» the orphans of the absent victim and calls for the necessity of its participation.

«Above all she/he has lost participation in her/his own case. It is the Crown that comes into the spotlight, not the victim. It is the Crown that describes the losses, not the victim. It is the Crown that appears in the newspaper, very seldom the victim. It is the Crown that gets a chance to talk to the offender, and neither the Crown nor the offender is particularly interested in carrying on the conversation. The prosecutor is fed-up long since. The victim would not have been. He might have been scared to death, panic-stricken, or furious. But he would have been uninvolved. It would have been one of the important days in his life. Something that belonged to him has been taken away from that victim» (Christie, 1977: 8).

On the other side, penal abolitionism does care about the real needs of the victims as it adopts a radical approach of defusing his/her feeling about being victimised. The policy suggested by penal abolitionism is a policy that can address the needs for restoration of the victim's property and the need for emotional closure. It is not only the conflicts that has been taken away from the victim but the criminal justice system and state invariably steal fines and do not let victims to receive the money compensation (Christie, 1977). The symbolic language of penal law would never offer satisfaction to the victim.

The model of justice of penal abolitionism is restorative than retributive and «envisage decision making by some sort of neighbourhood tribunal, rather than by a judge or magistrate, and wish to see the parties speaking for themselves, rather than being spoken about by a meeting of experts» (Hudson, 1998). The restorative justice of penal abolitionists ('redress') will bring not an abstract justice through dichotomic penal procedures but rather «restoration or even creation of good relationships between the offender, the victim and the community ... so that the undesirable event is less likely to be repeated» (Hudson, 1998: 145). The restorative model of justice is based upon the following assumptions and principles:

1. There is not such a thing as «crime». What we have are just «troubles» or «problematic events» that violates relationships, and not abstract legislative constructions (laws).
2. The procedure that should be followed in order to bring about conflict resolution should not focus in abstract, metaphysical and arbitrary notions as guilty, dangerousness etc., but must be on the real needs and responsibilities of the victim, the culprit and the community. Moreover, the process is not an adversarial one but it would be built by dialogue in order to bring the essential agreement.
3. In the abolitionist restorative model of justice, the culprit, the victim and the community has a central position in the process of conflict resolution. The state has a rather aiding position in the process. And in this very process, it is not the rules but the assumption of responsibility that will play the key-role.
4. The result of such a procedure would not apply punishment but it should endeavour to make things right. Reconciliation, not punishment is the right reaction to problematic events. Therefore there is no place for the dichotomic and manichaist logic of the penal law; there are no win or lose outcomes but healing on both sides (victim and culprit) while meeting the actual needs of community (safety).
5. The abolitionist restorative model of justice is focusing on the future, not on the past. This model points at the neutralisation of the social harms created by the problematic event, therefore must show care of the physical and psychological needs of victims and reduce of the likelihood of offenders reoffending.

In this respect, abolitionism is obligated to work hard for the creation of reconciliation programs that will meet the real needs of the victims. Programs that will operate in a strictly voluntary way, but with the participation of both the victims and the culprits. Programs that would really satisfy the victims and would have «pedagogical possibilities» (Christie, 1977: 8). Moreover, penal abolitionists are obligated to spread with indomitable spirit their theoretical achievements in the social web and in these programs work with good results.

On the other hand, it seems that there is place to operate these reconciliatory programs. Community has the potential to deal in an informal way with its own conflicts without the participation of experts. The high rates of dark figure of criminality implies that most of the conflicts and problematic events have been dealt without criminal justice system's intervention but through «informal self-regulatory mechanisms of social control» (Swaaningen, 1995: 127).

As an example of how the abolitionist restorative justice model can be applied is the «Leeds Mediation and Reparation Service». It is a pioneering project that founded by the West Yorkshire Probation. Although it is rather in an experimental stage, the project makes contacts between victims and offender indirectly through letter or directly if both sides are willing through a face to face meeting. The program gives victims a chance to speak their minds and offenders a chance to try put things right and to change. Moreover, it follows a more realistic approach to the «criminal phenomenon».

The «Leeds Mediation and Reparation Service» is a nice example of how mediation can bring understanding and reconciliation; «the stereotype of the tough offender and the weak victim do not always fit» they concluded («Confronting Crime» videotape).

Finally, in an abolitionist point of view, the demand of the penal system to secure and protect not only the rights of the victims but to secure more general and abstract values like for example «the common sense of justice» is totally arbitrary.

On the other hand, if the restorative model of justice adopted we would have not only victims satisfaction but also a great reduction in the social cost of punishment (Baratta, 1989).

The International Conference on Penal Abolition

«During my service I found nothing in the prison system to interest me, except as a glib irrelevance - a social curiosity. If the system had a good effect on any prisoner I failed to mark it. I have no shadow of doubt of its power to demoralise, or of its cruelty. It appears to me not to be to this time or civilisation at all.»

Mary Gordon (1922), the first woman doctor and inspector of prisons

The International Conference on Penal Abolition, also known with the initials ICOPA, is the official forum for abolitionists. It was back in 1981 when the «Canadian Quaker Committee on Jails and Justice» planted the seed that grew to become ICOPA, and joined its forces with other abolitionist organisations and groups on prison abolition. The Committee recognised and stated that prison is clearly an archaic, barbaric and inhumane response to the social differences and problems. As Morris recently asserted (1997)

«The prison system is both a cause and a result of violence and social injustice. Throughout history, the majority of prisoners have been the powerless and the oppressed. We are increasingly clear that the imprisonment of human beings like their enslavement, is inherently immoral, and is destructive to the cagers as to the caged».

The First International Conference on Prison Abolition took place in Toronto in 1983 and attracted

400 people from 15 different countries in North America, Europe and Australia. But, as it was mentioned above, ICOPA is first and foremost the forum of abolitionists. Therefore, it was agreed that the Conferences on Prison Abolition should provide the opportunity to the voice of Abolitionism heard and offer strategies for the future. It was intended not to provide a platform for government people to defend the system by asking or recommending «alternatives», that is to say add-on within the system. The International Conference on Prison Abolition established in order to spread the address of Abolitionism; an «amateurish» address which has not any intention to be imposed to compete. More to the point, a new criminological paradigm was collectively under construction therefore it was urgent to be protected. There was always the danger that the expansive character of the abolitionist movement could be «encircled» by forces outside itself and thereby made to shrink and wither (Mathiesen, 1983). As the abolitionist Nils Christie nicely has asserted, in relation with occasions like the above (1997: 17)

«If one happens to find something, a good idea, something that is not trivial and known to everybody, the task is to protect that idea, that new perspective, from fast destruction by its surroundings. A new idea, eventually a new finding is vulnerable. Scientific findings - also in the area of new perspectives - are transgressions of what up to now has been the established truth. Such findings might sound strange...»

In this respect, penal abolitionism as early as in its first international conference succeeded to avoid the neutralisation and absorption by the criminal justice systems and conventional criminology through the well known pitfall of the so-called process of reformation (Mathiesen, 1983). The inevitable suggestions for reforms, that means minor scale reforms for criminal law and criminal justice system had been avoided.

The Third Conference in Montreal (1987) brought a major change as it moved from prison to penal abolition. It was not - of course - an unimportant change because since 1987, ICOPA and abolitionists worldwide advocated penal abolition and rejected the punitive and retributive policy of criminal law and criminal justice system. Ruth Morris, a founding member of ICOPA explained the reason for this change (Morris, 1997);

«The seriousness and the correctness of this change have become increasingly clear. A control and policing system based on revenge would need something just like prisons or even worse, if we were to get rid of prisons. So it was logical to move to penal abolition: getting rid of revenge as the purpose of the whole system».

During the Sixth International Conference on Penal Abolition, abolitionists decided to establish the *International Foundation for a Prisonless Society*, a small foundation dedicated to supporting international conferences of abolitionists. And finally, the Eight and latest Conference on Penal Abolition was held in Auckland, New Zealand in February 1997, and produced 18 resolutions (see appendix), immediate steps towards penal abolition by people sharing the same dream. There were officials, managers, workers, lawyers, community workers, former prisoners and victims of crime.

Thus, since 1982, eight international conferences have been held in all regions of the world with the participation of many leading criminologists. The Department of Criminology will host the International Conference on Penal Abolition, the ninth in a growing movement, in the University of Ottawa, Canada (May 10-13, 2000).

Conclusion

*«Authority is never without hate.
And those who have ability for power*

*But wisely keep their silence, are not eager
For public life, will mock my folly, blindly
Deserting peace for Athens' crowded Fears.»*

Ion: 597-601, Euripides

The abolitionist perspective was criticised and characterised as unrealistic (Cohen, 1986) a utopian even by critical criminologists and rejected. However, there is no doubt that penal abolitionism is utopian. But what means «utopia»? In a recent article for *Corriere della Sera* the Italian writer Claudio Magris (1999: 43) offer a nice definition for utopia;

«Utopia means not to submit ourselves in the current state of affairs. Utopia means to fight for the change of this state. in order to bring the state of affairs it should be. Utopia means that we should recognise the necessity, as Bertolt Brecht asserted, to change and rescue the whole world».

Penal abolitionism is and in fact is obligated to be utopian. In order to understand and to proceed to the necessary changes, penal abolitionism and the abolitionist movement in general should be utopian, that it is to say, to be materialist and dialectical. It is not the abstract system of a knowledge that would lead us to a radical change in criminology but rather the study and understanding of the real changes in life and the continuous interactionism (Cornforth, 1975). As professor Jock Young observed (1997: 26) «what is argued by abolitionists is that what is needed is an ideal, some utopian position in order to orientate our long-term aims». Therefore, «there is a need for more utopian construction» (Haan, 1990: 2). On the other hand, utopian is not something that is impossible to become reality. This point of view for utopia is obviously misleading. In Sebastian Scheerer's work (1986: 7):

«there has never been a major social transformation in the history of mankind that had not been looked upon as unrealistic, idiotic or utopian by the large majority of experts even a few years before the unthinkable became reality ... and as in the case with other legal institutions, too, slavery has succeeded to look extremely stable almost until the day it collapsed».

It is true that intense political struggle can bring about radical changes in the field of penal and criminal policy, if only it has a bottom-up approach rather than an attempt from the «top» (Mathiesen 1981). The latter is extremely vulnerable without mass support.

But I should say that there is no need to wait for radical political reform in order to see that penal abolitionism offers viable solutions. A process of a *de iure* decriminalization of certain offences like drug-use or prostitution for example is possible to bring about considerable and radical changes of great importance in the criminal justice system. On the other hand mass settlements of offences by administrative or financial means are also possible and positive.

Rene van Swaaningen said that the abolitionist critiques are stimulating, powerful and convincing. I feel the need not only to agree but also to add that the abolitionist answers are also convincing and viable. For the abolitionist rationale and reasoning a clear sense has a protagonistic role; the sense of the need for radical diversion, or to use Mathiesen's terminology, need for revolutionary approach to what has been used to call criminal phenomenon.

It is a lively time for abolitionism; it is time to start groping the criminological field without abstract and general segregation and manichaean dualities. Critical theorists were right, the starting point for liberation can be found in resistance (Marcuse, 1970).

It seems that nothing has changed from the time that the Second International Conference on Prison Abolition held in Amsterdam. Herman Bianchi's observation during his opening address at ICOPA 1985 has its value even now (Bianchi, 1986: 156).

«It is a lively time for abolitionism; we have to fight the spirit of a neo-classicist ideas on crime, to

the opportunities we have in doing this are good, for the legal and social sciences can work on (behalf, and I am sure they *are* willing to do so».

Analysing and evaluating at the same time the overall image and concept of the penal abolition theory the conclusion I came with is that the theory in question raised serious topics in the criminological agenda. But the most interesting part on this is that the answers given are convincing, applicable and viable. The abolitionist answer to «crime» is the most promising answer and solution given by a «down-to-earth» critical criminology.

Penal abolitionism is a criminological perspective that invariably and inevitably provokes (Ruggie 1999). And the paradigm is obligated to do so, the more the confrontation of social problems through gender deviation from law and rules would be based on the same punitive and coercive penal state repression, the more there will be daily proved that this approach is ineffective and dangerous and the more the voice of abolitionism will be stronger, demanding and multiply helpful.

It is under the abolitionist perspective where the future is confronted as an action of today. «Seize the Time».

Appendix

The closing session of the International Conference on Penal Abolition VIII produced resolutions. These resolutions are declarations that represent immediate steps towards penal abolition. As a postgraduate student of Criminology and secondly as a lawyer I come around abolitionist principles and ideas. Therefore, I feel in with the abolitionist struggle to distribute the resolutions and to spread the address of abolitionism. The following resolutions are the declarations all those participated in the Eighth ICOPA and among them were leading critical criminologists and sociologists such as Hal Pepinsky (Indiana University, USA), Monika Platek (Law, Warsaw University, Poland), Gerry Ferguson (Law, University of Victoria, Vancouver, Canada), Allison Morris (Institute of Criminology, Victoria, Wellington, New Zealand), Thomas Mathiesen (University of Oslo, Norway) and many others. The resolutions are:

«While standing clearly for complete penal abolition, ICOPA supports these immediate steps as a means of achieving the goal»

1. ICOPA VIII urges the government of Aotearoa/New Zealand to encourage and support community-control community group conferences as an official response to adult crime. We urge victims and offenders and officials who have experienced youth justice family group conferences consulted as to methods of implementing such conferencing with a view to achieving restorative/transformative justice outcomes.
2. ICOPA VIII opposes all for-profit privatisation of incarceration and detention. In particular ICOPA VIII opposes restrictions on access to information and research on such privatisation.
3. ICOPA VIII condemns the gross over-representation of indigenous and minority peoples in the penal systems of the world and supports the call of these peoples for self-determination.
4. ICOPA VIII calls the United Nations to put restorative/transformative justice on the main agenda of the next Congress on Crime in the year 2000.
5. ICOPA VIII supports the protection of youth and children. Accordingly, as an urgent priority ICOPA VIII calls for the immediate release of women prisoners who are pregnant or who are mothers.
6. ICOPA VIII condemns the imprisonment of young people and calls for the implementation of restorative/transformative justice to deal with youth offending.
7. ICOPA VIII further supports and promotes restorative/transformative justice for all people.

8. ICOPA VIII supports the decriminalisation of illicit substances.
9. ICOPA VIII condemns the actions of the Canadian government in constructing more prison units for women, including the recent decision to house women in maximum security units in men's prisons, a decision which takes» imprisonment back to the turn of the century.
10. ICOPA VIII condemns all moves everywhere, which increase the size of and the profit motive in the prison industry.
11. As a concrete expression of our commitment to penal abolition, ICOPA VIII members undertake to organise action(s) in support of penal abolition on August 10th, Prisoners» Justice Day.
12. ICOPA VIII supports the decriminalisation of offences by people who are mentally ill or intellectually challenged; such acts should be dealt with as health and welfare rather than criminal issues.
13. ICOPA VIII calls on the government of Aotearoa/New Zealand to: (a) place a moratorium on the construction of any more prisons in this country; (b) release all minimum security prisoners currently held in this country's prisons; (c) use the resources allocated for the building and maintenance of these institutions for resourcing existing successful community-based options; (d) provide for a public accounting for the spending of this money in a manner which is freely available for public scrutiny.
14. ICOPA VIII condemns the United States of America for being the first country in history to openly admit that it holds over 1 million people in custody and over 5 million people under the control of its criminal justice systems. ICOPA VIII expresses grave concern that the majority of USA prisoners are Native-Americans, Latinos, and African-Americans, and asserts that the only way to develop a more equitable society is to completely dismantle the penal system of the USA. ICOPA VIII condemns the USA for promoting private, for-profit prisons in other countries.
15. ICOPA VIII condemns the death penalty as an appropriate penalty in any criminal justice system.
16. ICOPA VIII demands an end to the killing of people in and by prisons.
17. ICOPA VIII acknowledges that people, who die soon after leaving prison, having died as a result of being in prison, should be recognised as deaths resulting from imprisonment and should be condemned.
18. ICOPA VII demands an end to the killing of people by police forces.

Eighth International Conference on Penal Abolition - 18-21 February 1997 - Auckland New Zealand - Aotearoa

Prison Suicides in England and Wales - 1998

Prison

Deaths

Altcourse

Belmarsh

| | |
|------------|---|
| Birmingham | 1 |
| Blundeston | 3 |
| Bristol | 1 |
| Brockhill | 3 |
| Caldiff | 1 |
| Chelmsford | 4 |
| Dartmoor | 2 |
| Doncaster | 1 |
| Durham | 5 |
| Elmley | 2 |

| | | |
|----------|-------|---|
| Exeter | | 2 |
| Glen | Parva | 1 |
| Hindley | | 2 |
| Holloway | | 1 |
| Hull | | 1 |
| Kingston | | 2 |
| Leeds | | 1 |
| Lewes | | 4 |
| Lincoln | | 2 |

| | |
|-----------------|---|
| Littehey | 2 |
| Liverpool | 1 |
| Low Newton | 1 |
| Maidstone | 1 |
| New Hall | 1 |
| Northallerton | 1 |
| Norwich | 1 |
| Nottingham | 5 |
| Parc | 2 |
| Preston | 3 |

| | |
|------------|---|
| Reading | 2 |
| Shrewsbury | 3 |
| Stafford | 1 |
| Stocken | 1 |
| Wakefield | 1 |
| Wandsworth | 1 |
| Whitemoor | 2 |
| Winchester | 1 |
| Woodhill | 5 |
| | 2 |

Total

83

Source: HM Prison Service Awareness and Support Group 1998

Howard League's research findings:

- 42 (31%) prisons and Wales were affected by the suicide of a prisoner;
- Three commercially managed prisons were affected by the self inflicted death of a prisoner - 5 at Doncaster, 3 at Parc and 2 at Altcourse;
- Two-thirds of prisoners taking their own lives were unsentenced;
- Nine youngsters aged 18 or under, including one 16 year old, took their life in prison, as did three women; and
- 11% of the deaths were prisoners from Black or Asian communities

Source: The Howard League for Penal Newsletter, 04 January 1999, <http://web.ukonline.co.uk/howard.league>

Table and Graphs

Table 1

Prisoners per 100.000 inhabitants in selected industrialized countries

| | |
|--------|-----|
| USSR | |
| USA | 660 |
| 330 | : |
| Poland | |
| 300 | : |

| | |
|----------------|-----|
| DDR | |
| Bulgaria | 222 |
| Czechoslovakia | 150 |
| Austria | 142 |
| Yugoslavia | 118 |
| BDR | 101 |
| Finland | 100 |
| England | 99 |
| Denmark | 86 |
| Sweden | 68 |

Norway 49

The Netherlands 44

23

Nils Christie «Punishment» in A. Kuper and J. Kuper (eds.). *The Social Science Encyclopaedia*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

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- * «Paying for it - Modern Times». Date: 15.12.1998. Producer: Emma Hewitt. Series Edited by Stephen Lambert. Campus EN. Tape No.: 55523560. Code: 306.74 PAY.
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1 Needless to say that the term abolitionism stands for a social movement, a theoretical criminological perspective (penal abolitionism) and a political strategy (Haan, 1990).

2 What can we expect from a criminology that dedicates itself to surveys like «who are the most influential criminologists?» and so on? Isn't this a clear proof for the existence of conformity and state of decadence for criminology? Cohn and Faringthor (1990 and 1994) made a survey by using citation in four journals and produced rankings of the most cited criminologists (!). But what means influence? Is a citation a valid and reliable measure of influence? And of course what's the point of such a survey? For a nice critique, see Heidensohn and Silvestri, 1998.

3 According to Vincenzo Ruggiero (1999), Professor of Sociology in Middlesex University, abolitionists have themselves a background that varies from religious to anarchist approaches. Thus Louk Hulsman has more religious and theological approaches, Thomas Mathiesen is rather a materialist with an active Marxist point of view and finally Nils Christie is libertarian with an anarchist-communitarian point of departure. I will strongly agree with this opinion although I noticed some religious overtones of thinking in Nils Christie's work (e.g. «Limits to Pain»). Moreover it must be noticed that during the interview with Jacqueline Bernat de Celis, Louk Hulsman, the Dutch abolitionist lawyer and criminologist, harshly criticized the catholic church.

4 See however Sebastian Scheerer's critique (1986: 9-10).

5 Therefore, I will strongly disagree with Willem de Haan who notes that «neither Left Realism nor abolitionism is consistent paradigms, let alone coherent theories. They are merely approaches entailing certain attitudes and points of view. Whereas the former deals particularly with the issue of crime, the latter concentrates on the issue of punishment» (Haan, 1990: 6).

6 Crime pays: In Britain two out of three households are insured compared with just one in five in 1970 (BBC News, October 13, 1998). Are «fear of crime» policies on the side of insurance companies? On the other hand, in the United States of America, the government is now renovating military bases into prisons, so that former military communities will continue to have an industrial base (Muntaquin, 1995).

7 For a comprehensive study on the anarchist movement see Joll, 1964.

8 However, according to Rene Van Swaaningen «in general anarchists do not point their arrows so greatly at criminal law» (1997: 132). I will disagree; anarchists' philosophers point their arrows to state law in general, let alone at criminal law. See Chris McDonald (1997) «The Revolutionary Underclass of Bakunin and Marcuse» *Anarchist Studies*, 5, pp. 3-21.

9 According to Dimopoulos (1989) abolitionism as a movement (abolitionsbewegung) inspired by the radical writings of Saint-Simon, Fourier, Proudhon, Burke and Lassalle.

10 The critical criminology's vocabulary in general is full of alternatives for concepts like «crime» and «punishment», (see Haan, 1990: 157).

11 In this respect, penal abolitionism does not rely on the court system. According to Thor Mathiesen «political work should not be left to the lawyers in court, and non-lawyers should not r

on a transformation of politics into law» (1983: 11).

12 As Richard Quinney recently concluded (1994), «all human perception is subjects to the liv experience of everyday life».

13 This was exactly the answer of -although not abolitionist- the critical criminologist Richard Quinney (Northern Illinois University) to the critique Taylor, Walton and Young in their influential book «The New Criminology». The latter wrote as a critique to Quinney's book «The Social Reality of Crime» that: «Many of Quinney's statements about a theoretical orientation to the social reality of crime seem to be the product more of the author's own existential Angst than they are the result of a clear-headed theoretical analysis».

14 In this respect, many of the abolitionist texts I utilised in order to get the basic conceptual information on Abolitionism were texts like «Limits to Pain», «The Politics of Abolition», «The Unwise Sentences», «Prison on Trial»; part text-books and part personal accounts.

15 Needless to say that Karl Marx did not engage with the concept of crime in a pure criminological point of view. See however, F. Engels (1974) «The situation of the working class in England» Athens: Byron.

16 See also the note no. 11 in the introduction by Eric Hobsbawm (page 14); «it is not the consciousness of men that determines their existence, but, on the contrary, it is their social existence that determines their consciousness» (Preface to «The Critique of Political Economy»).

17 According to Quinney (1975: 182), the scientific objectivity is assumed possible because of the belief that an order exists independent of the observer.

18 As an introduction for the understanding of the power of the «unfinished» of abolitionism, I would suggest the study of Hermann Hesse's (1954) «Pictors Verwandlungen», Suhrkamp Verlag, Frankfurt am Main.; not a criminological text exactly, but for sure an essential reading.

19 In an abolitionist point of view, the study of the concept of crime and the demonstration of its non-existence of such thing is a priority, a primary truth. And the reason for naming it as a primary truth is exactly the fact that it was discovered ultimately. The disclaimer of the concept of crime is the brightest achievement for critical criminology.

20 However, the need to discard concepts as «crime», «punishment» and 'guilt' is not so new in criminology. It was «at the Hamburg Congress of Criminologists in 1905, (when) van Hamel, reputable representative of the sociological school, declared that the main obstacles to modern criminology were the three concepts of guilt, crime and punishment. If we freed ourselves of the concepts, he added, everything would be better» (Pashukanis, E. as quoted in Lea, J., 1999)

21 Penal abolitionism suggests to adopt an anascopic view, i.e. a bottom-up approach, instead of catascopic, i.e. a top-down, approach from the life world (Swaaningen, 1995: 128).

22 However, see Left Realist critique in Matthews, R. and Young, J. (1992). «Reflections on Realism in *Rethinking Criminology - The Realist Debate*. London: Sage Publications, p. 8 (in fine).

23 An opinion that finds the left realist Professor John Lea in agreement (oral communication for the needs of this dissertation, June 1999).

24 The paper presented by abolitionist Catherine Baker (France) has been published only in Greek [Discordia Publications, Athens (in Greek)]. However, a copy is obtainable from: Rene V Swaaningen, Criminologisch Instituut der Vrije Universiteit P.O. Box 7161, 1007 MC Amsterdam. the Netherlands.

25 According to Professor Ioannis Manoledakis (University of Thessaloniki, Greece), «the punishment, i.e. the way that an organised community reacts to crime, ideologically define a culturally characterise the community itself' (1989:7).

26 Foucault wonders «is the court a form of secular justice or is it more a distigurement of it?» and easily concludes that «whenever, the bourgeois-class wanted to repress an uprising act, a court was raised» (Foucault, 1987: 11-22).

27 It is also true that prison functions in a positive way for some non-political prisoners; in the course of their imprisonment, and due to the social conditions they experience, begin to develop a political class consciousness.

28 Mark Poster made an interesting observation on Foucault's remarkable work on the birth of prison «the texture of his history of prisons is choppy, disconnected, even arbitrary. But there is a reason for this peculiar approach. Foucault takes his topic, prison systems, and in Nietzschean fashion goes i

time until he finds a point where the prevailing penal practice looks to modern eyes ridiculous, without sense, irrational. The degree of intellectual discomfort is a measure of the difference of that from our own» (Poster, 1984: 95-96).

29 For a historical overview by graphs of the growth in United States' correctional population, the profile of the penal population by race, and the New York City's correctional population, see the graphs in the end of this dissertation (Jacobson, 1998).

30 Jalil Muntaquin (aka Anthony Bottom), a political prisoner of war and former member of the Black Panther/Black Liberation Army and imprisoned for nearly 24 years, wrote that «The criminal justice system in USA imprisons African men 9 times more than European-Americans, and 4 times more than did apartheid South Africa. While Blacks comprise 48% of the US prison population, they are only 12.5% of the entire population» (Muntaquin, 1995).

31 The most recent example refers to France. In 28.7.1999 France was unanimously condemned by the European Court for infringing articles 3 and 6 of the European Treaty for Human Rights, i.e. use of tortures and delay in administration of justice. The case of Ahmed Saronie is in fact the very first case where the European Court of Human Rights condemns a European country for torturing a prisoner (Elephantomyia, 1.8.1999, page 34).

32 The humanitarian confrontation of penal law violators had a focal point in the ancient Hellenic thought and civilisation where we can find the «altar of mercy». The germs of rehabilitation and incorporation of law violator can be found in the Writings of Ancient Greek Philosophers because the social re-incorporation of perpetrators was the principle and constant solicitude (Farsedakis, 1999). For the rehabilitation and re-insertion value as the principal and constant solicitude in the Ancient Hellenic thought see among others; **Plato** a) «The laws of Plato», Harmondsworth: Penguin, 1963 (631c, 643a, 859A-957E and 870a), b) «Gorgias-A revisited text with introduction and commentary by E.R. Dodds», Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1959 (477A, SOSB, 525B and 479-480), c) «Protagoras Translated from the Greek with notes by C.C.W. Taylor», Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1976 (324a-325A), d) «Meno» edited with introduction and commentary by R.S. Bluck, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1961 and «Laches; Protagoras; Meno; Eutydemus», London: Heinemann; New York: Putnam's, 1924 (88c). **Aristotle** a) «The rhetoric of Aristotle - An expanded translation with supplementary examples for students of composition and public speaking» by Lane Cooper, New York; London: Prentice-Hall, 1960 (1369b), b) «Athenian Constitution and Related Texts» translated with an introduction and notes by Kurt Von Fritz and Ernst Kapp, New York; London: Hafner, 1957 (8, 4), c) «Aristotle's Politics and Athenian Constitution» edited and translated by John Warrington, London: Dent, 1959 (1322b39). See also Plato's «Kritias» (106B) and Xenophon's «Kyrill's Education», 1, 3, 16. Later on we localise germs of the rehabilitation theory in the texts of the Fathers of Christian Church. Saint Augustine condemned tortures and advised his Prince to show leniency, mercy and forgiveness (La Cité de Dieu). Accordingly, punishment must lead to the reform of the perpetrator and not to his extermination, i.e. «omnis poena, si justa, peccati poena» (Augustine, 1995: 453).

33 On the other hand experiments on prisoners violate their civil and human rights. Despite the fact that these experiments are taken place after their consent, there is a serious doubt as to what extent a captive population can give its consent freely.

34 Prison is the proper place for the spread of HIV disease, a real breeding ground for AIDS. Peter Wayne, a prisoner in Wandsworth prison chronicled (Wayne, 1999) «Wandsworth prison is a more enlightened place today. They issue inmates with AIDS information packs, and «mission statements» are posted all over the place, speaking of religious, racial and sexual equality. But the queers in the system still have a hard time of it. The prison service steadfastly refuses to provide condoms (despite statements to the contrary) on the basis that there is «no legitimate use» for them in prison. Because they say that a prison cell is not a private cell, any homosexual act can be construed as a criminal offence».

35 The Howard League for Penal Reform, 708 Holloway Rd, London N19 3BR. Fax. 01712815506

36 Moreover, under the current prison conditions worldwide, any effort towards the rehabilitation of prisoners is condemned to fail. The global increase in penal population has converted prisons into warehouses (Matthews, 1997) and the reformatory running of prison simply does not exist. Prison is just a confined place, packed with living bodies of every shape, colour and size. On the other hand

the great strain of the state budget, which mainstream criminologists many times takes into account caused by the increase of the penal population, escapes from any interest for the abolitionist rationale and prospect. In Thomas Mathiesen's words, «I would be willing to institute even more costly measures if they were humane and represented acceptable values» (Mathiesen, 1986: 88).

37 The justice model was also criticised by Gray Gavender (1984, especially 211-212).

38 See however Lowman's critique in a left realist point of view in Lowman, 1992: 158.

39 United for Freedom, Unis Pour la Liberté, Mehr Freiheit durch Gemeinsamkeit and Uniti per Libertà (Alexiadis, 1989).

40 Does it require deep intuition to realise that penal and prison reforms like «family visits privileges are in fact tools of degradation, humiliation and manipulation? In an abolitionist point of view «sexual gratification is now being offered as a reward for compliance and submission» (Bourque, 1994: 6).

a system that is outrageously immoral and inhumane. See also Christie (1981: 15) about the Danish «conjugal visits» in prisons. However, the abolitionist Herman Bianchi has in the 1950's advocated sexual contacts of convicts with their partners (Swaaningen, 1995: 121).

41 The major drug problem in prison was localised and extensively analysed by professor Roger Matthews in his lecture in Middlesex University (week three, 1st semester 1998).

42 In this respect, the strange thing is not why prisoners riot against prisons but why prisoners do not rioting more often against the «flayers of their dreams' (Petropoulos, 1989).

43 «Prison is painful, prison in itself is painful to deal with your pains in that painful setting. I think it inappropriate and could never work» said Chris Tchaikovsky, the Director of «Women in Prison» *Crime and Punishment*, 1993 (videotape).

44 Under Jack Straw's (Home Secretary) plan, psychopaths, may be locked up for life before they have done any crime. According to the Mental Health Act, psychopaths cannot be detained in hospital because there is no known cure. As Andy Mc Smith and Martin Bright (News3, 1998) observed «the move will create a whole new category of detainees who are neither prisoners nor psychiatric patients and the most controversial aspect of Straw's proposals is that they will apply not just to people convicted of violent offences, but those who *might* become violent». See also Christie N. (1986b: 99), «the extreme case is when people are given preventive treatment because they are seen as in danger of *becoming* (his italics) criminals».

45 Electronic monitoring is not new also because it has been already used to deal with political opposition to the state in times of political unrest (see Matthews, R. and Berry, B., 1989)

46 And the funny side of the problem; «In Nottingham one man successfully pleaded to return to prison, telling the judge that the hostel where he was curfewed was disgusting, flea-ridden and full of alcoholics» (The Guardian, 4.4.1990 as quoted in Jones, 1992).

47 For the methodically neutralisation of every formed address and the imposition of the stereotypical and politically inactive «public opinion» of the mass media see Pierre Bourdieu «Sur la Télévision suivi de L'Emprise du Journalisme» (Paris: Liber). Moreover, for the mass media as a part of social construction (along with family, education etc.) and about its powerful function see Hall et al. (1998) «Culture, the Media and Ideological Effect» in J. Curran et al. (eds). *Mass Communication and Society*. Arnold Publications. Moreover, harsh critics of mass media -or to use Hans Enzenberger's terminology «the consciousness industry» were among others Umberto Eco, Aldous Huxley («Brave New World», 1993), Guy Debord («The Society of the Spectacle», 1967), Noam Chomsky, the Greek philosopher Cornelius Castoriadis, the Critical Theory of Frankfurt School (Adorno, Marcuse, Horkheimer, Habermas) the Situationists like Raoul Vaneigem («The Revolution of Everyday Life» Bertolt Brecht («Radio as a Mechanism of Communication»), and Marshall McLuhan («The Medium is the Message») and of course Martin Heidegger («The Question concerning technology and other essays», Harper and Row, New York, 1962).

48 According to Pat Carlen (1984) «traditionally, the protection of women has usually been seen as a family matter, a matter for fathers, or brothers and husbands Women are vulnerable and passive creatures».

49 In police review of 1975 we read that (Carlen, 1984) «If a woman walks into a police station and complains of rape with no signs of violence she must be closely interrogated. Allow her to make her statement to a police woman and then drive a horse and cart through it... It is advisable if there is any doubt of the truthfulness of her allegations to call her an outright liar. It is very difficult for

person to put on genuine indignation who has been called a liar to her face...Watch out for the who is pregnant or late getting home at night: such persons are notorious for alleging rape indecent assault. Do not give her sympathy!».

50 As a typical pattern of mass process of depenalisation we can mention the German institution «Ordnungswidrigkeiten». According to this institution minor offences are stripped from a criminalisable aspects (decriminalisation) and are been submitted to civil or administrative I procedures (Ancel, 1995: 284).

51 For example, in 1977 the syndicate has massively protested over the extradition to the Federal Republic of Germany of a lawyer who defended members of RAF in the Baader-Meinhoff trial (Haar W. et al. 1989).

52 In this respect, probation officers must act as social workers. Probation service must away from the concept of punishment (see «No Soft Option» videotape).

53 A police oriented at social welfare than crime control (Swaaningen, 1995).

54 Professor Jock Young, the director of Islington Crime Survey mentioned that «we found substantial decline in confidence, a 30% of the population are less confidence in the police than they had been before, and only 7% have increase confidence» («Police: In for Questioning», 1996 videotape).

55 See also «agent provocateur» actions by the British Police in Nicoll (1992).

56 On the other hand, mass media use to portray as heroes and patterns of behaviour people who commit acts of «DIY justice». Recently, when a citizen was obligated to pay a fine of 4.000 pounds for killing a thief, the newspaper SUN gathered through collection 8.000 and offered the amount to him («DIY Justice», 1996 - video).

57 Let's imagine for example a massive demonstration of a political movement. The demonstrators simply reclaiming the streets, converting the roads into «public arena» and demanding social improvements for their life. More likely, mass media will try to underestimate the reasons for the demonstration. They will rather try to focus on the «highlights» of the event, e.g. the police reaction or the existence of some celebrities among the people and ignore the mass.

58 The Swedish Minister of Justice Karl Schlyter who said «let's empty the prisons» is of course a very rare exception (Ancel, 1995: 58 and 295).

59 In other European countries it seems that things are not different; Dr Anika Snare (Kriminalistik Institute of the University of Copenhagen) portrayed the situation in the Danish society. The creation of «folk devils and moral panic» is a global phenomenon (Snare, 1996).

60 For a quick review of the situation of foreign detainees in the Greek Prisons, see Spinellis et al. (1996).

61 See among others Pierre Bourdieu's «Sur la television» (1996) and «Contre-feux» (1997).

62 For the responsibility of a great part of the so-called dogmatic Left in building the opinion that activism has died, see Noam Chomsky (1995). «Some Thoughts on the Mass Media» Athens: Libe Culture.

63 Abolitionist critique towards forced labour is justified even in a more general level; in a society where our creative energy is been used for the creation of anti-social and worthless products, the only creative act is exactly the continuous refusal to offer our energy and the blocking of the mechanisms of repression.

64 The Russian anarchist philosopher, Peter Kropotkin wrote about the convict labour (1927: 3) that: «everyone knows the evil influence of laziness. But there is work and work. There is the work of the free individual, which makes him feel a part of the immense whole. And there is that of the slave which degrades. Convict labour is unwillingly done, done only through fear of worse punishment. The work, which has no attraction in itself because it does not exercise any of the mental faculties of the worker, is so badly paid that is looked upon as a punishment».

65 Oral communication with Professor John Lea for the needs of this dissertation.

66 In an anarchist point of view crime is the necessary condition of the very existence of the state (see Bakunin, 1998); «all the history of ancient and modern states is nothing more than a series of revolting crimes. For there is no terror, cruelty, sacrilege, perjury, imposture, infamous transactions, cynical theft, brazen robbery or foul treason which has not been committed and all are still being committed daily by representatives of the State, with no other excuse than this elastic, at times

convenient and terrible phrase Reason of State».

67 In Chambliss words «this program (COINTELPRO) was designed to disrupt, harass and discredit groups that FBI. decided were in somewhere «un-American» (1989: 201).

68 For example, the years 1973-1975 were always considered the «reign of terror» on the Pi Ridge Indian Reservation (South Dakota). And it was in these years when the infamous COINTELPRO program «neutralised» many members of the American Indian Movement (AIM) as for example Leonard Peltier, the native American activist who has been imprisoned since 1970 (communication with Leonard Peltier Defence Committee, July 1999).

69 For more information on FBI COINTELPRO operations see a) Ward Churchill and Jim Vance «Agents of Repression: The FBI's Secret Wars Against the Black Panther and the American Indian Movement», 1990, Boston: South End Press, b) Jim Fletcher, Tanaquil Jones and Sylvere Lotringer «Still Black, Still Strong: Survivors of the War Against Black Revolutionaries», 1993, New York: Semiotext(e), and Brian Glick «War At Home: Covert Action Against US Activists and What We Can Do About It», 1989, Boston: South End Press. Also see Frank Snepp's «Irreparable Harm - Firsthand Account of How One Agent Took On the CIA in an Epic Battle Over Secrecy and Free Speech», 1999, Random House.

70 For a general survey of FBI's COINTELPRO program in relation with mass media actions see Ch. Berlet «COINTELPRO: What the (deleted) was it? Media op», *The Public Eye*, 1, April 1978, p. 38.

71 It is true that abolitionism as a movement helped feminism during the past; the female abolitionists took the kind of activist experience they needed. It was after the achievement of slavery abolition when British and American women started to organise their own struggle for emancipation.

72 In fact, it was the abolitionists («die Abolitionisten») who «liberated prostitutes from the grip of criminal prosecution in Germany in 1927» in order to bring their emancipation (Scheerer, 1986: 8).

73 Despite the fact that prostitutes are working class people and pay taxes, the state invariably avoids to recognise and to supply the same privileges that every worker uses to have (e.g. pension insurance, unemployment insurance etc.).

74 For example, when Yorkshire Ripper chose a non prostitute for victim, the British newspaper only then - starts to speak about «innocent victim». And in his opening address the general attorney concluded that «some were prostitutes but perhaps the saddest part of this case is that some were not. The last six attacks for instance, were on totally respectable women» («Battered Britain» videotape).

75 As an example, I will mention the International Committee for Prostitutes' Rights in the States (<http://www.bayswan.org/ICPRChart.html>).

76 There are 400.000 (women and men) prostitutes in Germany and the annual income of this activity is not less than 12,5% billion marks (Valasopoulos P. «Privileges for Prostitutes», *Free Press* August 14-15, 1999, page 16).

77 In an abolitionist point of view, «she or he (the victim) is pushed completely out of the arena being a 'double loser' both by the offender and the penal system, being in essence a nonentity» (Christie, 1977: 3).

78 See however the critique of abolitionism's utopia from a left realist point of view (Young, 1998: 26).

79 As Noel Ignatiev concluded «it is fortunate that in the nineteenth century we had abolitionists instead of diversity consultants; if not, slavery would still exist, and representatives of slaves and slaveholders would be meeting together - to promote mutual understanding and good feelings» (Ignatiev, 1998).