The dilemma confronting modern society regarding the disposition and treatment of the criminal is perplexing indeed. Whether the crime rate is increasing or remains constant has always been a moot question but there are few who will not agree that we are bedeviled by all too many persons who, for one reason or another, violate the law and have to be dealt with in some manner. Over a hundred years ago, Francis Lieber, the political scientist, coined the word “penology” and, in a letter to de Tocqueville, defined it as “that branch of criminal science which occupies itself with the punishment of the criminal.” Today, however, that word has almost completely disappeared from use and in its place we find “corrections.” Prisons, too, are beginning to be referred to as “correctional institutions.” The implications of these changes in nomenclature are obvious. Punishment as a social philosophy is slowly disappearing. It is this inexorable trend that presents society’s dilemma.

Primitive people were certain just what should be done to the violator of their taboos. He was summarily dispatched into oblivion—either killed, banished or ostracized which meant social death. Part of this certainty of punishment was due to fear of the offender who was believed to be in league with evil spirits. Lying behind this inordinate fear was ignorance of the casual relationships of human behavior. Doubt, did not exist—but certainty did. Thus, the offender must be done away with. Basically, this primitive philosophy is known as retaliation or retribution or, more precisely, “lex talionis.”

In time, primitive taboos were transformed into legal or penal codes. One of the oldest and best known of these is the Hammurabi Code dating back to around 1750 B.C. A thousand or more years later, the concept of sin began to merge with crime and there was ushered in the philosophy of expiation. In this era, crime became an offense, not only against man, but against God. Penance, remorse, the sting of a reprobating conscience became synonymous with punishment of the offender. And here, likewise, the elders of society—legal arbiters and priestly class alike—were positive that the new form of treatment was feasible and effective. Let the offender purge himself of his sins before God and man and redemption would follow. No little hope of future bliss or fear of torment were discreetly interwoven into this philosophic mosaic of expiation. This was the classical era of free will when man was indoctrinated with the thesis that he alone controlled his destiny and all he needed was to decide and choose to follow the good life away from sin and crime. This was a comforting idea and there seemed to be little doubt that it was the ultimate answer to the contemporary crime problem.

But there were many offenders who were not swayed by this hopeful, yet fearful form of corrective treatment. The fear of the after-life had little meaning to this stiff-necked and headstrong group. They continued to flout the social sanctions and the edicts of the Church by pillaging, raping, murdering, and assaulting. A third concept emerged to cope with this unpredictable yet frightening state of affairs. It is known as deterrence.

This logical thesis went something like this: the offender must be treated in a manner that will deter him and others as well. This can best be accomplished by a catalogue of physical punishments that will induce a maximum amount of suffering for the offender which in turn will serve as a source of fright to others. Pain and torture were the hallmarks of the era. The rack; the screw; the branding-iron; the whip; hard, onerous drudgery, as well as an extensive use of capital punishment by the most ingenious and diabolical instruments were employed by the most God-fearing representatives of society. And, again, the system seemed to work; only the most wicked would dare commit crimes in the face of such punishments. The black night of physical pain complementing the philosophy of deterrence represents one of the darkest pages in the history of man’s inhumanity to man. As we survey that senseless age, we know that treatment of the offender against the backdrop of deterrence failed miserably. Crime continued in increasing crescendo and seemed impossible to abate by any means.

The next era was the age of reform. This was spearheaded by two forces; one, the writings of the French philosophers, Voltaire, Montesquieu, Diderot and others, and two, the development of science. The Italian, Cesare Beccaria, influenced by the French thinkers, penned his

(Continued on page 11)
FROM THE EDITOR'S CORNER

For the past several years, we have witnessed the growing public concern about the processes in the administration of justice. States courts, on the basis of the Gideon decision, have been called upon to review policy concerning the provision of counsel to accused at all steps in the pre-trial and trial procedures. Elsewhere, important strides are in the making toward the use of legal processes other than arrest in bringing the accused to the bench of justice.

The enunciations of the federal judiciary on the rights of the accused have drawn loud protests and vehement predictions on the downfall of law and order, particularly from law enforcement groups. The plight of the underprivileged has undoubtedly contributed to the growing social consciousness regarding the traditional views of crime and crime control. Equal justice is a phrase easily spoken but more difficult of provision. Presumption of innocence is frequently overlooked when a prior record exists or is suspected. Not infrequently the determination of guilt is presumed at the law enforcement level rather than after the judicial trial level. Hopefully, training and education will eliminate some of the more glaring procedural inadequacies of people at the various levels of the administration of justice. But training alone will not answer some of the misconceptions regarding the nature of human rights, and of our democratic form of government in particular.

One of the challenges facing American criminology is to enunciate clearly the goals of the administration of justice in keeping with the soundest principles of a free society. Can we meet the challenge?


FATHER-DAUGHTER INCEST: TREATMENT OF THE FAMILY

Miriam Kennedy, McGill University

A report on the treatment of twenty families with the problem of father-daughter incest where the father did not serve a prison sentence but was placed on probation and referred to our Clinic. Economic and social levels of the families ranged from low to middle class. The fathers were, aside from incest, basically noncriminal, steady workers and family centered. Incest is a combination of a developing crisis within the family, having its roots in the personality and early history of the father. Even if initially happy, the marriage in time becomes increasingly ungratifying. The mothers are either passive or rigid, denying women. The daughters are frequently acquiescent. What is significant is that all are involved and play their part in the situation. It is generally, however, the daughters who terminate incest by rebelling against the restraint imposed by the father. With the disclosure it is often possible to effect deep-going changes. As incest once disclosed seldom recurs, there is little risk in keeping the father in the community, and it is therefore possible to work with the whole family. While there may be considerable dislocation at the beginning, the family is often eventually reconstructed on a sounder basis, with the members assuming appropriate roles. Most of these twenty cases became in the end problems of intensive family counseling.

EVALUATION OF RECORDS IN DELINQUENCY RESEARCH

Jon E. Simpson, University of Southern California

The Southern California Records Matching Project is concerned with the manner in which the records of delinquency adjudicating agencies at the local level may be linked with Federal Census Records in order to maximize the efficiency of data collection and analysis. The linkage of the two discrete data collection systems will yield for the County of Los Angeles Probation Department referrals all of the information gained from a United States Decennial Census. Direct comparisons of delinquent and nondelinquent populations and the derivation of direct delinquency rates become feasible. A test of the records merging procedure resulted in the location of the census records for both the juvenile and head of his household in 84.0 per cent of the cases. A tabulation program has been developed to further a theory building objective as well as a concern with a wide range of social structure measures to evaluate selected contemporary conceptions of delinquency. The implications for the 1970 census in the form of innovations in records linkage merit immediate exploration.

(Continued on page 3)
JUVENILE COURT JUDGE'S INSTITUTE
John R. Ellington, University of Minnesota

Summarized attacks on the Juvenile Court from any quarters, the weaknesses that inspire these attacks, and the crucial role that the Juvenile Court has to play in spearheading the introduction of personalized justice in the administration of the criminal law. The Annual Juvenile Court Judges' Institute was launched in 1961 to equip judges with the insights and skills essential to the successful discharge of their vitally important duties.

The Institute operates for five weeks every summer under a grant from the National Institute of Mental Health, which provides free tuition and a cost of living stipend of $400. The Judges' Institute is one of three, including a Juvenile Officers' Institute for probation and parole officers, police officers, and police instructors, and a Principals' Workshop for 25 principals from schools in deprived and high delinquency areas. Special efforts are made to break down the barriers which usually separate these several disciplines.

The Judges' Program includes eight courses — Juvenile Court Law, Sensitivity Training, Normal Growth and Behavior, Personality Disorders in Children and Families, Causation, Treatment and Prevention of Delinquency, and Communication.

VICTIM COMPENSATION IN CRIMES OF PERSONAL VIOLENCE
Martin E. Wolfgang, University of Pennsylvania

From public attitudes determined by measuring the seriousness of a variety of crimes of assault, it is possible to derive a system for monetary compensation to victims of crimes of violence.

Social and legal history reveal that the right to compensation has been usurped by the state in fines and other penalties, and that the victim of an assault is often the forgotten, neglected but injured party. The state provides certain but inadequate protection to its citizens who deserve to receive compensation when assaulted. England, New Zealand and Italy are among major countries where new proposals are now being made for such compensation by the state. The states in the U. S. should experiment with it and be guided by workers' compensation legislation and recent research.

Synopsis of remarks made at the panel discussion on Compensation for the Victims of Crimes of Violence

Professor J. L. J. Edwards expressed his great satisfaction at the recent introduction in England and Wales of a scheme to provide compensation for the victims of crimes of violence. He explained that, unlike New Zealand where legislation in the form of the Criminal Injuries Compensation Act, 1963, had been enacted, the English scheme, which began to operate on August 1, 1964, had been introduced by the device of establishing administrative machinery under the Home Office. The English Board, whose members give their services on a part-time basis, is entirely responsible for deciding what compensation should be paid in individual cases and its decisions are not subject to appeal or ministerial review.

Professor Edwards stressed the wide scope of the English scheme which extended to cases of personal injury that were directly attributable (1) to a criminal offence, (2) to an arrest or attempted arrest of an offender or suspected offender, (3) to giving help to a police officer when attempting to arrest the offender or to prevent the commission of a crime. Unlike the New Zealand statute which lists the offences to which the principle of crime compensation applies, the English scheme lays down restrictions only with respect to sexual offences (in which the Board is required to pay special attention to the contributory responsibility of the victim), family assaults and motoring offences.

Preference for the New Zealand scheme was expressed by Professor Edwards in that it expressly provides for recovery by the State from the offender of the whole or part of any compensation paid to the injured victim or his dependents. He said that he looked forward to the day when economic wages for prison labor would be introduced into the penal system of Canada and Great Britain, from which appropriate deductions would be made for family maintenance and victim compensation. The case in favour of extending private insurance to meet the needs of victims of crimes of violence was inculcated by the self-imposed limitations, it failed to provide compensation for those members of society who could not pay the appropriate insurance premiums.

It was with this philosophy in mind that he preferred the principle of State compensation for victims of crimes of personal injury to the vagaries of sturdy individualism.

A SPECTRUM OF SEXUAL PROBLEMS FOUND IN AN OUT-PATIENT SETTING
R. E. Turner, University of Toronto

The Forensic Clinic, established in 1956, is an outpatient division of the Toronto Psychiatric Hospital operated by the Ontario Department of Health under provincial statute. It is a teaching division of the department of psychiatry of the University of Toronto. Cases are referred by court order, provincial probation services and other agencies. Some 40% of all referrals are sexual deviates, mostly homosexuals, pedophiles, and exhibitionists.

Sexual offences under the Criminal Code of Canada are described with reference to the study of male sexual offenders charged in Metropolitan Toronto Courts.

The number of sexual offenders has permitted phenomenological research into two types of sexual offences — pedophiles and exhibitionists.

The primary phenomenological factors determining the concept of each sexual deviation and offence are the (Continued on page 4)
choice of the object (victim) and the nature of the act. These two factors define the agent (offender). The interaction of the three factors will permit inferences on the natural history of the deviation. Subclassification of pedophiles and exhibitionists was presented. Reference was made to the potentially dangerous sexual offender.

Studies of such a spectrum permit more precise opinion and prediction of behaviour for the courts. Further development of psychodynamic principles about sexual deviates may well lead to better treatment.

---

THE PERSONALITY OF THE POLICE OFFICER
Lt. H. F. Vignola, Montreal Police Dept.

A definition of a police personality must contain certain elements which can be summarized: the individual with all his dynamic motives at each level of his psychic life; the role he must assume in the social environment which forces him to organize his dynamic motives in order to survive, adapt himself, and develop his personality.

The results of a 1963 study of random sample of 95 young Montreal Police Officers demonstrated feasibility of describing police personality on a 4-dimension scale: interpersonal relations; obedience to orders and instructions; ability to assume responsibility; ability to learn and understand police work. The personality of the police officer is shaped during the first year of service by a strong identification to the group by acceptance of its values to the detriment of individual personality. De-personalization in favor of group identity seems to operate. But this process is only temporary. As the officer acquires more experience and knowledge, he becomes more independent, attempts to a larger degree to preserve his own personal way of thinking, safeguards his individual rights, resists contagiousness, and excessive dependence.

---

1964 AWARD WINNERS

Two Canadians received the 1964 annual awards of the American Society of Criminology at a luncheon meeting of the Society, December 29, at Montreal.

The Edwin Sutherland Award was presented to the Honorable James Chalmers McLure, former chief justice for Ontario. He was cited for his distinguished contribution to the administration of criminal justice.

Mr. J. Adrien Robert, director of the Montreal Metropolitan Police, was honored with the August Volmer award for his long-time support of police training curricula at the University level, and his outstanding contributions to police administration science.

Both awards were presented by Donal E. J. MacNamara, immediate past president of ASC, and chairman of the awards committee.

---

MENTAL HEALTH CONSULTATION WITH STREET GANG WORKERS

Jacob Chwast, Mental Hygiene Consultation Service
New York

A mental health consultation service has been provided to the staff of the Educational Alliance, a large community center located on the lower East Side section of New York City, for over twelve years, with financial support from the New York Community Mental Health Board.

Among the groups receiving consultation by consultant teams is Operation Street Corner. This unit of four full-time group workers plus several graduate social work students is currently in contact with eleven neighborhood gangs with which it works extra — and intramurally as the need may be.

The method employed in Operation Street Corner is bifocal. First the group might start a session by presenting some of their concerns in working with the gangboy and exploring methods of being more effective with him. Second, the focus might then shift into a consideration of staff relationships to the degree that they have impact upon the direct work with groups.

This paper presents some recent material dealt with at consultation meetings with this unit. During the past two and one-half years, the weekly meetings have encompassed delinquency theory, individual psychodynamics, group processes, family pathology, reconstructive intervention, agency relationships, community problems, workers' anxieties, staff conflicts, blocked communication and supervisor-supervisee difficulties.

---

A LAWYER DUTY . . .

"A lawyer's duty to society is no longer served merely by professional probity and by taking an occasional criminal case. He must know what goes on in the legal institutions of society—courts, legal aid societies, legislatures, professional groups. He must know their problems, their economics, their politics. He must concern himself with their successful functioning, their administration, their financing, and their reform. By his admission to the bar he does not merely get a license to sell legal services. Rather, he gets a professional citizenship and he must understand his professional community. To that extent, at the very least, he must develop sophistication and become a capable man of affairs. He cannot defer to some supposed expert, shrugging his shoulders at the growing complexity and specialization of the law. There is no expert in liberty and order"—David C. Acheson. Professional Responsibility and the Workload of the Federal District Courts; before Georgetown Law School (Congressional Record, December 13, 1963: A7610-13).
ACROSS THE DESK
By Dorothy C. Tompkins
Institute of Governmental Studies, University of California

PAROLE OUTCOME

The relationship of parole outcome and gross personal characteristics of offenders has been examined by the National Parole Institutes. The study was based on statistics from Wisconsin, New York State, Minnesota, California, Illinois, and the federal government. It revealed that of the gross characteristics readily available for classification of prisoners, those most closely related to parole outcome were age and criminal record.

Offenses were found to fall into three main clusters as far as parole violation rates were concerned. Those for which the prospect of violation was greatest were crimes involving the taking of someone’s property by theft or deception without the use of force (theft, burglary, forgery). Narcotic offenses and robbery generally were not associated with violation rates near the average for all parolees, and on the whole, the lowest parole violation rates were associated with crimes of violence (rape, assault, homicide). Intelligence, race, nationality, sex, and body build were found not to have sufficiently marked or consistent relationships to parole outcome for large numbers of offenders to be very useful in evaluating parolees.


MONROE COUNTY PENITENTIARY

A study of the Monroe County Penitentiary, authorized by the Monroe Board of Supervisors, was particularly concerned with the practice of accepting out-of-county prisoners, the penitentiary farm operation, the location for a new penitentiary and type of structure, and various rehabilitation programs for the inmates.

It was found that “at present, the penitentiary, while fulfilling well its function of ‘safely keeping’ persons committed, completely lacks the integrated program, facilities or trained personnel generally recognized as necessary for constructive rehabilitation of the individual involved.”


ALCOHOLIC OFFENDERS

To learn whether probation supervision which focused specifically on alcoholic offenders could effectively aid such offenders, the Municipal Court of Pasadena and the Los Angeles County Probation Department undertook a special project during October 1961 - June 1963. The offenders (197 cases) were given individual casework and referred to community services to discover whether their adjustment could be improved over that achieved by the “arrest, jail, and release” procedure usually used with alcoholics. About 32% of the offenders made a reasonably satisfactory response to probation supervision, another 13% made a “somewhat marginal” response, and 55% made an unsatisfactory response.

The project “made it obvious that the program provided in Pasadena did not meet the need of all alcoholic offenders — particularly the unattached, much arrested, chronic offenders.” However, “the general outcome of the project was such as to suggest that use of probation with the alcoholic offender is both feasible and worthwhile.”

(The Los Angeles County, Calif. Probation Department, The Specialized Alcoholic Caseload Project, by Calvin C. Hopkins and Stuart Adams, 81 p. [process] (Research report no. 23). Los Angeles, June 1964

THE MENTALLY DISTURBED

A symposium on the mentally disturbed and the criminal process was sponsored by the Pennsylvania Governor’s Council for Human Services and the State Office of Mental Health, September 17-19, 1964. Discussion groups agreed on provision of pre-trial psychiatric evaluation, abortion of capital punishment, review of sentencing provisions, elimination of “criminal tendency” sections in the Mental Health Act of 1951, adoption of the American Law Institute’s proposals concerning “fitness to proceed,” and early psychiatric screening in county jails.

(Pennsylvania Association on Probation, Parole and Correction, Quarterly 21: 3-4, September 1964

ANTI-CRIME PROGRAM

A nine-point anti-crime program has been recommended to the New York State Legislature. It calls for the establishment of a state identification and intelligence system, standards for the improvement and professionalization of police forces, a police advisory service in the Office for Local Government, a new penal law, a school of criminal justice in the State University, improvement in the state’s pistol licensing laws and procedures, expansion of education staffs of state correctional institutions, and extension of the State Commission of Investigation for two more years.

(New York State, Governor, Message to the Legislature, January 6, 1965, 53 p. (Legislative document 1965) no. 1) Albany, 1965

NARCOTICS ADDICTION CENTER

A narcotics addiction service center was established by the Stanford Community Council, as a five-year research, education and treatment demonstration project. Supported by a $237,000 grant by the National Institute of Mental Health, the service was begun May 1962 and will terminate June 1967. A description of the service center was included in the Connecticut Health Bulletin for September 1964, which in turn was abridged in the Social Health News of the American Social Health Association for November 1964.

STATE LEGISLATION

Suggested State Legislation contains proposals approved by a committee of the Council of State Governments, at its meeting in August 1964. Among the proposals are those concerning physical abuse of children, the model penal code, the model sentencing act, and the uniform act on status of convicted persons.

COUNTY JAIL SYSTEM
An investigation of Maryland's county jail system indicates that the jails throughout the state have a much greater institutional capacity than is needed or being utilized, while state penal facilities are overcrowded. "It would undoubtedly impose a burdensome expense upon counties to abandon present jail facilities" and "even if regional jails were constructed, the county would still have the expense of maintaining a local lockup."

Specific inadequacies were found to exist in a sufficient number of county jails to demonstrate the need for the state to set certain minimum standards for the operation of jails. Chief among the inadequacies was weakness in security caused by the lack of adequate custodial personnel. In addition, there was a lack of sufficient sanitary facilities, and a lack of care of existing facilities. A major problem found widely among the jails was the amount of time a prisoner serves awaiting trial or sentencing.


PROBATION FEES
At its nineteenth annual meeting the Parole and Probation Compact Administrators' Association considered a report on charging of fees for probation services. At present, California, Colorado, Georgia, Michigan, New Mexico, and Texas charge probationary fees.


CORRECTIONAL MANPOWER STUDY
The Study of Correctional Training and Manpower is a pilot project sponsored by a grant from the President's Committee on Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime under the auspices of the National Council on Crime and Delinquency.

The project is focused on four central areas of correctional education and training:
1) the nature and scope of existing and planned training programs for selected and central correctional personnel groups (such as probation and parole officers, parole boards, and judges);
2) projected training needs for the relevant personnel groups;
3) assessments of operating training programs and needs by key training leaders and administrators;
4) projections of training resources required to meet established and anticipated training needs.

The project is co-directed by Herman Fien and Abraham A. Alcalde, on leave from the School of Social Work, New York University. The research staff also includes a social worker and three sociologists.

The growth of your Society depends on new members. Please recommend and encourage your professional colleagues to become members.

POLICE TRAINING
By Harry W. More
Washington State University

The Southern Police Institute, University of Louisville, Louisville 8, Kentucky will conduct a seminar in, Methods and Techniques of Instruction from March 1 through March 12, 1965 ($175).

California State College at Los Angeles has scheduled an institute on One Man Patrol Techniques during March, 1965. ($12.50).

The Southwest Center for Law Enforcement Education for the University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma will hold the Fifth Southwest Polygraph Examination Clinic, March 15-17, 1965 ($25).


Indiana University, Center for Police Training, Bloomington, Indiana will conduct a course on Industrial Plant Protection Supervision, March 1-12, 1965.


Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan will conduct a Law Enforcement Administrative Seminar from March 3-5, 1965. March 8-12, 1965 they will hold a course on Criminal Investigation Part I.

CRIMINAL PROCEDURE
The new Illinois Code of Criminal Procedure became effective January 1, 1964. All sentencing power has been taken from the jury and the court is required to conduct presentence hearings in aggravation and mitigation in all cases. All life sentences have been abolished, any sentence not exceeding one year shall be for a definite term and to the county jail only, while any sentence exceeding one year shall be for an indefinite term and to the penitentiary.

The age of criminal responsibility has been increased from 10 to 13. The American Law Institute's test for insanity (having an appreciation of the criminality of conduct) has been adopted, and the irresistible impulse test has been retained. The right to use force in resisting an illegal arrest has been abolished, while the right of self-defense has been retained, as well as the right of officers to use all force reasonably necessary to effect an arrest.
A UNIVERSITY ROLE IN THE EDUCATION OF STUDENTS FOR CAREERS IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE

Frank D. Day

Since 1935 the School of Police Administration and Public Safety, Michigan State University, has been dedicated to the education of young men and women for careers in law enforcement. It was evident, then, to a few forward-looking individuals that, just as war is too serious a business to be left entirely to professional soldiers, so is the education of people responsible for the maintenance of "ordered liberty" too serious to be left entirely to standards set by civil service commissioners and police executives.

But it has been difficult to convince many college and university administrators of that fact. They have hesitated to place an academic seal of approval on a curriculum which appears, to the uninstructed at first sight, to be too vocational to be housed with traditional college disciplines. More and more educators, however, are beginning to appreciate that more than vocational skills are at work in any area of the administration of criminal justice. They know that we must have both police and philosophers; they know that unless we provide quality education for both, neither our liberties nor our ideas will remain free.

Because today—if a police officer is to carry out his duties efficiently and intelligently—he must be a social scientist. It is necessary to get a complete man who has an understanding of his society and its people—a sense of perspective that can come only from a broad, general education. And the higher he goes in rank, the more he needs to know about people and their institutions.

He must also understand the art of administration. But more than that is needed. He must be more, in other words, than a good technician to be a "professional." His education must include professional courses that meet the test of academic respectability.

In the early years of the School of Police Administration and Public Safety, the law enforcement administration curriculum was the only program of study offered by the school. And to this day it continues to be regarded as our most important program. It has attracted more students, from year to year, than any other program; it is our major concern because it is our firm belief that American-law enforcement must secure a sufficient share of the better educated section of the community.

In providing quality education, however, we are equally concerned with other major areas of study that encompass the operations of different public and private agencies which are charged with crime prevention, preserving individual liberties and protecting life and property. This is evidenced in the definition of the ultimate objective of the school which "is to provide a basis for academic and professional careers in public and private service identified with the administration of criminal justice."

Our faculty has always felt that university training in those areas must strike an acceptable balance between true higher education and vocational training. But in recent years, in particular, courses have been purged, as much as possible, of vocational trappings.

The school is concerned only incidentally, if at all, with turning out graduates for service at the level of execution. They can do that competently after receiving firearms instruction and similar training that mark recruit training programs. The curriculum of our school is not oriented that way. It is structured, largely, to enable graduates to cope with complex social problems, to be integrated rapidly by an agency and, in turn, enable them to earn early advancement to supervisory and managerial positions.

Their professional courses and courses in supporting disciplines are designed mainly to develop their potentials as future administrators; because administration is the weakest link in American-law enforcement. This, as we see it, is the major challenge.

A SHORT HISTORY

Only a short history of the school will be given. Not that it is unimportant. But the present and future are more important.

When the school was established (as a Department) in 1935, authority was granted to confer the degree of Bachelor of Science in Police Administration. Since then additional courses of study have been established which, at the end of the 1963-1964 academic year, comprised six major areas. The same degree is awarded, however, regardless of specialization, as was authorized in 1935.

In 1955, after twenty-one years of experience with our undergraduate studies, a graduate program was established. The degree of Master of Science in Police Administration is conferred on candidates who successfully complete the requirements prescribed. Major areas of study parallel those offered at the undergraduate level.

Policy and curriculum, at both the undergraduate and graduate level, have been under frequent review during the past ten years. After approximately four years of intensive study of the undergraduate curricula and future societal needs, a faculty committee presented recommendations most of which was implemented at the beginning of the 1964 fall term.

The graduate program has been subjected to somewhat similar review. Innovations in it, however, pertain mainly to increased graduate course offerings and in

* Paper presented at the annual ASC meeting, Montreal, December 28, 1964. Address: School of Police Administration and Public Safety, Michigan State University, East Lansing.
Giving a student an option of meeting a thesis requirement.

**Undergraduate Program:**

Reorganization of this program has resulted in decreasing major areas of study from six to three. They consist of: (1) Law Enforcement Administration, (2) Correctional Administration, and (3) Security Administration. Dropped from the program as separate entities are major areas of study in: (1) Police Science (or Criminology), (2) Delinquency Prevention and Control, and (3) Traffic Highway Administration. But the programs have been retained as subdivisions under the Law Enforcement Administration program. Consequently, they are still available to students as areas of specialization.

The program is built upon the foundation of University College courses (forty-five quarter-hour credits required of all students in the university) unified by a core of six police administration courses (totaling 28 quarter-hour credits) and a one-term field training program—required of all students majoring in the school—for which 12 quarter-hour credits are allowed.

**Police Administration Core Program:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Credits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to Law Enforcement</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative Concepts</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delinquency Prevention and Control</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criminal Law</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrections</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field Training</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Seminar</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total 40 credits

The core program is designed to present fundamentals (both philosophical and academic) of social control, which currently form the basis for the major areas of study in the school. It is broadened by the addition of electives to be taken in supporting disciplines and enriched by professional courses in depth. One hundred and eighty-quarter-hour credits of acceptable academic work are required for graduation.

**Graduate Program:**

Despite its relatively short history of nine years, the graduate program of the school has moved ahead at a rapid pace both in quality and enrollments. Courses of study are designed specifically to further the capacities of career people in the same areas of study that make up the undergraduate curriculum.

It represents new concepts, in our opinion, in the administration of criminal justice and provides a means to their implementation. The administration of criminal justice is viewed as one continuous integrated process from prevention of crime through release from all legal supervision with a common focus upon the prevention and control of legally prohibited deviant behavior.

**Other Programs:**

In keeping with the land-grant philosophy of the university, the school has worked for the past thirteen years in cooperation with Continuing Education Service in the Law Enforcement Training Program. These “short course” in-service training series are for practitioners with responsibilities in the administration of criminal justice. During the thirteen years, 142 different courses of considerable variety have been provided in this program.

This year the School of Police Administration and Public Safety agreed to sponsor a correspondence course in police administration in cooperation with Continuing Education Service and the International City Managers’ Association of Chicago. A qualified student may earn four college credits upon successful completion of the course. This came about when the University of Chicago’s discontinued its Home-Study Department wherein a course in police administration had been offered.

Community service has long been a high priority in the activities of the school. This has been particularly dramatized in the annual National Police and Community Relations Institute. This is a one-week conference held in May at Kellogg Center on the campus. The Institute has come to be recognized as one of the most significant educational experiences of its type in the nation.

No useful purpose would be served by an attempt to be all-inclusive in describing programs and activities in which the school is engaged. Those that have been discussed illustrate the reach of the overall program.

**STUDENTS AND FACULTY**

**Students:**

The student is the school’s most important asset. Whatever reputation the school earns—good or bad—will be the product of its student body. Since 1938, when the school graduated its first class, 1,189 students have earned a Bachelor of Science degree in Police Administration. The Master of Science degree in Police Administration has been conferred upon 26 candidates in the nine-year life of the program. Female students average about ten per cent of the student body. Their interests are in careers like policewomen, probation and parole officers, and social workers in public and private agencies. Many students from other disciplines within the university show increasing interest in courses offered by the school.

In September 1964, there were 331 students enrolled in the undergraduate program and 49 in the graduate program. Michigan residents made up seventy-two per cent of the total. The remaining twenty-eight per cent came from out-of-state and from abroad. Twenty-six states and 5 foreign nations were represented.

The faculty has long recognized the more urgent need for college-trained people in municipal and state law enforcement services. This is frequently brought to students’ attention. Nevertheless, most undergraduates—who take employment in a field in which they have prepared—accept positions in federal agencies or in business and industry. About 80 per cent of them have been (Continued on page 14)
THE PREVENTIVE ROLE OF THE POLICE IN JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

Guy Tardif*

Considering both the quantity and the quality of writings on juvenile delinquency as well as the fact that the United States are, of all nations, the country which has probably made the greatest contribution to the study of crime and its attendant problems, one can understand that I should consider it a genuine privilege to have been called upon to address the American Society of Criminology on such a controversial issue as juvenile delinquency, be this paper limited in its scope to the preventive role of the police in respect thereof.

A controversial subject it is indeed for many reasons but first and foremost because of the ambiguity of the concepts of prevention and of juvenile delinquency. Both these concepts, as we shall see, have undergone in a relatively short period of time major changes which have deeply modified this meaning. Furthermore, these modifications having occurred at different times in different countries and because each new interpretation was more in the nature of an addition or a complement than a substitute or a replacement, it is extremely difficult even to attempt to adequately define these concepts.

Taking first the idea of prevention, one cannot help noticing that police departments have not been long familiar with crime prevention as a distinct function of the police organization. In fact, the first type of prevention ever achieved by the police and the measures used to put it into effect were really crime suppression rather than crime prevention. In line with the penal system of the time the first preventive activities were based on intimidation achieved by the mere physical presence of stronger than average men, dressed in a conspicuous manner and given the monopoly over the use of force.

Later on, this type of prevention was complemented by a more subtle form of prevention achieved this time through mechanical devices. The man on the beat was told to try doors of commercial establishments to be sure of their security; merchants were advised upon the type and location of safes to assure maximum protection; weaknesses were pointed out in locks and types of windows, front and rear doors, display counters and showcases containing small articles of high value. Information was communicated and methods devised to counteract the activities of passers of worthless cheques, and burglary and robbery alarm devices were in many instances installed upon the advice of policemen. In brief, crime prevention had become identified with property protection.

In an era where social sciences were developing, it was only becoming that law enforcement agencies start realizing that they were getting at the question in a secondhanded way when they devoted their time to the sole protection of property. If any progress was to be made in the crime problem, prevention had to take cognizance of environmental factors. By the repeated discovery of a number of conditions closely related to crime and delinquents such as poverty, slums, broken homes, bad companions, truancy, lack of recreational facilities and so forth, the police were led to enlarge considerably the concept of prevention. First of a physical nature, then mechanical in type, prevention became social when it aimed at controlling conditions through the operation of youth recreational and occupational programs, the strict licensing and control of the sale of alcoholic beverages, the surveillance of places where youths were particularly exposed, the dispersal of gangs, etc.

These programs, however successful they might have appeared to some, did not altogether satisfy others who started to formulate prevention polices which were really an enlargement of treatment techniques directed towards individual offenders. Thus was developed a fourth type of prevention aiming this time at the redirection of the individual and using case work techniques.

The other concept we would have difficulty in defining and which as such needs to be mentioned as the second source of the prevailing confusion in police organizations is that of juvenile delinquency. First a legal concept, the term juvenile delinquency has been given extra legal connotations which belong to the field of sociology, or psychology or social psychology. It was identified both with deviant or antisocial behavior, and maladjustment on grounds that in terms of understanding the reasons for the behavior, criminal or not, classifications on the basis of psycho-social factors were much more meaningful than the simple legalistic approach.

As a result of this, the term delinquency has become an inflated concept covering not only a wide age range but also a wide range of behavior, from the most trivial to the most serious. Cases of protection, assistance, guidance, counselling and the like are included with cases of genuine delinquency.

In these conditions how can one even attempt to define the preventive role of the police with respect to juvenile delinquency when one would have difficulty

---

*Presented at the 1964 ASC meeting, Montreal, Dec. 29. Mr. Tardif is administrative assistant in the Montreal Police Department. Address: Office of the Director.
in fixing in a manner satisfactory to any considerable number of thinkers the separate meaning of the two concepts included in this function.

Shall we endorse the views expressed by a representative member of the International Association of Chiefs of Police when he said: "Preservation of peace, protection of life and property and the apprehension of violators are the most basic tasks of the police. These responsibilities do not include the punishment, rehabilitation or treatment of offenders. Moreover, there is nothing special about the juvenile in this philosophy."(1)

Or, shall we adopt such views as expressed by the Canadian Association of Chiefs of Police Committee on Juvenile Delinquency: "In the aspect of 'guidance and proper supervision' the police play a most important part. It is the policeman in the area from which the child comes who most often sees the children; who knows the conditions in which they live, and often, in which their father and mother live. They are, within the intention of the Juvenile Delinquents Act, allowed a discretion not usually exercised by the police in dealing with adults; a sharp warning, even two, a direct referral to Welfare without a charge being laid, etc., this kind of thing, is a necessary part of helping the delinquent child."(2)

Are we to agree with the National Conference on Prevention and Control of Delinquency when it declared that "Whenever in a given community, there is lack of sufficient recreation, case work and follow-up procedures in dealing with delinquents the police should feel justified in taking the leadership."(3)

Or, are we to make ours such opinion as expressed on the occasion of a panel forum held by the F.B.I., and I quote: "Many departments have entered the recreation field, although understaffed at the time, with personnel inadequate to efficiently handle the required functions. This is paradoxical—good public relations for the department, yes—but its contribution to elimination of delinquency can be said to be almost nil. In any event, I do not think the results achieved are commensurate with the burden placed upon the department, and I know some chiefs, who after going into this type of activity, would like to get out of it but cannot because of public pressure brought to bear when an effort is made."(4)

Unfortunately, answers to these questions and many more cannot be given because despite isolated efforts made here and there towards a real preventive approach "The total resources of the administration of justice," as said Dr. V. A. Leonard, "are still geared to the punitive function . . . . " When the history of the American police is written," continues the noted authority on police science, "the past three decades will be recorded as the era of scientific crime detection. . . . All of the arts and sciences have been brought into play in the detection and apprehension of the criminal . . . . At the convenient disposal of the investigator are the miracles of physics, chemistry, the microscope, photography, microspectroscopy and other tools in the physical and biological sciences . . . ."(5)

If only police administrators and juvenile officers were supported in their preventive effort by scientific disciplines like investigators are in their work of detection, apprehension and production of evidence, the criminal case-loads of police departments might be lower than they are now.

It is true, indeed, as further noted by Dr. Leonard(6) that an increasingly voluminous literature of criminology is available that treats of the causes of delinquent behavior and that research workers in the biological and social sciences have paved the way for the application of preventive technique and procedures which bear the stamp of scientific validity.

But, there are other fields of research opened to the criminologist than the etiology of which follow up and evaluative studies of police methods used to prevent delinquency; analysis of the police function both ante and post delictum; relationship of police agencies with other social agencies are but a few.

I think it to be a great mistake to maintain that the criminological and police aspects of the problem here examined do not coincide or, if you prefer, that the former’s sole object is to explain crime and the latter’s responsibility to protect society and the individual. Criminology would lose much of its raison d’etre if it did not concern itself with applied research; the police would not be doing the job properly if they did not concern themselves with scientific research. Delinquency prevention, as I remember reading somewhere, is in all its ramifications the frontier of criminology.

REFERENCES


(2) M. Y. Curten, Juvenile Court Judge, 59th Annual Conference, C.A.C.P., Saskatoon, Sask., September 1964.


(4) F.B.I. Bulletin.


Dilemma . . . (Continued from page 1)
great work, Crimes and Punishments, in 1764 in which he denounced the draconic penal codes of his day as well as the arbitrary powers of the contemporary jurists. In this work he announced—mistakenly, but humanely—that all men were alike and should be treated alike by the courts. Following the publication of his work, a wave of penal and legal reform swept the Continent of Europe and Beccaria became the Father of the Classical School of Criminology. This New Deal in corrections placed the emphasis on reformation of the criminal. He was to be treated in such a way that he would reform. It was believed this could be accomplished by means of hard work in a prison or work-house, supplemented by education and religious training. Punishment, as it had been known, began to give way to the slow tempo of reform through patience and firm kindness. Naturally, there was great opposition to this philosophy from the “common-sense” penologists of the day. Typical of these was the British economist, Sydney Smith who, in 1822, wrote: “I would banish all the looms in the (jails) and substitute nothing but the treatwell or capstan (engines of drudgery that accomplished nothing) or some species of labour where the labourer could not see the results of his toil—where it is as monotonous, irksome and dull as possible—pulling and pushing instead of reading and writing—no share in the profits—not a shilling.” Compromises were made with the new dispensation of reform in order to meet the critics who demanded punishment. What developed actually was a regime of imprisonment, known as the penitentiary—place of penance—where both punishment and reformation were attempted at the same time. This establishment was neither fish nor fowl and while it was heralded far and wide, it too, began to fail to stem the flood of crime. Carlyle, writing in 1850 with tongue in cheek, caustically describes the lot of the convict, in his cold and lonely cell, as “in a mansion of such perfect and thorough cleanliness” as might befit the “Dukes of England.”

The second force at work in the development of the philosophy of reformation was the rise of secular and scientific ideas of human behavior as well as worth. Instead of moral perversity motivating man’s behavior, the budding sciences of biology and psychology gave impetus to more sophisticated notions of his true value. These disciplines, together with physiology, anatomy and anthropology were destined to develop a scientific or behavioristic philosophy of human motivation. One need not be a determinist to support the scientific approach to causal relationships of human behavior. The die was cast and the older notions of retaliation, explanation, deterrence, moral perversity and caprice began to dissipate into the limbo of once vaunted ideas that faded out before the onslaught of burgeoning science.

Alongside, but not a part of, this scientific renaissance was the humane but canny realization that the common man possessed some element of dignity as well as potential worth as a creator of wealth—both producer and consumer—through his labor. In fact, the new dispensation represented a shrewd alliance of humane principles and social selfishness. The era of punishment was facing annihilation and the new order of social self-interest emphasizing rehabilitation was on the threshold of correctional treatment. The slogan now became: “salvage the criminal,” if not for his own sake, then for the sake of society. Actually, there was little new in this since, a century or so earlier, following the breakup of the monasteries and the decline of feudalism with their corresponding social upheaval, the emerging workhouses or Houses of Correction were established for that same reason—to put idlers, sturdy rogues, and paupers to work in order to make them as self-supporting as possible.

But with the aid of the behavioral sciences, substantial vehicles were mobilized to convince the guardians of society that salvaging of human flotsam and jetsam were merely “good business.” Humaneness, of course, also remained a modus vivendi. Self-interest and humanity—the so-called “protestant ethic”—have been strange bedfellows in society from earliest times and need not be rationalized here.

While some common-sense penologists could accept this philosophy for the social debtor classes—paupers, the “underprivileged,” and even vagrants, it was extremely difficult for them to permit criminals to be thrown into this hopper. The dilemma began to align the public into two camps; those who still clung to the older orders and their smug but rather comfortable concepts and those who had faith in science in its quest to explain human behavior and to capitalize on the worth of the human being, no matter how depraved.

It is in this era, roughly, that we find the founding of the penal institution known as the Reformatory—the first one opened in this country at Elmira in New York State in 1856. The handmaiden of this new establishment was the indeterminate sentence (as opposed to the older fixed or time sentence) aided by a program of education and trade training—not too different from the contemporary vocational training for school drop-outs and victims of automation. The panegyrics of the day regarding this new notion of salvaging the criminal (restricted, however, to young adult first offenders) appear quaint and naive as we read them today. The superintendent of the promising Elmira Reformatory, Zebulon Brockway, one of the towering prison men of his day—bitterly stated that he had initially experienced something akin to that of the disciples on the Mount of Transfiguration and had found himself “strengthened by a mysterious, almighty, spiritual force,” but within a few short years saw his work as a failure. In like manner did the crusaders for the “penitentiary” only a few decades earlier, became disillusioned. For instance, B. F. Sanborn, secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Charities, writing in 1866, charged that the prison did not reform but rather, “hardened the criminal.”
As in the earlier penitentiary, there was precious little penance nourished because of the impossible philosophy of “punish and reform” at the same time, there was little reformation generated in the later Reformatory. The same vestiges of punishment and the same stultifying concepts of chastisement and personal debasement were ever present. The Reformatory was doomed to fail simply because it was dedicated to mass treatment rather than to the slow but more effective therapy of personal rapport, a necessity in redemption.

With the steady development of the behavioral sciences—psychology and sociology—reinforced by the budding skills furnished by psychiatrists and social workers, a hopeful order was envisaged. Human salvage of the criminal went relentlessly forward with no retreat nor discouragement in sight. But, the old bugaboos of the past were lurking in the wings and reared their cynical heads and voices in condemnation. Discouragement and confusion began to become more widespread despite the hopes of the dedicated. The dilemma of corrections grew more sinister. Doubt and discouragement grew. Gone was the certainty of the past eras when life was simpler and the purpose of life more certain. In this last half of the twentieth century, we have the skills, techniques, scientific knowledge and the will to redeem and salvage the criminal, but are confronted by the rumblings and criticisms of the past. The psychiatrists, guidance counselors, group therapists, and prison chaplains must reckon with the reactionary forces who are still not convinced that redemption for the sake of society must be achieved. Yet, despite their tirades against correctional progress, it may seem that fewer persons are executed and long prison terms are becoming less popular. In addition, correctional people themselves are urging legislatures for larger appropriations for professionally-trained personnel rather than larger and more secure prisons. Probation and parole, hopes of the future, are still urged by realists and enlightened students of the problem, but these advocates have a hard time obtaining adequate funds to effect an efficient job in the field of rehabilitation.

It is still the common-sense penologists, the practically-minded law-enforcement personnel, who discount the new correctional image that insists on redemption of the criminal in the best interest of society as a whole. There are among these conservative groups some “diehards” who refer to the new correctional therapeutically-oriented personnel as “sentimentalists,” “sob-sisters,” “molly coddlers” and impractical dreamers. But, despite these voices representing the benighted past, the inexorable findings of science concerning human behavior continue to make the front pages of the media of communication.

This, then, is the conflict of the moment. The guardians of society are confused. Many of them want rehabilitation of the criminal, but they want it by clinging to punishment. They still yearn for retribution as the means to the end. This is the dilemma of corrections.
Book Reviews


The review of any second edition must necessarily involve comparison with the first, and criticism of both. The first edition has long been a standard text and reference. It was produced while Mr. Wilson was in the university atmosphere, while the second has emerged during his tenure as Superintendent of the Chicago Police Department. Editorial changes in the book reflect this difference as well as a fertile, adaptable mind. In spite of "big city" influences, the second edition has remained sensitive to the needs of small departments. The first edition is full of predictions, indicating uncanny vision on the part of the author. The second repeats these predictions as accomplished facts, illustrating the progress law enforcement has made in the thirteen years between editions. The greatest change is Mr. Wilson's attitude toward police administration itself. The first edition, while progressive for its day, shows a considerable degree of "police provincialism." The second reflects a heavy loading of modern public administration principles translated into police use, especially in the domain of the informational sciences. For instance, in the treatment of patrol, there is little if any change from the first edition's classical approach except for the passing of the bicycle and the fading of the motorcycle; however, the second edition outlines modern man-power allocation based on statistical determination to supersede antiquated subjective judgment. Internal security has been added to conventional inspection to provide the administrator with independent feed-back - essential information for both reward and punitive action.

Another sharp change is the recommendation that, in departments of adequate size, staff specialists be hired laterally on the basis of professional education. This has been common practice in large centralized police forces throughout the world but has not been practiced to any extent in this country. Chicago's "empty holster" staff reflects Mr. Wilson's thinking. This is a bold and meritorious recommendation that tends to create professional and vocational echelons, affording opportunity to highly-trained specialists who would be lost to law enforcement if forced to "come up through the ranks." It does not close the door to adequately qualified police officers.

Press relations have been treated vaguely and softly. In the light of Dallas, Mr. Wilson might give second thought to some of the ideas expressed.

Another bold change between editions is in personnel selection standards. The first mentions higher education almost apologetically; the second takes it in stride, outlining the role of college training in the future of modern law enforcement.

A reversal takes place in that the first edition suggests that a policeman must be above average height. The second decries such requirements as screening out otherwise very useful applicants. This indicates a shift in emphasis between psychological and physical stature; however, the stress on fitness in both areas is tightened.

A few carry-overs are to be deplored. Mr. Wilson perpetuates the idea that up to now, the best method of discovering talent for the detective ranks is to observe the behavior of patrolmen. The qualities that Mr. Wilson ascribes to a good detective are about as vague as those set out by Hans Gross in his "Criminology Investigation," in fact they are almost the same. Such qualities as "energy, persistence, imagination, ingenuity, initiative, broad background," etc., are virtually unmeasurable. On the other hand, if terms had been mentioned such as "acquired information in many areas; high interest in arts, sciences, humanities, and crafts; awareness of the processes of philosophical logic; skill in scientific method; and demonstrated persistence as shown from performance on other jobs," it would become obvious that many of these qualities are screened out by the preselection and selection processes for patrolmen. Modern public administration is struggling to embrace quantitative rather than qualitative processes.

The fact that there is a second edition is an admission that the first is out-dated. The second edition is sufficiently modern to warrant its use for some years to come as reflecting the best of today - - - a bridge between the period of provincial police thinking and the day when police administration and public administration will be practically synonymous. The vision shown in this book indicates that Mr. Wilson is a very young man indeed.

Robert F. Borkenstein, Indiana University

---

Vincent J. Fontana, THE MALTREATED CHILD (Springfield, Ill., Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, 1964) $5.00

Today most physicians and the public consider severe maltreatment of children to be rare and in the province of the criminal and grossly disturbed parent. Hogarth painted many years ago. The shattering report of Dr. Henry C. Kempe in 1962 jolted us: In a national survey 749 children were reported maltreated; 78 of them died and 114 suffered permanent brain damage. In only one-third of the cases did medical diagnosis start court action. Clearly this is a serious and reversible problem.

Dr. Fontana reviews the history and statistics in his short, concise book. There are but 5 pages on diagnosis — and with his great experience we wish for more since this is an area of great difficulty. We know the child has been traumatized; but with what, and by whom? The State of California has made it legally mandatory for physicians and the auxiliary medical services to enter

(Continued on page 15)
University Role . . . . (Continued from page 8)

recruited by federal investigation agencies of one kind or another and private industry.

Faculty:

An academic unit is only as good as its faculty. Every effort is made to recruit and retain the very best teacher-scholars who can be attracted to the school. A high priority is given to the recruitment of outstanding young men.

No doctoral program, as yet, has turned out graduate students within the conventional field of police administration. An interdisciplinary approach is used to recruit faculty from the broad disciplines that constitute the social sciences. But, generally, more than academic excellence is required of an applicant in making an appointment to the faculty. Academic instruction in the professional courses should be provided, as a rule of thumb, by instructors who have had some practical experience with the subject matter to be taught. A faculty with such experience adds a dimension to the school that plays an important role in the educational growth of students.

The full-time faculty members measure up, fairly well, to those specifications. Temporary instructors and graduate assistants are utilized in a very flexible fashion. The use of graduate assistants to teach certain courses has been weighed carefully. They have been used in teaching assignments, so far, in only a very limited way as few of them have the required qualifications to teach a course.

Research and publication are, of course, important functions of the school. Several members of its faculty are directing special projects in this reference, with financial grants from various sources. The faculty have published a number of books and have made many contributions to professional publications.

New avenues will be explored to find more ways to encourage and provide opportunities for them to engage in research and writing. This is essential if a faculty is to meet its obligations to a large university. No living discipline (or sub-discipline either) can afford to separate entirely research from teaching.

Teaching, learning, and research, are not entirely intellectual activities. All three of them can be successful only to the extent that the teacher, the student and the researcher, learn something about themselves while learning about their subject-matter.

INDEX TO VOLUME I AND II

Compensation for Victims of Crimes, J. L. J. Edwards . . . . II-4
Confronting Anonymous Letter Writer, Martin Tylutte, Pearl Tytell . . . . I-4, II-3
Control of Behavior by Punishment, James B. Appel . . . . I-4, II-1
Correctional Work: 'Think Ye That Ye May Be Wrong', Gilbert Gels . . . . II-1
Criminology and Correction at Florida State University, Vernon Fox . . . . II-4
Criminology at the University of Puerto Rico, Franco Ferrari . . . . II-3
The Dilemma in the Field of Modern Corrections, Nogley K. Testers . . . . II-4
Domestic Illness Profile Seen in a Family Court Setting, William Little . . . . II-2
Electronic Data Processing and Law Enforcement, Paul E. Resta, Charles P. Smith . . . . I-4
Evaluation of Records in Delinquency Research, Jen Simpson . . . . II-3
Father-Daughter Incest, Miriam Kennedy . . . . II-2
Fifth International Congress of Criminology, T. Selia . . . . I-2
Habitual Offenders, H. Van Rooy . . . . I-4
How Can We Change the Social Structure Known as Corrections?, Charles Prigmore . . . . II-2
Industry Sponsored Crime Prevention Education Programs, Michael Forner . . . . I-4
Lie Detectors: Sleuthing by Polygraph, Elinor Langer . . . . II-1
Mental Health Consultation with Street Gang Workers, Jacob Chwast . . . . II-4
McNabb-Mallory: An Uneasy Accommodation, Lawrence Herman . . . . II-4
Personality of the Police Officer, H. P. Vignola . . . . II-4
Potentialities in a Suggested Classification of Offenders, Albert Morris . . . . II-4
Predicting Juvenile Delinquency Among Negroes, Samuel A. Kramer . . . . II-1
Preventive Role of Police in Juvenile Delinquency, G. Tardiff . . . . II-4
Self Concepts of Juvenile Delinquents, Dorothy Miller . . . . II-4
Sociological Study of a Sub-Culture of Violence, Franco Ferrari, Marvin Wolfgang . . . . II-2
Some Inter-relationships Among Social Control Structures, John P. Clark . . . . II-2
Spare the Rod, Donal E. J. MacNamara . . . . I-4
A Spectrum of Sexual Problems Found in an Out-Patient Setting, R. E. Turner . . . . II-4
Status Differences and the Frustration-Aggression Hypothesis, Gerhard Falk . . . . I-4, II-1
A Straight Look at Narcotic Addiction, Austin MacGimick . . . . II-1
Suicide, Mark M. Luckens . . . . I-4
Time Lapse in Criminal Litigation, Walter Lundeen . . . . I-4
Toward Justice for the Poor, Herbert J. Storz . . . . II-1
A University Role in the Education of Students for Careers in the Administration of Justice, Frank Day . . . . II-4
Value Orientation and Awareness of Differential Opportunity of Delinquent and Non-Delinquent Boys in Israel, Shlomo Shoham, Ruth Erez, Walter C. Reckless . . . . II-3
Victim Compensation in Crimes of Personal Violence, Marvin Wolfgang . . . . II-4
Capital Punishment, United Nations review by Howard Borsuk . . . . II-3
The Field of Consciousness, Aron Gurwitsch review by Katherine B. Martin . . . . II-3
The Innocent, Edward D. Radin review by Donal E. J. MacNamara . . . . II-3
The Maltreated Child, Vincent J. Fortana review by Frank Falkner . . . . II-3
Narcotics, John B. Williams review by Mark M. Luckens . . . . II-3
The Offender - A Bibliography, Dorothy C. Tompkins review by Charles L. Newman . . . . I-3
Police Administration, G. W. Wilson reviewed by Robert F. Borkenstein . . . . I-4
Punishment Without Crime, Berdie Zimmerman reviewed by Donal E. J. MacNamara . . . . I-3
Self-Image of the Wisconsin Probation and Parole Agent, Arthur F. Miles reviewed by Paul Lehman . . . . I-4
Sociology of Crime and Delinquency, Wolfgang, Savi, and Johnston (eds.) reviewed by Jerome Tischbrook . . . . I-2
Sociology of Punishment and Correction, Johnston, Savi, and Wolfgang (eds.) reviewed by Jerome Tischbrook . . . . I-2
the picture, whether we want to or not, by reporting such findings. Many other States are following this example. In Kentucky recent legislation also protects the reporting physician from any civil or criminal action connected with the case. In these days of enormous suits against the medical profession this is an important consideration.

Four pages cover Social Manifestations and again the appetite is whetted. Preventive Measures are more fully covered. There are some case illustrations both by prose and photograph and they are not too helpful.

The main contribution of the book is to present this vital problem as an entity and to make us think about it. While falling between those two well-known stools of attracting the lay interest by emotional overlay and clear authoritative medical writing, the book succeeds admirably in its presumed main aim.

Frank Falkner, M.D., M.R.C.P., Chairman
Department of Pediatrics
University of Louisville


This is a descriptive narrative of a delinquent gang of girls and a social worker's rehabilitative efforts with them. Written by a journalist from Youth Board files, workers' reports, and personal contacts, it is highly dramatized, easy to read, but oversimplified and lacking in depth and insight, both for problems of delinquency and social work. There is no discussion of a scientific nature, no empirical data, no analysis of casual factors, interactional patterns, role playing, or gangs as social systems. Its most appropriate use is for beginning students as illustrative material.

C. L. N.

PICTURES IN THE DARK

One of the problems confronting law enforcement agencies is the necessity of making still and motion pictures of persons committing a crime or involved in riots or similar demonstrations in dimly lighted areas at night. The need to make pictures after dark, of people entering and leaving gambling establishments or of those involved in the sale of narcotics, is also important in law enforcement.

In the past, the main difficulty has been to get enough exposure on existing films to produce a useful image. Since a large percentage of such pictures are made between sunset and sunrise, both indoors and out, a great deal of the available light is in the red-orange and of the visible spectrum.

Now, the Kodak "2475" film is not only the fastest film in the world today, when exposed in tungsten light, but it also covers the entire visible spectrum. Therefore anything that can be seen reasonably well, even in relatively dim light, can be captured on film. This makes it an ideal film for law enforcement agencies doing surveillance photography.

(Eastman Kodak Company, Editorial Service Bureau.)

THE AUDIO-VISUAL CORNER

MONKEY ON THE BACK

27 minutes — 1955
Produced by: National Film Board of Canada
Distributed by: McGraw-Hill

This is the case history of an adult drug addict, depicting his long and losing battle with drug addiction and his eventual death from an overdose. From a psychodynamic point of view, the only point made by the film is that drug addicts suffer from low frustration tolerance in the face of life's stresses.

The only use that could be made of this film would be to show it to an audience of youths who might be tempted to take up narcotics. It is not likely, however, that such an audience would identify with the drug addict in the film, because of his age (he is near middle age) and because the physical setting of the film is more that of a small town than that of a congested urban slum area.

HARD BROUGHT UP

43 minutes — 1954
Produced by: Potomac Film Producers
Distributed by: International Film Bureau

This film was made for the Mississippi State Welfare Department and is probably one of the best examples of how not to make a film on juvenile delinquency. It is, indeed, difficult to convey all the imperfections and shortcomings of this film. It is an attempt to offer direction with regard to what to do with the juvenile offender, as seen through a juvenile court hearing. Its setting is a rural community in the South and contains little that the average urban audience could identify with. There is an attempt to deal with a variety of cases and situations through the case history method. As a result, the film is extremely boring, lacking in continuity, devoid of dramatic impact, and unconvincing with regard to any of its purposes. Any use of this film in consultation processes would do more harm than good.

FAMILIES FIRST

17 minutes — 1959
Produced by: New York State Youth Commission
Distributed by: New York State Youth Commission

Families First is essentially a lecture or soundtrack to which has been appended an artless film. Some excellent sentiments are communicated, such as the answer to the question of what a home is: It is security, affection, recognition and the opportunity for new experiences. Children grow as parents shape them; parents with problems are inclined to let the children express those problems. A child who feels his parents have let him down has a tendency to let everyone else down.

Although much wisdom is contained in the soundtrack, one gets the sense of the expression of unrealistic rules by which to govern living. The basic format is of the "good family" and the "bad family" wherein all goes well with the good and nothing is achieved by the bad. From a consultative point of view, the question arises as to what this film would contribute that a good lecture in its own right wouldn't provide.
STEP BY STEP

22 minutes — 1953
Produced by: International Film Bureau, Inc.

This film depicts the work done by the Counseling Services Division of C. C. N. Y. in the late 1940's in redirecting the energies of youthful gangs towards constructive goals. The street club workers assigned to the gang are shown progressing slowly, step by step, in their efforts to win the trust of the gang members. The film is well-made from a technical point of view, and, while it is slow-moving and static at times, it has a good deal of overall dramatic impact.

Step By Step is good enough to be used as the focus of discussion on juvenile delinquency. It could be used with three types of audiences: students training to be street group workers; a lay audience interested in techniques of community action to combat the gang problem; and a professional audience interested in methods of supervision of group workers. The latter type of audience should be very receptive to the film’s excellent handling of the relationship between a supervisor and a beginning street club worker. The film moves back and forth in an integrated, graphic way between scenes of the young worker’s difficult encounters with the gang and scenes depicting the supervisory relationship in which the student candidly discusses his problems with the supervisor and receives the latter's helpful suggestions.

CRIMINOLOGY AND CORRECTION AT FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY

Vernon Fox, Florida State University

Criminology and corrections is the theory and process of social control. The socialization process internalizes the controls in individuals. This normally takes place in the family, with the mother developing in the child the capacity to relate to others and inculcating the values that society considers to be right. The father, as an authority figure, provides the function of integrating the value system of the growing child into the broader social structure. When these family functions break down, the practitioners in Criminology and Corrections must intervene to provide social substitutes for the mother-function and the father-function to socialize the acting-out offender. The "helping professions", such as welfare agencies, social work, psychiatry, clinical psychology and similar social agencies, assume the more permissive and nurturing mother-functions. The police, the courts, and correctional institutions and agencies assume the more authoritative and controlling function of the father. Therefore, Criminology and Corrections recapitulates in society the mother-functions and the father-functions normally provided within the family. A good program in the university must take into consideration all phases of Criminology and Corrections and provide a balanced, cooperative and complementary program with wide use of other departments in the university to get a realistic liberal arts education and provide theoretical context for the more specific theory and practice of social control.

NARCOTIC CONTROL PROGRAM

California's Department of Corrections began a narcotic treatment-control program, October 1, 1959. It was an attack on the narcotic problem by means of specialized parole caseleads averaging 36 parolees each, all with a history of narcotic use; anti-narcotic (naline or lorfan) testing of parolees to determine recent use; and short-term reconfinement and treatment of parolees reverting to narcotic use. A research unit was attached to the project to evaluate the special treatment and control aspects of the program.

A similar narcotic project was begun by the California Youth Authority on May 1, 1962. The Youth Authority program differs in that the Authority has no facility of its own for the short-term reconfinement of parolees reverting to narcotic use, and has been relying on the facilities of the Department of Corrections and the Los Angeles County Jail.

To strengthen the narcotic control program and to facilitate its evaluation, it has been recommended that a method of referral to the program from the institutions should be developed so that cases entering the program will do so immediately upon release from an institution; the coverage of the project should be expanded to include all of Los Angeles County (excepting Antelope Valley); restrictions against transfers out should be tightened; consultant services for the training of parole agents in group psychotherapeutic techniques should be provided; nalline testing should be made mandatory; and consideration should be given to providing additional facilities for short-term reconfinement of wards who reaccel to the use of narcotics.


PLANNING AHEAD

The 1965 annual meeting of the American Society of Criminology is to be in Berkeley, California on December 28, 29, and 30. Dean Joseph D. Lohman of the School of Criminology, University of California and ASC VP is in charge of local arrangements.

If you are looking beyond 1965, the following future ASC meeting dates — all December 28-30 — are pertinent:

1966 Washington, D.C.
1967 Dallas
1968 New York