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The growth of your Society depends on new members. Please recommend and encourage your professional colleagues to become members.
A Re-evaluation of Parole Prediction

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to measure the uses of parole prediction against the standards of correctional philosophy and to evaluate its adequacy as a method in criminological research.

PENOLOGICAL PRINCIPLES

To understand parole prediction and to judge its use one must first understand parole and its background. In 1883 a correctional authority said, "Justice demands that offenders against law shall be punished! Christianity demands for them the discipline which shall correct and reform their evil natures, changing them from criminals to God-fearing, law-abiding citizens." Prison life "must be made laborious, exacting, and constraining, and the prisoner . . . must not forget that the way of the transgressor is hard."

One may further understand this philosophy through a statement by Paul W. Tappan. "The old retributive penology was predicated on the view that the proven criminal was an 'outlaw' without legal rights. Not only might he be subjected to the crudest penalties, but he lost his citizenship (if not his life), his identity of person, and his property."

Where does penology stand today? In theory, and largely in practice, belief has been abandoned in crime as a wicked act. In the older belief, the criminal was obliged to "pay his debt to Society," which was necessitated by the need to avenge the wrong he had done. Today it is known that the problem of law violation cannot be solved this way. A typical and major change has been in the concept of the prison. Once prisons were purposely made into filthy dungeons. Today the hospital is the model. "A sick patient is treated to the end that he may recover from his illness and be restored to normal functioning. He is not punished for having become sick, nor to teach him a lesson so that he will not again become sick . . . .Treatment/ in penology implies /that/ . . . the criminal may be studied, understood, and subjected to appropriate action for control and change in behavior to restore him to normal functioning in society."

Parole is an extension of care beyond the prison and shares in the same therapeutic philosophy. "Parole, as we know it today, is the logical consequence of the change in the point of view toward crime and punishment . . . the fact that we no longer believe in the elimination of the offender by death but believe that some element in every one of them renders him redeemable gives rise to the need of a service like parole."

Prisons and parole, of course, are only one part of the attack on crime. Treating the criminal alone would be no more than a slight improvement over punishing an individual for "his" wicked act; "... the logic of the situation suggests that only partial and temporary improvement is to be expected so long as important elements in the larger culture tend toward crime." Needed are neighborhood improvement, revisions in the care of children in school, and other subtle and wide alterations in our society. Richard A. Cloward and Lloyd E. Ohlin state that "... services extending to delinquent individuals or groups cannot prevent the rise of delinquency among others . . . . The target for preventive action . . . should be . . . the social setting that gives rise to delinquency."

The concepts expressed above, taken together, form the ideal of the "new penology." This ideal is not necessarily achieved in practice. However, it constitutes by professional consensus a standard against which administration and research can be measured.

Among the components of new penology that of social setting is generally neglected in the parole prediction. Attention has been largely concentrated on the criminal himself. For the present, in this review, this omission will be accepted in order to analyze current prediction work. Mention will later be made of the significance of the neglected factors.

PAROLE SELECTION

Release on parole requires selection. Each man let out under extramural care is, ideally, considered to have received the maximum benefit from incarceration. His prison treatment, ideally, has reduced to a minimum the likelihood of his committing a new offense against society; and for him, the parole period represents, ideally, the best supplement to his intramural days.

Selection involves the risk of error. This risk presents a challenge. In 1923, Horrell Hart suggested enabling a parole board to apply "... to its parole problems the same scientific procedure employed by insurance companies when they estimate the probable cost of insuring new applicants on the basis of their experience." To the end of estimating these probable costs, statistical procedures have been developed. Scores are constructed, based upon previous records. Lloyd E. Ohlin, for instance, studied the files of 17,000 men released from the Joliet-Stateville and Menard Divisions of the Illinois State Penitentiary system from 1925 to 1945. The personal characteristics of each of the men were related to parole behavior. There was a significantly favorable
relation to success among first offenders, and a significantly poor one for recidivists. For the occasional offender, the connection was neutral. A series of scores was set up ranking each factor as 1, zero or -1. Three per cent of the prisoners with composite scores of +5 to 10 violated parole, 75 per cent of those with scores of -5 and 6 failed.

Many prediction tables have been prepared. A number of techniques have been devised for their construction, and others are still in the process of exploration. To mention one example, a recent article by Leslie T. Wilkins and P. Macnaghton-Smith describes a method under consideration. Yet, whatever the method, all prediction instruments have the characteristic of being based on past experience, for which reason they are also called experience tables or base expectancy scores. Their central purpose is to suggest future outcome among groups of prisoners, based upon the average experience with previous groups of prisoners. These same methods, of course, are applied to the problem of delinquency and other behavior; remarks on parole prediction bear on these other fields.

A LIMITING GUIDE

A most basic use of prediction instruments is to avoid parole board failures. This ensues from the original conception of Hornehl Hart. A failure, that is a violation of parole, discredits the parole technique in the public eye and undermines popular support for it. Parole boards are, of course, embarrassed by such an outcome.

There are ways in which a scale can help to prevent this event: The Board can control the violation rate, thus keeping its risks within publicly acceptable bounds. It can choose parolees carefully, which is the opposite expression of the first possibility. It can explain drops in success rates; the drop "... could be shown to be due to some change in the 'material' (the risk classifications of the boys received for training) in the system and not to any newly developed defects in the system itself." Further, if prisons are overcrowded and populations must be reduced, prediction tables offer a way of releasing those men presenting the least danger of violating.

These uses have the endorsement of social scientists. Yet boards fail to use the technique prepared for them. A recent popular article by a parole board member, published in the Saturday Evening Post, omits any mention of prediction scales. An authority stated in 1957, "As far as we know, experience tables for prediction are not now in use anywhere." An administrator says that "despite the number of impressive statistical studies published, most of them have produced results of little operational value." Prediction scale experts rebut these criticisms. It is stated, for example, that "no medical man would reject the thermometer either because it was subject to error or did not diagnose every type of ailment." The disagreement of the administrators with the table builders is essentially a technical one. It debates the value of personal versus experimental analyses for decision-making. Yet, what should be debated? Should not better parole be debated? Parole can be bettered only if its various forms are tried and tested. Yet in the prediction technique, the independent variable, parole, is usually not—systematically, at least—varied at all. Only the dependent variable is allowed to vary, as related to a number of intervening, or background factors.

The result is a stultification of experimental and administrative progress. Such results have some value, of course. But this value is of a technological nature, for immediate administrative employment—if used. The scale limitations are recognized, in fact, by the table builders. They stress the need for constant revision of instruments. Others point out that an instrument developed in one locale cannot be used in another, as discovered in applying a scale made in Illinois to a somewhat different type of population in Minnesota.

Such research fails as a social tool because it accepts the status quo, and relates only to the best use of the "status." Such predictions crystalize whatever limits the present parole system contains and obscure the need for improved facilities. The use of prediction tables is likely to divert attention from the parole process itself. As Ralph W. England says, "... parole as a corrective measure is insulated from being spotlighted as a variable in success or failure."

At least four questions about the parole process and parolees must be answered in any thorough prediction study. All of these imply a willingness to examine and improve the parole procedure itself, which would lead to some beneficial improvements in parole work:

a) The definition of parole.

There is a set of administrative units called "parole offices." Is their work a standardized process? One parole officer is dictatorial and insecure; another is careful and firm. One is strict and watchful; another is lenient and careless. If parole is the independent variable in an experiment, what then is this variable? Also, do these officers follow recommended treatments? Many parole boards find that prescribed treatments are not always provided or followed by the officers.

b) What is the interaction between the parole officer and the parolee?

Little attention has been given to this. An example of one attempt is provided: A parole director had his men keep records of the problems each officer was trying to handle for each individual charge. Later, when a difficulty arose in one of these cases, the director and the officer reviewed the case to see what went wrong with supervision of that aspect of the parolee’s behavior, so that work could be improved in subsequent instances. This indicates the start of one type of experimental procedure and demands application.

c) What is a parole violation?

Certain classes of men are predicted as lesser risks. They are given more intensive supervision. They have therefore a greater likelihood of being found out in misbehavior. Were they or were they not truly lesser risks?

d) The composition of the population studied.

What is the composition of the parolees employed in a prediction study? Are there the same for all years covered in a survey or its follow-up?
The criteria by which a man is released upon parole offer some judgment on this. One example is offered. There appears to have been little change in Federal standards in the past 25 years. The Attorney General in 1939, 25 indicated that these factors were considered by the Federal Parole Board: the man’s progress in the institution, his family and familiar situation, the social and economic situation he was to face, the desirability of his potential home and community, the nature of his crime, promise of employment, and the individual desired by the prisoner as an advisor to assist the parole officer.

The last mentioned item has been dropped; greater sophistication has been given to the others since 1939. But a 1960 training manual 26 indicates that a similar set of standards is still in use. This is external evidence. What actual changes have there been? The question deserves systematic attention, especially where a base expectancy study covers a time span of any length.

When questions such as these are answered, parole prediction will aid in improving parole. The success or failure of the parolee will be related to what is done for him on parole as well as to what he was before he began to be supervised.

SCARCE RESOURCES

There is a second area growing in size, in which prediction is applied. This comprises the evaluation and development of administrative resources. The need to use facilities efficiently is stressed by experts in expectancy tables. One says that the challenge of keeping offenders out of institutions could be profitably investigated by asking the question: how can we make best uses of scarce resources? 27 In these scarce resources were included money, social work personnel and funds for research. Another author declares that failure to use facilities well is perpetrating a crime against the taxpayer. 28 The use of prediction scales to increase the efficiency of facilities is represented in numerous studies:

a) Choosing the most effective treatment.

   Through prediction techniques the effectiveness of open Bortals was compared to that of the closed. It was discovered that the open were better, after discounting other factors on the basis of prediction scales. 29 In like manner in New Jersey was tested the relative effectiveness of the Highfields Project as opposed to other forms of treatment 30 and, similarly, the California Special Intensive Parole Unit 31 has revealed, through base expectancy tables, that individuals with an initial high probability of success did not need intensive supervision and got no additional benefit from it. 32

b) Guiding capital investments.

   Certain institutions may prove to be more effective than others—such as the open Bortals). These are obviously the type to build. Thus, prediction scales could help in planning new facilities. 33

c) Selection of clients and assignment of personnel.

   Techniques such as parole prediction allow the administration to select clients for given forms of service. This procedure can be applied, for example, in child care. 34 Thus, the potential clientele for a given service can be screened, 35 and those with the greatest potential for benefit can be given service. A related proposal is the matching of the characteristics of the parole officer to the needs of the individual. This is a topic suggested in 1941 36 which merits attention.

d) Determining optimum length of sentence.

   Prediction tables are proposed as a method of determining the optimum length of incarceration and the types of supervision best for parolees. 37 Tables do not exist for this, but such analyses have been attempted. 38

These employments of prediction tables partially mitigate the criticisms offered in the preceding section. They represent attempts to vary the parole or treatment process, and, in fact to “spot-light” the parole process as an experimental variable.

Each cited use of prediction also does another thing. It tends to place emphasis upon applying services only to those who will benefit from them. Those who fail are neglected. The danger is made clear by an example from the field case work. In a recent article in a journal of social work, two writers studied ways of predicting possible movement under casework treatment on the basis of information collected by the intake department. They concluded that prediction “becomes a valuable tool for the intake worker in his determination of whether a client is a good candidate for casework treatment.” 39

One is led to ask: should there be, as implied, a “no treatment” group? If one becomes very skillful in matching resources only to those who fit well with what there is to offer, where does this leave those who do not fit into the situation presented to them? Does one ascribe to the individual an inability to be helped when it is the practitioner’s own inability to help? Casework is believed, for example, to be essentially unproductive for the so-called “hard-core family” group, inasmuch as little change is effected. Recently, social workers have attacked this as a stereotype. One writer says that new concepts must be developed to help such families. 40 Another writer discusses the “hard to reach client,” and asks whether it may not be the agency which is hard to reach. Regarding the client, the article inquires, “Is it because realistically we know nothing can be done? Is it because we have lost our zest for the case in which success cannot be predetermined by a blueprint that is complete in every detail?” 41 It is not to be ignored that some of the “failures” are very expensive for society. If ways of treating them could be devised, the expense of these cases would justify the draining of “scarce resources.” The relatively easy to treat cases might then be the more “wasteful” expense.

Parole prediction at its best is not an administrative check list. It is an adjunct to criminological theory and correctional development. If it is this, it should seek to isolate behavioral components which enable one to understand or modify behavior. Restriction of the analytical view to present resources defeats this aim. New concepts adequate for the hard or easy cases depend on understanding the illness. To help a parole failure, one must know why that man failed. One must know why others succeeded.

The better statistical procedures for the development of the prediction tables become a barrier in themselves to good criminological work. Several items covering or overlapping the same facet of behavior may be considered, yet only the one with the best statistical relation to outcome is retained. 42 It is explained that any material may be used, so long as it has a suitable proba-
bility connection. Especially convenient here are pre-existing entries found in the official records. This procedure tends to rule out things in the environment or the psychology of the individual which are subject to treatment or change, and which are at the core of modern correctional philosophy.

The problem is evident in the scaling of pre-delinquency. One writer says that "until such etiological questions as the relationship between family pathology and peer group influences are clarified, therapeutic programs will continue to grope." The problem in parole is the same. No matter how high the correlation of some factors with recidivism for example, aspects of the offender potentially related to successful treatment, not fixed components should be studied. The high scoring items among these modifiable factors should then be subjected to experimental manipulation in actual parole situations, so that treatments, to defeat and not corroborate, the predictions, may be devised.

It is significant that the predictors not included in scales are already well known in the sociology and psychology of deviant behavior. Several will be mentioned as examples. One neglected aspect is the currently popular concept of self-image. How does the ego concept or social identification affect the offender? Another obvious example is the need to use different predictors for different types of offenders. Don C. Gibbons, indicates that prisoners differ. Each has his own adjustment configuration. Gibbons erects models of various classes of offenders and suggests types of treatment appropriate to each. Still other groups, such as alcoholics, have low promise for future good behavior. Such mal-adjustments may well be resolvable into treatable factors, through proper prediction analyses.

Attention must now revert to that component of the new penology by-passed in prediction. Besides which is inside the prisoner, there is that outside of him and acting upon him—his environment, associates and social life-space. What can be done to change this setting in order to dampen disapproved behavior and to reinforce desired traits? Can scales validly be made applicable to these broader factors? This answer has yet to be sought. In this connection are needed, as suggested by William C. Kvaraceus, companion scales to measure the progress of community correctional programs, a problem which has not felt the beginnings of a solution.

A REORIENTATION OF PAROLE PREDICTION

It is essential to change the orientation of parole prediction. At present, prediction efforts stress an anatomical diagramming of the statistical relations between static background factors and success or failure on parole—a variable which itself often remains undefined. It is essential to recognize that parole behavior is a form of behavior. Therefore, as in the analysis of any type of behavior, one must have thorough grasp of all of the factors entering into it. There is nothing magical in the statistical techniques which cover over ignorance of these important factors.

On the other hand, statistical methods will enable us, in a multivariate situation, to pick out treatable factors with the highest relation to behavior. The methods can, then, indicate what services need strengthening, modification or creation. But the technical process known as parole prediction must, at all times, be kept strictly in harness to advance correctional goals. If important elements in behavior are omitted in the study of the behavior of deviants, correctional goals are not advanced. Instead, the status quo is frozen, and ultimately penological principles are defeated. On the other hand, if prediction methods escape from the rigidity of the status quo, they become in proportion to the degree of freedom attained, more valuable to penology, and to social science.

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A Re-evaluation of Parole Prediction: Some Comments

Dr. Sterne says many things about prediction methods which need saying are repeating until they are understood by those who advocate prediction methods and by those who oppose them.

The majority of people who oppose prediction methods do so on the grounds the methods cannot be right or ethical. This type of argument confounds two dimensions. What is right (ethical) is not necessarily valid (true), and what is valid (true) is not necessarily right (ethical). If, for example, one wished to reduce recidivism to an absolute minimum this could be achieved by decapitation of all first offenders. There is no doubt about the validity of this procedure as a means of eliminating recidivism. Most people, even those who wish to reduce recidivism to a minimum, will reject this sort of solution on ethical grounds. In fact, then, boundary conditions are being placed around the acceptable solutions. This is, of course, reasonable. The objectives may be considered as modified by the boundary conditions—we do not want to reduce recidivism at any price. But, although the "any price" solution is rejected, the actual price which would be regarded as reasonable is not stated. The attack upon the "means" is made as a way of avoiding a rigorous statement of the objective.

A similar argument is applied to prediction methods. An attack is made upon the "means" as a way of avoiding a rigorous statement of the objectives. But we cannot discuss in any rational way the effectiveness or other characteristics of "means" without a statement of the ends desired. In the prediction approach there is one simple purpose, namely to be able to make statements about the probability of recidivism. Prediction methods can be tested only with respect to this particular and specific criterion—do statements made about the future behavior of offenders turn out to be more often correct when

a) made with the use of prediction tables
b) made without reference to such methods.

If the answer is (a), then prediction methods have done what they claimed to do, and have done all that they claimed to do. To prove that there are lots of things which they did not do is not particularly relevant but is probably very necessary!

No physician blames the thermometer for not measuring blood-pressure. Nor does he throw the instrument away because it does not diagnose the nature of the illness. To be able to make statements about the symptoms of a patient which include a reference to his temperature is regarded as more useful than to be able to make statements excluding this information. A patient's temperature reading is not related to the "cause" of his ailment, any more than a prediction score which informs the criminologist that an offender is a "hot" risk relates to the cause of his difficulties. The re-naming of a high temperature as pyrexia is not, of course, a diagnosis in medicine, nor are many of the re-namings which have become fashionable in the treatment of offenders' diagnoses.

It is difficult to assess whether prediction methods have suffered more at the hands of their proponents and developers than at the hands of their opponents. Not a few "predictionists" have defended their work with techniques more like those of high pressure salesmen than of science. Some, attacking the sales techniques, have mistaken the sales-routing description of the method for the real thing and have not been convinced. Dr. Sterne's paper does much to strip the sales routine from the description, and is much to be commended. But in stripping the advertising material down, he is not attacking the product.

In his analysis of the reasons for the rejection of prediction instruments by parole boards Dr. Sterne does not make the distinction between ends and means as clear as he might. If parole boards want to have a "best" estimate of an applicant's recidivism, then, without doubt prediction tables, if well constructed, could provide such an estimate. But, is the factor of recidivism the main factor with which parole boards are concerned? Of course not. Then clearly, prediction methods which address themselves (however effectively) to a different problem will not concern the boards. What then is the "end" desired by the boards in their decisions? If the objective could be agreed and clearly stated, instruments could be provided which would help. There is no intention to be facetious in suggesting that one of the things which parole boards may well wish to minimize is, not the likelihood of recidivism, but the likelihood of adverse publicity for their decisions. Such adverse publicity might arise from a constellation of many factors and if such a criterion were openly stated as an end objective, the same methods which can provide "best" estimates of recidivism could be developed to provide similar estimates of the probability of adverse publicity. This may sound unethical; but is it? Is not publicity the voice of the public conscience—the expression of the public ethic? And in a democracy, is this public ethic not our concern? There is, perhaps, one better measure of the public ethic, namely, money. Perhaps prediction tables might be more useful if they indicated, not the probability of recidivism, but the probable future cost to society of different types of decisions. Perhaps the old question, "What shall a man give in exchange for his soul?" is not only
a moral question but suggests an exact measure of a man's ethical position?

When Dr. Sterne considers the limitations of prediction methods to particular systems of prison administration he is confusing the problems of scientific measurement and problems of decision making. If a parole board is making decisions about prisoners released from a particular system, the decisions they make may be assisted by scientific methods without necessity for showing that the same method could also be applied without modification in a different legal system or a different prison administration. If the boundary conditions of the problems are extended, then the boundary conditions of the solutions must be similarly extended. Again, the problem of "ends" and means must be thought through before we can discuss the matters rationally.

The paper criticises Wilkin's work with Mannheim on the grounds that factors which were statistically powerful were selected by the method of resolving the equations. This is true, but if there had been available any indication as to other methods of selecting boundary conditions for the solution of the equations, such other boundary conditions could have been utilized and differently based solutions derived. In the absence of sociological, psychological, or other boundary conditions, and being a statistician, the boundary conditions suggested by the discipline of statistics were chosen. No problem can be solved without some boundary conditions—general solutions cannot be sought directly; they may emerge after many years of study using rigorous scientific methods.

Of course, prediction methods which are not designed to derive a typology will not find a typology. If a typology should be sought, then we shall need to seek it as a specific exercise. It is, in fact, my belief that typologies should now be sought, and that prediction within types of offenders are likely to be more valuable as the next step than development of prediction over different types. Moreover, I am of the opinion that we should consider types of treatments and the interaction between types of offenders and types of treatments.

But what about the "machinery"? Among all the processes through which we are passing offenders, which, if any, are expected to modify the raw material, in exactly what ways, and how do these modifications relate to the product we are placing back on the "market" of open society? What are the short term objectives of each part of the process? What are the different aspects of each piece of machinery? How do these short term objectives relate to the long term objectives? How many of the procedures are merely "housekeeping factors" with regard to the institution and how many are calculated to influence subsequent behavior, and through exactly what means? As I remarked nearly ten years ago, the problem is not HOW to predict (we can do that well enough), but WHAT to predict, and WHY.

Perhaps the need today is for better theories to test, not better ways of testing theories. But by "theory" I do not mean "launch" or "prejudice" or any aspects of vested interests or the like, but scientific theories which make use of known facts—forward looking theories, communicable and semantically sound and down to earth. Dr. Sterne's paper has cleared much dead wood from the prediction area, and is an excellent review of the relevant literature. He has made it possible to move more easily to the next step of determining priorities for research.

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An Analysis of Protective Security for State Chief Executives

Protective security for governmental officials in the United States has been performed for many years. The U.S. Secret Service has provided protection for the President of the United States since 1901. Since this initial assignment, this function has been extended to include protection of the President's family, the President-elect, the Vice-President and the Vice-President-elect and former Presidents.

Security is normally provided for candidates running for the office of the President. Security is also provided for the Secretary of State, the director of the Central Intelligence Agency, mayors in many of our larger cities and high ranking military officers.

Protective security can be defined as the providing of total physical protection for a dignitary, emphasizing the preventative aspects of protection. Successful protection of any dignitary requires extensive planning for all possible contingencies. To be effective, proper security planning must be preventative planning. In such planning, there is no margin for error and protecting must be 100% effective. One error can be total failure in security work.

A fundamental element of dignitary protection is the identification and elimination of possible sources of danger to the dignitary, before the danger becomes actual. Protection must be provided from all hazards that can occur, whether they are caused by accidents, negligence or personal designs. Under our system of government, measures must be sought to provide protective security which will in no way impede or restrict the dignitary's performance of his many official functions.

Providing security for a dignitary is a difficult task, and involves a great deal more than keeping bodyguards near him at all times. U. E. Baughman has written that providing security is to provide what might be called "preventive protection."

PRINCIPLES OF SECURITY

Adequate security planning requires an awareness and consideration of principles of security. If any one of the principles is ignored or slighted, the protective security provided for a dignitary will become meaningless.

Mandatory security statute. Protective security, to be adequate and properly based, must be supported by a statute authorizing such a function. An illustration of this is the section of federal law which sets forth the powers and duties of the U.S. Secret Service.

"Subject to the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, the United State Secret Service, Treasury Department, is authorized to protect the person of the President of the United States and members of his immediate family, the President-elect, the Vice-President and the Vice-President-elect..."

Security has been adequate in some instances when it has not been based on a mandatory statute, but in most cases it has been woefully inadequate. Security provided under the direction of an item of legislation will generally provide better supervision, control, budgeting, and staffing, all of which are essential ingredients of an adequate security program.

The security survey. A security survey is the development of an effective security program for an installation, a facility, a property, an event, or a travel route, in order to determine the existence and nature of hazards to security and the appropriate techniques to be used to neutralize or eliminate such hazards.

Such a survey should include information pertaining to the duties and tasks to be accomplished by the security unit, action to be taken in emergencies, nature and extent of assistance that will be provided by other agencies, and the type of mechanical, electronic and natural aids which will be used to supplement physical security.

Special emphasis should be placed on the preparation of a comprehensive check list to be followed by the individual conducting the survey. A check list should also be prepared in order to insure coverage of essential security items with agencies cooperating in security.

ACTIVE SECURITY MEASURES

Active security measures comprise all the activities which are specifically designed to increase security. The specific active security measures which must be applied, at the proper time and place, are discussed below.

Emphasis must be placed on the employment of an "adequate" security force to meet the needs and demands of particular events or situations. A properly conducted security survey, reinforced with a positive intelligence program, should serve as a basis for determination of the size of the security force. It is also essential to establish a security program which provides for coverage around the clock. To provide less, is to provide opportunities for the breaching of security during the time protective personnel are not on duty.

An additional active security measure which must be implemented is a security training program. As a minimum objective, such a program should include the following topics: security principles, self-defense training, periodic marksmanship training and abnormal psychology. The above subjects should be incorporated in the initial training provided for security personnel and additional in-service training provided as new security
techniques, procedures, and equipment are developed.

Identification of all individuals who come into contact with the dignitary is an essential aspect of protective security. Security personnel involved in public functions should wear some type of identification insignia; this includes the permanent security unit as well as other law enforcement agencies assisting in security. It is also desirable to provide distinctive insignia for members of the dignitary's staff, press corp, and others who require special treatment.

Background investigations should be conducted on all individuals who come into contact with the dignitary, such as staff members, maintenance workers, household employees, waitresses and bellhops. As a minimum requirement, these background investigations should include a check of criminal and subversive files.

Special precautions should be taken when the dignitary travels. The driver of the automobile in which the dignitary rides should be a member of the security detail. This provides for constant and continuing protective security, and places the members of the security unit in the immediate vicinity of the dignitary. This practice is desirable and necessary to any security program. Closely related to the above, is the need for a follow-up security automobile. This vehicle should contain additional security personnel and follow immediately behind the dignitary's automobile and be prepared to take any action necessary to insure the protecting of the dignitary. Special emphasis should be placed on the security of the vehicles used by the dignitary and security staff. Unattended vehicles provide an opportunity for tampering and for this reason, security must be constant.

A properly conducted security survey of locations or installations to be visited, (hotels, residence and office) will indicate the need for security posts. Detailed instructions must be issued to personnel who are assigned to security posts. The security survey will also indicate the need for control points at key locations. Security personnel at a control point will clear individuals for access to restricted areas, and serve as a command post.

Another essential active security measure is the effective use of electronic and mechanical security devices. Maximum use of such devices at the dignitary's residence will provide security in depth. It should include such things as electric eyes, fire alarms, door alarms, screen and window alarms.

Overall protective security can be greatly enhanced by the use of communication devices. Radios should be installed in all security vehicles, placed on the same frequency, and coordinated through a base station. Whenever other law enforcement agencies are involved in security preparations, their communications system should be tied in with the security units communication network. In addition, control points and security posts should be coordinated with a primary net of telephones and a secondary net of miniature radios.

The political nature of the governor's office, and the concept of freedom of the press, dictate the need for making special arrangements for news media. Such arrangements should always be made in terms of their effect on security and security needs should take precedence. Special press passes should be issued to members of the press corp and space allocated to them at all functions which will allow them adequate opportunity to perform their duties.

PREVENTATIVE SECURITY MEASURES

Preventative security measures are those techniques used to nullify or eliminate existing or potential security hazards.

Emphasis in this area should be placed on intelligence activities which will provide information about security hazards. The collection, processing and evaluation of intelligence data should be centralized in the agency responsible for security. Selective criteria must be established by the security agency in order to insure the obtaining of information about potential sources of danger. Specifying criteria for information to be furnished to the security agency is a difficult standard to establish, but guidance in this area can be taken from the criteria established by the F.B.I. on December 26, 1963 referring to protection of the President of the United States:

Subversives, ultrarightists, racists and fascists, (a) possessing emotional instability or irrational behavior, (b) who have made threats of bodily harm against officials or employees of federal, state, or local government or officials of a foreign government. (c) who express or have expressed strong or violent anti-U.S. sentiments and who have been involved in bombing or bomb-making or whose past conduct indicates tendencies toward violence, and (d) whose prior acts or statements depict propensity for violence, and hatred against organized government.

The above criteria or one of a similar nature tailored to the individual needs of a particular security problem should provide the necessary intelligence information in order to insure a positive security program.

A second area of concern under preventative security measures is that of liaison with other agencies. Based upon the above indicated selective criteria for preventive intelligence, the protective security agency should establish positive liaison with every local, state or federal agency that might be a source of such information.

Emphasis should be placed upon liaison with other law enforcement agencies within the state which have intelligence or subversive investigative units, the department of mental hygiene, correctional institutions and city or state crime commissions. Detailed requests should be furnished to each of the above agencies, specifying the nature and type of information which is sought, the reporting procedure to be followed, and the responsibilities for any additional investigation that may be required.

An important part of preventive security measures
should encompass the use of a security testing technique. Such a technique has been successfully used by the Strategic Air Command of the U.S. Air Force in testing its installation security. It would involve the use of individuals or equipment in an effort to breach the protective security. With careful planning and control, such a technique will not hamper or impede the security program. The results of such tests will indicate the need for changes in procedures, requirements for additional personnel or security equipment, or additional training.

Consistent with the previously listed factors, the policy of the agency providing security should require a continuous assessment of the security program. Emphasis should be placed on the evaluation of techniques and procedures, with careful attention given to special problems and the development of specific instructions to meet the problems. A constant evaluation of the security techniques should include the taking of movie pictures of all movements of the dignitary to include every means of transportation used, as well as arrivals and departures from all key locations. Arrangements should be made with newspapers to receive copies of all still photographs taken of the dignitary, when he makes public appearances, to be used in evaluating the security. In addition, a de-briefing session should be held after every trip to facilitate the evaluation process.

CORRECTIVE SECURITY MEASURES

Corrective security measures deal with actual breaches of security. The technique previously described will provide information on breaches of security and immediate action must be taken to correct the conditions which were conducive to breaches in security. When a security breach actually occurs or appears imminent, emergency plans must be put into immediate operation in order to insure protection of the dignitary.

Other corrective measures include the immediate and complete investigation of all incidents, arrest of offenders, and the preparation of cases for presentation in court.

GOVERNOR SECURITY

Protective security for governors is not a new innovation. One state has provided security for its governor for forty-six years while at the other extreme there are presently two states which provide no protection for the governor. The nature and type of protective security varies a great deal as indicated by the following resume of present security programs.

The data furnished below is based upon replies from the initial letters from forty-nine of the states and questionnaires returned by twenty-seven of the states.

Agency providing security. Governor security in the United States is provided, in the main, by the State Police or State Highway Patrol. This is the case in forty-one of the states. In three instances, protective security is furnished by a combination of two agencies, the State Police and a Capitol Police or similar type agency. In one other state there is a similar combination, but the two agencies are the National Guard and a State Criminal Investigation Unit. In one additional state, sole security is provided by a State Criminal Investigation Unit. In contrast to the state agencies which provide security in the majority of the states, there is one state in which protective security is provided by a city police department.

Protective security. Within the states, a tremendous variety is seen in the type and extent of security furnished the governors. Nineteen of the states provide security around the clock and it is generally felt by security experts that continuous security is a prerequisite for a security program. Six of the states do not meet this standard, but do provide security during certain portions of each day. Twelve of the state law enforcement agencies only furnish security when there appears to be a specific need for it or only when a request is made by the governor's office. Ten of the states limit services to providing a chauffeur or a personal aide for the governor. Driving is their primary duty and security is either secondary or not considered a part of the duties of the chauffeur or aide.

All but eight of the governors have a chauffeur and in thirty-seven instances the chauffeur is a law enforcement officer. In two other states the driver is a civilian, while in one state the chauffeur is a member of the National Guard. One state has an unusual type of chauffeur inasmuch as he is a prisoner.

The twenty-seven agencies which responded to the questionnaire indicated that sixteen governors received protection during all their travels within the state and eleven responded that they occasionally provided security when the governor traveled.

When the governors travel outside the state, protection is provided by fifteen agencies and twelve agencies indicated they provided security out of state if it was requested by the governors or if it appeared to be necessary.

Twenty-five governors are furnished security at their offices and this number is reduced to nineteen who have protective security at the state mansion or their residence.

Another important aspect of protective security is to provide security for members of the governor's immediate family. In fifteen states, protection is provided for the family and in eight additional states, security is furnished upon request. In three other states, family security is provided occasionally.

Protective security legislation. Respondents to the questionnaire reflected the fact that few states have any type of legislation which requires the providing of mandatory security for governors. At the present time there are only three states which have such legislation. Statutory provisions for these states were passed in 1917, 1939 and 1941, and it is interesting to note that two of these states are requesting additional legislation.
Security training. Training in this specialized area of law enforcement is a necessity, because of its numerous unique characteristics. The type of training is best illustrated by indicating what is not provided for in the various training programs. Eight of the responding agencies do not have any provisions for specialized training. There are eight other states which provide no training in abnormal psychology. Four states do not include the subject of security principles in their training program. An additional five states make no provisions for periodic marksmanship training or self-defense training.

Physical security devices. Electronic or mechanical devices can be used to excellent advantage in protective security programs. At the present time, there is limited use of such devices in governor security programs. Only three states use any type of electronic device to supplement physical security of the governor's mansion or residence. When considering the problem of fluoroscop ing packages addressed to the governor, only one state acknowledged that they had such a program and then it is limited to only packages which appear suspicious.

Security incidents in 1963. Some fifteen states furnished data on the number of security incidents which occurred during 1963. The other agencies participating in the survey stated the information was not available or was of a confidential nature. During 1963 there were fourteen oral threats made against the governors and some fifty-nine individuals were made the subject of a police investigation because of their actions when they attempted to see or reach the governor. Of the latter number, eleven individuals were committed to a mental institution because they were dangerous to themselves or others.

Many security problems come to the attention of a security agent because of letters addressed to a dignitary. This is also true of governors as the respondents indicated that during 1963 they were the recipients of 1,386 anonymous letters. In addition, the governors received sixty-two letters which contained threats and eighty-six letters which were obscene. Fifteen additional letters, which could not be classified in the above two groups, contained statements which required an investigation.

SECURITY TENSION INDEX

Protective security for governors of the numerous states presents a syndrome which is complex and extremely varied. In the United States, there is no clear cut pattern of governor security, in terms of size of security unit, extent of security protection when traveling, use of electronic security devices, training of security personnel, or protection for the governor's family.

Answering the questions: When should a governor be provided protective security?—If security is needed, to what extent?—proves to be a difficult task. It would be highly desirable to develop a security tension index, which would provide an answer to the above questions.

It is not the purpose of this paper to develop a comprehensive security tension index, but to discuss and analyze some of the factors which might be included in such an index.

Population. The factor of population has some relevance to a security tension index, as reflected by the statistics obtained in this survey. States with populations greater than 1,000,000 have a security problem which is certainly more critical than states with a lesser population. Above the state population of 1,000,000 there is no clear cut point at which governor security seems to present a greater need for a positive security program. States with a population greater than 1,000,000 should make a careful appraisal of their governor security program to see if it is adequate.

Urbanization. The factor of urbanization is one which modifies the factor of population, discussed above. Here we are primarily concerned with the trend toward urbanization within the United States. Urbanization is normally followed by increased population density and some of its other manifestations are termed social problems. These social problems, which accompany urban expansion, are such things as crime, disease, insanity, vice and suicide. Many of these social problems become security problems dictating a need for protective security.

Composition of population. An additional factor to be considered is the general composition of the population. In the United States, this may or may not be a critical factor, depending upon the homogeneity of the population. The percentage of nonwhite population in the states ranges from a high of sixty-eight per cent to a low of two tenths of one per cent. The states which responded to the questionnaire present a varied picture with sixty-six per cent having a nonwhite population greater than four per cent and twenty-six per cent with a nonwhite population greater than sixteen per cent.

Composition of population is of primary concern because of the social problems which are generated in our dynamic society by a heterogeneous population. Although no conclusive evidence can be presented from the limited survey to support the absolute necessity of including composition of population in a security tension index, it can be partially supported by pointing out that in the four states where there has been an attempted assassination of a governor, there were three states which had a nonwhite population greater than nine per cent.

Public exposure. A governor who travels extensively within his own state as well as throughout the country, greatly increases his exposure to the public. If his activities also include numerous speeches, political dinners, dedications and similar functions, his exposure is further increased. Most politicians who achieve the position of governor have a desire to maintain maximum public exposure and as a consequence, the greater the public exposure, the greater the opportunity for security.

Crime index. The amount of crime is one factor which incidents to occur.
gives some indication of the degree of social disorganization within our society; the general thesis being— the greater the social disorganization, the greater the possibility of security hazards. Crime is becoming a greater problem each year, as illustrated by the fact that since 1955, crime has been increasing five times faster than our population growth. The index of crime consists of seven important offenses which are known to law enforcement agencies, and are as follows: murder and non-negligent manslaughter, forcible rape, robbery, aggravated assault, burglary—breaking or entering, larceny $50.00 and over, and auto theft.19

In the group of four states where there has been attempted assassinations of governors, there are three states in which the crime index was greater than the national average of serious offenses per 100,000 inhabitants. Security hazards. The number and type of known security hazards represent the primary factor being used today to measure the need for a security program. The security tension index factor, of security hazards, should include the following items: oral threats made against the governor, individuals who called at the governor's office or residence, who were the subject of a police investigation; subjects who, because of police investigations, were committed to a mental institution for observation; letters addressed to the governor, which were obscene, threatening, writer indicated suicide, anonymous letters and other letters which required investigations.

Each of the six factors discussed above, illustrate the difficulty of developing a security tension index which would clearly indicate the point at which a security program should be instituted, or additional points where the security program should be intensified. These factors, although mostly subjective in nature, will at least provide a departure point for a more comprehensive consideration of protective security programs.

CONCLUSION

An evaluation of the data obtained from the survey and an appraisal of the present governor security programs, in terms of the principles of security set forth in this paper, clearly illustrate the complexities involved in research in this area.

Governor security in the United States exhibits almost as much variety as the number of states. Indications are that a definite need exists for better security programs in many of our states. It is unfortunate that our society seems to need some type of crisis, such as an assassination, before we submit to any type of change. Regarding protective security for governors, it would be a great misfortune if we wait until there is an attempted or successful assassination before a careful appraisal is made of each security program.

A number of things are apparent from this study. First, there are four states which have a combination of two agencies providing security, and adequate security for governors requires that one agency must have complete responsibility for providing protective security for the governor. Divided responsibility creates an impossible situation in terms of providing adequate security. In the event there are capitol guards, mansion guards, or civilian chauffeurs engaged in security functions, they should be placed under the direct supervision of the responsible security agency.

At the present time only thirty-eight per cent of the governors are the recipients of constant security, and states which provide protective security for only part of each day should extend their security so as to provide around the clock security. When security is less than continuous, an opportunity is provided for the breaching of security during the time protection is not provided.

Similar consideration should be given to the problems that arise when the governor travels, inasmuch as some forty-one per cent of the governors do not receive continuous protection when traveling in the state and only fifty-five per cent are provided security when traveling outside the state. Only continuous security will eliminate the prevailing security hazards that arise on all trips, within and outside the state.

Family security presents a similar problem and in view of the fact that only thirty per cent of the states provide such security, a careful study should be made of this problem in each state.

Only three states have mandatory security legislation and if the appraisal of security hazards indicate the need for protective security, legislation should be passed which sets forth the agency to be responsible and the functions to be performed. Legislation will not automatically insure a better protective program, but it should provide a basis for the development of such a program.

Twenty-nine per cent of the states do not have any type of security training, and there is a definite need for the development of specialized training for security personnel, with greater emphasis on an analysis of security problems, and abnormal psychology.

Limited use is made of physical security devices, with only three states presently using such devices. Recent advances in the field of electronic and mechanical security devices will place in the hands of security personnel, items which can be of tremendous assistance to security programs and greater use should be made of these devices by security agencies.

The data obtained by this survey on actual security hazards reported by governor security agencies for the year 1963 was so inconsistent that few conclusion can be drawn from the study.

Evaluation of these incidents must be limited to the following observations. First, states with a population less than 1,000,000 have a security problem which is less critical than states with a larger population.

Secondly, the factors of composition of population, and crime index as related to security hazards, present such a varied pattern in the several states that no con-
VIOLENCE AND VICTIMS

Concern for the growing incidence of destructive violence in American life led a group of New York businessmen to ask what academic resources might be brought to bear on the national problem. An exploratory conference on violence was held at Brandeis University in December 1964. "It was generally agreed that a major resource for reducing and eliminating many of the tensions in our society that lead to violence lay in the improved functioning of the economic order. It was felt that employment was one of the most powerful means to integrate individuals and groups into full participation in and acceptance of the roles and norms of the social order. With jobs every problem becomes more easy to solution."


A second conference on violence was held in April 1965. The conference devoted little time to mere descriptions of violent behavior. The chief concern throughout was with underlying economic, social and political factors which make violence inevitable. A third conference in July 1965 was concerned with reporting of violence.


7. Andrew Tully, TREASURY AGENT, p. 312.
8. Ibid., p. 313.
10. Ibid.
11. Ibid., p. 130.
15. Ibid.

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ACROSS THE DESK

By Dorothy C. Tempkins

Compensation by the state to the victims of violent crimes was approved in New Zealand in 1963, in Great Britain in 1964, and in California in 1965. Such a plan has been proposed to the Texas Association of Plaintiffs' Attorneys (Congressional Record, July 17, 1964: 16318-192), in the James Madison Lecture at New York University School of Law (Congressional Record, March 17, 1964: 383-387), and to the United State Senate (Congressional Record, June 17, 1965: 13533-36).

In May 1959, the Los Angeles Mayor's Committee on Intergroup Relations forewarned against the very thing that happened at Watts in August, 1965. The Committee's recommendations were included in the report of the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights on its hearings in Los Angeles in January, 1960.

(Uversity of Santa Clara, School of Business, [Watts Riot], In its Economic Letter, October, 1965. Reprinted: Congressional Record, October 6, 1965: A5617-18.)

MALLORY RULE

Should law enforcement agencies be given more freedom in the investigation and prosecution of crime? The Congressional Digest for October 1965 (44:255-56) was devoted to a discussion of whether Congress should modify the Mallory Rule of procedure in criminal cases.

The Mallory Rule would be modified by a bill (H.R.
5688) approved by the U.S. Senate. The police of the District of Columbia would be permitted to interrogate suspects for three hours before bringing them before a magistrate.

(Congressional Record, August 30, 1965: 21429-30, 21432-49; August 31, 1965: 21462-73.)

UNITED NATIONS CONGRESS

The third United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and Treatment of Offenders was held in Stockholm, August 9-18, 1965. The last three topics on the Congress agenda were measures to combat recidivism, probation and other noninstitutional measures, and social prevention and treatment measures for young adults. Participants from the United States prepared a statement on new and promising measures found in the United States with reference to these agenda topics.


COUNSEL FOR PAROLEES

A decision that an indigent parolee is not necessarily entitled to appointed counsel at hearings to consider the revocation of his parole was reaffirmed by the three-judge U.S. Court of Appeals for the Fourth Circuit, November 4, 1984. The Court’s opinion in Jones v. Rivers cited the opinion in a similar case (Hyser v. Reed, 1963) to the effect that a parole hearing does not assume the importance or formality of a criminal trial, since parole is only a state of “grace” afforded a convicted prisoner.

(American Civil Liberties Union, Weekly Bulletin [2223]: 1, February 1, 1965.)

POST CONVICTIO REVIEW

A new law in Ohio (S.B. 383), approved as an emergency measure on July 20, 1965, provides for post conviction review of the proceedings which resulted in the petitioner being in a penal institution of the state. The review is had, if it is had, in the court that sentenced the individual and where the files, records and witnesses are most readily available.

(Ohio Courts [Ohio Supreme Court, Office of the Administrative Assistant] 10: 1, July, 1965.)

WASHINGTON DEPARTMENTAL RE-ORGANIZATION

The Council for Reorganization of Washington State Government has recommended several changes in the Board of Prison Terms and Paroles and the Department of Institutions—reorganize the Parole Board leaving it an autonomous operation and merge the Board and all its operations into a new state department of correctional services; and reorganize the Department of Institutions into two separate operating departments and incorporate other state departments and agencies with similar functions into the new organization structures.

(Council for Reorganization of Washington State Government,

WORK FURLough PROGRAM

The work furlough program of Los Angeles County began operating on July 6, 1964 (Ordinance no. 8619), as a six-month pilot project, limited to sixty male offenders at one time. Reimbursement to the County by work furlough inmates was set at $4 per day worked. The Board also established a revolving fund ($3,000) for loans to work furloughes. At the conclusion of the six-month pilot period, the Board of Supervisors extended the program for an additional six months.

The work furlough program had an intake of 189 offenders during its first year of operation: the furloughers came primarily from the Municipal Courts, with sentences averaging 92 days, for drunk driving, failure to provide, suspended driving licenses, and petty thefts. They were predominantly Caucasian, married and with two children, and were of an average age of 33. Most were employed in unskilled or semi-skilled jobs; most had records of several misdemeanor offenses, with prior probation and jail records.

During the second six months of the program, the furloughers earned a total of $81,600, an average of $352 per month. The County was reimbursed for custodial costs ($21,979) and $47,110 was paid to dependents. The program operated at a net savings to the County of $31,925. (This is the difference between the $62,030 that would have been expended on straight jail terms and the $90,425 net cost resulting when custody reimbursement and welfare savings were subtracted from Sheriff’s and Probation Department costs.)

(Los Angeles County, California. Probation Department, Research Office. The Work Furlough Program: Evaluation of the First Year of Operation; by Sidney Wachs and Stuart Adams. 16 p. [process] Los Angeles, August, 1965.)

FAMILY THERAPY

“Antisocial behavior . . . can have its roots in a defective family system. For the past five years the Wiltwick School for Boys (New York State) has been making an intensive study of socially and culturally disadvantaged families with more than one acting-out child. By reaching the many elements of the nurturing, guiding, and controlling transactions in the family” the School found “that a shift in the parent-child equilibrium can be effected. The result of this shift has been a reduction in the incidence of antisocial behavior.”


LAW ENFORCEMENT COSTS

In Colorado, recent judicial decisions have removed many offenses from municipal court jurisdiction and certain procedural changes brought about by the Court Reform Act have made it necessary for local police officers to spend more time in state courts. By resolution,
the Colorado Municipal League proposed that misdemeanor offenses occurring within a municipality should be regulated by local ordinance and that municipal courts should have concurrent jurisdiction with state courts over such matters. In addition, the League proposed that fines imposed and collected by state courts for misdemeanor offenses committed within municipalities should be paid to the respective municipalities thus providing some financial relief to municipalities for the cost of providing state law enforcement.
(Colorado Municipalities 41: 181, July, 1965.)

**DETOUR CRIME PROBLEM**

During the summer 1965, public attention was centered on the Detroit Police Department and the problem of law and order in the community. "Much of the concern had been generated by the current political campaign." The Citizens Committee for Equal Opportunity found the community concern to be disturbing for two reasons: the current discussion about the police and crime in Detroit was "characterized by an appalling disregard for the facts" and the issues in the discussion were "being chosen by the voices of extremists in both the white and Negro community to the extent that it was becoming increasingly difficult for responsible citizens of both races to speak on this matter."

**LOAN SHARK RACKET**

"The organized criminal underworld, its agents and others unscrupulous operators are conducting a vast and highly lucrative usurious money lending business" in New York State. "This element charges unconscionable rate of interest of 209% per year and in some cases 2000% per year, and enforces its obligations by fear, threats and violence." This was revealed at public hearings held by the New York State investigations Commission during December 1964.

A recommendation of the Commission calls for the enactment of a new section of the Penal Law defining the charging of more than 25% a year interest on a loan as criminal usury, a felony.

**CRIME COMMISSIONS**

In the last century, over one hundred crime commissions, public and private, have existed in the United States—most of which are no longer active. New York alone had seventeen groups operating, mostly in New York City.

The United States President has created two crime commissions for which $1.5 million has been authorized (Pub.L. 89-190). The Commission on Crime in the District of Columbia (ex. 11234) will study causes of crime and delinquency, the adequacy of law enforcement, the correction of offenders (particularly first offenders), the effectiveness of criminal law, and the relationships between police and the citizen and between police and agencies providing welfare services. The Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice (ex. 11236) will inquire into the causes of crime and delinquency, measures for their prevention, the adequacy of law enforcement and administration of justice, and the factors encouraging respect or disrespect for law.

**SERVICES TO JUVENILE DELINQUENTS**

In its first annual report, the Maryland Advisory Council on Child Welfare considered four questions, "the answers to which are basic to the establishment in Maryland of an effective, coordinated treatment program for juveniles"—what is the proper age limit for the special jurisdiction of juvenile courts? Should the state or local government bear the financial responsibility for providing essential services to juvenile courts? How should responsibility for the operation and management of Maryland's three training schools for youthful delinquents be assigned? How can Maryland best provide adequate probation services to juvenile courts?

**PROFILE OF THE AMERICAN JUDGE**

"The typical trial judge of a court of general jurisdiction is about 54 years of age. Judges on appellate courts tend to be about five years younger and those sitting in courts of limited jurisdiction five years younger. Approximately 75% of all American judges have been graduated from college ... Only 6% have not attended college at all. Ninety-one per cent of the judges have been graduated from law schools ... While virtually all of those serving in the higher courts have practiced law, over 20% of the judges sitting in county seats and 15% of those in probate courts have never been in practice."

**SEX OFFENDER PROGRAM IN NEW JERSEY**

An inquiry into alleged irregularities and supervisory deficiencies involving sex offenders in Greystone Park State Hospital was undertaken by the Morris County Grand Jury. "We believe that many of the charges concerning conditions at Greystone Park ... have been based upon exaggerated or misleading statements, hearsay and rumor."

The inquiry revealed a significant number of problems which face the Hospital administration in operating the institution. One factor is a great shortage of person-
nel. Starting salaries and salary ranges are so restrictive that they fail to attract enough qualified and dependable help. This situation is further accentuated by the Hospital’s obligation to provide custodial care for more than 2,000 geriatric patients.

Among its recommendations, the Grand Jury proposed that a separate institution be provided for the housing and treatment of sex offenders and for further research on curative measures that a convicted sex offender undergo a more intensive initial psychiatric examination and evaluation for a period of at least thirty days; that consideration be given to the problem of geriatric patients at Greystone Park; and that a study be made to insure the adequacy of provisions for the care and custody of children in the established programs of state mental institutions.

(Morris County, N. J. Superior Court, Presentment of Grand Jury [on Greystone Park State Hospital]. 15 p. Morristown, November 22, 1965.)

ARREST RECORDS AND EMPLOYMENT
The reluctance to employ persons with arrest records presents a serious problem. Across the nation, about half of the youth in the various government-supported job training programs have been arrested at least once.

On May 13, 1965, a workshop on arrest records and youth employment was held in San Francisco under the auspices of the San Francisco Committee on Youth. Some eighty persons representing public and private employers, unions, professionals in the fields of probation, employment and social work recommended that the story of arrest records and youth employment problems should be brought to the attention of the employers on the policy level so they will determine whether to accept the social and financial responsibility of helping youth with arrest records to find employment and to take a look at what arrest records mean.

Other recommendations included—courts should seal arrest records for minor offenses after a one or two year interval instead of the five years now required, the question on the employment application, “have you been arrested?” should be changed to “have you been convicted?” and auto-pool bonding principles should be applied to employees with arrest records, thus spreading the risk to all bonding companies.


POLICE AND COURTS
Chicago’s Committee on Urban Progress has proposed a plan to make the city “a better place to live.” Its recommendations in the field of public safety call for the creation of an office of legal advisor by the Police Department to review court opinions having a bearing on police powers and to advise in special investigations and recommend evidence required and means of obtaining it. The Family Court should be strengthened, and legislation should be supported which would permit electronic eavesdropping by the police for a two-year trial period, provide for permanent registration of motor vehicles, require licensing of resale shops, make a liquor license a privilege rather than a right, and reduce the number of such licenses.

(Committee on Urban Progress, A Pattern for Greater Chicago. 26 p. Chicago, 53 W. Jackson Blvd., July 1, 1965.)

CRIME INVESTIGATING COMMISSION
The Illinois Crime Investigating Commission has been in active operation less than nineteen months. During that time, it has conducted major investigations in gambling, arsons, and alleged corruption in the General Assembly. In addition, it has conducted informational hearings on wiretapping.


REHABILITATION
The Rehabilitation Record (U.S. Vocational Rehabilitation Administration) for November-December 1965, was devoted largely to a series of articles on rehabilitation and the public offender. The articles were concerned with correctional manpower and training of professional workers, and the airplane mechanics school at Chillicothe.

HEARSAY RULE
The “hearsay rule” of the United States Supreme Court (Jones vs. United States, 362 U.S. 257 (1960) established that hearsay evidence may provide a sufficient basis for the issuance of a search warrant. This holding was conditioned only by the requirement that a “substantial basis for crediting the hearsay must be presented,” although it was not made entirely clear what constitutes a “substantial basis.” The constitutionality of the practice of issuing search warrants on the basis of information which is hearsay to the person seeking the issuance of the warrant has been examined.

(California, University, Davis. Institute of Governmental Affairs, Search Warrants, Hearsay Evidence and the Federal Constitution: a Critique Based on California Experience; by Steven R. Brodsky, 64 p. [process] California government series no. 9, December, 1965.)

SELF-REPORTING TECHNIQUE
The direct questioning of samples of adolescents about their delinquent activities is a technique that has been used with school, neighborhood, court, and institutional populations. “As the self-report technique is being more widely used in both basic research and in evaluating delinquency prevention programs, it seemed desirable to review past experiences and to consider further refinements of this relatively new approach. The Syracuse University Youth Development Center arranged a conference for this purpose, and extended invitations to a number of investigators who have employed self-report techniques in their own research.”

(Syracuse University, Youth Development Center, Development of Self-Report Instruments in Delinquency Research, a Conference Report, by Robert H. Hart and George E. Redine. 33 p. Syracuse, N. Y., 1965.)
FROM OUR READERS

Crime in Africa: A Reply to Mr. MacNamara

Alan Milner

It is basically in the interests of accuracy and justice that I feel that I must comment on Mr. MacNamara's paper, "Crime and Police Problems in Emergent Africa," which appeared in the recent issue of CRIMINOLOGICA (August and November, 1965, pp. 13-15). I am concerned that those who heard the paper delivered or read it in your pages might have been misled by its broad generalizations, as few would have had first-hand experience of the subject. I am anxious, too, that those who have worked or are still working in the fields of the administration of criminal law and corrections in Africa should be so disparaged and their efforts in the face of considerable problems so belittled.

To be completely fair, let me make clear at the outset that I cannot speak with any considerable knowledge of African states beyond those in the British commonwealth. What Mr. MacNamara has to say about the remainder of Africa may be true; but if what he says is intended to be descriptive of the situation now obtaining in the English-speaking nations of the continent, I feel qualified to challenge his generalizations.

Mr. MacNamara seems so concerned to paint such a broadly horrific picture of disorder, violence and corruption that he fails to point up the details and variations which in reality give his picture a different complexion. I do not wish to give an elaborate refutation of all the claims made—obviously a newsletter is not the place for such an exercise—but I would like to make a few points of general nature.

(1) We are only too aware that in many African countries the transition from colonial status to independence was rapid and violent. There are notorious instances of bloody campaigns for freedom and glaring examples of independence granted without adequate preparation. But it must not be assumed that colonial powers were always so foolhardy and insensitive to the forces of nationalism that they never prepared for the day when power would be handed over. Anyone familiar with the processes of "localization" which have been at work for a generation in most of the former African colonies would be in a position to recognize that authority was seldom abdicated overnight in favor of an untrained regime unaware of its responsibilities. A distinction should certainly be drawn between those which had a European settled population and those (notably in West Africa) which had not. In the former, the preparation of the African for governmental responsibility proceeded at a slower rate than in the latter—sometimes with tragic consequences, at first Kenya and now Rhodesia have shown. But the fact remains that the obtaining of independence by violence has been the exception rather than the rule.

(2) One consequence of this is that many African countries know nothing of the "chaos and confusion of post-revolutionary periods," would not recognize "the remnants of revolutionary irregulars" if they saw them, and certainly do not have "both police and prison position... now filled at the top largely by former officers of the revolutionary forces or faithful second-line political leaders." Their officer cadres in both police and prison services are filled by career men who served in both the intermediate and senior positions during the colonial regime and have since taken over full responsibility. The records of the police and prison service training schools in African countries, of Scotland Yard, many other British C.I.D. headquarters, and of the Police Service Training School at Wakefield, will show how many Africans have received both basic and advanced training in police work and correction. And in neither the "settler territories" or the others have the Europeans necessarily left these services; many career officers have remained, encouraged by the continuation of substantial pension benefits, to make the transfer of power more gradual and to enable more effective training on the job to be given to African recruits.

In the field of legal education, the last ten years have seen an incredible—and peaceful—revolution. In the 1950's the British Colonial system of legal education was still flourishing; there were no facilities at all available locally and all qualification had to be through membership of the English bar. Although West Africans had been able to take advantage of this system to a remarkable extent, in the East and Central African dependencies barely a handful of Africans were qualified. Where in Nigeria, Ghana, the Sierra Leone, the island of friends, indigenous lawyers filled many positions on the High Court benches, and figured in the ranks of magistrate, and prosecutors, in Kenya, Uganda and Nyasaland, African lawyers could be counted on the fingers of one hand. Today, there are twelve energetic and responsible law schools in English-speaking Sub-Saharan Africa, excluding South Africa. All are staffed by a mixture of Africans, Englishmen, Americans, and others, providing a range of educational facilities from customary court judges' courses to full degree programmes.

(3) In course of time, all senior court officials will be African—the products of the pre-independence British legal education or of the new post-independence African
law schools. But at the present time, it is probably true that almost half of the members of the High Courts of the African nations of the British Commonwealth are expatriates, frequently English. It is a tribute to the political wisdom of the African leaders that they have refused to accept any dilution of standards as the consequence of independence. In some cases, a constitutional requirement of ten year’s professional experience has been imposed for qualification as a judge; elsewhere, strenuous efforts have been made to persuade English judges to remain in the service of the new nations, or personnel have been sought from other African or Commonwealth countries who have been more fortunately situated. The rate of Africanization of the bench therefore varies considerably—from total localization to negligible; but everywhere the process is evident, beginning with the prosecutors and the staffs of the government law officers, and progressing upwards through the magistracy to the High Court benches.

Time and again in recent years, the judiciary of the new African nations has demonstrated that it is not subservient to the political leaders. It has always upheld the highest traditions of the English bar, through which it has hitherto qualified, and there is every reason to expect that the graduates of the new schools will have no lower sense of integrity. So strenuously and so publicly have these battles been fought, that I can only wonder at Mr. MacNamara’s sources of information when he speaks of the courts having “little power and seemingly less interest in protecting the rights of the accused,” or not being “free and powerful” enough to control the police. I think that if he had personally seen the tenacity with which the courts assert their independence and the ideals of their legal heritage, he would be less absolute in his statements.

A qualification perhaps needs to be stated for the customary courts. In all the former British territories a dual system of courts has existed or still exists: on the one hand with British-trained judges, on the other with judges whose qualification is familiarity with the customary law. The customary court will normally serve a limited local area, probably with a homogeneous tribal population, and will have jurisdiction over Africans only. In many ways it can be seen simply as the judicial branch of the municipal or other local authority. It is probably at the courts of this relatively humble level that many of the allegations of partiality are directed. But no African country is contentedly leaving a customary court system to its own devices. The criminal jurisdiction of these courts has seldom been extensive and in recent years more has been removed and transferred to trained magistrates; close scrutiny of their decisions is observed by magistrates, judges and inspectors employed by the centralized Ministry of Justice, who have extensive powers of review and transfer; in some countries, the professionalization of the higher grade customary courts is well under way; in others, on-the-job training programmes have been instituted to upgrade the court personnel. And everywhere, the pressures towards the unification of the dual system of courts are being felt.

(4) What of the prison systems? Is there “unbelievable brutality and rapacity” in the correctional services? Do prisoners receive “rigorous if not rehabilitative attention”? Is physical abuse the norm, professional medical care rare and psychiatric facilities unknown? Is the food meager and vile and sanitation sub-minimal?

The answer is, I suppose, that it all depends on where you go. I know of English and Americans prisons which would be flattered if these were the least of the things that could be said of them. What is important is that conditions and attitudes should be related to the environment in which they are found. I have found no evidence of physical brutality practised as the norm but rather the intolerance of the hasty official faced with the blank incomprehension of the illiterate rural prisoner, who does not speak the same language and is of a different tribe. I have seen no deliberate withholding of medical facilities from prisons: if medical care is in short supply in prisons it is because this is true throughout the entire community. Psychiatrists are not in fact non-existent—but in a continent which cries out for preventive medicine to protect itself the ravages of tropical diseases, it is not surprising that there should be an underproduction of psychiatrists until the more blatantly disastrous aspects of illness are coped with. There are all told less than two dozen indigenous African psychiatrists and probably about as many expatriates—again excluding South Africa which has about eighty. There are certainly not enough to deal with every forensic reference that is made to them but in most countries it is found that at least those charged with capital offences will have a psychiatric examination. If Mr. MacNamara considers the food in prison vile, this merely confirms that Africans and non-Africans have different tastes; if it is meager by his standards, he should consult the dietary charts used by the African Ministries of Health, which suggests that it is not by theirs. For an African prison to spend twenty-five cents a day on a prisoner’s food is quite normal: he will often be able to keep his family on three dollars a week when he is employed in the outside community.

(5) I do not want anyone to think that I am suggesting that the enforcement of criminal law and the operation of correctional systems are without their problems. Mr. MacNamara has correctly focussed on some of them. I know of no country in which the lower levels of the police and prison services are filled “largely by illiterate (an unfortunate typographical error) ill-trained personnel recruited haphazardly from the populace”; but I know of many in which their standard of recruitment is regrettably low and the training programmes not sufficiently demanding to weed out the unsatisfactory. There is a constant pressing need, too, for better development of the social welfare services in urban areas: in traditional communities, the extended family itself acts as an effective social welfare agency
for its members—but its efficiency is reduced as its power disintegrates under the stresses of urban life. Probation was introduced as a name more than twenty years ago but a number of countries have today little to offer in the way of implementation of the name. The clarification of the goals of penal action—so badly needed in the western community—is needed in Africa too. As Mr. MacNamara rightly suggests, little serious work has been done in the evaluation of penal sanctions and it is a constant source of concern that the sanctions now in use—based on Western European traditions and conceptions—may not be wholly attuned to African cultural situations. Imprisonment is frequently seen as useless; constructive programmes for children are often subordinated to the widespread use of corporal punishment; and non-institutional methods of dealing with offenders have been slow to develop. Exceptions should perhaps be made here for the few extra-mural labour schemes in operation and for the several instances of open prison farms that are to be found. It is difficult to believe, too, that much serious criminological thought has been given to the three most publicized measures taken by independent African governments in the penal sphere—the introduction of minimum sentences in Tanzania, the closing of fifty-three prisons in Algeria, and the sanctioning of public executions in Malawi.

(6) African governments are not totally unaware of their social problems nor notoriously unprepared to tackle them. If they appear at a distance to be slow to alleviate the hardships which undoubtedly exist, it is perhaps not because they actively support them but that social welfare improvement often figures after economic development in the country’s scale of priorities. What is needed, to repeat the gist of Mr. MacNamara’s last two paragraphs, is not detached condemnation but a willingness on the part of those who have the relevant skills to become personally involved in preparing the groundwork for further progress in understanding and counteracting criminal behaviour.

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A Reply To:  
"A Reply to Mr. MacNamara"

CRIMINOLOGICA establishes an excellent precedent in opening its columns to dissenting opinions—and we are fortunate indeed that the first rebuttal to be published comes from so knowledgeable and experienced an observer as Dr. Alan Milner, editor of a forthcoming volume on African Penal Systems and sometime Dean of the Law School at Ahmadu Bello University in Northern Nigeria. Dr. Milner’s comments are both informative and interesting, particularly his material on the education of lawyers in post-independence Africa. I enjoyed his letter so much that despite the Anglophobia carefully nurtured in the Irish rebel family into which I was born I will forgive him his self-appointed role as “devil’s advocate” for British colonial rule on the Dark Continent.

One expects a dissent to be a refutation; but Dr. Milner and I are in apparent agreement on the facts—our disagreement being limited to interpretation, evaluation, and the conclusions to be drawn. Let us examine side by side some Milner-MacNamara statements:

Milner: “I am concerned that those who heard the paper delivered or read it in your pages might have been misled by its broad generalizations . . . I feel qualified to challenge his generalizations.”

MacNamara: “Generalizations about a continent so large and so varied and at least at present so combustible as Africa are likely to be as inaccurate as they are perilous.”

Milner: “I know of English and American prisons which would be flattered if these (“unbelievable brutality,” “rigorous if not rehabilitative attention,” “physical abuse the norm, professional medical care rare and psychiatric facilities unknown,” “food meager and vile,” “sanitation sub-minimal”) were the least of the things that could be said of them.”

MacNamara: “I shall neither make nor imply any invidious comparisons with either the so-called civilized nations of the West, the older sovereignties of Africa, or the colonial dependencies from which these new nations have sprung. It has taken generations and centuries for even our own country to achieve a level of crime control, criminal justice administration, correctional and police organization and functioning, which, while not as inadequate as its detractors would rate it in many areas, has certainly little claim to perfection.”

Milner: “I know of many (African police and prison systems) in which their standard of recruitment is regrettably low and the training programmes not sufficiently demanding to weed out the unsatisfactory.”

MacNamara: “. . . the police and prison positions are now filled . . . at the lower levels largely by illiterate, ill-trained personnel . . .”

Donal E. J. MacNamara

Milner: “Probation was introduced as a name more than twenty years ago but a number of countries have today little to offer in the way of implementation of the name.”

MacNamara: “There has been interest expressed . . . by Ghana and several other countries in . . . probation and parole. But my feeling is that the interest focused apparently more on the problem of relieving prison overcrowding rather than as an indication of interest in the convicts’ readjustment or rehabilitation.”

Milner: “. . . constructive programmes for children are often subordinated to the widespread use of corporal punishment . . .”

MacNamara: “. . . physical abuse is accepted as the norm . . .”

No useful purpose would be served in pairing some ten or more similar statements from my article with almost identical admissions against interest in Dr. Milner’s letter. What does surprise me is his failure to respond to my assessment of crime conditions in the emergent countries, my questioning of their adherence to the principles of democracy (W. Arthur Lewis in the Whidden Lectures this year pointed out that ten of the twelve new West African states have already established one-party regimes), my condemnation of the exaggerated emphasis on internal security, my cataloguing of intertribal disputes, border problems, and government inefficiency, and the impact which these negative internal situations are having and will have not only on the legitimate aspirations of the native populations but, through the thirty or more votes registered by these newly emergent nations in the General Assembly of the United Nations, on the United States and on the world.

I have lived in Africa, worked in Africa, wrote my post-graduate thesis on police in Africa, have trained scores of high-ranking African police and correctional officers (colossal and native), am in continual contact with Africans of all walks of life, and was, years before it became popular, a supporter of African freedom. I stand four-square on “Crime and Police Problems in Emergent Africa” as it was delivered before the criminology section of the American Sociological Association and reprinted in CRIMINOLOGICA.

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A Note on the Relationship of the American Society of Criminology to Certain So-Called Criminological Associations

A matter of some concern to members of the American Society of Criminology and to all persons who may be considering possible membership is the organization, program and professional status of societies whose names suggest that their major interest is advancing the field of Criminology. Attention was given to this at the Annual Business Meeting of the ASC at Berkeley in December, 1965. Special mention was made of an organization called the American Association of Criminology because its similarity of name to that of the American Society of Criminology has caused confusion in some quarters.

The American Association of Criminology was incorporated as a non-profit association in Massachusetts in 1955, with Loreen M. Laitinen as President, and Wayne Laitinen as Secretary-Treasurer. The letterhead of the organization distributed at the meetings of the International Society of Criminology at Montreal in August-September, 1965, listed L. P. Rothschild, A., M.D., Ph.D., Rothschild Clinical Institute, Caracas, Venezuela as President, and Professor Emer. G. Sakellariou, Ph.D., University of Athens, Greece, as Vice-President. Letters sent to these officers at these places in September and October have been returned by the postal authorities for want of sufficient addresses. Recently, it was learned that Professor Sakellariou had died several years ago.

The Secretary-Treasurer of the American Association of Criminology reports that he assumed responsibility for developing the Constitution of the Association and that he appoints the officers and chairmen of Committees. Annual meetings have been limited to the formalities required by law, and there have been no congresses for the reading of papers and the exchange of professional information. There are apparently no members of committees other than the appointed chairmen, no committee meetings and no committee reports made to members.

A brochure, distributed at the ICS meetings in Montreal in August-September, 1965, is titled, "The American Associations of Criminology, their Objectives, Present Activities, Services and Achievements." Among the "all inclusive dimensions of the American Association of Criminology" was listed the American Academy of Registered Criminologists. Its principal aim was stated as the registration of members' credentials for the purposes of future reference and employment record. "Members of the AAC who designate themselves as criminologists are eligible to register as Fellows of the AARC and subsequently use the title, Registered Criminologist." The annual dues for Fellows is $10 and there was an initial fee of $25 for those registering as criminologists. More recently, however, the Secretary-Treasurer has stated in writing, under date of December 21, 1965, that "this aspect of our Association henceforth ceases to exist and that we relinquish all rights to its United States Trade Mark."

No formal vote or action was taken by the Business Meeting of the American Society of Criminology with reference to the AAC or other criminological societies, but it appeared to be the consensus that the AAC does not meet the normal minimum expectations of a professional society in terms of its organization, procedures and program and that it cannot be recognized as a professional society by the American Society of Criminology. It was further emphasized that professional workers in Criminology should examine with some care the characteristics of criminological organizations they are asked to join or to sponsor and that particular responsibility to do so rests upon those whose names are likely to be accepted by rank and file workers as an assurance of a society's good professional standing.
The Civil Litigation of R. F. Stroud, And Some Observations About Release of Prison Literature

The purpose of this writing is to place in expanded context a judicial and correctional problem: that of defining the conditions under which the creative and analytical writings of inmates can be released to a changing society.

This is a strange area. Like other parts of corrections, the problem is multidisciplinary. It ranges from the rich mines of prison literature through impenetrable thickets of administrative law, into questions of an almost farcical kind, such as the idea that since the prison furnishes the paper upon which a prisoner's opus is written, it cannot be released without payment for the paper. Or whether, if a prohibited manuscript is smuggled out, the warden can institute proceedings to recover it.

The importance of inmate production may appear small in contrast to major correctional problems, such as custodial structure, work release, sentencing procedures, training and the like. Then a reversal occurs, and in the long view we wonder as various names flash through the mind: Mahatma Chandi, Paul Bunyan, Djilas, Hitler, Oscar Wilde, Martin Dies, Benjamin Davis, Dostoevski, Chessman, Valachi, Stroud, and omissions you will add, works still buried and works now
being written.

Some of the more general questions are these:
What is the relationship of society to the products of the minds of inmates incarcerated by that society? Does society have a "stake" in the creative products of the prisoners which it supports? If so, who shall control, censor, evaluate, or judge such productions? Are the institutional needs, goals and social perspectives of custodial hierarchies congruent with those of society? If they are discrepant, to what extent are they discrepant and who shall measure such discrepancy?

What are the "rights" of a felon who is "civilly dead"? Is access to court in adversary proceedings sufficient protection for the individual in prison? To what extent is the regeneration of an inmate a function of communication and creativity? What is the line between custody and rehabilitation as it applies to inmate production and communication in creative areas?

According to Paul Tappan:
"As we look to the legal rights of prisoners in the United States, we wind in vivid contrast to the substantive law of crimes and to the law of evidence and procedure, that there are broad penumbras of vague legal specifications and areas of deep shade where the law is wholly silent. Rights of citizenship and of person and property attaching to the criminal have not been clearly defined by Constitution or statute."

In 1950, the late Robert F. Stroud, at that time an inmate of Alcatraz Federal prison, filed petition for a writ of certiorari of 76 printed pages, composed by himself without attorney, which introduced the following questions among others:

Does a citizen of the U.S., even though incarcerated in a penitentiary, retain property rights that his keepers are legally bound to respect? Are the courts of the U.S. vested with authority to protect the property rights of Federal prisoners?

Does an inmate of Alcatraz have a right to prosecute a civil action in propria persona in the event of a showing?

This document cited 55 points and authorities, made exhaustive references to administrative statutes and Federal Bureau of Prison rules, and based its case upon Amendments 5 and 14. It was concerned, not with the plaintiff's release, but with the release of his prison writings, and sought a clarification:

Therefore, this court should issue a writ of certiorari and review the whole record and determine the rights of the parties so that prisoners and prison officials as well as the lower courts and the bar in general may have a clear guide to rights of prison inmates and the legal limitations of agents of the Federal Bureau of Prisons, and so doth petitioner forever pray.

This appeal was carried to the U.S. Supreme Court, which in refusing a review, sustained the decision of the lower courts to deny the motion and to dismiss the petition.

In November of 1961, after his transfer from Alcatraz to the Federal Prison in Springfield, Missouri, Stroud prepared on his own behalf a motion for a restraining order which he filed in the Missouri Federal District Court. Judge William H. Becker ordered a hearing. Stroud's attorney, Stanley A. Furman, took over the litigation at the prisoner's request, together with Richard A. English. The judge instructed the attorneys to file a Supplemental Complaint which questioned the legality of the regulations of the Federal Bureau of Prisons regarding creative works, and the desirability of such regulations in an enlightened penological system.

The Court ordered a copy made of Robert Stroud's entire corpus of works at issue—six hand printed volumes of penologica, Federal prison history, autobiographical narrative, and recommendations for rehabilitative change—approximately a million words. This material was placed under court seal as an exhibit.
This complex civil litigation, resisted every step of the way by the Attorney General's Office as defendant, wore on into 1963. The plaintiffs had secured court permission to submit a brief on the legality of the Prison Bureau's regulation of inmate manuscripts using solely the general language of Sections 4001 and 4042 of Title 18 of the U.S. Code.

On November 21, 1963, Stroud died. This abated the proceedings, and required a new action by Stroud's estate. Shortly before Stroud died, Attorney Furer with my help had prepared a brief titled "Suggestions for the Establishment of Criteria and Procedures for Release of Creative Works of Federal Prisoners." This was never submitted, but a copy was sent to Professor James Voreburg, Director of the Office of Criminal Justice, as a public service.

After further litigation, including a Motion to Intervene by Charles D. Martin, Missouri administrator of Stroud's estate, Judge Becker ordered that a hearing be held on December 17, 1965, on Administrator Martin's motion to intervene, in effect to secure for a court order releasing the Stroud manuscripts forthwith.

On December 10, 1965, F. Russell Millin, U.S. Attorney for the Western District of Missouri, responded by "consenting" with the approval of the U.S. Attorney General, to the release of the Stroud manuscripts. By thus yielding before a formal court order was made, the matter became moot. This may be as close as a litigating inmate, although he died before it happened, has ever come to a legal determination of the rights of inmates to their manuscripts as properties.

This brief extract of one prisoner's attempt to secure a definition of a legal problem of crucial importance in the field today, bleached of emotion, characterization or human meaning, may assist in answering the question of whether access to the Courts in adversary proceedings by individual inmates is a sufficient agent of change when confronted by executive hierarchies mobilized in defense of their rules.

In further expansion of the problem of inmate writings, and by way of contrast, the Valachi case is cited as a recent instructive example. Federal inmate Joseph M. Valachi, who is incarcerated under special conditions for his own protection at a cost of $3,000 a month, has written his life story in 1180 pages at the suggestion of the Department of Justice. The Department has cleared his manuscript for publication, helped him secure a magazine writer to edit his work, and has notified twelve potential publishers of the availability of his work.

The announced purpose of such clearance, according to Jack Rosenthal, information director for the Justice Department, was "that Valachi's writings would bring out intelligence information beyond what he had recounted in interviews; that Valachi did not undertake writing the book for personal or selfish reasons, but at the instance of the Department." Nothing was mentioned in the announcement about who would receive the book's earnings, or how.

It is unnecessary to cite further examples to recognize the emergence of an important pattern. No standards have ever been established for the approval or disapproval of prison prepared manuscripts in the Federal system. None of the operational rules under which judgment as to the quality and value of any manuscript by employees of the Department of Justice is arbitrarily made, has ever withstood an ultimate test in the courts. The pursuit of such a test under current circumstances by any inmate is an impracticable proceeding of limited use to society in meeting social change.

This situation, which has governed the Federal prison system since the formation of the Bureau in 1929, is aggravated by a structural anachronism without precedent in an evolving democratic society: the continuing existence of the Bureau of Prisons within and under the hierarchy of the Department of Justice, instead of under a cabinet office appropriate to the correctional function.

It seems evident that some force outside the prison administration itself should be used to protect the rights of prisoners in their writings. Since the Federal courts represent society's check against executive power, they may be the means to provide, through judicial agents, society's stake in the creative dimensions of prisoners. It is suggested that a trained representative of a Federal court be charged with specific functions designed to safeguard the creative and reformative products of prisoners' minds, and the disposition of these products in every Federal prison. In this sense, the need is to produce an equilibrium between the needs of prisoners and those of society on the one hand (referring to creative products only), and the requirements of prison administration on the other. If it can be construed that society does have a stake in the creative products of the prisoners which it supports, then the logical repository of that function would be the judiciary. This would render unto the institution which is the institution's, to the society that which belongs to society, and to the prisoner those creative rights and functions which remain to him.

REFERENCES
2. Stroud vs. Swope, 12305, Petition and Brief.

Dr. Thomas E. Caldwell is a consultant in the Division of Continuing Education, Oregon State System of Higher Education. His earlier study of R. H. Stroud has attracted international interest. Address 8026 S. E. 29 Avenue, Portland, Oregon.
DUVAL, Roch. Adolescence d'Aujourd'hui. Les Presses de L'Universite Laval, Quebec, Canada.

As an emerging center of interest in all advanced societies. While all societies experience difficulty with physiological puberty, it is only the advanced societies that are concerned with the cultural phenomenon of adolescence. In Adolescence d’Aujourd’hui, Roch Duval reviews some of the literature on adolescence and reflects on the problem in an effort to develop a coherent and meaningful framework within which adolescence can be understood.

Written in two parts, Roch Duval uses one-hundred-and-fifty-six pages to develop the understanding of adolescence and thirty-two pages to discuss the practical applications of that knowledge in education. Considerable reliance on literature is present, but it is with fiction and stories, rather than with psychological or developmental literature. The movie story, The New Aristocrats (Les Nouveaux Aristocrates), written in 1960 by Michel de Saint Pierre, contributes much to the thinking of the author. In the story, Denis contemplated suicide because of serious adolescent conflicts. Long quotations from Denis and his lines indicate a turbulent personality in which the individual and self are affirmed in the struggle within himself. The isolated adolescent and his relationship with adult authority are characterized by need for support, tenacity, and testing. In this same story is a Priest who works with adolescents. Father Philippe de Maudun helps Denis to gain his identity and to work through antagonistic attitudes towards teachers. Father de Maudun is used as a prime example of how instruction can be accomplished with today’s adolescents.

A study in Belgium by R. P. Dolez of two thousand adolescents indicated that adolescents were utilitarian, exploitative, and needed moral education. This general tone permeates the book. Adolescent adaptation is chaotic from the adult view. Rather than accepting the adult world, the adolescent wants to re-shape it. At the same time, the adolescent does not understand long-range values and the need for conformity.

The use of psychological principles in the teaching of adolescents must be instituted in all colleges with a functional approach. Scholarship is not consistent with the adolescent turbulence, so teachers must take responsibility for motivation. Adolescents have many methods of adaptation, but their primary problem is to find their own identities. They may become arch conformists if their efforts are successful and spontaneous. Others rebel and become nonconformists and beatniks in various ways. Teaching of adolescents is most difficult and necessitates work and patience.

This volume was written in French in French Que-

bec, but it would just as well have been written in French in Belgium or France. The continental viewpoint toward adolescence is expressed well. The European influence in thinking is predominant. No American writer is referred to or included in the footnotes. Typically European, the emphasis is on “moral education,” in contrast to the American development and clinical approaches to adolescence. Roch Duval: Adolescence d’Aujourd’hui provides a most precise and lucid formulation of the continental viewpoint toward the development and education of today’s adolescents. Because the continental view prevails in Quebec, Latin America, and among many sub-cultures within the United States, an understanding of the view is important to teachers and clinicians who work with adolescents whose parents hold the continental view. For this specific reason, as well as for general cultural background, this reviewer recommends Roch Duval: Adolescence d’Aujourd’hui.

Vernon Fox
Florida State University


In the preface to this work, the author indicates that this is a textbook designed primarily for one-semester courses in criminology and/or for the in-service training of agency personnel involved in applied criminology. He goes on to state, “A textbook constitutes a review of the work of many scholars. A major function of a textbook is to lend ultimate significance to this work by fitting the individual conclusions together into a meaningful whole appropriate for understanding by non-specialists . . . The reader is able to orient his study and to extrapolate analysis into problems not covered in the text. The teacher has freedom in adapting these concepts to his course in a manner promoting his particular orientation to the subject.”

Crime, Correction, and Society fulfills the goals of its author most admirably. It is, however, much more than simply “another textbook.” It is a refreshing and erudite addition to the rapidly growing literature of criminology, being lucid in form and style, scholarly in content and almost encyclopedic in scope. Certainly it is one of the comprehensive reviews of criminology—both theoretical and applied—that has been published to date. Notwithstanding the vast amount of material Professor Johnson has presented in this one volume, it is arranged and set forth in a cogent and meaningful manner.

Although the author is a sociologist and the manner in which the subject matter is approached is primarily from a sociological point of view, germane material from other disciplines is included. The result is
an almost total survey of CRIMINOLOGY, rather than a review of the strictly sociological literature which is relevant to the study of crime. Its diversified approach enables the reader to see where so much of our ongoing criminological research is actually leading, in terms of its application to a larger body of knowledge. It would also help to support the contention of so many that criminology is a unique discipline, worthy of its own individual standing among the social sciences.

As a textbook for introductory courses in criminology, Crime, Correction, and Society is unquestionably deserving of a grade of "A". Moreover, it is both scholarly and enjoyable reading for the layman having only a passing interest in what criminology is all about, as well as for the more sophisticated student and/or practitioner, serving the latter as an outstanding reference and review text.

Jerome M. Tashbook,
Berkshire Farm for Boys
Canaan, N. Y.


"Among the more puzzling and disturbing phenomena is that of the juvenile gang. Here the sociopsychological base is permanent and general, so to speak, and in itself it is not necessarily criminal; indeed, in some aspects it is not only 'necessary' but a force for good as well as evil. But that in other aspects the juvenile gang is a part of and contributes to increasing violence and lawlessness is clear. Clear also is that the juvenile gang is in our time related both to phenomena we regard as evil and those we are accustomed to regard as good. We will not find our way through this thicket easily or quickly"—Foreword.


Lindesmith is internationally known for his writing on narcotic addiction and control. His central thesis in this book is that the present U. S. policy of prohibition actually contributes to narcotic addiction and encourages a black market to cater to the addict's needs. (The Bureau of Narcotics position, though fairly presented, is condemned throughout the book.) Lindesmith contends that the present system is unjust to the addict, and he advocates a medical approach to the problem. Several chapters present an overview of drug control in Europe and Asia. While in places polemic in its style and content, this book is a valuable contribution to the literature on narcotics control. The title is probably a misnomer. Suitable for the sophisticated undergraduate and graduate student in the behavioral and social sciences. It should be in any library which also has any governmental publications on narcotics control to serve as a contra-

position. Good bibliography.

SCHWITZGEBEL, Ralph. Streetcorner Research; an Experimental Approach to the Juvenile Delinquent. Harvard, 1961. 165p. 3.95

A well written, provocative account of the ethical, philosophical, pragmatic, and scientific issues at stake in social research. In this brief book such issues are evoked by the novel methods used to study juvenile delinquency. The employment of these methods led in turn to rather impressive changes for the better in delinquent behavior. The principal message of Schwitzgebel is that scientific approaches to social problems need to be original, must be self-consciously social-philosophical, and ought to be recognized by a myopic society as a beacon light to progress in human relations. This readable study should be read by court workers, city and county councilmen, social case workers, and interested students. Even if the background theory is not understood, certainly the poignant commentary of the delinquent boys cannot escape one's sensibilities.


Data for this study was supplied by the Swedish Institute of Public Opinion and compiled by a sociologist under a grant by the Social Science Research Council. TEC finds that in Sweden legal betting on soccer matches proceeds in an orderly and harmless fashion, providing the state with substantial revenue and depriving the criminal elements of illicit income. Findings challenge the belief that gambling must be financially ruinous to the bettors. Further, TEC's hypothesis that gambling is a safety valve in society is given documentary support. Statistical data is well handled, and the text is interestingly written. It should appeal to both advanced students in sociology and psychology and to those concerned about the current moral and emotional debate on the legalization of gambling in the U. S. Extensive bibliography.


Matza has written an important book. It is not a specific explanation or general theory of delinquency; the concepts of "drift" and "will to crime" are too nebulous, probably empirically untestable. But questions are raised that anyone concerned with any phase of delinquent and criminal behavior must face. Problems centering around positivism, social and individual responsibility, justice and injustice, and the subculture of delinquents are not
new but are here articulated most lucidly for students of delinquency, courts, and social workers. Matza attempts to interject the juvenile's interpretation of society's actions into the factors contributing to the potential for his drift into crime. Style is fluent and the theme is provocative. Excellent reading list contained in footnotes.


Covers the background of juvenile delinquency as seen by a field worker with wide experience in club, settlement, and group work, mostly in New York City. Concentrating on two delinquent subcultures, racket and theft, Spergel's concern is with the connection between delinquent norms and the social and cultural system of the neighborhood in which they emerge. Drug addiction is viewed as a minor category. Because this book represents the research experience of one observer, there are no systematic checks on validity or reliability. Sampling was small and non-random, so that the findings must be considered tentative. Yet this book is an excellent example of the pioneering work which still needs to be done in field investigation of delinquency, rather than from an armchair. Suitable for introductory courses in juvenile delinquency, criminology, or group work.

CAMERON, Mary Owen. The Booster and the Snitch; Department Store Shoplifting. Free Press, 1964. 202p. 5.95

An adaptation of a doctoral dissertation, based on a limited statistical base (a sample of arrests made by a single Chicago department store and Chicago Municipal Court records). Discussions of inventory shrinkage, shoplifting "arts and crafts," crime statistics and the role of the private police, types of goods stolen, and characteristics of thieves appear with interpretative comment. Although the chapter on techniques employed by the shoplifter has some of the fascination of Maurer's study of pickpockets, the (no doubt unavoidable) lack of depth interviewing of apprehended thieves makes for somewhat labored dependence upon statistical correlations. Importantly, Miss Cameron stresses that emphasis upon crime as a lower class phenomenon has been excessive and can be traced to neglect of private police records. She underlines the importance of the pilferer ("snitch"), who steals for status advancement unsupported by a criminal subculture, as opposed to the commercial thief ("booster"). Although care must be exercised in generalizing on limited evidence, this is an indispensable preliminary study, supplementary to the work of E. L. Sutherland and D. R. Cressey on middle class criminal behavior.

THE INDIGENOUS NONPROFESSIONAL

The concept of employing people from the ranks of those that are to be helped has been adopted by the Office of Economic Opportunity and is being explored by the National Institute of Mental Health, as a strategy of change in community action and community mental health programs. There are currently about 70,000 indigenous nonprofessional employed in such programs. The Community Mental Health Journal has recently published "The Indigenous Nonprofessional" by Robert Reiff, Ph.D. and Frank Riessman, Ph.D. as the first in a series of monographs. The monograph provides a conceptual framework for the selection, training, and use of the nonprofessional for service centers in low income neighborhoods. It discusses in detail the new "Expeditor" role similar in some ways to the "Ombudsman" that has been so successful in Sweden and now being innovated in England. "The Indigenous Nonprofessional" (32 pp.) is available from the Community Mental Health Journal, Box 23, Lexington, Massachusetts.

Officers of American Society Of Criminology Elected

The American Society of Criminology re-elected Walter C. Reckless, Ohio State University, Columbus, as its President for 1966.

The Society held its meeting jointly with the American Association for the Advancement of Science, at Berkeley, California.

Professor Marvin E. Wolfgang, University of Pennsylvania, was chosen as President-Elect. Other officers include (Vice-Presidents) Professor Bruno Cormier, McGill University, Montreal; Professor G. O. W. Mueller, New York University, New York City; Dean Joseph Lehman, University of California, Berkeley, and Professor Stephen Schaffer, Ohio University, Athens.

Professor Charles L. Newman, University of Louisville, was reappointed as Executive Secretary and Editor of CRIMINOLOGICA, the Journal of the American Society of Criminology.
THE COUNTY JAIL INMATE AS A SUBJECT FOR REHABILITATION

The Northern California Service League owes its existence to a firmly held conviction that county jail inmates, who probably receive less attention from community social agencies than any other category of citizens in need, will respond in some significant measure to help that makes psychological, social and material resources available through disciplined professional relationships. However, until the establishment of the Intensive Casework Project (as we have referred to the present study), the seriously limited resources of the agency in combination with the excessive demands upon its services did not permit opportunity to evaluate its effectiveness in the rehabilitation of this client group. Time was needed for observation, for experimentation, for consultation, and most importantly, time was needed to think; to raise the questions that needed to be asked, and to hazard the hypotheses that might in turn suggest further experimentation or research. This is a report of a Project that provided time and resources toward this accomplishment. The Board of Directors and the staff of the agency hope that the findings, even where these are expressed, as they must be, in the most tentative language, will contribute toward better understanding of the county jail inmate, better understanding of how he may be helped to discover a more socially acceptable and more satisfying way of life.

The Intensive Casework Project was financed and sponsored by the Columbia Foundation over a three-year period. It permitted the agency to assign one of its social workers to the Project on a full-time basis, and to provide him with conditions in terms of size of caseload and resources that would enable him to examine as thoroughly as possible a piece of on-going practice of his own, and to pursue clues that might assist him in ascertaining much more specifically the nature of the unmet needs and problems of its clientele, as well as ways of helping.

The establishment of the Project was largely accomplished through the efforts of Justice Raymond E. Peters, then President of the Northern California Service League, and members of the Board of Directors. The League is a small, voluntary agency which is financed by the United Crusade and by individual memberships. It has provided professional services to inmates of county jails since 1948. The Project was housed in its San Francisco offices.

A Project Committee which was at once advisory and policy making in its function was appointed by the President, and included both professional and lay persons. The Director of the Agency and the Project Worker met quarterly with the Committee to keep it informed of progress, to seek its help in matters of policy and finance, and to gain its approval in engaging the services of special consultants.

SELECTION OF CASELOAD AND METHODS EMPLOYED IN THE EXPERIMENTATION

In the selection of the caseload, effort was made to secure a cross-section of the inmate population under fifty years of age, and to exclude the atypical person who, because of particularly severe physical or mental handicaps or inability to speak English, makes special demands upon agency service. In addition to these exclusions, there were others, based upon some very practical considerations: there were those whose release would occur during a period of less than three months, and those who, upon release, would not remain within the immediate geographical area. Finally, those accepted were all men who expressed interest in becoming involved in the Project following a thorough briefing, and so had some understanding of the commitment they were making. The voluntary nature of the commitment is in keeping with the philosophy of the League. The opportunity for the inmate to explore the Project as a potential source of help for himself, and then to make his decision and have it respected, can represent a meaningful growth experience for him. In his acceptance or rejection of the client role in the Project he has assumed responsibility for a decision and that is the substance of growth.

In acquiring the caseload, the League's normal intake procedure was followed. Most of the 164 men seen at intake established their initial contact by completing a simple interview request form made available to all inmates in the San Francisco County Jails by the agency. Twenty-three of the 164 men referred to above eventually constituted the Project caseload.

The method of social work help was very broadly conceived. Clients were seen weekly in individual counseling interviews, and (when appropriate) in weekly group sessions. However, the worker was also available to respond in an active way in making necessary resources available to the man, and in working closely with significant persons in his life. A great deal of attention was given to post-release planning. The social work help described here was supported and strengthened by medical and psychiatric consultation.

A somewhat unique series of "think sessions" with a consultant Sociologist gave the Project Worker needed support and encouragement to explore intellectually beyond the limits of the specific practice. These sessions
became the source of many of the inferences and assumptions that will be identified in this report.

ASSUMPTIONS REGARDING THE COUNTY JAIL INMATE BASED UPON PRESENT STUDY

The county jail inmate has usually lived in a socially and emotionally impoverished milieu all of his life. He has lived marginally in a material way and has had limited access to the institutional and social resources of the community. Even those in his life who occupy significant roles are shadowy, hostile or depriving and do not respond helpfully to his needs. With but one or two exceptions this was clearly true of all of the clients included in the Project. Following are some of the characteristic examples:

CASE NO. 1:
Client was placed in an orphanage at the age of two by his mother who was widowed when his father was killed in an accident. The mother never made a home for her son although she promised to do so on many occasions. Client's institutional history was characterized by many runaways. He would seek out his mother, and it was she who always returned him to the institution. Later when he was arrested on a charge of statutory rape, she said that he was "no good—just like his father." She was his only relative, and she had nothing to give him.

CASE NO. 2:
Client's mother ran off with another man when he was six years old. An ineffectual father raised him and his sister. There is indication that his physical likeness to his mother placed him at serious disadvantage with his father who resented it. At twelve years of age the client was hospitalized because of severe mental disturbance, and given shock therapy. There were subsequent hospitalizations, and a history of running away from an unhappy home.

CASE NO. 3:
Client was the product of a broken home. His mother reported him as uncontrollable when he was eleven years old, and he was committed to a juvenile institution. Attempts to return him later to his mother's home failed. The mother had become alcoholic, and when he was placed with her, she is alleged to have provoked him into further delinquency which resulted in further institutionalization. Client was unable to accept the mother's rejection. As he grew older he bought a motorcycle and derived much satisfaction from his membership in a motorcycle club. His involvement with the club led him into group delinquency and "further trouble with the law."

CASE NO. 4:
Client was illegitimate and raised in orphanages and subsequently in a series of juvenile institutions and foster homes. He was never able to settle down, and was given to frequent runaways. His many attempts over the years to communicate with his mother and other members of the family never succeeded because of their lack of interest and concern.

On the basis of the practice experience of the Project a number of hypotheses about the county jail inmate were formulated:

(1) County jail inmates lack real commitment to delinquency and crime. Usually their offense is not serious enough to merit a prison sentence. They may be young men on the verge of commitment or older men who have never committed themselves to becoming more than public nuisances.

(2) The offense of the county jail inmate is often a surreptitious S.O.S. for help and it usually carries the symptoms and signs of the psychological and social illness.

(3) County jail inmates are usually more aware of their deprivation and need than more committed delinquents and criminals.

(4) It is characteristic of county jail inmates that they have deep dependency needs and have been affectionally deprived from infancy.

(5) As a group, county jail inmates appear to be subject to depression in varying degree.

(6) They usually perceive of themselves as unlovable and inadequate and see the world as not caring enough. Often their request for help is made with the expectation of rejection and denial. This has been their usual experience with significant family and community persons.

(7) A significant number of county jail inmates appear to have problems in the area of sex. Many are separated or divorced, and are given to promiscuous sexual behavior. A large number are latently homosexual.

(8) The inmate's initial request to the agency was usually for concrete or specific services, and became an important means of establishing professional contact with him.

(9) This initial request, even when it was realisticaly based, was found to possess covert or symbolic meaning as well.

If these hypotheses are born out in more rigorous testing, the need for both diagnostic work and intervention are apparent. Not incidental to this would be the confirmation that community investment in rehabilitation at the county jail level is crucial because of the inmate's lack of real commitment at this point in his life.

ASSUMPTIONS REGARDING SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE WITH THE COUNTY JAIL INMATE

Evaluation of practice within the Project suggests the probable signifacnce of several hypotheses:

(1) There are crises points during the course of an inmate's incarceration when he appears to be more accessible to social work intervention than at other times. Two of these points were clearly identified: (a) At the beginning of his incarceration and (b) As his release date approached.

For example:

During an early interview, a client talked a great deal about his wife and their marriage in general. For the first time he realized how much his wife had had to put up with and how little he had put into the marriage. This opened the door to a request for marriage counselling, which may not have come had he not been incarcerated. At his request we began seeing his wife on a counselling basis and both were seen regularly while he was incarcerated and after his release. An oft-repeated phrase was, "I've never been able to tell this to anyone before."
Another client was seen regularly during his period of confinement, seemingly without too much involvement. However, as his release date approached, he became more and more anxious. To him, release into the community was much more frightening than being confined to jail. His interviews became much more productive and he was most anxious to continue them after his release. In addition to our help, he was enabled to use various other community resources which he had not previously known existed.

(2) When the social worker is able to respond effectively at time of crisis, the inmate is much more apt to seek his help following his return to the community.

(3) The nature of help requested by the client seems to follow a pattern and is affected by the anxiety he is experiencing at any given time.

During the early period of incarceration he may have many semi-lega questions. He may need help in settling his affairs in the community, re-establishing communication with family members and friends and adjusting to life in the institution.

After an inmate has been in jail for a reasonable length of time, he begins to wonder if there is any way that he can secure an early release, either by modification of his sentence, or possibly a release on county parole. At this point he will often request advice and guidance and may attempt to manipulate those he thinks are in a position to help. An early release simply because the inmate does not like being in jail would not be advisable. However, if he appears to have learned a real lesson and seems to be motivated to change, an early release under these circumstances can be therapeutic and can be helpful both to the client and to his family.

As the day for release approaches, clients usually become concerned with their plans for the future. They may ask for help in finding employment and a place to stay. It is at this time also that clients wish to have removed anything that will stand as an obstacle to their prompt release. This involves checking holds and police letters for them, learning the amount of fines which need to be paid for traffic tickets, etc., and clearance with probation and parole officers.

(4) There are some inmates who cannot tolerate the social work relationship except when they are expecting acute anxiety or when they have reached a point of crisis. With this group, the length of time they remain in the community can be substantially increased when worker is simply "on call" for the emergency, and does not press his services beyond this.

(5) It is particularly important, in work with county jail inmates who have already experienced an excessive amount of rejection and denial, that the social worker have time to give active assurance of his interest and availability. Clients often are not able to tolerate delay in seeking the answer to a problem. This creates an administrative problem because it requires that the worker must be available. Some time must be kept free to deal with emergencies as they arise. These often involve financial matters, legal advice, contacting an employer, probation or parole officer or a family member. Frequently they do not know how to cope with a particular situation and need to discuss the various ways of dealing with it. The fact that they do want to see a social worker demonstrates real growth and responsibility as well as social identification. The Agency must recognize the need for manageable caseloads. With this tentative depressed group, there is need to give assurance that interviews are not hurried or "on the run." A lack of time is perceived as a lack of interest and ability to help.

(6) Financial help is an essential inclusion in work with many county jail inmates. It has important psychological as well as social and material consequences. Many of our clients had no resources of their own nor did they qualify for assistance from any community agency. We were able to maintain these men until they could become self-supporting. To be constantly worried about a room and food is demoralizing and uses up much of the energy that could otherwise be utilized in seeking employment. Funds for transportation and telephone were provided, as was clothing where needed. Occasionally, funds were provided for tools, licenses, union dues, eye glasses, deposits at private employment agencies, etc. The availability of these funds made it possible for clients to become self-supporting with a minimum of delay. Financial help was given as part of the caseload plan.

(7) The social worker needs to be active in mobilizing personal and community resources on behalf of his clients during the period of incarceration. When inmates are approaching their time for release, the worker frequently must locate and mobilize elements of social control within a client's community milieu, if he is to be perceived as a helper.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The Northern California Service League feels responsibility for county jail inmates, not only while they are incarcerated at the county jail, but before they are sentenced and after they are released. We feel that the community has a responsibility to recognize them as a social problem and to provide services for them of a positive nature. We recommend the following:

1. PRIOR TO SENTENCING

A careful study of each case should be made which would consider both the needs of the individual and of the community. Such a study would evaluate such things as prior record, nature of the crime, prognosis and motivation for and availability of help. In our study there were indications that an alternative to incarceration might have produced better results in certain cases. Alternatives might be: the use of fines, release on own recognizance, work furloughs or the use of probation with intensive treatment as a condition.

2. AFTER SENTENCING

When a man is sentenced to serve time in the coun-
ty jail, we recommend that casework services be made available to all those who wish them. The financing of such programs could be with public or private funds or a combination of the two. Incarceration should involve more than punishment, and should provide the inmates with some means of helping themselves, and learning from their experience.

3. There is much to recommend the programs of private agencies, such as the Northern California Service League. To most of the inmates involved in the project, the voluntary aspects of their contact with us was very appealing, and a rather unique experience, considering the fact that they were incarcerated. It enabled us to work effectively with them and made it easier for them to use our services.

The flexibility of our policy permits us to do many things which might be difficult to do under a public agency set-up. Our ability to start working with the man as soon as possible after sentence, to work with his family where indicated, and our continued contact after his release into the community, seems to be the best and most effective approach.

4. We recommend that an effort be made to financially compensate inmates who work during their period of incarceration. Many of them have acute financial problems upon release, which makes it difficult for them to become self-supporting. Many inmates have no one to turn to, and are not eligible for any form of public assistance. In this study, the ability of our agency to provide financial assistance was an important factor in the eventual rehabilitation of some of the men involved. If we are interested in economy, we must somehow provide for these men until they can become self-supporting. If we do not support them in the community at less cost, it is likely that we will support them in an institution at greater cost.

5. We recommend that at any given time the number of homosexuals included in a worker's caseload be restricted to no more than one or two, because of the constant demands they make, the complexity of their problems, and the subsequent toll on the worker. The support for this recommendation came up on several occasions during our Psychiatric consultations.

6. On the basis of our experience in the project we feel that optimum results may be obtained where caseloads are kept to a manageable size. We feel that no more than 50 active or on-going cases could be handled by a worker at any given time. The number of cases which can be carried at any one time depends upon the nature of the problems that need to be dealt with. Their solution frequently occupies worker's time both in and out of the interview situation. One interview with a client may precipitate several hours of corollary contacts and intervention by worker.

We believe that the question of size of caseloads needs further research.

7. There are certain assumptions regarding the misdemeanant offender that we question on the basis of our experience. We recommend, therefore, that the following assumptions be studied further:

a. The rationale for doing little for the county jail inmate is that typically the community feels we are dealing with "ne'er-do-wells and bums" who are poor cases for rehabilitation.

b. The average period in incarceration of the county jail inmate is of too short duration to establish any kind of a therapeutic relationship.

c. Short term institutions are poor places to institute casework and rehabilitation services.

d. County jail offenders do not want help with their adjustment problems.

e. Finding a job is the main problem that faces the released inmate.

f. The majority of county jail inmates are transients, and will not remain in the community.

Reprinted in part by permission of the Northern California Service League from their pamphlet dated August, 1964, pages 1-10. Tables which appeared as part of the appendix are omitted. For further information, contact the League, 693 Mission Street, San Francisco, California.
POLICE TRAINING

By Harry W. More

The State of Michigan has recently created a law enforcement training program. This council will be responsible for the establishment of minimum standards of physical, educational, mental, and moral fitness which shall then govern the recruitment, selection, and appointment of police officers in the State of Michigan. Standards will also be established in terms of a minimum basic training requirement as well as minimum qualifications for instructors at approved police training schools. The council will be supported by the funds appropriated by the state legislature, and in addition, there will be levied an assessment in an amount equal to ten per cent on every fine, penalty, and forfeiture imposed and collected by the courts for criminal offenses other than a fine, penalty or forfeiture for a violation of the Michigan Vehicle Code or for violation of the conservation laws.

Illinois has established a board to draft guidelines for raising the level of local law enforcement agencies in that state. The board will be known as The Illinois Local Governmental Law Enforcement Officers Training Board, and will assist local areas in training their police by paying up to one-half the cost of tuition, salaries, and maintenance of trainees. The Board will also certify training schools. With the addition of this state and the previously mentioned one, there are presently 28 states which have some form of state-wide law enforcement council or commission.

The Louisiana State University Law Enforcement Institute, Baton Rouge, Louisiana, will conduct a Law Enforcement Institute from February 21 through May 13, 1966. ($50 tuition)

St. Petersburg Junior College, St. Petersburg, Florida will hold a two-day Police Budget Workshop beginning March 1, 1966, which will be directed for budgeting for police administrators and their administrative assistants.

Eastman Kodak Company, Rochester, New York, is offering a Law Enforcement Photography course from March 14-18, 1966. (no tuition)

The Southern Police Institute, University of Louisville, Louisville, Kentucky, will hold its Spring Term Southern Police Institute from March 21 through June 10, 1966. ($400 tuition)

The New Jersey Police Training Commission recently announced that in cooperation with Mr. Roger McDonough, Director of the Division of the State Library, every police officer and law enforcement agent within the state of New Jersey will now have available for his use and needs, the most modern and comprehensive library of police related texts. The 97 books that have been recommended for purchase have been packaged into "Police Book Shelves" and they have been distributed to the main public library serving each and every county within the state. These texts and books will not be distributed to the general public and the borrowing privilege will be reserved for only bona fide police officers and law enforcement agencies in each county of the state. These police libraries were purchased to primarily serve as a reference and source material for all of the police instructors affiliated with the approved training schools within the state, but the lending privileges to this specialized collection of references and study materials has been extended to all qualified police officers.

Indiana University Center for Police Training, Bloomington, Indiana, will conduct a Police Firearms Instruction Course from April 25-29, 1966. ($65 tuition)

The University of Oklahoma, Southwest Center for Law Enforcement Education, Norman, Oklahoma will hold a Juvenile Problems Institute from March 7-9, 1966. ($5 tuition)

The Traffic Institute, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois, will hold a course on Traffic Law Enforcement from March 7-25, 1966 (tuition $200)

Michigan State University, School of Police Administration and Public Safety, East Lansing, Michigan, will conduct an Administrator's Seminar from March 9-11, 1966. ($15 tuition)

Diablo Valley College, Northern California Peace Officer's School, Concord, California will hold a Peace Officer's School from March 28-April 30, 1966 (no tuition)
COMPARATIVE CRIMINOLOGY
Hermann Mannheim

COMPARATIVE CRIMINOLOGY presents a detailed discussion of the causes of crime and the methods for studying it. The four parts of the book consider: (1) the nature, scope, and objectives of criminology, (2) research and methodology, (3) physical, psychological, and psychiatric aspects of crime, and (4) sociological factors. The principal emphasis is on etiology and methodology rather than penology.

773 pages  A 1966 Publication

THE PROBLEM OF DELINQUENCY
Sheldon Glueck

With coordinating chapter introductions, this collection of 186 articles and legal decisions acquaints students with the philosophy and procedure of juvenile courts, and with the approaches of the several disciplines to delinquency—psychiatry, sociology, anthropology, social work, and law.

1183 pages  1959  $11.50

FAMILY ENVIRONMENT
AND DELINQUENCY
Sheldon and Eleanor Glueck

Continuing the analysis of Unraveling Juvenile Delinquency and Physique and Delinquency, the Gluecks explore the social factors associated with particular psychological traits and the way in which these factors contribute selectively to the incidence of delinquency in boys of given physical and psychological make-up.

328 pages  1962  $6.95