The Status of Victimology in Europe

The breakthrough of victimology in Europe took place during the late 1960s and the early 1970s. Despite the fact that the first victimologists, Hans von Hentig and Benjamin Mendelsohn were Europeans, the initial research up to the beginning of the 1970s was primarily to be found in the United States. In time, however, the wave of victimology washed back to European shores. Since the social sciences in Europe are heavily influenced by trends in the United States, the American discussion, fueled by various developments in Europe itself, soon caused European criminologists and others concerned with victims to redefine what they were seeing, or to study it in new ways.¹

Also in Europe, the victim became a legitimate focus of inquiry, a new object to be measured, a new subject to be interviewed; the victim was pinched, squeezed and examined under a microscope.

Examples of the topics of victimological research in Europe that have close American parallels are the role of the (potential) victim in the process of social control, the impact and consequences of victimization and reactions to crime, special groups at risk of victimization, and the role of the victim in the criminal justice system. Tangential subjects include the role of the media in shaping and influencing feelings of security and insecurity, and the potential contribution of crime victims and the public to crime prevention and community policing [for summaries of European research, see, e.g., Mayhew (1985), Villmow (1985), Zauberman (1985), Joutsen (1989), and Walklate (1989)].

There are considerable imbalances in the geographical spread of victimology in Europe. The powerhouses are arguably to be found in the United Kingdom, the Netherlands and Germany, in both governmental and academic institutes. However, significant research is also carried out in a number of other countries, such as Austria, Finland, France, Sweden and Switzerland.

As for Central and Eastern Europe, the victimologist and, more generally, the criminologist has long had an ambiguous role. The earlier training of criminologists stressed the orthodox line: crime was held to be the result of contradictions inherent in capitalist society. Research that could become critical of the prevailing criminal policy or of the operation of the criminal justice system received little, if any, encouragement. In general, the timid attempts at victimology either tended to have a medical and psychological orientation, or sought to identify why certain persons had a greater risk of becoming victims (hence, for example, the interest among Soviet victimologists in the nebulous concept of "victimity").

There were a few notable exceptions to this rigidly orthodox approach to criminology and victimology in Central and Eastern Europe. Research institutes in the former Czechoslovakia, Hun-
1994 Conference Update

Jerome H. Skolnick, President
Thomas Blomberg, Program Chair

We are moving forward on the 1994 Conference in Miami. We feel we have an outstanding site with numerous attractions and opportunities for those attending the meetings. Arrangements with the Hyatt Regency and several overflow hotels have gone well.

The Hyatt will provide the majority of room accommodations at $99.00 per night. Conference meeting rooms and reception space will all be in the Hyatt. Overflow hotels include the Occidental Parc, located adjacent to the Hyatt (involves an approximate 50-foot walk along the riverfront to the Hyatt doors). The Occidental is a small hotel with attractive rooms at $99.00 per night. The Sheraton is located just across the river from the Hyatt. Its rooms are comparable to the Hyatt's and run $90.00 per night. The Sheraton will provide ASC members with a water taxi every 3-5 minutes from 7:00 a.m. to 10:30 a.m., and then every 10 minutes from 10:30 a.m. to 2:30 a.m. The water taxi ride takes only a few minutes and picks up just outside the Sheraton and drops off a few feet from the Hyatt. The other overflow hotel is the Holiday Inn with rooms at $70 per night. The Holiday Inn is the least attractive of the overflow hotels, is located one block from the Hyatt and requires crossing two busy roads. During evening hours it is recommended that people travel in groups between the Holiday Inn and the Hyatt.

Make your reservations early! We look forward to seeing you in Miami.

AROUND THE ASC

C. Ronald HUFF has been appointed by the Board of Trustees of Ohio State University as Director of the School of Public Policy and Management. He will hold this position through June 1997. In addition to his new responsibilities, Ronald will continue to serve as Director of the Criminal Justice Research Center at Ohio State. Another ASC member, Dr. Ruth D. PETERSON, has been appointed Associate Director of the Criminal Justice Research Center and as Associate Professor of Public Policy and Management. Ruth will also continue her primary appointment as Associate Professor of Sociology at Ohio State.

The Journal of Crime and Justice sponsored by the Midwestern Criminal Justice Association announces the selection of Dean J. CHAMPION as the new editor. Dean is presently Chair of the Department of Criminal Justice at Minot State University, Minot, North Dakota. Dean succeeds Steven P. LAB, Bowling Green State University, editor from 1990-1994. While Steven Lab is still receiving manuscripts at Bowling Green State University for possible Journal acceptance, Champion encourages those with original qualitative or quantitative manuscripts to submit them to the new editorial offices of the Journal after August 30, 1994. The new address will be: The Journal of Crime and Justice, Department of Criminal Justice, 108 Dakota Hall, Minot State University, Minot, ND 58707. Telephone (701) 857-3140. Manuscripts should be submitted in triplicate to facilitate the peer review process. The Journal is published semi-annually. Book reviews of new works are also solicited.

The Criminologist

The Official Newsletter of the American Society of Criminology

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VICTIMOLOGY, continued from page 1

...gery, Poland and the former Yugoslavia had considerably more freedom of action in the development of their research programmes and in their access to basic data, in particular from the 1960s on. For example, small victimization surveys were carried out in Poland already during the 1970s and in Hungary at the beginning of the 1980s.

The recent political and social changes in Central and Eastern Europe have altered the status of criminology and victimology in these countries. As an example, the former Czechoslovakia, Estonia, Georgia, Poland, Slovenia and the Russian Federation took part in the most recent sweep of the international victimization survey (del Fratte, et al., 1993 and Aromaa and Ahven, 1993).

The victimization survey more generally is a good example of the international flow of victimological research. It was largely designed to improve the measurement of crime in society, and to study reporting behaviour. Although the first modern victimization study was carried out in the United States in 1965, the first national study in the world was carried out in Finland in 1970. This was soon followed by national victimization surveys in Denmark, Norway and Sweden. By today, national victimization surveys have been carried out in almost all European countries, with the exception of the Balkan republics and most of the countries emerging out of the former USSR. The British Crime Survey, conducted by the Home Office, is the foremost European example of a well-designed survey. European victimologists have contributed greatly to the refinement of the survey instrument and to the analysis of the results (see, for example Killias, 1990, Sessar, 1990, and van Dijk, 1991). Currently, the Dutch Ministry of Justice is coordinating an international project that will survey victimization suffered by businesses.

The victimization surveys have revealed results that parallel those noted in North America. Most victimization incidents in Europe are rather trivial: thefts and vandalism appear to head the list. Serious crimes are rare. The risk of victimization is unevenly spread in the population. For example, the risk of assault is greatest for young urban males, and is linked to lifestyle, such as the frequenting of outdoor activities beyond midnight (Killias, 1991a; Aromaa and Siren, 1991; Dankel, et al., 1991). The decision to report is primarily linked to an assessment of the seriousness of the offence (the personal harm and financial loss inflicted), and to an assessment of the probability of the offender being apprehended.

The victimization surveys have pointed to special groups at risk, such as those in certain professions or those with a certain demographic and socio-economic background (such as ethnic minorities). The British Crime Survey has used "booster" samples in respect of Afro-Caribbeans and Asians; these revealed a higher risk of victimization (Mayhew and Hough, 1991). Although controlling for background as well as type of neighbourhood may serve to reduce the difference in victimization risk between ethnic minorities and majority groups, the effect of victimization may be greater for minorities, due to their weaker legal and social position as well as their lack of access to services (Albrecht and Arnold, 1991:26).

The high-risk group that has perhaps attracted the most attention in research are the victims of domestic violence. The studies have tended to underline the structural connection between power and violence (see, for example, Schwind and Baumann, 1990, a four-volume review of research on violence).

Attention has also been drawn to the long-term impact of victimization, something which is normally not elucidated from survey results. Newburn (1993), for example, notes on the basis of a review of the literature that a sizeable portion of victims of sexual offences suffer physical, behavioral and emotional effects, and that also the victims of other crimes, such as burglary, are at risk.

The Impact of Victimology on Victim Policy in Europe

The developments in victimology and victim policy in Europe should be seen against the background of the criminal justice system in question. Europe, after all, is the cradle of three major legal systems: the Germanic system, the French-based system and the common law system. In the first group (roughly, Germany, Austria, parts of Switzerland, the Scandinavian countries, and the Eastern European countries), the victim has traditionally had the right to participate in prosecution (at least in some respects) and to present civil claims in the criminal process, although there are considerable differences in these respects from one country to the next. In general, in those countries with a French-based criminal justice system, the victim can be a "partie civile" in the criminal process, and thus may generally present civil claims. In the common law countries, the role of the victim has traditionally been limited to that of a witness.

The results of victimological research have been used in a number of countries in Europe to reform the law, develop training programmes, formulate guidelines for practitioners, and encourage the strengthening of victim services (see, for example, HEUNI, 1989). Special policy statements have been issued, such as the 1990 "Victim's Charter" announced by the Home Office in England and Wales. The Council of Europe, which now incorporates 32 European countries (including several from Central and Eastern Europe), serves as a unifying influence on criminal policy, and also victim policy. The Council of Europe Convention on State Compensation to Victims of Crime was opened for signature on 24 November 1983 and entered into force on 1 February 1988. It has already been ratified by Denmark, Finland, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland and the United Kingdom, and signed in addition by Cyprus, the Federal Republic of Germany, Greece and Turkey. The Council of Europe has also adopted two recommendations of direct relevance to victims: the 1985 recommendation on the position of the victim within the framework of criminal law and procedure (R(85)11), and the 1987 recommendation on assistance to victims and the prevention of victimization (R(87)21).

Two countries, Germany and Switzerland, have adopted major legislative packages relatively recently; the 1986 Victim Protection Act in Germany (see, e.g., Riess, 1984 and Kaiser, 1991) and the 1991 Victim Assistance Act in Switzerland. Both were primarily intended to expand victim involvement in criminal proceedings, for example by increasing the victim’s right to obtain information and protection, and by expanding his or her right to participate actively. The Swiss reform, at the same time, introduced State compensation to Switzerland.

The German reform in particular was the subject of considerable discussion between victimologists and lawyers. The impact of the reform was somewhat dulled by the...
appreciable lack of knowledge, even among professionals, of the rights of victims (see, for example, Albrecht, 1990). However, most victims seemed to be satisfied with their status in proceedings. The greatest strain on the victim comes from uncertainty, which could be alleviated with more information (Kaiser, 1991).

Several studies have been carried out on the degree to which the victim is satisfied with the way he or she is treated by the police and in the criminal process (most notably, Shapland, et al., 1985). The victim could be assumed to have a stronger position (and thus more satisfied) in those countries where he or she can play a more active role in the criminal process. However, research from France, Germany, and the Netherlands, as well as elsewhere, has noted a variety of problems. Even where the victim is assumed to have a very strong position, such as in Austria and Poland, research suggests that the victims themselves tend to be dissatisfied with how the system operates (Krainz, 1991a and 1991b; Erez and Bienkowska, 1993). If complainants are given a clear decision-making role, there might well be strong pressures on them to work in a certain direction. However, contrary to received wisdom, existing research suggests that victims in general are not especially punitive nor do they necessarily wish to be given (more) decision-making power over the punishment (Hough and Moxon, 1985; see also Sessar, et al., 1986; Boers and Sessar, 1991).

One measure that has been adopted quite widely in Europe is State compensation for the victims of crime. Since the time the first general European crime victim compensation scheme was introduced in England, Wales and Scotland in 1964, similar schemes have been adopted by many other countries. At the moment, schemes exist in Austria, Belgium, Denmark, England and Wales, the Federal Republic of Germany, Finland, France, Ireland, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Northern Ireland, Norway, Poland, Scotland, Sweden and Switzerland. Although the general outlines of the State compensation schemes are similar, they differ greatly in matters of detail (see, e.g., Jousen, 1987:248-276).

Villmow (1991) provides an overall assessment of the effectiveness of State compensation schemes, based largely on research in the United Kingdom and in Germany. He notes that the German research findings parallel those carried out in Canada and the United States, although a considerably higher percentage of victims apply in the United Kingdom and in Germany than do in North America. Few victims—perhaps fewer than in the United States—appear to know of the schemes. The proceedings take a long time, but there appears to be a higher percentage of successful applications in the United Kingdom than in the United States. (See also de Beer, 1991 regarding the Netherlands, and Villmow and Plemper, 1987 regarding Germany).

Another significant trend is the establishment of victim services. The most active and well-organized victim support scheme is arguably "Victim Support" in England, Wales and Northern Ireland. The United Kingdom scheme is also one of the more heavily studied schemes (see, e.g., Maguire and Corbett, 1987; Mawby and Gill, 1987). Other national associations exist in Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Hungary, Ireland, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Scotland, Sweden and Switzerland. Small-scale voluntary assistance groups have been formed in Finland, Poland and Spain. With these few exceptions, victims are generally left on their own to seek assistance from medical and mental health personnel, social services, insurance and other potential sources of help as best as they can.

Has European Victimology Become Mixed with Victim Advocacy?

Europe is thus in a ferment of developments, experiments and debate on the position of the victim of crime. A great number of reforms have been carried out and are currently being planned to strengthen the position of the victim and improve victim services.

Ezzat Fattah (1992) has recently criticized what he sees as a shift from victimology to victimpolicy. He argues that the missionary zeal of victimologists is detracting from the high standards that should be required of scholarship. This zeal may be evidenced as a willingness to sacrifice the rights of suspects and defendants in an attempt to strengthen the position of the victim. It may also be evidenced as a trend towards increased punitiveness in the criminal justice system. Furthermore, the focus of most victimologists and victim advocates in North America has been on traditional crimes, which may lead to imbalances, and to the ignoring of less "attractive" victims.

There is little research available in Europe on the driving forces behind the work on reform, or on what trade-offs are made with the rights of suspects and defendants. Generally, however, the reforms in Europe do not seem to be part of a zero-sum game, where the victim's gain is the defendant's loss. Examples are the provision of support to victims of certain types of victims, such as the victims of sexual assault. Even where procedural changes have been made, such as in Germany, the reform work appears in general to have been informed by an extensive legal debate that draws attention to the need for a careful balance (see, for example, Riess, 1984). Moreover, the strongest advocates for improving the position of the victim, such as Victim Support in the United Kingdom, have not sought to polarize or politicize the debate by calling for harsher punishments or for restrictions on the rights of the defendant.

Instead, the victim advocacy movement in Europe appears to have channelled its activity towards the improvement of services, and towards greater use of restitution and mediation (see, for example, Messmer and Otto, 1992, which covers developments in mediation in Austria, Belgium, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Scotland and the United Kingdom). This focus on assisting the victim in recovering from the incident, and on minimizing the scope of the criminal justice system, would not appear to be at odds with the interest in protecting the rights of the defendant.

The research on the limited impact of State compensation schemes, on the other hand, does give rise to the question of whether they are cosmetic exercises that focus on "politically correct" victims, and not in fact earnest attempts to resolve a social problem. The research referred to above points out that the beneficiary usually fits the stereotype of the "innocent victim." Some schemes are limited to very serious injuries only, and/or set a very high lower limit on awards; others place restrictions on the offender and the victim live in the same household; still others look at the "character" of the victim. Many of the schemes are now being ex-
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panded in response to such criticism. For example, the United Kingdom scheme, which has been one of the more restrictive, was amended by the Criminal Justice Act 1988, and further expansions are envisioned (Faulkner, 1993).

More generally, victimology and victim advocacy in Europe (as in North America) appears to have focused on individual victims of "traditional" crimes, such as assault, robbery and burglary. There are few studies that deal with abuse of power, collective victimization or the victims of "modern" offences (such as environmental crime and economic crime). Among the notable exceptions is the French victimization survey (Zauberman et al., 1990), which also covered businesses as well as victimization related to employment regulations and consumer laws.

In common with its American cousin, European victimology thus appears to have a fascination with the "politically correct" victim: the individual victim of traditional offences, in particular the victims of domestic violence. However, this has not detracted from the calibre of scholarship, and it has contributed in a number of countries to improvements in the way the system works. Victimology in Europe is alive and well; Americans take note.

NOTES

1 The European discussion may have had a corresponding effect on developments in the United States, but at least when measured by the questionable criterion of the number of citations in the American literature, this effect would seem to have remained negligible.

2 Of the former CIS countries, the 1992 sweep of the international victimization survey included Estonia and Georgia, as well as Moscow (Russian Federation). The sweep also extended the victimization survey, for the first time, to a Balkan country: the city of Ljubljana. Slovenia was included (del Frate et al. (1993), and Aromaa and Ahven (1993)).

BIBLIOGRAPHY


The Search for Missing Links: Eastern State Penitentiary

The Eastern State Penitentiary Task Force in Philadelphia, PA is involved in the stabilization, rehabilitation, and interpretation of Eastern State Penitentiary, a nineteenth century radial prison which remained in operation until 1970. In order to interpret this historic site accurately, the Task Force is seeking information and objects relating to the prison's 140 year history including: photographs, publications, objects made by prison industries, furniture, locks, uniforms, etc. The Preservation Coalition would like to have some of these objects on loan for display during summer tours of the prison or to document them and add that information to research files. If you have any information on Eastern State or know someone who does, please contact Milton MARKS or Alison HAWVER at (215) 586-8225.

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The Prisoner Rehabilitation Authority and the Hebrew University of Jerusalem are sponsoring an international conference on "Crime Prevention and Rehabilitation through Religion." The conference will take place in Jerusalem from June 13-16, 1994. For further information, or to send 150 word abstracts, write to: Conference Secretariat, POB 574, Jerusalem, Israel (Fax: 972-2-868165) or Dr. G. Moncher, 2433 Coolidge Ave., Oakland, CA 94601.

The International Society for the Systems Sciences Annual Meeting will be held June 14-19, 1994, at the Asilomar Conference Center on the Monterey Peninsula, Pacific Grove, California. The theme is "New Systems Thinking and Action for a New Century." For details, contact Dr. Linda Peeno, ISSS Managing Director and Vice-President, PO Box 6808, Louisville, KY 40206-0808, Telephone/Fax: 502-899-3332.

The Law and Society Association has issued a Call for Participation for its 1994 Annual Meeting to be held June 16-19, 1994, at the Arizona Biltmore Resort in Phoenix, Arizona. The theme of the meeting is "Cultural, National and Transnational Legalities: Contested Domains." Proposals are welcome for presentation and discussion on topics that link law and society. The due date for proposals is December 20, 1993. Late proposals will be considered on a space available basis. For a copy of the Call contact: Law and Society Association, Executive Office, Hampshire House-Box 33615, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA 01003-3615 USA, Ph. 413-545-4617, fax 413-545-1640, e-mail Isa@legal.umass.edu.

The 6th annual meeting of the Human Behavior and Evolution Society will be held June 16-19, 1994 at the University of Michigan in Ann Arbor, Michigan. Contact L. Betzig or D. Buss, Museum of Zoology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109-1079 or E-mail: Laura L. Betzig @UM.CC.UMICH.EDU or call (313) 747-2766. For meeting information, contact Nancy Thornhill, HBES, Department of Communication, 2020 Frieze Building, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109-1285 (313) 763-7346, E-mail: Nancy W. Thornhill @UM.CC.UMICH.EDU.

The National Association for Mediation in Education is soliciting proposals for its 9th annual conference, Violence Prevention and Building our Diverse Communities, to be held July 22-27, 1994 at University of Massachusetts, Amherst. For more information contact: NAME, 205 Hampshire House, Box 33635, UMASS, Amherst, MA 01003-3635 or call (413) 545-2462 or E-mail: Internet: NAME@acad.UMAss.edu or Conflict Net: NAME@acg.ipc.org.

The 1994 International Symposium on Criminal Justice Information Systems and Technology: Building the Infrastructure will be held August 2-4, 1994 at the Grand Hyatt Hotel in Washington, D.C. The symposium is sponsored by the Bureau of Justice Assistance, U.S. Department of Justice and SEARCH, The National Consortium for Justice Information and Statistics. A wide range of cutting-edge technologies and their application to criminal justice information management, both in the United States and throughout the world will be explored. For more information, please contact SEARCH at (916) 392-2550.

The 3rd Annual Sociologists Against Sexual Harassment (SASH) Day Conference, "Sexual Harassment, Law, and the Policy Problem," will be held on August 6, 1994, at the Biltmore Hotel in Los Angeles, California. SASH seeks proposals to organize: (1) scholarly panels, (2) roundtables for discussion of focused topics, (3) practical application workshops. Registration scholarships for volunteer staff. To submit a proposal, register, or volunteer, contact: Phoebe Stambaugh, Program Chair, The School of Justice Studies, ASU, Tempe, AZ 85287-0403, tel.: (602) 965-0217; fax: (602) 965-9189; eml: azpxs@asuacad.bitnet.

The American Correctional Health Services Association will hold its 1995 Multidisciplinary Training Conference in Portland, Oregon on February 23-26, 1995. Focus of the conference will be the myriad and complicated factors which make correctional health care a challenge. Papers on resources, environment and liabilities or on related topics are being accepted. Abstracts of 250 words, double spaced, along with an outline of content of the presentation and a current curriculum vitae must be received on or before June 15, 1994. Submissions should be addressed to: Francine W. Rickenbach CAE, ACHSA Executive Director, PO Box 2307, Dayton, OH 45401-2307, Fax: (513) 223-6307, Phone: (513) 223-9630.
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Bonnie Berry
Pacific Lutheran University

As the reader may know, the ASC Student Affairs Committee has begun an electronic mail mentoring program, as advertised in the March-April issue of The Criminologist (Vol. 19, No. 2). The more I thought about mentoring and discussed it with my colleagues and friends, the more I began to wonder about the purposes and the operations of mentoring, and the more I came to realize the many dimensions of mentoring. But two thoughts have stayed with me from the start: (1) Mentoring can be and often is an unselfish sharing of experience and knowledge that can propel forward the science and practice of criminology. (2) There are individual benefits for the mentor and the mentored when mentoring takes place between persons of similar interest.

The ASC mentoring program is currently set up for ASC students to be mentored by faculty, researchers, and administrators. For the sake of better understanding mentoring though, I would like to propose some variations on the mentoring relationship and describe the functions of mentoring.

The Mentoring Relationship

Usually we think of the mentoring relationship as one of unequal status, between faculty and students, with the faculty member in an advisory role. Under the usual strictures of the university, the relationships are fairly limited insofar as the number of mentors available, which means that there may be few or no mentors available who are interested in the topics that a particular student is interested in. In other words, there are only so many mentors to go around and there may not be good matchings-up available within a single university setting. Besides the limited number and type of mentors, the mentor roles may be limited. In the ordinary university sense, mentoring performs crucial yet specific functions, such as helping the student write her or his dissertation and helping the student get a job upon graduation. Let us think for a moment beyond the usual formal, one-way relationships between professor and student.

First of all, there need not be a status differential. Some of us seek academic advice from our students. For that matter, the mentoring relationship can be between faculty of equal or different rank. Another way of considering status effects on mentoring has to do with the vertical or horizontal aspects of the relationship. We frequently think of vertical mentoring relationships as generational, with the "younger" (second, third, etc.) generation carrying on a tradition of studies, theoretical perspectives, and methodologies that originated with the first generation mentor. Mentoring relationships can also be horizontal as when contemporaries mentor each other. If mentoring means that we rely upon the knowledge and experience of others, then status characteristics do not matter and mentoring does not stop upon graduation.

Mentoring relationships need not be formal and often are not. A student's formal academic advisor may be the person who signs the student's dissertation and other documents, but this advisor may not be much of a mentor and the student may be more effectively mentored by others who are not her or his formal advisor.

Mentoring need not be between university scholars. Students and others may need to know about the practice and administrative aspects of our work in criminology. Obviously, criminologists outside of academe are well-suited to address these questions and concerns.

The way I see it, unless one wants to stick to formalities and paper-signing as the criteria for mentoring, mentoring is so similar to networking that the two activities may be indistinguishable. What I consider "true mentoring" stimulates communication and thereby advances the discipline and our individual intellectual growth.

What Should We Expect from a Good Mentor?

People who mentor because they have to, because mentoring is an assignment that they cannot get out of, are probably not good mentors. People who like to enlighten and to be enlightened make good mentors. In the course of mentoring, people make known to each other brand new ideas, various ways of looking at things, reference materials, and other evidences of smartness and hard work. I suppose there are risks involved in sharing ideas, notably the risk of being "scoped." But I further suppose that due credit is usually given when, in the course of mentoring, one's work is influenced in some significant way.

Good mentors are expected to offer advice on professional matters, such as, where to send manuscripts for journal review, what theories might be useful for interpreting certain findings, the intricacies of research design, and so on. But what about personal advice? Should students expect personal advice and should mentors give it?

Asking and giving personal advice can, although it does not necessarily, make mentors and mentored feel uncomfortable, especially if the topic is really personal like marital problems. It should be up to the individual mentor or mentored whether to discuss personal life issues. However, personal-social traits (age, disability, homosexuality, gender, race) that can influence our opportunities for work and the impact of our work inarguably come under the purview of mentoring discussions. One purpose of the ASC mentoring program is to create a forum for students to ask faculty.
researchers, and administrators about the manner in which the student's race, gender, age, or any status can affect her or his work. Minority statuses can be extremely important issues career-wise and students may need to know how to manage, say, being an African American professor talking to a classroom of white students about race and crime. There is not an abundance of minorities in faculty or other mentoring positions, thus the need for minority mentors outside the student's university setting to share their experience and advice with our students via e-mail.

The ASC Student Affairs Committee
E-Mail Mentoring Program

Our program encourages mentoring between ASC students and ASC members who are faculty, administrators, and researchers. I am asking for volunteer mentors to send me the information described below so that I may compile a directory of mentors which the ASC will then make available to students. From this directory, students may contact the mentor(s) who can best respond to their questions. The mentors, once in the directory, just sit back and wait passively to be contacted by students. As mentioned in the earlier announcement, there will be an award, determined by student votes, for the "mentor of the year." This award will be presented at the 1995 ASC Presidential Reception.

Students, I will announce in The Criminologist when the directory is ready.

All interested mentors please send:

Your name
Office or home address
E-mail address
List of areas of specializations
Age (Age is optional. I ask for it because some students may feel that age is relevant for their work concerns.)
Gender
Race/Ethnicity/Nationality

to: Bonnie BERRY, Department of Sociology, Pacific Lutheran University, Tacoma, Washington 98447; e-mail address 71352.104@compuserve.com.

Should there be an interested and if so requested, I can expand the mentoring program to allow for mentoring between all ASC members, although not under the auspices of the Student Affairs Committee.

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POSITION ANNOUNCEMENTS

THE CRIMINOLOGIST will regularly feature in these columns position vacancies available in organizations and universities, as well as positions sought by members of the Society. A charge of $50 for up to 125 words and $10 for each additional 25 words will be made. The charge will be waived for institutional members of ASC. It is the policy of ASC to publish position vacancy announcements only from those institutions or agencies which subscribe to equal educational and employment opportunities and those which encourage women and minorities to apply.

Institutions should indicate the deadline for submission of application materials.

The Professional Employment Exchange will be a regular feature at each Annual Meeting. Prospective employers and employees should register with the Society no later than three weeks prior to the Annual Meeting of the Society. Appropriate forms may be obtained by writing to the ASC offices in Columbus, Ohio.

To place announcements in The Criminologist, send all material to: Editors, THE CRIMINOLOGIST, College of Criminal Justice, Sam Houston State University, Huntsville, TX 77341-2296. Telephone: (409) 294-1689, FAX 409-294-1653.

Salem State College. Applications are invited for two tenure-track Assistant Professor positions in the undergraduate Criminal Justice Program to teach, advise majors, and conduct research. The positions are available for the Fall of 1994. Preferred qualifications include an earned doctorate in Criminal Justice or a closely related field, college teaching, research/professional experience, and sensitivity to and experience with persons of diverse backgrounds and learning styles. Specialties may include: Judicial Administration, Legal Procedures and Issues, Community-based Criminal Justice, Evaluation Research/Policy Analysis, Statistics, Theoretical and/or Comparative Criminology. To apply, send letter expressing teaching and research interests, a curriculum vita, and three letters of reference to: Salem State College, Office of Affirmative Action, Attn.: Criminal Justice Position, 352 Lafayette Street, Salem, MA 01970. Application review will begin on March 1, 1994 and continue until the positions are filled. An AA/EOE. Persons of color, women and persons with disabilities who can teach in a multicultural environment are strongly encouraged to apply.

The National Council on Crime & Delinquency (NCCCD), a national non-profit research agency in the areas of criminal and juvenile justice, has an opening for a senior vice president for research. This position would manage on-going NCCCD research, provide technical support for and manage its San Francisco based staff of 9 researchers. This position would also be responsible for developing new sources of funding. Candidates should have an advanced degree in a social science/criminal justice discipline, Ph.D. preferred, as well as 10 years experience in the field. Strong managerial, communication and planning skills are essential. The candidate must have demonstrated ability to secure $500,000 in annual research grants or contracts. Preference will be given to individuals who bring with them an existing portfolio of grants. NCCCD provides an excellent starting salary and benefits and is an EO/E. Minority and women candidates are urged to apply. Those interested in applying for this position should submit their vitae to: Search Committee, The National Council on Crime & Delinquency, 685 Market Street, Suite 620, San Francisco, CA 94105. Application deadline is March 31, 1994.

Lewis-Clark State College. Applications are invited for an Assistant Professor of Justice Studies. Candidate must hold a Ph.D. in Justice Studies (degree may be in Criminal Justice, Political Science, or Sociology. J.D. degree is not an acceptable substitute). Evidence of excellence in teaching and research potential required. The successful candidate must be willing to offer courses at off-campus sites and/or on electronic media. Course load is four courses/semester. Preferred teaching areas: Introduction to U.S., Criminal Law, Criminal Procedure, Criminal Process, Justice and Public Policy, Research Methods, Comparative Criminal Justice Systems. Other responsibilities: advising, liaison to pre-law group, governance committee assignments, portfolio assessments, and community service. Anticipated nine-month, tenure-track appointment, beginning 8/15/94. Salary range $30,000-$32,000. Selection begins April 30 and will stay open until filled. Send letter of application, resume, graduate transcripts, and three letters of reference to: Dr. Hugh Nichols, Dean, School of Arts and Sciences, Lewis-Clark State College, Lewiston, ID 83501. AA/EOE.

Colorado State University. Target of Opportunity: As part of Colorado State University's commitment to fostering ethnic diversity, the Department of Sociology invites applications for a tenure-track position in Criminology/Criminal Justice (rank and salary dependent upon qualifications), Ph.D. required. Applicant must have active research program and commitment to excellence in undergraduate and graduate teaching. We seek candidates who have strengths in complementary areas such as sociological research methods, minority studies, sociology of law, public opinion/media, social change, social policy, social development, and who have cross-cultural/intercultural interests/experience. The search will continue until the position is filled. Send letter of application and vita to: Prabhjeet Unnithan, Department of Sociology, Colorado State University, Ft. Collins, CO 80523. CSU is an EO/AAE.

Norwich University. The Department of Justice Studies and Sociology invites applications for an anticipated one year visiting professor, starting in late August. Possibility exists for renewal in a tenure-track position the following year. An earned doctorate in Criminal Justice, Criminology, or Sociology by time of appointment and some college teaching are preferred, but ABDs are encouraged to apply. Applicants should be qualified to teach courses in introduction to criminal justice, corrections, research methods, and an additional area of specialization. The position offers the special opportunity for the successful candidate to be given release time to engage in applied research at the Vermont Center for Justice Research, the state criminal justice statistical analysis center, which the Department of Justice Studies and Sociology administers. Send a letter of application, a current curriculum vitae and list of references to Prof. Stan Shermack, Department of Justice Studies and Sociology, Norwich University, Northfield, VT 05663 by May 31, 1994. EOE.
Auburn University. The Department of Sociology invites applications for a tenure-track position beginning Fall 1994. Appointment anticipated at the Assistant Professor level. Primary areas of specialization are criminology/criminal justice and statistics/research methods. Minimum requirements are a Ph.D. in Sociology (although ABD in Sociology will be considered), and demonstrated qualifications in the areas listed above. The department offers undergraduate degrees in Sociology, Criminology, Anthropology, and Social Work and an MA degree in Sociology. The successful candidate will be expected to teach a variety of courses including criminal justice, statistics, research methods, and an introductory-level multidisciplinary social science course, with the possibility of developing further specialty interests. Review of applications will begin May 15, 1994, and will continue until position is filled. Minorities and women are especially encouraged to apply. Auburn University is an AA/EEO. Send curriculum vitae and three letters of reference to: Thomas Petee, Chair, Search Committee, Department of Sociology, 6090 Haley Center, Auburn University, AL 36849-5209.

The University of New England. Applicants in any area of Sociology will be considered for a tenurable Lecturer in Sociology, although preference is likely to be given to those with a specialization in one or more of the following areas: Criminology, Criminal Justice, Deviance, Delinquency, Medical Sociology. Applicants should have, or be near to obtaining a Ph.D. and should show evidence of research productivity. Duties of the appointment are teaching at all levels from first-year undergraduate through to postgraduate supervision and the conduct of research. Informal enquiries may be directed to Associate Professor Alan Black, Acting Head of Department, phone +61 67 73 2300, Fax +61 67 73 3748 or e-mail ablack@metz.une.edu.au. Salary $A41,000 to $A48,688 pa (Level B). Closing date June 15, 1994. Position No. 453. Applications to be addressed to the Director, Personnel Services, University of New England, Armidale, NSW 2351 Australia, phone +61 67 73 2678 and should include the names, addresses, telephone numbers, facsimile numbers/ e-mail addresses of three referees and should state the above position number and must be received prior to the closing date. EOE.

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APPLICATION PROCEDURES: An up-to-date curriculum vita; evidence of academic excellence (e.g., copies of undergraduate and/or graduate transcripts); three letters of reference; and a letter or statement describing career plans, salient experiences, and the nature of the applicant’s interest in criminology or criminal justice, as well as an indication of race/ethnicity and of need and prospects for financial assistance for graduate study should be sent to:

SARAH HALL, Administrator
American Society of Criminology
1314 Kinneear Road, Suite 212
Columbus, Ohio 43212

Recipient and alternates will be notified by July 15. The Society reserves the right not to award the scholarship.

DIVISION OF INTERNATIONAL CRIMINOLOGY

The Division of International Criminology (DIC) is soliciting nominations for the DIC Annual Distinguished International Scholar Award. Each year DIC tries to support attendance at the annual meetings by a scholar from a nation where it is hard to secure foreign currency or travel funds for academic purposes. The recipient of the award should be a scholar who has contributed to the field of comparative criminology. The award carries a $700 honorarium to help the recipient defray the costs of attending the annual ASC conference in November. The recipient will be asked to give a presentation at the DIC meeting.

Please send nominations (including a curriculum vitae and a sample of written work, if possible) by June 6, 1994, to:

PROFESSOR NANCY TRAVIS WOLFE
College of Criminal Justice
University of South Carolina
Columbia, South Carolina 29208
BOOK REVIEWS


Marquart, Ekland-Olson and Sorensen have written an impressive book on the death penalty in twentieth-century Texas. The book is unique in its comprehensiveness, and in its artful mix of historical, quantitative and qualitative methods. The reader is left with a vivid impression of the death penalty as an evolving instrument of social control that remains, even after substantial reform, a flawed institution of justice.

A central aim of this book is to explain the concentration of executions in the South. The answer, given against a rich backdrop of qualitative and quantitative data, is that "The common denominator...is found in a cultural tradition of exclusion" that defines the lives of some persons as "lying outside the protective boundaries of the community." The history of exclusion, we learn, runs broad and deep throughout the South generally and in Texas specifically.

Slavery, the preeminent institution of exclusion, set the tone for justice in Texas. The link between slavery and modern punishment is seen in the Thirteenth Amendment, which "provided closure on the central issue of the Civil War by outlawing slavery and involuntary servitude except as punishment of crime where the penalty shall have been duly convicted." Convicted offenders became property of the state. Most were worked like slaves on plantation prisons, replete with brutal regimes of corporal punishment. Others were lynched when their behavior violated, in fact or perception, laws whose main purpose was to keep blacks in their place.

It is significant that, at least into the 1920s, Lynchings were a key element of informal social control in Texas and, further, that "the line between legal and illegal hangings was often razor-thin." The line between proof and prejudice could be razor thin as well, as illustrated in a newspaper editorial quoted by the authors:

Almost every day some negro brute assaults a white woman in this state, and often one to a half-dozen murders are committed in an effort to hide the crime. ... If rape and murder by brutish negroes are to become common, the negro must expect extermination.

Of course, things got better as the twentieth century unfolded, when the place of black citizens came to include the protection of the law.

The rejection of vigilante justice was facilitated by a broader shift in the definition of "place," in this instance as defined by standing before the law. By expanding the protections of rational-legal due process, encouraged by a more centralized system of capital punishment, the exclusionary beliefs and practices aimed at citizens whose roots were African-American became less stark.

Progressively, executions became features of centralized bureaucracies; death sentences were handed down in a decreasingly discriminatory manner. Rape, a capital crime for much of this century, presents a notable exception. Throughout the period of lynchings and through at least the Furman decision in 1972, black rapists have been much more likely than their white counterparts to receive a death sentence. The hardy persistence of this bias reflects what the authors persuasively argue is a "peculiar form of chivalry" with roots embedded deeply in the southern slave plantation ethos.

Changes in the administration of the death penalty typically occurred when abuse spurred efforts for reform. Egregious lynchings sullied that practice in the public's eye, paving the way for centralized, state-sponsored executions. The persistence of bias, if in gradually diminishing form, revealed some five decades later in the Furman decision, was another watershed; legal reforms introduced in the wake of Furman further structured the sentencing process and further reduced racial bias. Today, the race of the victim rather than the race of the offender is the key source of bias in the administration of the death penalty. Thus we no longer talk about exterminating "brutish Negroes," but we still execute blacks at disproportionate rates when their victims are white. The old problems remain, then, though in muted forms.

Advances such as these are, to be sure, exceedingly modest. It is not the contention of the authors that progress over this century, such as it has been, has rehabilitated the death penalty. In their view, our task today is to determine whether it is equitable to have the death penalty for any crime, and if so, to further determine whether our procedures for administering this sanction are fair and even-handed. The equity of capital punishment as a penalty is a moral issue, beyond the scope of social science and this book. The authors turn their attention to the second equity concern and conclude that the risk of bias and the potential for executing outright innocent offenders are simply too great to offset any benefit that might obtain from the practice of capital punishment. Their concluding discussion of the Herrera case, in which "actual innocence" was held to be no bar to execution, is sobering indeed.

Marquart, Ekland-Olson and Sorensen have produced a book that is, on the one hand, a moving human document and, on the other, a model of dispassionate analysis. Readers will feel for the victims of the death penalty, whose humanity is glimpsed in their diaries, in their last words, and in pathetic pleas for clemency made on their behalf by loved ones. Equally, readers will be repelled by the patterns of bias in the administration of the death penalty so clearly reflected in social science tables. The authors have done us a great service by adding both detail and nuance to our knowledge of the human foibles and fallibilities of our justice system, which are revealed so glaringly when we presume to mete out final punishments.

Robert JOHNSON
The American University


The way crime is defined, and what actions or inactions are included in that definition, ultimately determines how we come to understand the phenomenon. By omitting the actions and inactions described in this book, the legal definition of crime obscures a major part of the harm and suffering needlessly endured by the American public. Therefore, it makes sense to examine the provocative fourth volume in Garland Publishing's Current Issues in Criminal Justice Series: Political Crime in Contemporary America: A Critical Approach. This anthology includes eight chapters and provides the reader with thoughts on critical and often overlooked issues about political crime. Overall, the book focuses on issues typically excluded from mainstream discussions of crime. While the basic tenets of these thoughts date back to the 1930s, issues such as these lack any form of pervasive attention in modern criminological circles. This alone makes this book a first class anthology and a must on everyone's reading list. There are several different audiences that should be exposed to the material in this book. Scholars teaching criminology, criminal justice, sociology and political science courses should use this book in conjunction with a main text. Specific criminal justice courses in which the book would be appro-
pria include: white collar crime, the politics of crime, and criminological theory. This book would also be appropriate as a supplement in introduction to criminal justice courses. The book also should be read by federal and state criminal justice legislators, criminal justice practitioners, criminal justice program developers and evaluators, as well as the general public.

Scholars with national and international reputations are represented in the work. The prose is straightforward, easily understood by the average citizen, and confusing jargon is omitted.

In the book's prologue, "The State of Political Crime," editor Kenneth D. Tunnell stresses the need to expand our notion of what is and is not crime. In Robert M. Bohm's chapter, "Social Relationships that Arguably should be Criminal Although they are Not: On the Political Economy of Crime," it is suggested that we need to define sexism, racism, the inequitable distribution of wealth and industrial accidents as political crimes. Additionally, Gregg Barak argues in his chapter, "Crime, Criminology and Human Rights: Toward an Understanding of State Criminality," that other acts of commission such as state-supported terrorism, genocide, the infiltration of insurgent groups, and acts of omission such as the failure of the state to legally guarantee a job to anyone willing to work and to provide housing for anyone without it, ought to be viewed as political crime and a legitimate part of behavioral science courses having crime themes. Gregg Barak acknowledges that researching the study of state crime may be difficult given the resistance of those in power.

The chapters written by Jeffrey Ian Ross, "Research on Contemporary Political Terrorism in the United States: Merits, Drawbacks and Suggestions for Improvement," Wayman C. Mullins, "Hate Crime and the Far Right: Unconventional Terrorism," and Aulette and Michalowski, "Fire in Hamlet: A Case Study of State-Corporate Crime," further stress the need to recognize the political crimes of oppositional terrorism (random or symbolic targets of violence), the existence of domestic terrorism carried out by members of the far right (hate crimes), and the cooperative relationship among agents of state and corporate crime using as an example the recent Imperial Chicken Processing Plant fire in Hamlet, North Carolina where 25 workers were killed and 56 others were injured in an explosion and fire because the fire doors were routinely and deliberately locked to avoid the theft of chicken nuggets. This incident was fueled by the underfunded and overwhelmed OSHA (Occupational Safety and Health) program and the low level of state safety inspections.

There are three chapters that describe political crime from a female perspective. Drew Humphries' contribution, "Crack Mothers, Drug Wars, and the Politics of Resentment," focuses on the myths and realities of crack mothers and finds more myth than reality. She suggests that the way in which crack mothers are viewed is distorted and argues for better pre and postnatal care, adequate housing and the remedy of other socio-economic problems in urban America. Crack mothers, according to Humphries, are a small part of the drug problem, but have been used as a justification for the war on drugs and consequently, have diverted our attention from the failure of this policy. Humphries maintains that the ratio of normal children born to crack addicted mothers is two out of three. Also, estimates of the number of crack mothers should be viewed with caution because tests used to detect drugs do not differentiate between crack, cocaine, alcohol, tobacco and other drugs that may be taken in combination. The chapter written by Kimberly J. Cook, "Pro-Death Politics: Debunking the Pro-Life Agenda," exposes the "pro-life" agenda as a system of punitive control over women's reproductive choices. She shows that punitive states are the most restrictive of abortion. According to Cook, the restriction of rights to abortion should be viewed as an assault on women who do not follow traditionally prescribed roles, generally, and an assault on the women's movement, specifically. Cook claims that attempts to restrict abortion are intended to restore the traditional social order.

The issues raised by Caulfield and Wonders in their chapter, "Personal AND Political: Violence Against Women and the Role of the State," suggest that the state is negligent when it fails to define harm against women as illegal. Furthermore, they stress that the privatization and trivialization of violence against women appears to be condoned by the state because it is often reluctant to intervene in these matters.

This is an excellent book. It expands our definitions of crime and criminality beyond legal definitions. That political crime, as defined in this book, is a part of any legitimate study of crime causation and control must be acknowledged by scholars and decisionmakers. Street violence is most likely the result of the inequalities described by these authors. Therefore, an analysis of political crime serves as a foundation that may enlighten the study of street violence. I strongly encourage others to integrate the issues contained in this book into their teaching and research. The issues of how to correct the imbalance in the attention devoted exclusively to street crime and the lack of attention to political crime is a difficult task. However, a first step is to acknowledge the existence of the types of political crime described in this book. Only after acknowledging its existence can we truly make strides toward reducing the devastation caused by the commission of political crime and begin to offer solutions.

Charisse T. M. COSTON
University of North Carolina at Charlotte


The development of sociology has long been characterized by substantive specialization. Occasionally a book such as James W. Messerschmidt's Masculinities and Crime appears, attempting to bridge the enduring theoretical gaps between knowledge areas. The monograph is a gender-based analysis of contemporary criminality which interweaves the related structured inequalities of race and class into its central argument.

In his opening chapters Messerschmidt conducts a review of criminological theories since Lombroso and presents his own model of "structured action and gendered crime." Starting with the basic observation that men commit the vast majority of crime, the author lays his foundation in the form of two interrelated contentions. First, in traditional criminological theory women are ignored or viewed androcentrically ("...men and boys are the yardstick against which the conduct of women and girls is measured.")

Second, the conduct of males is not conceptualized in a gendered context. While men and boys traditionally have been the "normal subjects" of criminology, the significance of their acting as men and boys has been largely overlooked. The result is a "gender-blind" criminology which misrepresents the criminal behavior of women as biogenic and characterizes male behavior as emerging from the same, assumed, biological differences between the sexes.

Messerschmidt contends that clear conceptualization of gender has been missing in traditional criminological theory, even as strides have been made to place criminal conduct within a subcultural normative context. For example, with differential association, Edwin Sutherland explicitly dismantled earlier biological perspectives, constructing a subcultural-based learning theory of criminality. At the same time he remained silent on the cultural context of gender for an understanding of crime. Similarly, Albert Cohen's delinquent subculture theory articulated the sex-role formulations of Sutherland and Talcott Parsons, explaining gangs as a collective male solution to problems of status frustration. However, by romanticizing the conduct of the delinquent-as-rogue-male, Cohen simply reinforced the unexamined dichotomous division of gender based on biology.

Messerschmidt recognizes that the gendered study of crime must draw from the various strands of feminism developed over the last three decades, even as these strands have incompletely conceptualized the social construction of gender. While liberal feminism of the early 1960s articu-
lated the structured inequality of gender in society, the perspective distorted gender variability and did not develop a theory of criminality rooted in social action.

Extending his critique to radical and cultural feminism, Messerschmidt argues that neither provides a clear conceptualization of the social construction of gender and therefore offers little corrective for the pervasive gender-blindness of contemporary criminological theory. Building on the premise of essential biological differences between the sexes, radical feminism of the 1970s posited an "ideology of rape" (rape as violence, not sex, in a patriarchal society), through which women are kept in a constant state of fear. Similarly, in rejecting an androcentric solution to the ideology of male dominance and subsequent violence, cultural feminists have argued for the preservation of a "female counter culture" in which gender differences are a source of pride and strength for women.

Finally, Messerschmidt demonstrates that socialist feminism (with its ties to gender-blind Marxism) has accentuated the interconnectedness of patriarchy and capitalism. Despite the importance of its gender/class "double vision," socialist feminism ignores the historical contextualization of gender and the variability of its construction in contemporary society.

His theoretical model links gender, class, and race to illuminate why men disproportionately commit crime and why they commit different types of crime. Social structures (i.e., divisions of labor, power, and sexuality) are simultaneously constituted through social practice, permitting and precluding social action. Class, race, and especially gender relations are contextualized, not determined, by these fluid social structures. Status relations among men and women are generated not from dualistic biological sex roles, but through "hegemonic" and "subordinated" masculinities. Crime as gendered activity thus becomes one of many ways to socially construct these idealized forms of masculinity.

Messerschmidt's articulation of this model displays rare theoretical insight. Middle-class, white boys construct an accommodating masculinity in response to school authority (embodiment of the hegemonic concern with occupational career and financial success) and an oppositional one within the youth subculture (idealizing alcohol use, sexual conquest, and less serious forms of delinquency), designed to earn status among peers. Working-class, white boys and especially lower-working-class racial minorities generate oppositional masculinities both in and out of school. The former group engages in a variety of deviant activities to underscore its disvalued status within the school and to subordinate the masculinity of middle-class peers. The latter group articulates a "street" masculinity through more serious forms of violent personal crime such as robbery and rape. Each of these constructions is a class/race-based interpretation of dominant heterosexual cultural images.

Extending his analysis to older men, Messerschmidt examines further how crime commission is layered into various public and private adult masculinities. Focusing on three specific settings (i.e., the street, the workplace, and the family), he demonstrates the gendered nature of a variety of crimes, including pimping and "deviant street networks," shop-floor theft, corporate crime, and sexual harassment in the workplace: "beating, battering and rape, and force-only rape. In each case masculinity is negotiated by means of criminal acts in the context of social status, power relations, and definitions of sexuality.

Concluding the book is an analysis of the gendered political state. Especially here, Messerschmidt goes beyond a mechanistic capitalism/patriarchy model to situate gender identity in the nexus of status, power, and sexuality as constructed social action. Particularly intriguing is his contention that the state regulates gender relations in society, serves as a site for the mobilization of specific interests, and evidences an institutionalized bias for protecting the "gendered status quo."

Given its ambitious scope, Messerschmidt's thesis is compellingly presented and even more cogently argued. The social construction of masculinity through criminal behavior is related to the larger problem of institutionalized gender inequality. At the same time, race and class relations are socially created and thereby part of the stigmatization of deviant gender constructions. Messerschmidt's model (emphasizing social structure as process) can thus be linked to the emerging theoretical synthesis of symbolic interactionism and cultural studies (Denzin, 1992; Becker and McCall, 1990). Both seek an interdisciplinary understanding of the constraining and liberating qualities of social meaning as generated by actors in specific historical circumstances.

Masculinities and Crime deserves the largest audience, if only because of the importance of the debate it is sure to generate. "Scientific" criminologists will criticize it for being overly theoretical and "soft" in its methods. Various feminists will surely argue that it misrepresents their brand of theorizing. Despite any protests, Messerschmidt is to be commended for humanizing the study of criminality and demonstrating its complex link to gender construction in contemporary society. In his quest to "bring men into the framework," he has indeed extended femininity to new terrain.

REFERENCES

Daniel DOTTER
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When John Kobler's biography of Al Capone (Capone: The Life and World of Al Capone, Putnam's, 1971) appeared twenty-three years ago, it was promoted as the definitive study of Chicago's chief gangster. Turns out, the last word had not been heard. Kobler relied on a few inside sources for which he failed to give itemized citation, and his overall account was deceptively praiseworthy of federal investigators. Dennis Hoffman's book is an attempt to add more of the background coloration to the case, and to argue that private and public initiatives were essential factors in Capone's conviction.

There are few scholarly studies of federal wars on organized crime, and there are even fewer accounts of the tangential elements that assist the feds in making good cases. Most works are journalistic biographies of mobsters or glorifications of government investigative successes against mob kingspin. No book, except Dennis Hoffman's, flushes out the contributions of private initiatives to participate actively in the investigation and surveillance of criminal organizations. Indeed, with few exceptions, the literature magnifies the significance of government jurisdiction in organized crime while hardly ever acknowledging government dependence upon cooperation from private informants, private victims, nextdoor neighbors, business owners, private detectives, and the press. Hoffman's book recognizes the value of these adjunct factors, in particular in the Capone investigation. Accordingly, this book contributes to a small but expanding literature that challenges the notion that government alone has been responsible for all inroads into the containment of organized crime. More such work is needed.

Hoffman's chapter organization is appropriate for ranging across his subject, the Chicago businessmen known as the "Secret Six." The author characterizes these men as "givers" (i.e., financiers) and "doers" (i.e., investigators, forensics specialists, or special prosecutors); men who "helped end Al Capone's domination of Chicago." He summarizes the background of the "Six in Who Were the Crusaders?" He provides his answer to the question of "Why the Feds Step In," embellishing (perhaps a bit excessively) the contributions of "Six" member, Judge Frank J. Loesch. He springs from the St. Valentine's Day massacre and the assassination of newsman Jake Lingle to argue that Capone could no longer be tolerated in the "Windy City." He concludes that the Secret Six made a real contribution to Capone's conviction.

Some constructive criticism is in order, however. The author glows with praise of the Secret
Six organization. But should not this warm-and-fuzzy feeling be supported by an abundance of primary historical sources and tempered by careful review of the rather uneven history of private anti-crime groups? Hoffman's argument depends mainly upon secondary source newspaper accounts and a sprinkling of primary sources. In all, the book contains well over 200 magazine and newspaper references (many of which are repeated), and only 36 references to primary sources (most of which are taken from 'scrapbooks' of Robert I. Randolph, a Secret Six member). Apparently, no attempt was made to acquire letters, reports and other documents from the National Archives, from federal investigative agencies, or from other library or private paper collections. Historical scholarship demands the mining of such records. Absence of a healthy dose of primary records supplies the historian-critic of a criminal justice professor's otherwise good intentions with reasonable doubts about credibility.

My own work to uncover realities of the Capone investigation and prosecution (The Origins and Development of Federal Crime Control Policy: Herbert Hoover's Initiatives, Praeger, 1993), for example, led to tens of linear feet of government and private records. Within the great mass of papers was correspondence pertaining to the Secret Six. Some items were found at the Herbert Hoover Presidential Library, others at the Department of Justice, and many were at the National Archives. I recall two letters in particular which shed light on Judge Loesch's access to President Hoover. By mid-1929, Loesch was appointed to Hoover's Wickersham commission committee, and he was directly responsible for several inquiries into law enforcement, including the matter of police "third degree" tactics. One letter demonstrated Hoover's, not Loesch's, complete control over all aspects of the Capone caper: the Capone investigation, in fact, was run directly out of the Oval Office. The other letter demonstrated that Loesch was a trusted recipient of privileged government investigative information, including well guarded Internal Revenue Bureau documents. The corpus of these records, in fact, suggest that Loesch's access to the margins of government information, although significant in terms of how the work of government was accomplished, played no significant role in the outcome of the Capone case. More records indicate, indeed, that government agents dominated the direction and progress of the case, not without mistakes or miscues, however. Had Hoffman tapped into a full range of primary records, reasonably he may have put a different spin on his quite useful account.

A second concern lies with Hoffman's failure to provide a perspective on the history of 'private war' against crime. The book could have offered a balanced historical record of private group initiatives. Hoffman could have accounted for abuses of private discretion, commission of crimes in the name of anti-crime work, as well as the many constructive, law-abiding efforts against crime. The Secret Six was not the first such anti-crime organization, and the record of its predecessors is not entirely unblemished. Recall that organized citizens participated in lynchings and vigilante activities; yet others were responsible for aiding sheriffs and federal marshals in capturing killers and thieves. Without dwelling on the point, the history of American law enforcement does not contain a compelling amount of evidence to sustain a view that there is an inherent virtue in private anti-crime initiatives. Hoffman supplies some indications of a claim of potential virtue in the Secret Six actions. Fortunately for Capone's associates and hangers-on, the Secret Six was a passive-aggressive organization by design, resources and support. Had the organization received wide popular acclaim and financing, had federal investigators remained unconcerned about overzealousness, and had state legal authority been extended, there is no telling how many of Capone's men would have survived to a trial date. In retrospect, the Secret Six was little more than a force for mobilizing local action and for defusing local frustrations with corruption and incompetence in Chicago's criminal justice system.

In addition, referring to Hoffman's section on "Enlisting President Hoover in the Crusade" (pp. 51-52), Herbert Hoover and federal enforcement organizations needed no special visitation from the Secret Six to move against Capone. Hoover had already set his law enforcement and observance agenda, and his record as a mining engineer, war administrator and Secretary of Commerce was replete with strong actions against conspiratorial organizations. Moreover, Hoover's experiences had taught him that a blend of private and public initiatives could achieve remarkable public policy successes. His adherence to a progressive political philosophy, one that held firmly to the primary role of government in enforcement matters, was behind his 1928 campaign speeches which set forth an effective plan to attack organized crime. Cabinet and staff appointments after March 3, 1929 gave clear indications of his forthright federal action and control. So, Hoover's March 1929 meeting with Loesch and Chicago Tribune owner Walter Strong served only to enlist even more support for the Hoover initiatives, and those initiatives provided Hoover with excellent political opportunity to escalate federal intervention through a predicate of local popular support.

Hoffman's book will support courses on twentieth century history of organized crime. Its style is friendly and smooth. Setting aside concern for research detail, it can serve as a model for new students of social history who wish to inquire into facets of organized crime that remain unexplored by mainstream historians. Instructors may find this work useful as support material, thus allowing them to dispense with certain important tales of the twentieth century history of organized crime.

James D. CALDER

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Whenever social scientists realize they do not know very much about the lived reality of particular groups of women, they tend to make one of two mistakes. They may assume that the women are likely to be more or less like their male counterparts, and thus run a considerable risk that they are ignoring important gender differences. Alternatively, they lapse into traditional gender stereotypes and blithely assume that the women differ from the male members of their group by being less self-directed, more dependent, more bound to traditional values or more prone to have whatever "feminine" characteristics seem suitable in the given case.

The present wave of feminist research offers a refreshing corrective to such misconceptions of women. Avril Taylor's work is firmly in the feminist research tradition of seeking out women in the community and asking them about how they interpret their worlds and account for their behaviour. She chose a group of women, intravenous drug users, who have been largely ignored in studies of substance-users.

Much of the earlier literature on drug-using women came from the disciplines of medicine, psychology and psychiatry, and was therefore based on patient populations. Thus, the image of the female drug user has been drawn in gender stereotypical terms, where she is portrayed as somehow even more pathetic and less interesting than her male counterpart, and as either dependent on or manipulated by him. It is interesting to note that this once was a widespread conception of all illicit drug users, following on Robert Merton's depiction of them as "retratists" in his theoretical classification of deviant adaptations. It was not until ethnographers took the time to study drug users (male) in their natural setting (New York City) that Merton's conception was called into question. We found out that heroin users could be very energetic individuals who, indeed, were "taking care of business" in an exciting and dangerous world of adventure and risk. The most important contribution of Avril Taylor's research is her discovery of similar agency in female intravenous drug users.

Like their male counterparts, the Scottish working-class women who participated in Taylor's study were experiencing self-actualization in their involvement in illicit drug use. Although boyfriends were influential in facilitating introduction to drug use, Taylor's respondents were firm
in their conviction that their initiatives were self-motivated. They did not need men to buy illicit drugs for them or to obtain the resources to do so. Indeed, the women were often the "broadwinners" in drug-using couples. To continue their drug use, these women developed criminal skills of which they were proud, which gave them status and financial independence. Just as men can gain subcultural status from being successful drug dealers, so did some of the women in this study.

Before she began her research, Avril Taylor had no first-hand experience of illicit drug injectors. She entered the field with some trepidation. Her initial contacts were facilitated by a community drug worker, beginning a long process of establishing her familiarity and becoming an accepted presence in the neighbourhood she had chosen for study. Eventually, she found herself accompanying drug users on their daily rounds--shopping for children's clothes to court visits and trips to the HIV clinic. Clearly, Taylor succeeded in winning the trust of these women.

One thing Taylor had in common with many of them was motherhood, and this aspect of her respondents’ lives may come as a surprise to some readers. It is typically assumed that intravenous drug users are ipso facto unfit mothers. Although some of the mothers found that the drug-using lifestyle interfered with their mothering role, "[i]n the mothers in this study looked after and cared for their children perfectly adequately. With regard to motherhood, their attitudes, hopes and expectations were traditional, and similar to those of non-drug using mothers" (p. 151).

Taylor's insights into the life options available to these Scottish working class women are particularly striking. If they had not chosen the adventure of the drug-using lifestyle, a career which offered them a degree of independence and "an outlet for entrepreneurial and innovative abilities" (p. 157), they would have faced lives of domestic subordination and drudgery, poverty or underemployment. From this perspective, their life choices appear less unreasonable.

Avril Taylor has opened a window of understanding of these women’s lives. Her research is original and the analysis of her findings is cogent, balanced and (in accordance with expectations of well-conducted ethnographic research) is myth-shattering. This interesting and highly readable book is recommended on all accounts.

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In American literature the subject of discretion is rarely broached with objectivity. The media, public and legislators are more inclined to condemn its use than support it. Criminal justice practitioners, being more pragmatic, recognize its procedural and substantive necessity. Researchers are mostly divided over policy issues. Two factors contribute to the controversy surrounding discretion. One is the extent to which one believes that the law should be sufficiently clear to guide all decisions. The other is the belief that, if left unfettered, discretion will foster capricious and arbitrary behavior on the part of the decisionmaker. It was, therefore, an unexpected surprise to find a comprehensive and objective examination of the theory and practice of discretion.

The Uses of Discretion is a major undertaking by Keith Hawkins both in scope and dimension. With twelve contributors representing primarily the disciplines of sociology and law, this book could easily have become a series of loosely connected essays. Thanks to the editorial skills of Keith Hawkins and his selection of contributors, the chapters are woven into a logical and comprehensive examination of issues and theories.

The book is divided into three parts. Each is preceded by a commentary by Hawkins which summarizes the theme of the section and relates the chapters to the theme. For the reader who does not wish to delve into the entire book which is quite lengthy, these summaries are very helpful. The first part, "Issues in the Use of Discretion," introduces the subject of discretion and explores the issue of rules versus discretion. This section is thought-provoking because it discusses the role of discretion vis-à-vis its relationship to rules from a variety of theoretical positions. The carefully developed statements about the necessity for both rules and discretion, their limitations and advantages should be required reading for all who seek clarification about this issue.

The second part, "Social Processes in the Use of Legal Discretion," explores the nature of discretionary decisionmaking within the legal environment. It emphasizes the patterns and consistencies that exist, and explores the characteristics of some of the social and organizational factors that shape legal decisions and discretion. This section looks at the apparent contradiction between the individualistic nature of discretion (judge each case on its merits) and emerging evidence that suggests that there is an order and rationale to discretionary actions.

Not to be missed is M. P. Baumgartner’s chapter, "The Myth of Discretion." It can stand alone as a comprehensive summary of the existing research that demonstrates the predictability of decisionmaking by criminal justice actors, including police, prosecution and the courts. Of special interest is the presentation of historical evidence that is rarely mentioned in the literature. Although one may disagree with her selection of the factors associated with consistency in decisionmaking (intimacy, respectability and social status), (and Baumgartner herself notes the existence of others), the important conclusion is that those who make different decisions in different parts of the criminal justice system display very similar decisionmaking tendencies.

The third part, "Thinking About the Uses of Discretion," examines different ways of using discretion and their implications for social policy. This section has three chapters. Administrative Justice examines how discretion is imbedded in administrative agencies and procedures, and how it can be abused when the decisionmaker has the power to prevent clients from receiving "accurate decisions...in a manner that is fair, by being prompt, impartial and allowing claimants to participate and receive accountable decisions" (Sainsbury: 306).

The discussions in each of the three chapters set the stage of a new look at discretion, one that should be of great interest now in the United States. When discretion is viewed as a legitimate forum outside the legal context, the effect is to expand the adversary model so other forms of bargaining and cooperative styles of negotiation can be accepted. These models of informal justice are emerging as we shift to community policing, community courts, alternative dispute resolution and problem solving mechanisms. They introduce the need for trust, accountability, partnership and empowerment. Hawkins has produced a complex book that is not a "quick read." But for those who are concerned with the uses of discretion, it should be given careful examination and wide recognition.

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Outside the Wall is the life history of Lourdes Santiago, a Puerto Rican working class woman raised in Chicago's Division Street neighborhood during the 1960s and 1970s. Giving power and credibility to the voice of one Latina woman from Chicago, this work adds to the growing information about women of color, affirms the historical importance of everyday life, and is an excellent example of the "Sociological Imagination."

Heavily involved in the Pentecostal church as a young child, Lourdes Santiago was also one of the best students in her elementary school and had a good reputation in the neighborhood. When she was nine years old, though, her parents divorced and her mother became extremely overprotective of the children. By the time Santiago was fourteen, she had organized and quickly left a girls' gang. And against all advice from family and teachers, by the next year, Ms. Santiago was married to a seventeen-year-old neighborhood gang leader. She eventually dropped out of high
school, and by nineteen she was running her husband's drug business while he was in Cook County Jail waiting trial for shooting a rival gang leader. Looking back, she realizes that getting married was the only possible avenue away from her mother's controlling discipline.

The gang leader whom Santiago married was in and out of jail for a series of arrests, shot by a rival gang member, and finally, after only four years of marriage, he was arrested, convicted, and sentenced to a seventy year prison term for murdering a rival gang member. However, Santiago firmly believes that her husband was falsely accused and wrongfully convicted: “They wanted him off the streets because they thought he had such a big influence in the neighborhood, which he did” (p. 94).

Determined to make her marriage work, Santiago visited her husband weekly and kept the house ready for his return. “I was going to accomplish it whether from inside, where he is now, or from here, together on the outside” says Santiago (p. 126). She now believes she was so determined to make the marriage work because of the difficulties she had experienced when her mother divorced.

Padilla observes that Santiago tried to cope with the stigma of “her spoiled identity as the wife of a drug user, gang leader, and prisoner” by controlling information about her own personal family life (p. 126). She even left several jobs, when coworkers became too inquisitive about her husband’s whereabouts. In 1990, after nine years of secrecy, Santiago began to organize a support group to help prisoners’ families. During all those years of weekly visits to prison, she had watched the correctional officers harass many Puerto Rican families in the visiting rooms. Ms. Santiago, in turn then, reaches out to the community which shares this stigma. She moves beyond the traditional gender role expectations of the Puerto Rican community in which she was reared to help not just herself but her community also.

However, there is an incident at the prison where her husband is imprisoned. An inmate is killed and prison authorities believe that Santiago’s husband, as an important gang leader, had something to do with organizing the incident. He is subsequently moved out-of-state to a maximum security prison in New Jersey, making it impossible for Lourdes to continue her weekly visits. She is convinced that the authorities transferred him because of her efforts to develop the support group for Puerto Rican prisoners’ families.

This perception leads to the major problems of this book. More information is necessary to understand how the prison authorities could or would transfer Santiago’s husband out of state solely because of her prison reform activities. There are no details to help the reader understand such actions. Additionally, Ms. Santiago’s husband is never referred to by name in this book, even though Padilla explains in the introduction why Ms. Santiago chooses to use her own name.

Furthermore, the book is supposedly about a woman married to an incarcerated gang leader, devoting half of her life “to aiding her husband and fighting for prison reform”; it also purports to be “an unparalleled look at the effects of the penal system on the hundreds of thousands of men and women in prison and on their families outside the wall.” There are no specifics about the prison reform group. Her husband was incarcerated in 1981. It is not until 1990, nine years after his imprisonment, and three-quarters of the way through the book, that Ms. Santiago begins to organize the prisoners’ family support group. Perhaps then this shame is one of the major effects on prisoners’ families. Clearly families of prisoners share the stigmatization. Yet, is that the “unparalleled look at the effects of the penal system?”

However, the book does have its good points. It illustrates how the stigma of being a prisoner’s spouse becomes the turning point in Lourdes Santiago’s life, thus liberating and empowering her. Furthermore, Santiago’s early decision making processes that lead to her present situation are easy to understand. This story then becomes more than Lourdes Santiago’s story. It is the story of the women who are left behind as increasingly larger numbers of young Hispanic men are imprisoned. Bureau of Justice statistics for 1990 indicate that Hispanic inmates represent the fastest growing segment of the prison population, doubling from 6% in 1974 to 12% in 1990 (Greenfield, 1992:13).

Lourdes Santiago’s struggles and the process of writing this book allow her to see her individual troubles as a Puerto Rican woman in relationship to the larger social and economic issues of the Chicago community of her youth. Furthermore, Padilla’s comments set the tone for Santiago’s narrative and allow the reader to visualize the relationship between this individual life and the world in which it is lived. This life does not have to be limited to Chicago’s Division Street Puerto Rican community. It can be the story of any working class woman of color who was raised in a poor urban area where drugs have become the major business enterprise of the community. And because this story has such a generalizability but also maintains the individual voice, I believe Padilla and Santiago have grasped the essence of C. Wright Mills’ “Sociological Imagination.” This book may not have been what I expected, but it does contribute to an understanding of the lives of women who are left behind by the “lock ‘em up” mentality of this decade.

REFERENCES

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“I began this research enterprise with a strong dose of skepticism regarding the objectives, efficacy, and correctness of U.S. drug control policies. My research experience has effectively confirmed my intellectual and ethical reservations” (p. xxv). Upon reflection, it is readily apparent to the reader that Ethan Nadelman’s reservations were well founded!

Nadelman, who has become widely known for his extensive work in the area of drug policy and moreover as advocate of drug decriminalization/ legalization, has produced an extraordinary work. Based upon approximately three hundred interviews of DEA, FBI, IRS agents and other “experts” and taking ten years to complete, Cops Across Borders provides a fascinating and sometimes captivating look at a wide variety of international policy issues, especially drug enforcement policy.

The book is composed of eight chapters, beginning with a brief introductory summary and an historical discussion of the internationalization of U.S. Law Enforcement from 1789 to the present. At first cumbersome, it is quickly evident that this developmental history is an essential part of the book. We tend to view international criminal law enforcement as a contemporary phenomenon, but the author effectively demonstrates otherwise.

When compared to the European experience, the internationalization of American law enforcement over the years has been somewhat modest although not entirely insignificant. While other governmental activities (intelligence, military, economic, foreign aid, etc.) have expanded immensely, especially since World War II, only recently has the scope of criminal law enforcement extended overseas. Nadelman convincingly illustrates the departure from the isolationist policies of the pre-war era to our continued involvement in international policing.

Chapters six and seven address the investigation and “immobilization” (including extradition) of criminals abroad. Very technically oriented, the discussion centers around mutual legal assistance treaty (MLAT) negotiations among various foreign governments and analyzes in detail several of these. The first MLAT, with Switzerland in the late 1960s, is described in detail. Nadelman also attempts to distinguish international pursuit of offenders from most domestic criminal justice activities; there are few legal constraints relative to these extra-territorial “quests.”

The final chapter provides a brief overview of the text and summarizes the various competing explanations for the internationalization of U.S.
The title of this volume intrigued me immediately. I expected a strong evaluation of intervention and prevention programs, but the bulk of the book doesn't follow the title's suggestion. Of the 170 pages of text, 90 present a selected review of literature on "The Essence of Battering," "The Structural Dynamics of Battering," "The Interpersonal Dynamics of Battering," "The Developmental Process and Organizational Structure of Battering: The Initial Stages and the Later Stages." The next almost 50 pages explored and critiqued "Interventions with Men Who Batter Women," "Intrapersonal Intervention Programs," "Intrapersonal Intervention Programs," "Community-coordinated Interventions and Change in the Criminal Justice System." The critiques focus on how programs fail to attend to the serious effects of patriarchy and men's sole responsibility for violence. Unfortunately, the author does not offer the same degree of scrutiny to the philosophical assumptions, completeness, or implications of his own perspective. Virtually none of the material is based on empirical analysis of program outcomes. The critiques are ideological rather than theoretical or empirical.

This examination of intervention programs is followed by a presentation of the growth and human potential orientation in "Developing Your Full Individual and Collective Potential." This examination does not outline strengths and weaknesses nor critically evaluate the contributions of this perspective to our knowledge. Criticism is reserved for research and intervention programs that are based on other perspectives.

Ironically, in view of the title, only 13 pages are devoted to primary prevention strategies. This chapter argues for the eradication of patriarchy in society in general, but few specific program suggestions follow to alter the basic structure of society. Curiously, the final chapter offers prevention strategies aimed primarily at individuals and families. Until this point, the author neglects the literature on family socialization processes in the presentation of causes and intervention programs, but individual and family processes are the primary targets for prevention presented.

The final chapter left me with several questions. Is it easier to see the faults of the patriarchal system and blame it for all negative consequences to women, than to come to grips with changing that patriarchy in actual prevention strategies? Are individuals and families the most accessible targets for primary prevention? Must other theoretical perspectives be included in comprehensive prevention programs? I would argue the latter, acknowledge the very real negative consequences of patriarchy for women, but in addition include the evidence that other factors contribute to battering of women.

At the very end of the book, a few examples are given of successful prevention strategies. Two case examples of primary prevention programs for children and adolescents illustrate how young people can be trained or retrained to find alternatives to the use of force in interpersonal relationships. Then, the book concludes with a very strong argument for the elimination of physical punishment by parents. Curiously this is the first time this issue was addressed even though this suggestion does follow from the basic orientation that battering results from social structural conditions with the legitimation of history and normative support. The selective focus on patriarchy dissipates somewhat as the book continues, and the final chapter on strategies suggests a more comprehensive view of battering, but there is some discontinuity between the end of the book and the unitary focus on patriarchy earlier.

Overall, the review of literature selectively emphasizes patriarchy in its organizational framework, but does provide considerable detail about the essence and process of battering. The case for prevention has been adequately made (if it needed to be), but the book provides more philosophical arguments than detailed strategies for prevention to guide policy makers. Our thirst for specific strategies that have proven successful in trials awaits further research.

Jean GILES-SIMS
Texas Christian University

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The Journal of Offender Rehabilitation announces the planned publication of a special edition, focusing on international corrections. Manuscripts that address this issue are now being sought. Abstracts may be submitted until MARCH 1, 1994. Completed manuscripts may be submitted until JUNE 1, 1994. Papers focusing on Asia, Africa and the Pacific Basin should be submitted to: DR. GREG NEWBOLD, Department of Sociology, University of Canterbury, Christchurch, New Zealand, 643-366-7001 (phone), SOCIO22@CSC.CANTERBURY.AC.NZ (E-mail). Papers focusing on Central and South America, Europe and the Islamic nations should be submitted to: DR. CHRIS ESKRIDGE, Department of Criminal Justice, University of Nebraska at Omaha, Lincoln, NE 68588-0630, 402-472-6755 (phone), CESKRIDGE@UNLINFO.UNL.EDU (E-mail).

Contributions are invited for a collection of essays on policewomen. Some topics addressing this theme include: campaigns for women police, policewomen associations; industrial issues, equity, cadetships, curriculum; undercover work, detection, criminology, police culture, ethics, misconduct; non-traditional positions, post resignation occupations, resignation; relationships, sexuality, responses to crime against women, same-sex policing; and research projects, policy, comparative studies. Other suggestions are welcome. Titles and 200 word abstracts are required by 30 June 1994. Final chapters will be required by 31 December 1994. Maximum length of chapters is 6000 words. Contact ANNE-MAREE COLLINS, Faculty of Humanities, Griffith University, Nathan Q 4111, Australia, Phone (61) (07) 875-7330, Fax: (61) (07) 875-7730.

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The lack of data on police use of force became obvious immediately after the Rodney King incident in 1990. Journalists, scholars, and government officials went in search of national statistics. They found none.

Recognizing the compelling need for such data, the National Institute of Justice, a research arm of the U.S. Department of Justice, asked the Police Foundation to conduct a national survey of police use of force, citizen complaints, and their legal consequences. The much awaited report, authored by Tony Pate and Lorie Fridell, is now complete. The Police Foundation has released a 360-page, two-volume publication setting forth a wealth of information collected from 1,100 law enforcement agencies. The report, containing an extensive appendix of approximately 200 tables, documents the extent to which force is used, the policies and procedures governing the use of force, the rates and dispositions of citizen complaints, the characteristics of officers and citizens involved in those complaints, and the civil suits and criminal charges stemming from alleged excessive force.

To order the report (ISBN-884614-00-0), send $60.00 (includes postage and handling) to: Police Foundation, Publications, 1001 22nd St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20037. Telephone: (202) 833-1460.

**Also of interest:** City in Crisis, a two-volume report by a special advisors' commission to the City of Los Angeles documenting the police response to civil disorder sparked by the verdict in the Rodney King trial. To order, send a check for $30.00 to the address above.
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9. For Completion by Nonprofit Organizations Authorized To Mail at Special Rates (Form 3624 only)

The purpose, function, and nonprofit status of this organization and the exempt status for Federal income tax purposes (Check one)

☐ Has Not Changed During Preceding 12 Months  
☐ Has Changed During Preceding 12 Months

10. Extent and Nature of Circulation

(See instructions on reverse side)

A. Total No. Copies (Net Press Run)  
2550

B. Paid and/or Requested Circulation

1. Sales through dealers and carriers, street vendors and counter sales  
2223

2. Mail Subscription (Paid and/or requested)  
2223

C. Total Paid and/or Requested Circulation  
2223

D. Free Distribution by Mail, Carrier or Other Means, Samples, Complimentary, and Other Free Copies  
5

E. Total Distribution (Sum of C and D)  
2228

F. Copies Not Distributed

1. Office use, left over, unaccounted, spoiled after printing  
322

2. Return from News Agents  
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G. TOTAL (Sum of E, F1 and 2—should equal net press run shown in A)  
2550

11. I certify that the statements made by me above are correct and complete  

Signature and Title of Editor, Publisher, Business Manager, or Owner  
Sarah M. Hall, Administrator
ASC CALL FOR NOMINATIONS

The ASC Nominations Committee announces a call for nominations from the membership for the election slate of officers for 1995. Positions for the ballot include President-Elect, Vice-President-Elect, and two Executive Counselors.

You may use the nominations form below or place names in nomination by writing a letter. All such nominations should be received by August 1, 1994, and should be sent to the address below. To assure that your nominee gets full consideration by the committee, would you provide some brief background information on the candidate(s), their address, and your reason for their nomination.

1995 ASC NOMINATIONS

For President-Elect: __________________________________________
Name

Nominee's address

Reasons for nomination

For Vice-President-Elect: ______________________________________
Name

Nominee's address

Reasons for nomination

For Executive Counselor:
(you may nominate two)

Signature of Nominator: ______________________________________

Please forward your nominations by August 1, 1994 to:

SUSAN MARTIN
National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism
6000 Executive Boulevard, Suite 505
Rockville, MD 20892
NOMINATIONS FOR 1994
MICHAEL J. HINDELANG
AWARD
For the Most Outstanding
Contribution to
Criminology

The American Society of Criminology
has established the Michael J. Hindelang
Award, to be given annually for a book
published during the past few years that
makes the most outstanding contribu-
tion to research in criminology. The
Award will be presented at the 1994
annual meeting of the ASC.

The Award Committee is soliciting nomi-
nations for the Michael J. Hindelang
Award. To nominate a book, please
send the title of the work, the author(s),
the publisher, the year of publication,
and a brief discussion of your reasons for
the recommendation to the Award Com-
mittee by May 15, 1994. Send your
nomination to: Joseph G. WEIS, Chair,
Michael J. Hindelang Award Commit-
tee, Department of Sociology, DK-40,
University of Washington, Seattle, WA
98195, (206) 685-2043/543-5882.

INFORMATION FOR UNIVERSITIES AND
ORGANIZATIONS PLACING
POSITION ANNOUNCEMENTS IN
THE CRIMINOLOGIST

The Criminologist is published six times each year, beginning with the January/
February issue. Deadlines for advertisements and other information are the first
day of the month preceding the publication date. For example, the deadline for the May/
June issue is April 1. Each issue is given to the printer by the 15th day of the month
preceding publication. Again, for example, the May/June issue is given to the printer
on April 15. The issue is printed and shipped to the American Society of Criminology
headquarters by the first day of the month of publication. For example, the May/June
issue will arrive at headquarters about the first day of May. The issue must then be
labeled and mailed and issues are not mailed using first class postage. The target
date for the arrival of issues in the members’ mailboxes is the 15th of the month of
publication, although they may arrive slightly later, depending on a number of
different circumstances. Therefore, the May/June issue should be received by the
members around the 15th of May, perhaps a little later at times. Universities and
institutions advertising positions in The Criminologist should keep this in mind when
setting deadlines for applications. The editors have worked diligently to stay within
this timeframe and have generally been successful. At times, advertisers have been
contacted and notified that they might want to reconsider the deadline date for a
position announcement; however, neither the time nor resources allow for this on a
consistent basis. Please keep the following in mind when setting application
deadlines: (1) The Criminologist is laid out by the first day of the month preceding
publication and there may be no room for additional announcements after this date;
and (2) members of the ASC will generally receive their copies around the 15th of the
first month of the publication date for the issue. The editors strongly recommend
setting application deadlines no earlier than the first day of the second month of the
issue. For example, for the May/June issue, set the application deadline no sooner
than June 1. Finally, due to the Christmas/New Year holidays, the January/February
issue is generally received by the membership around the first day of February.

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