

The Annual Business Meeting of the
American Society of Criminology
December 28, 1959, Hotel LaSalle
Chicago, Illinois

As Reported by: Donal E. J. MacNamara, Vice-President

The Minutes

Elected

President: Mr. Marcel Frym, re-elected

Western Vice-President: Dr. William Dienstein, Fresno
State College

Central Vice-President: Prof. Robert Borkenstein, Center
for Police Studies, Indiana Univ.

Southern Vice-President: Dr. Morris Caldwell, University
of Alabama

Eastern Vice-President: Dr. Canio L. Zarrilli, New York
Institute of Criminology

Executive Board Member: Dr. Vernon Fox, Florida State
University

Secretary-Treasurer: Donal E. J. MacNamara, Dean
New York Institute of Criminology

AAAS Council Delegate: Donal E. J. MacNamara (3 years)

Newsletter Editor: Howard R. Leary, Deputy Commis-
sioner Philadelphia, Penna.

Nominating Committee

Dr. Jacob Chwast
Professor John Kenney
Professor William Melnicoe

Other Business

- (a) Appointments to committees to be left to the President (instructed to appoint: Annual Awards Committee, August Vollmer Award Committee (research in criminology), and Committee on the International Criminological Congress;
- (b) Dues to be raised to \$10.00 (see attached suggested ballot); must be approved by membership vote;
- (c) Three immediate past presidents to become members of the executive board (see attached ballot; must be approved by membership vote;
- (d) AAAS Council requested that representatives of affiliate societies be elected for three-year terms-approved;
- (e) Participation in 2nd United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders (London, August 8-20, 1960) and the Fourth International Criminological Congress, the Hague, September 5-12, 1960, unanimously approved. All members who plan to attend either or both Congresses should notify Secretary-Treasurer immediately;
- (f) 1958 Proceedings will be available from Philosophical Library (publisher) within a few months, Dr. Herbert Bloch, Editor;
- (g) Dr. Jacob Chwast, Dr. Canio Zarrilli, and the Secretary-Treasurer will edit the 1959 proceedings;
- (h) Joint University of Southern California and American Society of Criminology sponsorship of an International Criminological Congress in California in 1961 was unanimously approved. Dr. Marcel Frym and Professor John Kenney were designated co-chairman of the Planning Committee;
- (i) Greater stress on student and associate memberships and more intensive screening of candidates for active membership was suggested by several members - no resolution was adopted but Vice-Presidents will be furnished more complete information as to academic and professional qualifications of prospective members in the future.

The Editor is desirous of having "news bits" for publication that would be of interest to our members. He will also make available in the Newsletter a "situation wanted section."

SHADOWS IN LAW ENFORCEMENT SELECTION PROCEDURES

By

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Michigan State University

Almost 2500 years ago the Chinese religionist and sage, Kung-fu-tse, (better known as Confucius) said, "The successful administration of government depends entirely upon the selection of proper men." That this principle is widely accepted by law enforcement administrators is shown by what they do consistently in practice. Probably one of the more important practices involves research relating to the methods used in searching out and selecting proper men.

It seems that the time has come when law enforcement administrators ought to take a long look at certain pet theories, generally recognized over the years as part and parcel of selection processes, and used as standard operating procedure. Perhaps this might result in throwing some light upon some rather dark shadows lurking in the background of a test-happy era of tests and more tests.

Progressive administrators are ever-ready to experiment providing there is some evidence of validity. Their main concern is the advancement of the police service as a real instrument of public service. Yet there is much duplication; so much in fact that it might be often said that the right hand doesn't know what the left hand is doing.

For many years much money, time, and effort have been given over to developing paper and pencil tests allegedly designed to measure the future performance of men. This would be all for the good if the theories upon which such research is predicated could be validated, but there is some doubt as to whether that has been done, or even whether it can be done.

It is submitted, therefore, that in that very area, and to a lesser degree in the related fields of psychiatric and psychological testing, serious questions arise as to the real effectiveness of various screening devices.

That contention is borne out in experiences of the armed forces in selecting and training personnel during World War II. Dr. Eli Ginzburg's comment, News-week, May 11, 1959, p. 118, sums it up neatly in stating, "The psychiatrists have misled us. The psychiatrists and the armed forces got the idea you could pick out emotionally unstable people. They were wrong. A very high proportion of the ineffective soldiers in World War II were not predoomed--they were just victims of a poor theory."

Could it be that more "horse sense" is needed in selecting personnel and somewhat less theory? Too frequently, it seems, there is a tendency to forget that man is an individual endowed by his Creator with free will and intellect. May it be inferred that the complex organism, which is man, may not lend himself readily to a test tube measurement?

Many law enforcement administrators can go back in memory, without reaching too far, and recall cases of men who passed tests without disclosing any indication of problems. Nonetheless, soon thereafter, inevitably a few showed up as serious behavior problems. Apparently the pot of gold did not necessarily follow at the end of the rainbow.

Any administrator should find reading Dr. Ginzburg's three-volume study, The Ineffective Soldier, Columbia University Press, New York 27, New York, 1959, a rewarding experience. It is a study that tears apart some long cherished illusions, and it is offered as the most authoritative of its kind ever made.

Thought would be provoked, for example, as to some of the screening tests employed to weigh and predict emotional stability. Certainly this is a trait which law enforcement administrators would like to predict with even reasonable accuracy. However, there is a fair chance that neither paper and pencil tests nor psychiatric and psychological tests will ever do it effectively.

A suggested approach to the problem of emotional stability might serve the purpose of putting the thought in focus. Possibly this can be achieved best by paraphrasing a letter of May 23, 1959, from Dr. Ginzburg which seems very much to the point.

1. A man's emotional stability is not a static quantum. That means that at best, a test is likely to reveal only those who are currently unstable, not those who are likely to become so.

2. By the same logic, a person who shows instability at one point in life may not do so at a later point--hence, the test should be relied upon at most only for the short run--not as a prognosticator of future behavior.
3. Adolescence is a disturbed period for all. The younger the person, the less likely that an evaluative process will have high validity.
4. The best that one can hope for is to use a combination of approaches--test, evaluation of record, and interview. In this regard, a test should be used only to spot individuals who should be evaluated more carefully.

A reasonable deduction might be drawn that the best test of future performance can be found in past behavior, for a man's performance (good or bad) is fairly consistent.

That leads to an assumption that properly conducted background investigations might be of more value as measurements of future performance than commonly used screening devices. The fact is, however, that a thorough background investigation is a costly proposition--much more so than any other ingredient in the selection processes. This has unfortunately brought about many slipshod practices.

A discussion of selection procedures without reference to education would be somewhat akin to law without enforcement. That naturally leads to the importance of education in the selection processes, and yet, even here, shadows appear.

An indication of this is the attitude, in some quarters, that uniformed law enforcement has little or no need for the so-called "educated cop". Few would deny that this branch of the service needs men with more than just average educations. Whether the need is for college-trained men may be a moot question. Education is no guarantee of effective performance, but generally there is some correlation between education and intelligence and intelligence is among the most important determinants of effective performance. Consequently, an educated man, properly motivated and with other things substantially equal, is almost bound to render more effective performance.

An acceptance of that would mean that a majority of administrators, rather than a few, would demand better educated men. This would indeed serve the cause of better law enforcement. In the "Rhyming Chronicle", Robert of Gloucester, it is written, "For the more a man knows, the more worthy he is."

BETTER POLICE SERVICE OR BETTER POLICE PAY - WHICH COMES FIRST?

By

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In March of 1957, at a police management panel in Chicago, the problems of recruiting were being discussed by a nation-wide group of law enforcement experts. A split of opinion developed between the academicians and the practitioners: the academicians held that before the police service could get better men and better pay, it would have to increase its prestige and quality of service; the practitioners, just as strongly, held that higher pay would bring better men, who, in turn, would increase prestige and quality of service.

The distinction is not without important overtones, for it is based upon a fundamental question: IS LAW ENFORCEMENT WORK A VOCATIONAL OCCUPATION AT THE LEVEL OF SEMI-SKILLED OR SKILLED JOB, OR IS IT A HIGHLY MOTIVATED PROFESSIONAL CAREER SERVICE? The answer given will provide the key for answering many other problems of police personnel management, as well as solving the riddle of "which comes first better police service or better police pay."

If law enforcement work is designated as a vocational occupation at the level of semi-skilled or skilled job, and compared with the work of the plumber, plasterer, electrician, carpenter, or assemblyline employee, questions relative to selection, payment, training, regulation, and motivation will be answered from the standpoint of the individual worker. Representatives of the "trade" - like union representatives who are dedicated - will concentrate their efforts primarily on day raises and conditions of work, and only secondly on quality of performance or motivation for service.

If law enforcement work is designated as a highly motivated professional career service, and compared with the semi-professional or professional architect, chemist, engineer, nurse, pharmacist, psychologist, or public administrator, questions relative to selection, payment, training, regulation and motivation will be answered from the standpoint of the professional ideal. Representatives of the "service" - like those of medical or legal fraternity - will concentrate their efforts primarily on proper academic preparation, elimination of the incompetent and immoral, philosophy of service, and only secondarily on remuneration or conditions of work.

Many law enforcement agencies are today undergoing revolutionary change - not only in improvements of technique, or equipment but in their service philosophy. Selection standards are being raised, training programs are being revised and enlarged, work quality is being scientifically controlled, and personnel are being motivated in terms of professional competence and integrity. Nonetheless, this change is not taking place in all police jurisdictions, and the public deficiencies of backward law enforcement hamper professionalization.

The general public is becoming ever more interested in the competency of their police organizations, and in the integrity of their police personnel. Demanding a Quid Pro Quo, the general public is reluctant to provide increasingly costly facilities and equipment, and salary increases, when the quality level of policing remains essentially the same as it was at the turn of the century.

Even though grudging pay increases have been won (and usually when won are then behind the rapidly spiraling trend of inflation) all over the United States, police pay is not in keeping with the remuneration due to a professional service, and will not be substantially elevated until the police service takes a most drastic step and eliminates, or ostracizes, the incompetent and immoral member.

Who is the incompetent member of the police service? He is the police administrator who knows little or nothing of organization or management, little or nothing of modern budget procedures, little or nothing of proper planning and research, and little or nothing of public relations. He is the police administrator who pays little or no attention to his records operations, his communications procedures, his detention processes, his supply activities, or his property management. He is the police officer who fails to keep informed, fails to care properly for his equipment, fails to patrol efficiently, fails to investigate properly, fails to advise correctly, fails to report adequately, or fails to take the initiative.

A recruitment program geared to getting "THE BEST", progressive training, enlightened supervision, planning and research, and inspired leadership will tend to promote competence, and effective discipline will tend to maintain it.

Who is the immoral member of the police service? He is the member who engages in "mooching" -for coffee, cigarettes, meals, liquor, groceries; "chiseling" -by demanding price discounts, free admission to entertainment while off duty; "thievery" -of property confiscated or recovered, of taxpayers' time when attending to personal affairs on duty, or sleeping on watch; "perjury" -by allowing zeal for conviction to override obligation to oath; "extortion" -by demanding of merchants advertisements in police magazines, or by the pressurized sale of tickets to police "balls" or "rodeos", or by demanding "bail" in "street traffic court"; "favoritism" -by honoring courtesy cards, window stickers, or license tabs which imply immunity from traffic arrest; "prejudice" -where minority groups receive less than impartial, neutral, objective attention; and "lechery" -in the form of "woman chasing", possession of lewd or pornographic materials, or voyeurism while patrolling local "lover's lanes".

Adherence to a strict code of conduct, example by fellow officers, example by supervisors, example by administrators will tend to promote moral service, and effective discipline will tend to maintain it.

Admittedly, this view of the professional police service is idealistic, and to some, laughably impractical - but not to the police professional.

Surely, we can assume that police pay will increase - and quite consistently. But we cannot assume that the police professional will receive professional pay - until competent and edifying service is the rule, rather than the exception, throughout our nation. In the opinion of this writer, the professional law enforcement officer should receive pay which is parallel to other professionals in public service - chemists, engineers, nurses, psychologists, and the like - rather than pay which is parallel to the semi-skilled or skilled worker - plumber, carpenter, electrician, plasterer, painter, and the like. An unrealistic evaluation of the police role? The visionary dreams of an ivory-tower academician? It all depends on the position taken: IS LAW ENFORCEMENT WORK A VOCATIONAL OCCUPATION AT THE LEVEL OF SEMI-SKILLED OR SKILLED JOB, OR IS IT A HIGHLY MOTIVATED PROFESSIONAL CAREER SERVICE?

If Police work is but a job, a public sinecure, a soft refuge from the harsh realities of the competitive world of commerce and industry, logic may demand pay better than, or at least equal to, the local garbage-man. If police work is a dignified career, a challenging opportunity for men of capacity and character, a vital cornerstone in the preservation of a democratic society, a demanding profession, logic will demand equivalent professional remuneration.

If the level of service is not elevated, the small raise in pay that are occasional with the tradesman may be expected; if the level of service is elevated, the high-level pay and prestige that is concomitant with professional service may be expected. But it is abortive to demand professional pay and prestige and give an archaic, low-level service. The position that the police service assumes today will determine the salary levels of tomorrow.

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PROBLEM AREAS IN INTERGROUP RELATIONS EDUCATION FOR POLICE OFFICERS

By
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For the past academic year, the Albert M. Greenfield Center for Human Relations of the University of Pennsylvania has been offering a regular course in intergroup education especially for police officers. Primarily, the purpose of the course is to develop methods of teaching police officers the concepts and skills in this area which they need in their professional growth.

It is a one-semester course, and is open to police officers of all ranks. Although the course has been offered only twice, and the second group still has one month to go before completion, already certain factors appear to influence the choice of methods to be used in teaching intergroup relations to police officers.

Psychological Factors

Any teacher must be aware of the emotional factors which color her students' perception and either motivate or impede learning. In working with policemen, several such factors soon become apparent. Police officers seem to feel that they receive much more criticism from the public than do other institutions in our society. The common tendency of most people to rationalize and defend when their possessions are attacked is increased with police officers, who often see criticism and attack where none is intended. Even more, suggestions for change, or for re-evaluation of procedure or philosophy, are often viewed as personal criticism, and countered emotionally.

Though many policemen continually refer to the citizenry at large as "civilians," these same men violently protest any suggestion that a police department may be compared - however superficially - with the armed services. The stratification by rank, the wearing of uniforms, the "etiquette" of communication between ranks are not perceived as bases for comparison with the armed forces. There seems to be an emotional connection between the policeman's over-sensitivity to criticism and his rejection of such a comparison. The implication that the intra-departmental procedure is not "democratic" is resented, perhaps, because such intra-departmental procedure may be thought to influence the behavior of policemen in their contacts with the public.

With characteristic inconsistency where the emotions of individuals are involved, even while they stoutly maintain that their organization is democratic, policemen resent what they call their "second-class citizenship." They are torn between their perceived necessity for discipline and obedience, and their need to doubt, question, criticize, and protest. They feel obliged to keep silent about certain ordinances and procedures of which they do not approve. Even when they are not in uniform, when they are off duty and meeting with their neighbors in the capacity of ordinary citizens, they are reluctant to speak their minds lest they be identified as recalcitrant policemen. On the one hand, they feel that they must defend every measure taken by the department; on the other hand, they cannot help feeling deprived because they are not exercising their traditionally democratic right of giving free voice to their ideas and feelings.

There is another feeling which many policemen seem to have, the rational basis of which probably varies from city to city. In spite of civil service examinations, merit promotions, and clearly defined policies and procedures to insure fairness, there is still the feeling that advancement and recognition depend much on the whims of authority. Though nothing much is said about this, mention of impartiality often brings smiles of mild derision. This feeling is not mitigated by the common departmental practice of making "routine" transfers of men without ever discussing or explaining the reasons for these transfers. The feeling persists of being at the mercy of arbitrary authority which may not be questioned.

Although the two sections of the course discussed here are attended voluntarily, another section of the course has been conducted for one special unit of 24 men who were assigned to it by their commanding officer. The men in this unit are engaged in work which necessitates knowledge and skill in intergroup relations, yet many of them demonstrated anger and annoyance because they had to attend the course whether they wanted to or not. (The class met during the regular working day. As far as I have been able to ascertain, there was, prior to the assignment, no discussion of the purpose of the course or the reasons why the commanding officer assigned the men to attend it.)

In addition to these rather specialized feelings which police officers seem to have, we must include negative feelings about out-groups held in varying intensity by most people.

The existence in the students of so much emotion directly related to the general area of intergroup education indicates the necessity for permitting some emotional release before the teaching-learning process can begin to operate. With policemen, especially, it is not a simple process to encourage such release. The rigid structural segmentation of the police department intensifies the implied threat which controls the behavior of the men, and most of them are simply afraid to say what they think where they can be heard by other policemen. This fear is intensified when there are men of higher rank in the class.

Commonly-held Concepts

There was a tendency among the police officer studied to equate democracy with chaos, and order and efficiency with authoritarianism. Though they could see academically - the value of having employees share in the making of decisions concerning their work, the same kind of sharing in the police department was at the outset labeled unrealistic and even undesirable. The most prevalent argument was that, in emergency situations orders must be given and taken without question or comment. It was not an easy matter to develop recognition of the idea that the role of the supervisor must be defined in a situational context to include both the giving of unquestioned orders and the acceptance of criticism and suggestions from the men he supervises.

A corollary of this concept is the belief that a ranking police officer must be somewhat feared if he is to be respected. They believe that a lieutenant or captain who is "too friendly" with his men will be unable to maintain the necessary discipline.

An idea that seemed to be repeated quite often, and which is bolstered by the fact that it is held by local authorities, is that "training is a function of command". This precept is used as a rationalization for some of the initial hostility which the writer encountered. The fact that teaching intergroup relations requires somewhat more intensive and extensive professional preparation than does teaching the mechanics of self-defense soon becomes apparent to the men.

Though many of the men repeatedly insisted that they don't like "civilians" telling them how to do their job, these same men seemed to accept this "civilian" author as teacher of the course, and also went so far as to advocate a complete program of intergroup education offered outside the police academy - preferably by the university. When tentatively reminded that university professors were civilians, they answered that we knew more about the department than the other civilians who had been sent to teach them intergroup relations at the Academy and in the in-service programs. Since the university staff, in this case, knew very little more about the police department than did the other civilians, but considerably more about teaching intergroup relations, it would seem, then, that the real objection is not to civilians as such, but probably to the teaching methods employed.

Some Methodological Observations

An organization which has a rigid hierarchical structure and an etiquette of communication between ranks does not usually develop an internal process of optimum communication from the bottom up and from the top down. Members of the police department displayed, in the early days of the course, inability to speak freely of problems they perceived, if there were men of higher rank present. Some of the ranking men recognized this inability and took the initiative in verbalizing their attitudes - that they were interested in solving some of the human relations problems faced by policemen, and that a consideration of rank was irrelevant in this class. These statements were met with rueful - but good-natured - grins. However, we followed through by insisting that everyone be called by his first name. In addition, the classes were conducted very informally, and adjourned after each session to a nearby cafeteria for coffee and "socializing".

Some measure of success in breaking down rank barriers to communication was indicated when men repeatedly brought up problems which they did not know how to solve, frequently expressed doubts about their abilities in this field, and began to admit that the department had something to gain from intergroup education in terms of philosophy and efficiency.

The fear that what was said in the classroom would be reported to supervisors on the job probably was never completely allayed. The implied threat on which any authoritarian system is based is impossible to ignore while the system is still operative.

Sometimes a reluctance to participate in free discussion may appear to be fear of reprisal when, actually, it is evidence of lack of self-confidence in verbal activity, or a feeling that the individual has little to offer intellectually. Among policemen, the wide range in years of formal education, together with the evidently widespread desire to raise the intellectual standards of the profession often leads to self-consciousness and consequent defensiveness about insufficient formal education. The men need to be convinced that what they have to offer is important, even if they never graduated from high school. They must be made to see through the reactions in class to what they have to say - that the correctness of their grammar is no index to the acuity of their observations or to the degree of their sensitivity to intergroup problems.

Writing seems to be even more difficult than speaking, in that it becomes a "chorè". Suggestions to write are met with groans even louder than those of regular undergraduates, and, since the primary objective of the course is to change intergroup behavior and attitudes, teaching-learning methods which include writing are probably not essential.

Also, many of the men are not readers. Too much reliance on reading materials will seriously hinder the attainment of course objectives. A clearly-written, single text, with numerous illustrations from police work, is useful as reference material which may be checked as the need arises, and which may serve as a commonly held base for discussion. Of course, there are always those men who ask for - and should be supplied with - additional reading materials.

Role-playing appeared to be one of the most effective techniques for developing insight into intergroup situations. After the initial embarrassment and reluctance to participate wore off, the men displayed considerable skill in dramatizing opposing points of view and differential solutions to intergroup problems. Although consensus on the most effective solution was not always reached, the men seemed to think that they were at least stimulated to continue to think about other possible solutions. They felt that they were jogged out of a complacent acceptance of their own solutions as the final word on the matter.

Above all, probably the best teaching aid was the calculated informality of the sessions, the complete absence of censure for any expression, opinion, or attitude and the mutual understanding that the primary interest of the men in taking the course was to develop more efficient methods of operation on the job.

There is no attempt to present here a complete evaluation of the course in intergroup education for police officers. However, we do have certain situational clues which would seem to be indicative of changing attitudes and ideas among the men, probably as a result of the course.

For example, several men have remarked, privately, that there has been "quite a change" in the ranking officers since they have begun to attend the course. Obviously, these men do not realize that there has been "quite a change" in their own attitudes toward the supervisor - increased understanding of some of the problems involved in supervision, knowledge of the psychodynamics of behavior generally, and insight into the feelings of the supervisor as well as into their own feelings.

Several men, who had admittedly enrolled in the course because of a general interest in the field and a realization that "people are prejudiced," expressed a rueful surprise to discover that not only were they themselves prejudiced against minority groups, but that their prejudice was operative in many work situations.

Eighty-five per cent of the men who have taken the course are planning to continue to meet with the instructor periodically for the purpose of discussing intergroup relations problems which come up. About twenty per cent of them continue to use the special library in the Center for Human Relations. And perhaps the clearest indication of the men's feeling that the course filled a need for them are the numerous requests for admission which continue to pour into the Center at the beginning of each semester.

Previously appeared in the Police Journal.

THE FUNCTIONAL APPROACH TO CRIMINOLOGY

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Criminology may be studied by either one of two major approaches: (1) the structural approach; and (2) the functional approach. The first approach is largely descriptive in nature, while the second approach is analytical. The purpose of this article is to describe the principal characteristics of the functional approach and illustrate its application in one field of criminology -- namely, delinquency causation.

Structural Approach to Criminology. Many standard textbooks in criminology utilize what might be called the structural approach to criminology. This approach emphasizes the form, content, material features, and administrative facilities of such physical and social structures as the police, county jail, criminal court, juvenile court, industrial school, prison, reformatory, penitentiary, prison cell, cell block, electric chair, gas chamber, kitchen bakery, laundry, hospital, "the hole", and many other physical features. The structural approach is concerned primarily with the study of offenses rather than offenders; external characteristics of the offender rather than his inner attitudes and behavior patterns. This approach is static because these physical and social structures are dealt with on a purely descriptive level.

Functional Approach to Criminology. According to the functional approach to criminology the chapter headings may be stated and the contents of the treatise in criminology expressed in terms of functions performed and processes of adjustment that repeat themselves in these physical facilities. Sample chapter headings selected at random from a functional treatise on criminology include such exciting titles as the following: "Delinquency Causation"; "Apprehending the Offender"; "Hearing Juvenile and Youthful Offenders"; "Probation"; "Institutional Treatment of Adult Male Offenders"; "Prison Administration"; "Reception and Classification of Prisoners"; "Psychological and Psychiatric Services"; "Group Therapy"; "Correctional Education"; "Correctional Labor"; "Casework Services"; "Functional Relations of Informal Prison Inmate Groups"; "Parole and Other Types of Institutional Release"; and "Processes of Crime Prevention".

The functional approach presents a dynamic interpretation of the functions performed and the processes (going on) in criminal courts, the police, jails, correctional camps and farms, correctional institutions, and extramural services, such as probation, parole, and psychiatric field services. This approach, although recognizing the value of pure description as a preliminary phase of study, nevertheless, proceeds to a penetrating analysis of the functions, processes, and operations of the entire correctional system. The functional approach embraces the following operational features: a functional study of delinquency causation; a functional analysis of delinquent and criminal behavior; social psychological, psychiatric, and psychoanalytical analyses of criminal motivation; a study of the psychological processes by which delinquent attitudes and criminal behavior patterns are acquired, maintained, and perpetuated; an analysis of the processes of treatment in correctional institutions, and on probation and parole; a study of the rehabilitative functions performed by correctional institutions and services; and an analysis of the formal and informal group relationships within correctional institutions; and an interpretation of the methods and processes of crime prevention.

Correctional Functions and Processes. In accordance with the foregoing approach to criminology, the principal correctional functions and processes may be differentiated. The term "correctional function" is operationally defined as a kind of action or activity performed for or upon the offender, or in relation to the problem of crime. A "correctional process" indicates a series of repetitive, progressive, and interdependent steps by which an end is achieved. Some of the most important correctional functions include the following: social investigation of the offender, social diagnosis of the causative factors, correctional administration, reception

and classification of prisoners, psychological and psychiatric services, social casework, counseling, correctional education, correctional labor, health services, institutional recreation, religious activities, social research, prognosis regarding the treatment prospects for individual offenders, and prediction of the outcome of treatment for groups of offenders.

The principal correctional processes may be listed as follows: causation, conditioning of delinquency attitudes, formation of criminal behavior patterns, apprehension of the offender, detention of the offender awaiting a hearing, adjudication, correctional treatment (institutional and non-institutional), rehabilitation, probation, psychotherapy, group therapy, preparation for institutional release, parole, and crime prevention. Under certain circumstances correctional functions, such as classification, social casework, and correctional education, may also be regarded as correctional processes. The reverse may also be true. Correctional processes, such as adjudication, psychotherapy, or group therapy, may be thought of as correctional functions.

Procedural Steps in the Functional Approach. According to the functional approach the criminologist utilizes the following procedural steps: (1) enumeration of the observable symptoms of delinquency as they appear on a case-by-case basis; (2) discovery of the basic underlying factors or causes of delinquency; (3) analysis of the process of causation by showing how the underlying factors or causes, such as family tension, family conflict, separation, divorce, gang influences, and the like actually operate in the production of deviant behavior in a given delinquency situation; (4) by the use of the interview and diagnostic techniques, probing into the inner SELF of the delinquent for the purpose of discovering how the delinquent acquires delinquent attitudes, deviant behavior patterns, and anti-social tendencies; and lastly (5) discovery of the appropriate therapy for each type of delinquency disease.

Functional Explanation of Causation. After locating the principal symptoms of delinquency, the next step in the functional approach involves the discovery of the basic underlying factors or causes of delinquency, and an analysis of how they operate in the process of causation. This is a difficult assignment because there are no direct causes of delinquency. For example, family tension, family conflict, divorce, or poverty cannot cause delinquency directly. Also, the problem of causation is further complicated by the fact that the same explanation of causation of human behavior explains both delinquent and non-delinquent behavior -- both are subject to the same psychological principles governing behavior. The delinquent and non-delinquent have much the same wishes, desires, and goals, however, the principal difference between them resides in the method of achievement of these goals and objectives. The non-delinquent achieves these goals through socially approved forms of behavior and the delinquent through socially disapproved modes of behavior. Thus, the non-delinquent achieves normal social health and personality development, while the delinquent acquires social ill health known as delinquency.

Human behavior, delinquent or non-delinquent, is very complex, and is therefore not explainable by any one causative factor or single group of factors. For example, delinquent behavior, such as running away from home, stealing, or sex offense may be due to the interaction of innumerable associated factors, such as personality factors, family tension, family conflict, divorce, over-crowding in the home, poverty, lack of wholesome recreation, unwholesome community influences, culture conflict, and many other factors. These factors ACT and INTERACT upon one another in a highly specialized manner. Each causative factor directs its impact upon all the other potential causative factors. Delinquency results only from the action and interaction of each factor upon all the other factors. The individual factors associated with delinquency cause delinquency only when they register their impact upon one another. Thus, it may be said that delinquency is the result of the impact and the interaction of one factor upon another and not the factor itself. The numerous factors associated with delinquency, represented by their appropriate

symbols, and the resulting delinquent behavior are shown in the accompanying diagram, Chart I.

The foregoing analysis yields seven major groups of causative factors as follows:

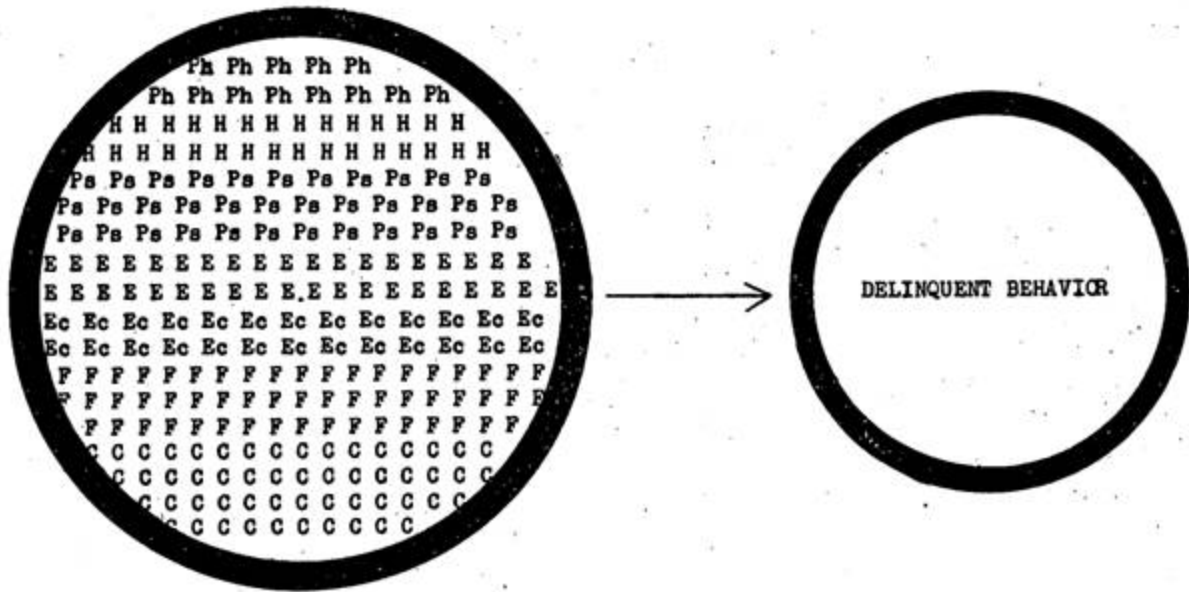
- (1) Action and Interaction of the Physiological Factors (Ph)
- (2) Action and Interaction of the Hereditary Factors (H)
- (3) Action and Interaction of the Psychological Factors (Ps)
- (4) Action and Interaction of the Economic Factors (E)
- (5) Action and Interaction of the Ecological Factors (Ec)
- (6) Action and Interaction of the Familial Factors (F)
- (7) Action and Interaction of the Social and Cultural Factors (C)

A pioneer statistical study,¹ sponsored by the University of Alabama Research Committee, of 1,183 youthful male offenders incarcerated in Alabama's four prisons and 30 prison camps, revealed direct functional relationships between selected causative factors, such as race, type of community, intelligence, and educational status. These relationships proved to be statistically significant at the .01 level of confidence. This study gives supporting evidence to the theory that the impact of one factor upon another is the real causative agent, and that the functional relationships between causative factors can be measured quantitatively.

The Process of Acquiring Delinquent Attitudes, Deviant Behavior Patterns, and Anti-Social Tendencies.² How does a young boy or young girl become a delinquent? How does he contract the delinquency disease? What is the nature of the psychological process which results in delinquency? Frequently it may be a rather long process, which begins in early childhood and comes to fruition in the late - teens. The delinquency disease, which is often highly contagious, is acquired by a young person through contact, interaction, and association with other young persons who are already confirmed delinquents. It is essentially a learning process. The learning process consists in the gradual acquirement of delinquent attitudes, deviant behavior patterns, and anti-social tendencies. These psychological elements are learned piecemeal -- one item today, two tomorrow, three the day after tomorrow, and so on. These elements contain definitions of situations favorable to the violation of social norms. When the young person has acquired an excess of attitudes, behavior patterns, and tendencies favorable to the violation of social norms as opposed to the observance of socially approved forms of behavior, he becomes delinquent. This may be the crucial turning point in the life of the young person -- a critical point which should be recognized by the criminologist or correctional social worker. The accompanying diagram, Chart 2, illustrates the changes in attitudes and behavior patterns from Stage 1, non-delinquency, to Stage 4, delinquency. In Stage 1, the young person possesses an excess of attitudes and behavior patterns unfavorable to the violation of social norms, in Stage 2 he possesses approximately as many attitudes favorable to violation of behavior norms as attitudes favorable to the observance of these norms, and in Stages 3 and 4 the individual has slipped over into the delinquency column.

The functional approach to criminology gives the student an intelligent understanding of crime and delinquency in modern society. It presents a scientific analysis of criminal motivation, delinquency causation, correctional functions, treatment processes, crime control, and delinquency prevention. The foregoing analysis indicates that the functional approach can be successfully applied to all the fields and areas of criminology and corrections.

CHART 1
THEORY OF DELINQUENCY CAUSATION



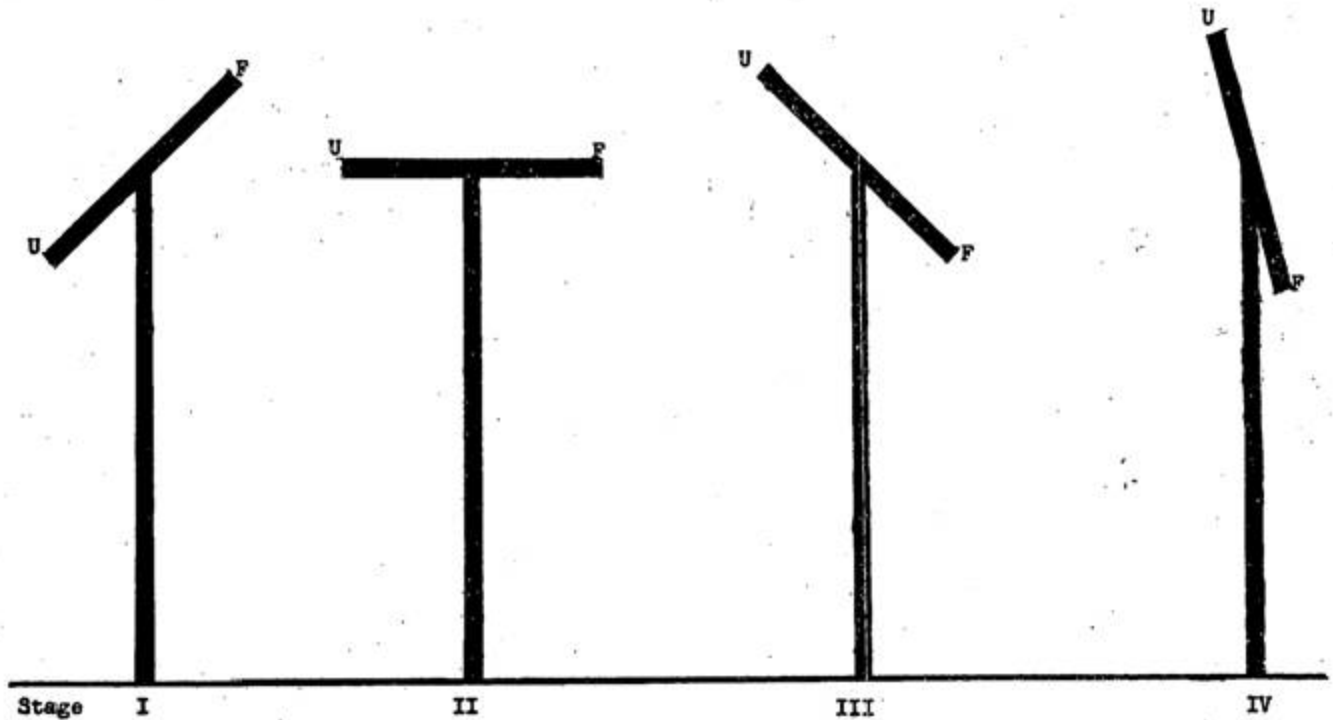
Area of Delinquency Interaction

Code: Delinquency Factors

Ph	Physiological
H	Hereditary
Ps	Psychological
E	Economic
Ec	Ecological
F	Familial
C	Social and Cultural

CHART 2

STAGES IN THE ACQUIREMENT OF DELINQUENT ATTITUDES



CODE: U - Attitudes Unfavorable to the Violation of Social Norms
F - Attitudes Favorable to the Violation of Social Norms

NEW DECISIONS CONCERNING WIRE TAPPING

by
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Associate Director Southern Police Institute

On December 9, 1957, the U. S. Supreme Court handed down a decision concerning wire tapping which will have some bearing on the obtaining of evidence by police officers and should be known by police officers.

In the case of Benanti vs. United States, Benanti was tried in the U. S. District Court for the Southern District of New York for illegal possession and transportation of distilled spirits lacking the required federal tax stamps. Government witnesses disclosed that information leading to the discovery of the distilled spirits in question was obtained by wire tapping a telephone conversation between defendant and another person. The wire tap was conducted by State law enforcement agents, acting under New York statutes authorizing wire tapping when a judge issues an order upon oath or affirmation that there is reasonable ground to believe evidence of a crime may be obtained. Defendant was convicted and the conviction was affirmed by the Court of Appeals for the Second Circuit.

On certiorari, the conviction was reversed by the U. S. Supreme Court, Chief Justice Warren, speaking for a unanimous court ruled that, notwithstanding that the wire tap was conducted by State Officers, acting under State law, it was violative of the provision of Section 605 of the Federal Communications Act which bars interception of and the divulgence or publication of the existence or contents of any communication. The decision further stated that since the wire tap was barred by the statute, evidence relating thereto was inadmissible in a federal court.

The decision itself and dicta in the decision point up several rules of law that police officers must deal with in the investigation of criminal cases.

First, this decision extends the rule of the Nordone case which held that evidence obtained by Federal officers by wire tapping was not admissible and that knowledge gained by the use of wire tapping by Federal officers could not be used to acquire evidence. This decision extends this rule to evidence obtained by State officers when used in Federal Courts. The present rule, as stated by the Supreme Court in this Benanti Case, then, is that evidence obtained by wire tapping, either directly or indirectly, can not be used in a Federal Court even if obtained by State officers.

Secondly, this decision holds that Congress has the constitutional power to forbid wire tapping by state law enforcement officers, even in the face of a conflicting state law. This means that the State law enforcement officer is liable criminally for violation of the Federal Communications Act even though wire tapping is not a violation of state law and is, in fact, authorized by State law in some instances. Violation of Section 605 of the Federal Communications Act is punishable by imprisonment for a term not exceeding one year or by a fine of not more than \$10,000 or both.

Thirdly, this decision is not contrary to the decision given in the Schwartz case. In that case the court held that where the state rules of evidence admitted wire tapping evidence, the Supreme Court would not interfere. The court stated that the action of the State officers nonetheless violated the Federal Communications Act. The present rule is that the Federal Courts will not reverse a conviction in a state court based on wire tapping evidence but that the state officer that makes use of wire tapping violates the Federal Act.

Several Attorneys General have urged Congress to grant exceptions to Section 605 under limited circumstances so that law enforcement officers may make use of wire taps under court supervision but Congress has, to this date, declined.

The subcommittee on constitutional rights has considered new legislation to regulate wiretapping. The testimony before this subcommittee has been published and is and can be obtained from the U. S. Printing Office. The wiretapping problem has been discussed in Congress in every session since 1929 and is being considered by the present congress. It is doubtful if any action will be taken, although it is obvious that some legislation is necessary to clarify the present law.

On the same day the decision was handed down in the Benanti case, the Supreme Court rendered another decision concerning the same section of the Federal Communications Act. This decision was more favorable from the point of view of the law enforcement officer.

In the case of Rathbun vs. U. S. the defendant was charged with transmitting an interstate communication which threatened the life of another, in violation of Federal statutes. Police officers were allowed to testify that they had heard defendant make the threat in question when, with the consent of the person threatened, they listened to a telephone conversation between that person and the defendant over a regularly used telephone extension. The defendant was convicted, and the conviction was affirmed by the Court of Appeals for the Tenth Circuit.

Seven members of the court held that such an overhearing does not violate the provision of Section 605 of the Federal Communications Act even though the act stated that "No person, not being authorized by the sender, shall intercept any communication and divulge the existence or contents thereof." The Court stated that Congress did not intend to restrict the ordinary use of a telephone by its subscriber, denying him the right to allow a family member, an employee, a trusted friend, or even the police to listen to a conversation to which the subscriber is a party. Two members of the court dissented, declaring that the view taken by the majority was in conflict with the plain words of the statute.

These two cases indicate that the law, as interpreted by the U. S. Supreme Court, is that any police officer, Federal or State, is violating the Communications Act if he actually uses a wire tap even though permitted by state law but he is not violating the act when intercepting communications by the use of a "regularly used" telephone extension and evidence obtained by the latter method may be used in any court.

ARSON

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The crime of arson has been referred to as "The Crime of Crimes". It has also been called vicious, inhuman, the tool of the bankrupt, the act of one seeking revenge, the method to conceal another crime--as murder, and many other names. When the arson investigators discuss this crime they lament the fact that it is one of the hardest crimes to prove in court. Convictions are considered to be the exception--at least to those who are in the business of investigating this crime year in and year out. Statistics may be employed to prove almost anything--as may the Bible. Thus, it is with a feeling of hesitancy that we even attempt to use any figures. Naturally, in any one period of time there are no two jurisdictions with an equal statistical rating concerning the crime of arson. Observation during the past several years has led us to believe that if a department, either municipal, state, or a service organization (National Board of Fire Underwriters, National Automobile Theft Bureau, or the Mutual Investigation Bureau) is able to effect a conviction ratio of approximately 10 percent they are above average--at least for that period of time. Percentages become confused when we do not understand how they were determined. It is felt that if an organization conducts active investigations on 100 fire cases in one year, and if on 10 of these cases a person(s) is convicted, then the 10 percent applies.

However, what often happens is that the organization will conduct the 100 investigations. Of this number, perhaps 60 will be determined to be accidental, or listed as "accidental" (typical explanation: "electrical wiring", "faulty heater installation", or even "spontaneous ignition"); another 20 may be listed as "unknown" or "undetermined"; while the remaining 20 are listed as incendiary, or suspicious. Now if this organization secures three convictions during the period, they may well use the 20 known incendiary or suspicious fires as their basis for

computation. This would result in a conviction ratio of 15 percent. It is at once apparent that errors are compounded under this system. Of the three convicted individuals, two of them may be charged with setting the same fire. Also, it is quite possible that the 60 accidental fires are not all correctly labeled; and most likely, some of the 20 unknown fires may be of an incendiary origin.

There is another method of compilation which is most misleading unless one understands how the figures were determined. This system is based on the number of convictions and the number of arrested individuals actually taken to court. It is very easy to have a high conviction ratio using this method because one does not go to court unless there is about a 70-80 percent chance of securing a conviction.

Thus, we can see that arson, like other crimes, has its statistical failures if one is attempting to obtain the over-all picture. As an example: Burglary is a crime which often makes the headlines, and yet only about 20-25 percent of the burglaries are solved and convictions obtained.

One tends to feel that his particular business is all important while the other fellow's activities are merely secondary. Most activities are relative. As another example: If a bank is robbed of \$30,000 there is a hue and cry which is reported in the headlines throughout the country. The investigators swarm over the scene--generally led by the very efficient agents of the Federal Bureau of Investigation, in cooperation with the local and state police. However, if a \$100,000 fraud fire occurs it often happens that only one investigator from the local police or fire department, and perhaps one state investigator responds to the crime. The agent of one of the service organizations may cooperate with the local police in an attempt to apprehend the guilty party. It is an old maxim of law enforcement that if a felon is not apprehended within the first 48 hours the chances of determining the guilty one becomes less and less. Naturally, in the crime of arson, with the emphasis or lack of emphasis placed upon the crime, the chances of an apprehension and successful prosecution are slim in comparison with the bank robbery.

Perhaps the main reason why an arson conviction is so difficult to obtain is because circumstantial evidence is about the only evidence the investigator is able to secure. The lay public has been mis-educated as to what circumstantial evidence really means; and we hear time after time: "I wouldn't convict anyone on circumstantial evidence."

What is circumstantial evidence? We have all heard it compared with a chain--the weakest link being the strongest part. This is an unfortunate comparison--probably evolved by an energetic defense attorney in his attempt to convince the jury they should acquit his client. Unfortunate because it is not true! A more apt comparison would be to a rope, where if one strand happens to be weak the entire rope would not break.

It often takes many different points to make a good circumstantial case; whereas in a case involving an eye witness this one point is often relied upon even though the eye witness may well be mistaken. Circumstantial evidence ties in with proof beyond a reasonable doubt. Proving a fact beyond a reasonable doubt does not mean proving it beyond all other possibilities and probabilities. One court (State v. Guastamachio, Conn., 1950) stated: "Proof beyond a reasonable doubt does not require proof beyond a possible doubt." And yet, the average juror believes that it must be proven beyond all possible doubt ("beyond any shadow of a doubt").

In conclusion we wish to make clear that only three elements are necessary for an arson conviction: (1) That a burning occurred; (2) That the burning was the result of a criminal agency; and (3) That the accused was responsible for the criminal agency.

Motive is not an element of the crime of arson. However, in order for a successful prosecution the motive should be determined for the sole purpose of satisfying the jury's curiosity.

Arson, like other crimes, has need for more dissemination of information concerning it. We have certainly progressed in the past years, but the end of the road is not in sight. However, in law enforcement the end of the road is never really in sight. We can only hope to move along that road without remaining in one spot for very long at a time.

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY OR ADULT INCOMPETENCE AND INDIFFERENCE

By

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Throughout the nation, under every portal of courts, police stations, juvenile halls and correctional institutions pass countless youngsters every day. They are a part of our country's future, a fact we must realize.

In California alone are over 14,000 minors committed to state custody; not to mention the children who are placed in the juvenile halls on probation by county jurisdiction.

A study of the case histories reveals that these children are victims of one, or a combination of the following factors:

- Being a mere biological by-product of sexual activity
- Being abandoned by one or both parents
- Being rejected by one or both parents
- Being physically inferior
- Being poorly supervised in the formative years.

None of the aforementioned factors are directly related to material wealth, but are rather caused through indifference, ignorance, incompetence and the moral and spiritual breakdown in some environmental areas of our adult population.

Law enforcement is a service to the community. It will fail in the long run if its job mainly consists of segregation and incarceration of the offender. To fulfill its duty to the community, the respective departments must visualize a program of rehabilitation and re-orientation for its wards. A complete understanding of the problems and needs of our rebels is mandatory if we plan to serve all. This is best achieved by close cooperation of law enforcement with school, home, church and probation and welfare departments before the problem becomes really serious.

Taking the time to talk to a troubled child, or rather "LISTEN", will reveal in most instances, the desire to be recognized and accepted as a fellow individual of our race. This need is easily satisfied when the youngster is allowed to take part in some community project. Actually, chances are that he will prevent other youngsters from going wrong by setting an example of acceptance and identification with public spirited social groups, if he is given this opportunity.

Recreation, sport and play facilities are very important to this type of rehabilitation program. But these are only as good as their respective directors. The foremost duty of men in this position is not to entertain the children but to guide them properly. It requires great skill to channel a child's enthusiasm and energy into wholesome and positive achievement. The child must be protected from ultimate failure, ridicule, and frustration. The recreation leader must be able to explain satisfactorily to the child that temporary defeat in a competition is a necessary experience which will lead to future victories.

A community which recognizes the problems of its senior as well as the needs of its junior citizens is fortunate indeed. Public spirited citizens and clubs can carry their message to the administration and may help in forming a working team.

The alliance of the PTA, county health and welfare office, the home, law enforcement and recreation facilities is the ultimate weapon to combat crime.

These organizations already exist throughout the nation. What we need is a better understanding of the problem, complete cooperation and communication among the various agencies concerned and the determined will to go to work on it.

Blessed is the community which has adopted that or a similar idea, for it means to "live in peace".

SOME RESEARCH NEEDED

By

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The institutional settings in which criminological activity takes place have not been critically subjected to study as they condition or influence our understanding of the crime problem and the criminal. We hear criticism that the universities and colleges are too theoretical in their research in and teaching of criminology; that the Courts are behind the times, that correctional agencies make criminals rather than rehabilitate and that the police are corrupt or inefficient. Such criticism may or may not be valid, but are we sure that these institutions are insightfully aware of their societal roles and that in turn society has carefully prescribed with due comprehension of the problems what is expected?

Much has been written about the formal roles of society and its institutions. Anthropologists, sociologists and psychologists have studied the behavior of peoples in particular cultures, in families and in groups the political scientists have provided insights into our governmental institutions; and the economists have treated business and industrial institutions. We have a large body of knowledge describing and prescribing formal behavior of peoples in the various institutions of society.

Research and study in criminology has long focused on the causes of crime and treatment of the criminal and some real progress is apparent in our approaches to problems in these areas. Much of our knowledge about crime and society is general and about the criminal individually oriented and specific.

Integrating and synthesizing our knowledge about institutions with our knowledge of crime and criminals appears imperative if in the long we are going to make real progress in our dealing with deviant behavior. This means that what appears to be needed is a rather thorough re-evaluation of institutional roles as they are focused on dealing with crime and its problems. For example, the police orientation appears to be primarily toward enforcement of laws involving investigation of crimes and apprehension of offenders, activities which consume approximately ten per cent of our total police man hours. What about the crime prevention, service and control roles of the Police? Is society really aware of these latter roles and what do its members perceive the police doing in these areas?

In correctional institutions one finds emphasis on the professional clinical workers' role in the rehabilitation of prisoners. Some current studies show that the greatest rehabilitation impact on prisoners results while they are under the supervision and control of non-professional workers. Probation and parole agencies emphasize social case work in their dealings with probationers and parolees. There are those even in the field who are beginning to question this emphasis and are hypothesizing that perhaps a more important role emphasis may be control.

Universities and colleges continue in a dilemma over broad general education versus applied technical training for criminological students. Research is primarily general. Perhaps a whole new focus is in order with an integration of the practical and the academic in both research and training.

Research into the nature of people concerned with and working with crime problems and criminals and the institutions of which they are a part, could tell us much about the nature of deviant behavior. Perhaps some answers to the ever pressing problems of crime and criminals would be revealed. Our knowledge of the formal nature of institutions and the all too few studies of the dynamics of human behavior in institutional settings is a beginning. Direct relating of the dynamics within institutions to crime and criminals is a fertile area for much research. In other words, we in criminology should benefit from an introspective look at ourselves and the institutions in which we live and work.

PAROLEES vs EXPIRATIONISTS*

by
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Executive Director
Maryland Crime Investigating Committee

Too often, research dealing with recidivism has not taken the look at parole which it deserves. In order to compare the rate of new offenses of those who have been paroled against those who are released from institutions without supervision, we also must consider the period after parole supervision has ceased. There are those who say, "The recidivism of parolees is less than 25%, but the recidivism of expirationists is more than 50%". This is misleading. The purpose of this study was to determine the rate of recidivism of each group on a near-comparable basis. It considered 551 men who were released from the Maryland State Reformatory For Males during the year 1954 and checked their formal records through April, 1957.

The following statements summarize the important findings:

1. Of the group studied, fifty-seven per cent of the Expirationists had further convictions. Fifty per cent of the Parolees were either classified as parole violators, were convicted of new offenses before their supervision period ended, or were convicted of new offenses after being released from parole. However, the seriousness of the new offenses committed by Expirationists far outweigh those committed by Parolees.
2. The average Expirationist served seventy-five per cent of his sentence before his release. Of this group, those who got into further difficulty served only 67% of their sentences. The average Parolee served 42% of his sentence. Of this group, those who got into further difficulty served 41% of their sentence.
3. Generally speaking, the record indicates that the thief is more apt to repeat his life of crime than any other type of offender. For example, of the Expirationists originally charged with the crimes of Larceny, Burglary, or Robbery, 63% got into further difficulty.
4. Eighty-two per cent of those receiving parole had either one or two hearings prior to their release. Eighty-four per cent of the Expirationists had from one to four unsuccessful hearings.
5. Forty-nine per cent of those Parolees who got into further difficulty had been released on parole after one parole hearing.
6. Over one-fourth of the inmates studied did not list Maryland as their birthplace.
7. Our records indicate that the more formal education a man has, the greater are his chances of staying out of further difficulty with the law.
8. Sixty per cent of the Parolees under the age of 21 were involved in further difficulties. Sixty-six per cent of the Expirationists under the age of 21 committed additional offenses. This suggests they are poorer risks than the 21 - 27 age group.

It is difficult to form anything but general conclusions when dealing with groups of human beings. We have tried to do nothing more than generalize our findings. However, the need for a stronger parole program is pointed out just as much as the need for more effective rehabilitation programs before and after the Expirationists release. The duly constituted authorities are doing a good job with what they have, but we must all face up to the facts and help them to strengthen our rehabilitative services wherever additional facilities and personnel are needed.

One thing certainly can be established as a fact. More persons can be helped to prevent further lives of crime than we presently are helping. If the answers be a full time parole board; additional parole officers; additional correctional facilities to alleviate overcrowded institutional facilities which cripple rehabilita-

tive programs; additional psychiatric services; effective post release employment programs; and post release supervision for expirationists until their work time and good behavior time have been expended, then let us seriously consider them. The crime wave we all talk about does not begin and end merely with catching the criminal. In many cases he is a repeater, and will continue to be one, if we do not support our department heads in their requests for the quality and quantity of professional personnel, and institutional facilities needed to do more effective rehabilitative work with the Criminal.

*Note: The article is the Summary Conclusions of a research project under the direction of A. J. T. Zumbun.

FOUR TYPES OF POLICE TRAINING

by
Franklin M. Kreml

(Editor's note: The author, now director of the Transportation Center at Northwestern University, was founder and for 19 years director of the Traffic Institute of Northwestern University. A former law enforcement officer, Mr. Kreml has been in or associated with the police field for more than 30 years. The article below is an adaptation of a paper he presented in 1953 at a meeting of the Society for the Advancement of Criminology in Chicago. The thoughts Mr. Kreml expressed then apply now with equal effectiveness in light of today's police training problems.)

Roles played by various agencies engaged in police training are not, in my opinion, fully appreciated and understood. What, for example, is a police department's responsibility in the training of a specialist? Should a state police agency or a state department of vocational training help small communities train their police officers? If so, how and in what areas? What about the function of colleges and universities? And federal law enforcement bodies?

There are, in my opinion, four main types of training or educational opportunities essential to provide police officers with the knowledge and skill necessary to the proper discharge of their important responsibilities:

1. General education.
2. Departmental in-service training.
3. Outside specialized training.
4. Pre-service training.

I would like to discuss these briefly in that order and indicate the relative responsibilities of the various agencies to provide -- or assist in providing -- this training.

1. General Education. No department can yet set a general education entrance requirement sufficiently high to ensure recruit material fully ready to be molded into efficient police officers, supervisors, technicians, and administrators. The problem is one that should be attacked jointly by police administrators and educators. Working schedules and incentives should be arranged on the one hand, and course scheduling on the other, to make it possible for police officers to continue their general education after they have entered the service.

In many of our metropolitan areas this is one of the bright lights of police training. In others, however, little, if anything, is being done along these lines

Such courses should be planned, insofar as possible, so that they will have interest and application for the police officer. Many of the general education courses offered in normal curricula lend themselves readily to such adaptation, e.g., sociology, psychology, political science, as well as the many law courses available in most universities.

Of all of the areas of general education, none is so important to the police officer as the law -- substantive law, the law of arrest, the law of evidence, and constitutional law. This is such a fundamental part of police work that it might be classified as a technical subject. However, the facilities of police academies and technical police training institutions cannot compare with the opportunities for law study offered as part of the general education program of our universities and law schools.

It is a strange commentary upon our American realism and practicality that we have done so little in our law schools on the one hand, and so little in our police

departments on the other, to thoroughly school police officers in the law, the enforcement of which is his whole business! Colleges and universities can do much to improve the police service through their general education programs. It is an area of responsibility which is peculiarly theirs. Through the development of course work especially adapted to the general education requirements of the police, the science of criminology can be materially advanced, and the ideal of justice more nearly approached.

2. Departmental In-Service Training. This should include recruit, refresher, command and staff, and specialist training. It should be under the control and direction of the chief of police. While help from outside agencies is highly desirable, even necessary, the training itself must remain essentially a departmental responsibility.

In-service training is primarily an extension of management. It is futile to conduct training, however valid it may be technically, unless it does, in fact, reflect the policies and techniques which the administrator wishes to have employed in his department, and which have, consequently, been implemented by appropriate directives and policy pronouncements.

Admittedly, few departments have academies competent to administer such a broad program as that described. Further, in many departments where such programs are conducted, they operate in a vacuum, apart from the policies and objectives of management, and officers completing police academy training, particularly recruits, soon discover that what they have just learned is not what is done in actual practice. This shows a lack of appreciation of the training function in its relationship to management.

However trying and difficult the task may be, it is the responsibility of all of us who are interested in the advancement of criminology to help police agencies develop effective academy training, rather than yield to the temptation of attempting to take over such training in whole or in part in our own institutions.

This is not to say that other police agencies, with greater facilities, or even colleges or universities, should not offer academy-type training for small departments unable to support effective programs of their own. However, this should be done only where a real need exists. Further, the program should have the full approval of the executives of the various departments being served, following a careful review of course content, as measured against the requirements of their departments.

3. Outside Specialized Training. This area of police training has developed remarkably during the past 25 years. The outside agency can serve effectively in giving specialized training in areas so new that departments cannot themselves carry on such training, or is of a type that would be too expensive for a single department to operate. Outside agencies are serving successfully in scientific crime detection, delinquency control, traffic administration, and, to some extent, in general administration.

These programs must be related realistically to the needs of departments served. This can be accomplished through advisory committees, use of qualified instructors, and close contact with the field and its problems.

This is a field of service for colleges, universities, state departments or vocational training, state police departments (in servicing smaller communities), and federal agencies having law enforcement responsibilities.

It would be beneficial if these specialized training services could be coordinated, to some degree at least, through a voluntary coordinating committee consisting of representatives of the training institutions and of the police service.

Such coordinating committee would, I believe, early come to the conclusion

that we have sadly neglected the training of the police administrator. While our technological advances have been great, the police service has no program for developing adequately trained administrators from within its own ranks. Thus, most police executives today are highly experienced police officers, with little or no training in administration -- or they are administrators with little police experience. Police departments, particularly the larger municipal and state police organizations, should carefully select their promising younger men and give them outside specialized administrative training.

4. Pre-Service Training. The area of pre-service training is one of great promise, but little else. Much has been said on this subject in the past 25 years, and some experiments made, but, to my knowledge, none of them has met with the real success it should enjoy.

I believe that one day the police candidate will be required to present satisfactory evidence of successful completion of a degree program in police science or police administration. This is, however, a long way off. Such a requirement could, of course, be neatly knit together with the general education requirements of a police officer, discussed earlier. Meanwhile, we should make it possible for the student to earn sufficient income to pursue his studies, and further, assure him employment upon completion of his pre-service work. To this the cadet system seems admirably suited, and I am at a loss to understand why it has not been widely adopted. From this, we should progress, I believe, to a strictly pre-service educational requirement, of a type dictated first by departmental policy and then by general law, requiring a certificate of completion of at least two years of specialized college level work as a prerequisite for employment. Here, again, both of these intermediate steps, the cadet system and the normal-school type of training leading to a certificate, must be coordinated with the police administrators concerned in order to provide acceptable trainees. In this area also the colleges and universities have a great opportunity for public service.

When finally we begin to approach fruitful levels of training in these four areas, we can then expect the development of a truly professional service, with some transfer of personnel, both staff and command, between departments as required at least within a given state. Such an enlightened administrative policy predicated upon a sound training program will ensure a type of professional law enforcement which will serve as a great bulwark in the defense of the freedoms which we enjoy today, and which are in such great peril from so many directions. Not the least of these perils is the loss of our freedom through ineffective law enforcement. Law enforcement cannot be effective without adequate personnel training, generally so inadequate today as to give real cause for concern.

The Family and Juvenile Delinquency - Raymond A. Mulligan, University of Arizona

For the past decade a considerable amount of attention has been given to the problem of juvenile delinquency by various groups in our society. Professional scholars, civic leaders, popular writers and speakers are being asked more and more by the public what can be done to prevent and reduce this type of behavior among our young people. Although the suggested remedies are legion, with little or no evidence to indicate if any of them would be successful, we know enough sociologically about juvenile delinquency to realize that we are dealing with a complex social problem made up of a constellation of interacting personal and social factors. Since no one of these factors acts in isolation in producing juvenile delinquency, it is unlikely that any one program oriented around one "causal" variable will meet with any spectacular success. In fact, this has been the history of the prevention of juvenile delinquency in the United States to date. Perhaps such a situation should be anticipated, although it is not appreciated by the exponent of "common sense," when it is realized that it is very unlikely for any particular program for the reduction of delinquency to take into account all of the factors involved in such behavior. In broad sociological terms the factors involved are encompassed in the social systems of the family, the primary group, and the community, which in turn are part of the unified social system of the larger society. For the purposes of the present paper the writer would like to examine several empirical studies relating selected familial relationships to juvenile delinquency and then offer several hypotheses, that may tentatively be used in a delinquency prevention program on the family level.

The role of familial relationships as a factor in juvenile delinquency has been strongly emphasized by such authorities as Burt in England and Shulman, Healy and Bronner in the United States. This is a narrow approach, which immediately gives rise to the question whether the role of familial relationships can be isolated from other factors in the development of juvenile delinquency. Of course the answer is in the negative (as we can not do so any more than isolate any other one factor.) Groups and their social systems, which are the foundations of social behavior, are extensively interrelated. Familial relationships are inextricably bound up with many other social systems. The separation of the family from other groups in society is entirely arbitrary and academic, which can be done only for the purposes of analysis and ease of presentation. However, the taking of one social system out of a web of social relationships and examining it minutely is scientifically permissible so long as we keep clearly in mind that the system with which we are dealing is a functional part of the composite larger system. As long as only relative importance is assigned to the familial system in comparison with other social systems in the socialization of the child and emerging modes of conduct, such a procedure is permissible. This type of analysis is in keeping with the sociological principle that the social systems of a social systems of a society are interrelated.

In any discussion of the role of familial relationships in promoting juvenile delinquency it is either implicitly or explicitly hypothesized that where there are conventionality, intelligence, emotional stability, understanding, sympathy, and security in the home the home influence on this type of behavior is reduced to zero. A corollary of this position and the principle of the interrelationship of social systems is that such conventional homes exert some positive influence on detrimental influences outside of the home. If these assumptions have any validity at all it would appear that the home would be a very important starting point from which to launch one type of program for the prevention of juvenile delinquency.

The family is said to form the basis of the child's value system and develops lasting life-patterns, which, if they coincide with those of the larger society, prepare the child for conventional social living. The family is purported to be the most effective transmitter of attitudes and values. Ideally the child should learn to internalize the values of the larger society within the family.

Through the process of socialization society attempts to internalize in its individual members certain group norms and ideals. Socialization is a term which denotes the process through which the individual goes in acquiring patterns of behavior, habits, attitude, and ideas of the society into which he is born. The problem of maintaining order in society is one of conditioning the individual so that his values will be in harmony with the basic values or norms of society. The family is potentially the most effective agency of social control. It has almost exclusive contact with the child during the period of greatest plasticity and continued primary contacts over a period of several years. However, the problem of control within the family varies greatly.

Home discipline, so far as it fails in the American family, perhaps does so not through design or malignance, but through neglect, indifference, ignorance, and unwillingness to take the social responsibility for directing its children. In our society of constant social change parental values often prove inadequate because many parents have no definite standards; their discipline is inadequate and most important, inconsistent; some parents fail to keep pace with societal change, while others have interests that are not concerned with the rearing of children. The basic problem of initiating a delinquency prevention program in the home is essentially one of educating, directing, and impressing upon parents their continued responsibility for the socialization of their children according to the norms of the larger society.

Defective discipline and vicious examples within the family have been found to be more significant in promoting juvenile delinquency than broken homes and poverty.¹ Such conditions within the family do not promote the internalization of society-wide social values. The emotional tone of the home, the behavior and attitudes of parents toward the child, the presence of love and affection for the child, in short - the kind of familial relationships within the family determine the effectiveness of socialization and the internalization of social values for the child.

Several studies have revealed the importance of parental attitudes in influencing the behavior of children. For example, it has been reported that parental attitudes are more influential than the physical environment of the home; maladjustment in children tends to be associated with harmful attitudes of parents; children's attitudes toward right and wrong are more closely associated with their parents' attitudes toward right and wrong than with other groups outside the home; and families in which one or both parents are regular members of a church affect the religious behavior of children in later life.²

Parents' attitudes toward their children, and children's conceptions of their parents differ significantly among delinquents and non-delinquents. One study reports that 60.0 per cent of a group of delinquents felt that their fathers were indifferent or hostile toward them, while this was true for only 20.0 per cent of the individuals in a control group made up of non-delinquents.³ In 80.0 per cent of the cases the delinquents also felt that their mothers were not deeply concerned about their welfare, while this was true among only 30.0 per cent of the non-delinquents. Seventy per cent of the mothers of delinquents were found not giving suitable supervision to their sons, whereas this was true in only 10.0 per cent of the non-delinquents.

The quest for the effects of familial relationships upon a child becomes involved when it is understood that the social system of the family will affect subtly one child in the family differently than another. This has been brought out clearly in a study by Healy and Bronner.⁴ The investigation represented an attempt to reach down into the family life of recidivists in juvenile delinquency. Cases were selected for the study for which a non-delinquent sibling could act as a control. A comparative study of the emotional life and of the behavior of the delinquent and the non-delinquent siblings convinced the investigators that delinquency per se must be considered as a way of expressing oneself when accepted ways of so doing have been blocked by unsatisfying familial relationships.

Burt⁵ made an intensive study of 200 cases of juvenile delinquents. He compared these offenders with a control group of 400 non-delinquent children holding such factors as age, social class, school attended, and ecological area constant. After making many detailed comparisons of the two groups one of the main conclusions he drew from the study was that the commonest and the most disastrous conditions for the delinquent child center about family life.

It has been pointed out that the child who becomes a delinquent is more likely to come from a home where he is neglected, rejected or subject to harsh and even unjust punishment. In a large proportion of cases one parent is missing. When both parents are in the home it has frequently been found that the delinquent has parents who are constantly bickering or are openly hostile to each other.⁶

It is true that a child may grow up to be a socially integrated adult even in a home where siblings have been shown preference and where he may be deprived of parental love. Even children who are brutally abused, or punished unjustly may mature into socially integrated personalities. Contrariwise, it may also develop into juvenile delinquents. Such observations do not minimize the importance of the home and familial relationships in the development of delinquency but are only illustrations of the sociological principle that social behavior is interrelated with various social systems, and cannot be adequately explained on the basis of one social system, in this case the family. Familial relationships and the internalization of social values cannot in reality be considered without reference to the impact of other social systems, which is a problem beyond the scope of the present paper.

It has come to be assumed in our society that the parents' greatest contribution in rearing socially integrated children centers around the methods that may be used by them in socializing the children. Two polar systems of family control are readily identified in our society. One system is based on issuing commands and punishing disobedience. Under this system no attempt is made by the parents to give the child an understanding of why rules are established or why punishment is used for their violation. When punishment is harsh, the child very often may develop fear of the parent as well as resentment. Under such a system the parent sets himself above the child and establishes formal dictatorial familial relationships. This kind of relationship precludes communication of a truly confidential nature between the parent and child and hinders the establishment of rapport. If the child is to accept and internalize the values of the parents, first rapport must be established. In other words, such a system sets up the control of social behavior on the basis of compulsion of external rules and authority. This type of system is effective only in those social situations where the chances for evasion of the norms are eliminated, as it does not promote the internalization of the parental values.

The second system of child control is more flexible and democratic. Under this system the parent explains to the youngster why certain types of behavior is expected. Punishment may be included for violation of rules but it does not necessarily have to be the case. Ideally under this system the child is so thoroughly assimilated into the family's social system that rapport and sympathetic understanding between the members of the system are sufficient to promote the internalization of the desired values and, thus, make punishment unnecessary. In other words the social system of control that is effective is the one which the child internalizes and it thus becomes his own system of motivation. Under this type of family system the child is close enough to the parent to understand what the parent wants, and at the same time the child is free to choose within given limits of activity what his parents have outlined as proper conduct.

Within the frame work of the above studies and assumptions it may be hypothesized that satisfying familial relationships are associated with family social systems embodying, among others, the following ten axioms;

1. Children are never punished for behavior that merely annoys or disturbs a parent. Punishment is used only in those instances where it is necessary to help the child to internalize a fundamental social value.

2. Parents do not use false information or give mis-interpretations to children in order to control them. Credulous parental explanations and other immature devices of control when discovered by the child lessens confidence in the parent and weakens the intimacy of their social relationships.

3. Parents do not make promises to children that are lightly conceived or that they have no intentions of carrying out. Children have good memories, especially for anticipated awards, and do not easily forget parental promises. A series of such unfulfilled promises can easily destroy the confidential social relationships of child and parent.

4. The social relationships between parents and their children are relatively constant. In other words, parents are consistent in their behavior toward their children and do not alternate violently between extremes either in rates or origin of social interaction.

5. Parents do not violate the confidences of their children, react emotionally, or base the punishment of children upon such information.

6. Parents do not continually make their children feel inferior as a means of controlling them or keeping them in a subordinate role. Children are encouraged by their parents to build up confidence in their social relationships, and gradually to assume mature roles.

7. Parents allow their children to discuss plans, problems, or pleasures with them. At these times the child is permitted to explain his problems or past behavior and is encouraged to accept responsibilities and to face realities and truth. Parents do not think they are too busy to listen to such little confidences and plans. Intimate communication is often lost between parents and offspring due to the lack of interest on the part of the former for the topic of conversation of the latter. With the loss of rapport parents, also, lose some ability to control, guide, and advise in the sense that they may not know what their children are doing or experiencing outside of the home.

8. Parents agree on a constructive plan of discipline. They are consistent in implementing such a plan and do not disagree or interfere with each other in the presence of children in maintaining such social relationships.

9. Parents are not more concerned with the physical condition of the home than with the enjoyment of their children and their playmates while in the home. Children are allowed to play and romp in the home within the limits of not destroying or dismantling the home. With satisfying familial relationships home becomes a pleasant place for children to go, and they are not driven away from it by the incessant nagging and borbidding techniques of parents.

10. Parents build up a child's respect for government, the police, the courts, the school and the church by not being overly-critical of these institutions and agencies in the presence of the child.

Footnotes

1. Cyril Burt, The Young Delinquent, New York, 1925, pp. 60-98.
2. F. Stuart Chapin, Contemporary American Institutions, New York, 1935, pp. 86-103.
3. U. S. Senate Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency, Hearings: 83 Congress, 2 Session, Government Printing Office, Washington, 1954-55.
4. Healy, William, and Bronner, A. J., New Light on Delinquency and Its Treatment, New Haven, 1936.
5. C. Burt, op. cit.
6. Henry Epstein, Perspectives on Delinquency Prevention (rpt to Mayor of N.Y.), 1955, p. 9

The Dangers of Police Course Notebooks - by, Richard A. Myren

One of the fetishes of police training is the notebook. Any course which lasts at least a week must produce a notebook. They come in all sizes and descriptions, but their value seems to depend on their weight. There may have been a time when this requirement was of value; there may still be situations in which it may be of value; but, on the whole, so many abuses have developed as to make the course notebook a danger rather than an asset.

Perhaps the most important reason why police course notebooks have become dangerous arises from the fact that the course instructors seldom have or take the time to assure that the notes in the book are accurate. The theory on which notebooks are required is that they assure attention to the material presented during the course, serve to refresh the memory of the student at later dates, and serve as a source of instructional material which the policeman can use in teaching in schools in his own department. All of these are laudable reasons for using notebooks, and maybe the first - that of assuring attention by the student to his instruction - is sufficient justification for keeping formal notes even if they are inaccurate, but only if those notes are discarded at the end of the course and not used for the other purposes mentioned.

After seven years of lecturing in police in-service schools, I am continually encountering misinformation attributed to me but actually coming from the notebooks of previous students, some of which I never had an opportunity to check and some of which, I must confess, I simply did not take the time to check properly. Sometimes the information has come through several successive notebooks - that of my student and of his student and of that student's student. Even if the first recording of my pearls of wisdom had been accurate and complete, it is quite improbable that several such recordings and reiterations would be without distortion. Is there any experienced instructor who has not had the same thing happen to him? This danger is particularly great because of the tremendous amount of in-service training which is done by instructors using this particularly fallible secondary source, a notebook from a school attended in the distant past. Expert instructors using primary sources cannot begin to reach all of the police recruits needing basic instruction. They cannot begin to reach the many patrolmen who each year become specialists and require basic training in their specialty. This training is very frequently given by older policemen - and all too frequently from inaccurate notebooks. This difficulty might be met by having each instructor mimeograph his lecture. This would assure accuracy in at least the first reiteration. But if this is to be done, why not develop printed textbooks? This is the answer of educational systems generally.

In addition to their probable inaccuracy, another danger with required police course notebooks is that they tend to become an end in themselves. I am sure that the reader has administered, taught in, or sat through a police course in which the primary concern was the compiling of a fancy, typed, well illustrated notebook in several volumes. The typing will be required whether or not the man can type with facility. The work of previous students displayed as examples will make it clear that the more and thicker the volumes, the better the grade. Neatness and attractiveness are desirable, so photographs and hand drawn illustrations become important. The result: Who has time to study after the notebook is brought up to date? Making the notebooks is of some value as a study aid, to be sure, but it cannot take the place of thoughtful consideration of course content or of enough sleep at night to enable the student to stay awake in class the next day.

Still a third danger with the notebook required in so many police in-service training courses is that it tends to freeze the information available to its owner as of the date of its creation. Even if the notebook was prepared ten or fifteen years ago, new sources of ideas are not sought out. This notebook contains THE WORD, so why look further? This is the easy and, unfortunately, the usual way out for the police instructor who must teach as a collateral duty. As a result, practices once discussed and recorded are preserved long after new developments have made them outmoded.

Three reasons have been advanced here for abandonment or at least modification of the notebook requirement in police in-service training courses. These reasons are:

1. Much of the information in such notebooks is inaccurate;
2. Creation of the notebook frequently becomes more important than mastery of the course content; and
3. Existence of the notebook tends to preclude further research for newer and better information.

Let's stop judging police students by the weight of their notes. Let's stop judging the qualifications of police instructors by the number of feet of shelf space required for their notebooks from previous schools. Let's start taking the time to judge both students and instructors by what they have in their heads.

Law enforcement circles in this country take a dim view of spiraling crime rates that have characterized the past quarter century. Despite crime laboratories and lie detectors, vastly improved methods of criminal investigation and acceptable salary structures attracting a higher calibred of personnel into the American police field than ever before; despite a gradual shift in police emphasis from a punitive to a preventive philosophy and despite the accelerated yields from research in the behavior sciences and the impressive gains made by correctional administration in recent years, we have lost ground and we are continuing to lose ground. Each year, the crime balance sheet goes further in the red, with new crime rates surpassing all previous records. The record for 1958 reveals a continued and disturbing upward trend in this senseless trail of blood, violence and stealth.

The viewpoint of law enforcement in this dilemma is not one of frustration nor one of 'laying-the-blame' but rather one of introspection, and upon taking a close-up look at ourselves, the discovery is made that we are altogether out of effective contact with those social institutions and disciplines that have an equal stake in the problem and a healthy capacity finds that each of these social institutions and disciplines is largely out of effective contact with the law enforcement field, and with one another.

There is a breakdown in communication. We appear to be highly compartmentalized, with each of us - law enforcement, corrections, sociology, psychology, psychiatry, the public school system, the church and others, moving in an independent orbit and within its own delimited frame of reference, largely unaware of what the other is trying to do and without regard for the fact that the problems of one are essentially the problems of the other. We need to extinguish the light in those ivory towers and come on down to the ground and go to work.

Law enforcement alone cannot make any important gains in the approach to the problem of crime and the criminal, nor can psychology, sociology, psychiatry or corrections single-handedly exploit effectively the important contributions they are so well prepared to make. If Little Rock thought it had an integration problem, we should consider the monumental project in integration that confronts us. Law enforcement takes the view that a merger of resources is called for in a team approach to the problem that would pool our information and bring into effective combination our joint efforts and responsibilities.

Educated guesses place the cost of crime and the criminal in this country all the way from 20 to 40 billions of dollars per year. We pay a higher tribute to the two horsemen - delinquency and crime - than orderly government is able to raise in support of our total educational system. And it is not a credit business; the crime bill is paid for in cash. With multiplied millions of dollars doing down the drain annually in an after-the-fact approach, the impact of the cost of crime and the criminal upon the economy of each state in the nation, in terms of taxation and a balanced budget, is cause for public concern.

It has been suggested that the Legislatures in each state provide for the early creation at the state level of a central cabinet, divorced from politics and with strong advisory powers, composed of a representative from corrections, law enforcement, sociology, psychiatry, psychology, the public school system, the ministry, the prison population, and a representative from the legal profession and a responsible tax payers' organization.

\$150,000 to \$200,000 per year would be a cheap price to pay for a coordinated approach that would bring these disciplines, institutions and governmental agencies into effective combination - in a work program pointed toward a shift in public expenditures on upstream near the headwaters and tributaries of crime and the criminal in a correctional operation that would establish communication in the prearrest period with the youngster showing symptomatic signs of oncoming behavior disorder.

SUMMARY OF "POLICE TRAINING TODAY" BY A. F. BRANDSTATTER

The topic, "Police Training Today", is quite broad and general in scope; therefore, I shall concentrate on the pre-service aspect of police training.

According to Colonel William A. Wiltberger's thesis entitled, "A Program for Police Training in a College", written in 1937, the first formal police department recruit training was established in the New York City Police Department in 1914; in 1917, advanced in-service training was established with the reorganization of the New York City Police School. In March 1917, the New York Police Department sent 200 patrolmen to Columbia University to attend a special course of lectures on criminal law, municipal law, and criminology. In 1928 in the State of New York, there was developed the first zone police training school in which police officers were afforded the opportunity to assemble for a short period of time for the purpose of studying police duties and responsibilities.

Much has been written about the professionalization of the police service; I think that an adequate pre-service training program is one of the essential ingredients of a recognized profession. With regard to pre-service training, three important factors must be considered -- philosophy, curriculum, and faculty. Because there were no documents to refer to, our school had to devise its own philosophy. The curriculum which evolves, will naturally reflect the personality, experience, and idiosyncrasies of the staff; if a rigid curriculum is established, a staff will be recruited to meet the needs of the curriculum. It is apparent that when procuring staff, the administrator of a law enforcement education program must provide for competent and edifying instruction. To hire personnel simply on the basis of academic achievement and possession of degrees, is fraught with peril; without work experience in the law enforcement area, the instructor might be far too naive for the responsibility given him. However, to hire personnel simply on the basis of work experience is highly dangerous; without a liberal education and broad view, the instructor might be far too apt to perpetuate archaic police thinking. Ideally, the instructional staff should have good police experience and advanced academic degrees. More important than advanced degrees and more important than years of experience is the capacity and character of the individual instructor. Also, he must be competent and possess a high degree of integrity. Yet, it is of import to the status and dignity of the police program to acquire faculty members who have advanced degrees, with the Master's degree being the minimum in any four-year program. If local agency personnel is utilized, a variety of organizations should be represented, rather than only one.

With respect to curriculum, fundamental problems must be faced; some of them are as follows: What kind of subject matter should be emphasized? Should the courses be of a tool technique or tactical in nature? How should curriculum time be divided between theoretical and basic informational courses? How much time should be devoted to internship training? How many credit hours should be required for the major? What courses should be included in lower division requirements and what in the upper division? Is there such a thing as a standard curriculum for law enforcement? The American Society for Criminology is planning a national conference to consider some of these questions, and it is expected that the Committee on Education and Training of the IACP will examine this area in the near future. Another question to be considered is, What should be taught at the City and Junior college level? In the July-August 1958 issue of the "California Peace Officer" there appeared an article entitled, "Junior Colleges Play Important Role in Professionalization", by Sergeant Allan Bristow presents an interesting summary of the junior college impact on pre-service police training. Careful attention should be given to the development of the junior college program, for with proper coordination, it can serve as a most useful plan to provide well-trained recruits or to provide students who will continue with more advanced studies.

We face the same challenge the engineers face -- are we going to perpetuate obsolete practices by transferring them from the field to the classroom as police curricula and courses are developed in colleges and universities across the country? The same problem exists in the classroom of the in-service training program of every police department. Generally speaking, little, if any, research has been done in universities or police departments to improve police procedures and consider new organizational or administrative concepts. We must not permit the development of police programs that are conceived to provide a narrow and limited exposure to the technical courses in police administration. They must be designed to provide a liberal education. College graduates of these programs should be broadly trained and with breadth of perception and understanding of a kind best obtained by a liberal election of courses in political science, mathematics, economics, sociology, and the like. The time has come for law enforcement to discard ordinary approaches to present day problems. We need to attack these problems with the same kind of bold, aggressive imaginative thought that characterizes the assault on the problems of science. Not too many years ago, weird ideas daring to do with something called "television" were greeted with skepticism. But times have changed. Today, imaginative thinking is prevalent and we are told that in thirty years or less we may be taking trips to the moon.

We need imaginative thinking in law enforcement. We must set aside our instinctive reaction that it cannot be done to such concepts as combining police and fire services and one-man patrol. We need creative imaginations, the boldness, the refusal to accept the obvious or to recognize the impossible.

The greatness and appreciation of higher education in America should not be overlooked nor cast aside by law enforcement. It is disturbing to hear rumors that this type of thinking prevails among some of the law enforcement leadership in this country. The concept of developing individual capacities through education has been important throughout our history in America. From the standpoint of providing a basic education for all citizens, we have put this concept into practice with unrivaled success. But we, in law enforcement, today, face a crucial responsibility to do more. We must embrace the university and college and exploit their resources to the full extent of our ability. We should be pounding on the desk of every university president in the country, insisting upon the development of programs to meet our needs. This includes pre-service training, adult education, (or in-service training, if you prefer) and research, and I underscore the word research.

POLICE

by

John Coatman, London Oxford University Press, New York, New York, 1959, pp. 248

The general theme of this book is to view the concept of Police per se. The theme is developed by first discussing the role of the Police to government. Then the rise of organized police forces in England, and other English speaking countries - followed by a discussion of the French and German system. The material given on these various police systems is sufficient to present a survey, by way of contrast, of the various police systems.

Objectivity is clouded from time to time when ethnocentricism rears its ugly head. Also, there is little praise for the other fellows' labors. It is granted that England has a fine police system; but, that is not to say that like value cannot be found in other police systems. It is difficult for me to see how England can be so virtuous and efficient. Typical statements were: "Best in the world." "...exemplar of American police reformers...", et cetera.

At the other end of the scale was the American system. About the only complimentary thing Mr. Coatman said about our system was the grand effort the F.B.I. is doing in the field of police training. Mr. Coatman is quick to find fault with our system, yet he so easily discounts any corruption or fault found in the English system by referring to it as "marginalia of crime." (?)

Training - this is the chapter that contains ideas that need further expansion. A statement like: "The truth is that the only truly practical and valuable form of pre-service training is that afforded by the police cadet system" is rather one sided since this again is the English way. Notwithstanding Chairs and Institutes of criminology in universities, the author negatively characterized other academic efforts on pre-service training as a "flying start."

It appears to me that a basic contradiction regarding training is made 86 pages after the author so definitely states that the cadet system is the only pre-service training to have. Outlined in the Chapter of Problems of the Future were comments to the effect of how understaffed police departments are - greater demands of police recruits in mental and educational requirements; and the increasing competition in the other fields of endeavor tending to attract potential law enforcement officers. My impression from these observations is that something is needed besides the cadet system in order to attempt to fill this ever-present void. This something is the academic areas that are skilled oriented and are designed to help the potential police officer on a "flying start." This is a positive concept rather than a negative concept as viewed by the author.

A thought which deserves closer attention is one regarding summit institutions of the national police training systems coupled with Interpol. A synthesizing effort which is not now present in the broad general field of Police. This approach is much needed. Without which it is doubted that there will ever be an overall enhancement or professionalization of Police. Moreover, as an adjunct to this thought an exchange program should be developed - this exchange program would involve the police as well as other members in the system of good government.

I particularly enjoyed the Platonic figure as it was used in illustrating a police problem: "Society is at war with crime and criminals, its military arm being police, and its war cabinet the legislature." The point is well made that no war cabinet would dare commit its military force without first consulting their supreme commanders. Yet, it is not infrequent police are committed without consultation. This is an area which requires further attention by all who are law enforcement oriented.

Without being unduly harsh on Mr. Coatman's labors the following comments are given: The style of presentation is difficult to read. The book is inadequately documented - no footnotes compounded with an incomplete bibliography. Two apparent errors are present. Secret Service rather than Security Service found on page 50. On page 176 Mr. Coatman refers to criminal legislation of all communist countries as crimes against the State; the inference being that in England and America our criminal legislation are not crimes against the State. The roots of common law are deeply imbedded in the concept that crimes are against the King (State.) I cannot understand Mr. Coatman making this fallacious comment. True, a diverse difference does lie between the concept of what is criminal as between a democracy and a police state, yet under both forms of government a legally defined crime has the offended party as the state.

PLANNING FOR COMPREHENSIVE PSYCHIATRIC CARE IN THE COMMUNITY*

As new methods of treatment are developing which promise to make hospitalization unnecessary for many psychiatric patients and to reduce re-admissions to mental hospitals, there is an increasing need for facilities to treat psychiatric patients in the community. In order to meet this increasing need, San Mateo will be required to consolidate and extend its new and imaginative program. We must draw upon all of our private and public current psychiatric and para-psychiatric resources in facilities, manpower, and experience. We recognize that the problem of mental illness reaches beyond the treatment of emotionally disturbed and mentally sick individuals to the very fabric of our social order, and we readily subscribe to the notion that prevention rather than treatment holds a promise for the future. Nonetheless, we must not neglect our public mandate to analyze and improve patterns of current patient care. The manner in which individuals who have already been defined as patients are treated and handled is of the largest medical and financial concern.

The significance of the increase in the use of community psychiatric resources can hardly be over-emphasized, since it has already shifted, for a substantial proportion of patients, the focus and locus of psychiatric treatment from the State Hospital, with all the traditional misunderstanding that attaches thereto, to the local community. Thus to the public, community psychiatric care is not isolated in a "mental institution", but becomes assimilated with the series of other private and public medical welfare and correctional services operating in the community. An immediate practical problem is the tremendous impact of this shift in expectation of the Community Hospital Psychiatric Inpatient Service. There, an increasing number of medically uncontrolled admissions reached a peak of 150 in October. In the words of Dr. Young, "If we are forced to take care of more patients we (will) have to give up our therapeutic program and become a psychiatric mill or a way station. . . to State Hospital care."

In the community setting, we start with individuals who have psychiatric difficulties or emotional problems which keep them from functioning as well as they should but which are not severe or disabling enough at the time to require removal to an in-patient treatment institution if other psychiatric care is immediately available. Lacking such other care, the in-patient service must take all problems, appropriate and inappropriate. In a sense, we can proceed on the assumption of a need for a maintenance or emergency repair service for individuals in the community which they can use to keep themselves "going". As such we are also concerned with the complex of social forces and institutions which impinge on patients and which either facilitate or hinder recovery from emotional difficulties and resumption of the kinds of social roles which are normally expected.

Note that we are assuming that with proper treatment resources, almost all individuals with psychiatric problems can be managed and treated while remaining in the community and while involved with some or most of the ordinary social roles - as a family member, school student, jobholder, church member, etc.

This means that our patient is involved simultaneously in at least two distinct systems which are pertinent to his mental health and illness:

- 1) his everyday social relationships;
- 2) his psychiatric treatment relationships;

*Based in part on studies developed by the Joint Commission on Mental Illness & Health

We are concerned, irrespective of the causes or the types of psychiatric difficulty, with (a) the ways in which the difficulties manifest themselves by deficits of functioning or adjustment in our patient's everyday life, (b) the manner in which these manifestations become defined as psychiatric, (c) the pathways and machinery for entrance of the patient into the psychiatric treatment system and (d) the manner in which the psychiatric system relates itself to the patient and his illness, (e) the mutual interdependence between 1) and 2) above.

As a part of our work, we are concerned with how the psychiatric system relates itself to the community-at-large and to the other health and social services in the community. This involves such concepts as psychiatric and mental health consultations, mental health education and promotion, and the "creative" or positive mental health contribution of psychiatry to the community. We will examine these aspects of the psychiatric system only in so far as they cannot be separated from our study of psychiatric care in the community, and in so far as they might contribute to our understanding of this care.

Historical Background

Community psychiatric practice in out-patient clinics and private practice is a relatively recent development, with origins coming from disparate interests and medical backgrounds.

We can identify models for current clinical practice, in both the out-patient clinic and individual private practice settings, which evolve from (a) the medical commonsense psychiatry of Weir Mitchell, Austin Riggs and descriptive hospital psychiatry and (b) the dynamic developmental psychiatry of Meyer, Freud and others. The former includes many types of clinics and private practice which specialize in (a) use of organic therapies such as EST and drugs, and (b) in brief personal contacts with patients which have as their purpose the development of a descriptive diagnosis, a prognosis and a treatment plan and to elicit the cooperation of the patient in the plan and to explain the rationale to him. The latter type of practice has as its basic model the psychoanalytic treatment method of Freud, with in addition, the use of the treatment team to obtain relevant clinical data and to work with relatives and others close to the patient.

The second type of practice specializes in psychotherapy in its various forms, is highly developed in child psychiatry throughout the country. The treatment process requires that the "therapist", who may be a psychiatrist, psychiatric social worker or psychologist, become involved directly with the patient for long periods of time, at stated intervals, once-a-week to five-times-a-week, usually for a period of one hour. This treatment obviously involves more time per patient than the first, and needs long term contact between the patient and the psychiatric treatment resource. The first model, in contrast, is more like that of general medicine - relief of presenting symptoms, discharge of patient from care with return if symptoms recur.

Here and there in psychiatry, we have evidence of a healthy blending of these two approaches, which is a result of the coming-of-age of the psychiatric profession as well as of further development of psychiatric theory. We now see, for instance, psychotherapy of brain-damaged children. In many centers one can find patients discharged from mental hospitals who are receiving psychotherapy and casework services as they are taking drugs or are involved in a maintenance program of EST. One prominent center successfully combines orthodox psychoanalysis with drug treatments.

Early diagnosis and prompt treatment of psychiatric disorders is a necessary objective of our program. In the past, psychiatric patients have come into treatment as a last resort, sometimes after years of decompensation and illness, and after some major and devastating social event involving family, community, or job had occurred. It will be our aim to develop advanced programs which (a) blend their approach to consider organic-physiological, psychological and sociological factors in cause and treatment of psychiatric disorders and (b) to develop public health-minded programs for early diagnosis and prompt treatment.

On Becoming a Patient in the Community

Our concern with the individual begins immediately prior to his definition as a psychiatric patient in the community. This designation, or rather the process whereby this designation is arrived at, is never a simple one, but the resultant of a series of socio-cultural and other factors always at work in the community. There are impeding factors such as (a) reluctance to "stigmatize", (b) The fear of making sick persons angry or less cooperative, (c) difficulties of making appointments due to waiting lists, (d) failure to meet eligibility requirements of clinics, (e) lack of funds for private psychiatric

care, etc. Factors which may facilitate the designation of individuals as psychiatric patients in the community include (a) the reduction of the stigma of mental illness in certain communities, (b) positive attitudes toward the use of child guidance facilities, (c) close identification of psychiatric resources with general medical resources, (d) all-purpose medical-psychiatric clinics in communities whose clinical services are available to all (e) the availability of clinical services for specialized publics - such as children, courts, schools, ex-patients, etc., (f) enough psychiatric hours to meet needs and (g) wide use of psychiatrists and clinics for referral on the part of general medical practitioners.

Since the end of World War II there has been an increasing degree of awareness of the usefulness of psychiatric help in conditions of milder discomfort and dysfunction. This movement, which has spread to many areas of the country, has extended. For example, to the wide and accepted use of psychiatric services for children and the use of psychiatrists by the upper middle and upper classes, where the connotation "you must be crazy to go to a psychiatrist" may be replaced by an attitude of "what good sense you show in dealing rationally with your problem."

Today there is a larger range of conditions which psychiatry professes to know something about and perhaps to be able to do something about. To go and seek psychiatric help is no longer synonymous with mental irresponsibility or psychosis. We are thus concerned with changing attitudes, with less stigmatization, rejection and ostracism of those who seek mental treatment in the community. We are now more concerned with providing sufficient effective treatment services to meet the increasing community awareness of needs.

The application of the individual patient to the mental health section is a function not only of referring sources but also the way the patient's illness developed, his family background and his income.

It seems reasonable to assume that psychiatric care should be readily available to those persons who need it, as we assume is the case with medical care. In common with general medicine, psychiatric care is not always used by the persons considered to need it; for example, the sexual offender referred by the courts for treatment. Are there ways in which the psychiatric system could operate to make psychiatric care more readily accessible and more acceptable? What are the administrative, financial, personal and cultural walls which stand between the patient and treatment, and which may of themselves further complicate the illness through heightened feelings of rejection, suspiciousness, anger and increased resistance to being helped?

There is a definite trend toward different patient treatment facilities in the community mental health service to have different requirements for admission and different types of referral procedures. Some of these requirements have to do with age, sex, occupation, residence, income, etc. but other requirements are due to the trend toward specialization in psychiatry, whether private or public. If this trend continues, it means that a wider net must be cast to gather more potential patients but with a finer mesh to admit only those patients with the conditions fitting the speciality of the particular clinical services. This means that the referral system for the patient will be more complicated and perhaps will interfere with successful management and treatment. It also means that certain patients will be deprived of the benefits of service because they are "unsuited to treatment."

We thus must concern ourselves with the types of "screens" with which psychiatric facilities surround themselves, and the effect they have on patients. We should explore the question of emergency psychiatric services, or psychiatric first aid, i.e. the idea of making psychiatric help available at the very moment of crisis when the patient needs it most, and when the benefit it could bring to such a patient may be the greater.

The Community and the Patient

We are concerned here both with diagnostic services which may serve the needs of others than the patient, and with the mutual obligations between therapist and the patient. In the treatment situation, there is a system of mutual expectations which is entered into on both sides. The system may include, on the patient's side, not only the patient himself but his family, employer and the established social order such as the courts (these can be identified by tracing back the referral source.) We know these other elements are of prime importance in motivating the patient in staying in therapy, especially where such motivation from the patient may be missing or half-hearted.

We feel that by the same token, the publically employed psychiatrist or the clinic assumes a contractual obligation not only toward the patient but also toward the people who are involved with the patient (family, school, work, etc.). We are concerned here, then with the important problem of communication between the treatment system and the patient's social system: (a) the need for flow of information in both directions to facilitate diagnosis and treatment, and to help the patient reassume his everyday social roles, as people expect him to; and (b) the availability and possible use of community resources that can be used conjointly with treatment. There is need for mutual support and understanding on the part of the treatment facility and the patient's social system. By "treatment" we are referring to more than a therapeutic maneuver administered under specific conditions in a specified facility by a designated specialist. We refer to the totality of concerted efforts on the part of all concerned, laymen and professionals to "help" the individual patients with his difficulties and/or illness, to maintain him in the community and out of the hospital if at all possible, to help him mobilize his resources for that purpose - in short, to extend the therapeutic system into the community, so as to maximize the strengths of the individual. This, of course, implies, even more strongly than noted earlier, a breaking down of barriers between the psychiatric system and the community. This also means we are very much concerned with the awareness, on the part of many community people of the opportunity and the need to help individuals to become again full, participating members of the community within the limits of their physical and mental handicaps. Does the treatment system tend to isolate itself from the community and the therapeutic potentials contained therein by concentrating exclusively on the clinical, rather than the sociological aspects of the patient?

What are the positive and negative aspects of the roles of individuals in the patient's social orbit during therapy, and how can these roles be modified to bring a more wholesome adjustment, and more benefit to the patient (roles of parents, relatives, spouses, employers, teachers, etc.)

There is a great need for a more realistic assessment of what can be done by psychiatry for patients and the community. This might be approached by a review of treatment goals and prognosis in various types of psychiatric conditions. Here we are concerned not only with "overselling" of psychiatry in the community but also with the tendency to ascribe magical power to the psychiatrist and/or to psychiatric treatment.

Finally, it would be helpful to know what are the criteria which are used to end the treatment of a patient. Are these criteria medical, or are they a combination of medical and other factors (financial, policy etc.); or is termination in most cases decided by the patient himself? Furthermore, how and by whom are results of psychiatric treatment in the community evaluated?

The Psychiatric Treatment System

We conceive of a "psychiatric treatment system" as consisting of the totality of institutions and people providing psychiatric care, diagnosis, and consultation to the population. This is a differentiated system consisting of therapists (in the broad sense of the word: psychiatrists, psychologists, social workers, nurses, etc.) and patients. The out-patient system is thus but one aspect of the psychiatric system. Our concern at this point is how patients flow into and out of the total psychiatric system, and particularly how patients flow from one to the other element of the system, with special reference to the out-patient and hospital facilities (i.e. the adult and child out-patient divisions and the in-patient service). We want to examine whether and how the different elements of the psychiatric system are coordinated with each other. How desirable is the present state of affairs from the patient's viewpoint? Should we examine the possibility and feasibility of a tighter and more centralized system of supervision and coordination of the public elements? Will the addition of an intermediate element, the Rehabilitation and Day Hospital service, make possible to care of a different type of patient?

We are focusing our attention on some more specific aspects of the community psychiatric system: "ownership of patients", sponsorship, types of cases, statistics, staffing, patient load, ratio of patients to the population, fees and financial support, ect. We plan to examine in some detail such elements as intake policies in order to understand better the logic and rationale of the filters which control the flow of patients from the community-at-large. Finally, we will want to examine and evaluate in practice schemes that have been proposed for a more efficient use of psychiatric personnel such as "deskilling" psychiatric functions and dividing up these functions among lesser trained personnel, with the psychiatrist as manager; utilizing the larger intake group as a filter for more definitive treatment; and pilot group initiation of the therapeutic day-school group for disturbed children.

The Psychiatric Treatment System and the Medical Profession

Psychiatric systems (and, of course, the out-patient psychiatric system) do not exist in a vacuum but operate in the larger social system of the community. First of the important different elements we will want to examine (before we look at the community as a whole) is the general medical care system, i.e. these institutions and individuals giving general and specialized non-psychiatric medical care to the people of the community. We know that in the course of giving care, conditions are uncovered which necessitate psychiatric intervention (consultation, diagnosis, treatment, etc.). We need to know what degree these conditions are treated ad hoc, on the spot, so to speak (by general practitioners and other medical specialists) and what conditions are referred to the private psychiatrist, and to the out-patient psychiatric system. Moreover, we need to know more about the process of referral (i.e. the movements of patients back and forth between the medical system and the psychiatric system), the degree to which the patient's treatment becomes fragmented because channels of communication between the two systems are insufficient or inexistent, and what steps might be proposed to improve the process. We will be concerned with the attitudes of the general medical profession towards the general medical profession. How do they work together? How can this be improved. Currently we see this program as being initiated through a psychiatric seminar group for general practitioners.

The Out-Patient Psychiatric System and Other Agencies Concerned With Mental Health

Considerations similar to those above apply to these agencies which provide welfare services to the members of the community. We are concerned here with the kinds of services relevant to mental health and illness which these agencies give their clients, and the manner in which the out-patient psychiatric resources of the community are used by these agencies, the flow of patients between the two, and whether the patient's medical care suffers from lack of supervision and coordination as a result. We are concerned with recommendations that might be proposed to improve integration between these agencies and the out-patient psychiatric system.

The Psychiatric Treatment System and the Community

The mental health facilities are dependent on the community for their support. We are concerned here with the kinds of expectations (realistic and unrealistic) that exist between the out-patient psychiatric system and the community. It is also here that we intend to develop our concept of the mental health education in psychiatry. By this we mean that insofar as there exist some channels of communication between the psychiatric system and the community, particularly the "opinion leaders" and the "Caretakers" of this community, there is an opportunity for mutual learning and growth. Both systems should benefit and be better able to work in the direction of building a healthier community from the viewpoint of mental health. We are not dealing here not only with preventive psychiatry, but with a more positive, a more creative role that psychiatry could play in improving the lives of those who live in the community, patients and non-patients alike. Thus, we think that the psychiatric system, and particularly the psychiatric consultation and rehabilitation service could become the nucleus of mental health services that would extend beyond traditional clinical services. We also want to explore new ideas for programming in mental health by setting up county mental health

centers attached to the public health centers to which people might go on the basis of their residence, and which they could consider "their" clinic. Supplementing these which would be a central service, manned around the clock to give emergency psychiatric services when needed. Another scheme might set up a plan whereby psychiatric personnel would be available around the clock on the telephone so that people "in trouble" could have someone to talk to immediately. Such a telephone service (whose number might be included in the telephone book like the telephone of the police or the fire department) might permit individuals to establish some kind of relationship at time of stress without necessarily revealing their identity, and might bring vital information to them concerning resources and procedures.

Objections to the development of comprehensive psychiatric care in the community and at the expense of the community, may develop from objections to "socialized medicine". It will be our continuing task to define more sharply what are the issues at stake, and where are the social pressures in favor and against such developments. Our constant guide and mediator will be the close and continuing cooperation of the private practitioners of psychiatry who so effectively and generously participate in our program.

Treatment Modalities

Community psychiatric treatment systems exist, obviously, only to bring something tangible to the patient, to intervene in, interfere with, alter or eliminate a morbid disease process. For each patient a clinical judgment must be made with regard to the disease process which asks: (a) is this disease self-limiting, or does it need treatment, (b) if in need of treatment, can treatment be provided in the community treatment program? Are private resources for treatment on hand? If not, can the community facilities provide them? What is the role of medical society, hospital, community council, citizen's groups in the case? (c) If treatment can be provided in the community, what are the available therapeutic resources and skills? Are these sufficiently available to be practical? (d) Are various types of treatment being fully applied in the community treatment settings - physiological, psychological and sociological? Does overemphasis on one therapeutic system rather than another stem from ideas, theories and beliefs of psychiatrists and other therapists, financial considerations, availability of trained personnel, etc.? Is there a consensus of opinion among experts about such matters? Do the therapeutic goals of the community treatment program recognize the needs of the total community as well as the individual applicant for treatment?

We are concerned with the distribution of various types of therapies in community psychiatric treatment systems such as:

- (a) physiological - drugs, physical therapies (EST and others), surgical therapies.
- (b) psychological - psychotherapies, group and individual, occupational, music, social activity groups, etc., psychoanalysis.
- (c) sociological - social casework mental health consultations, environmental manipulations, supervised half-way and 3/4-way houses, sheltered workshops, foster home placements, in-patient hospital services, day hospitals, special educational settings, etc.

What methods of techniques can we apply in the county to evaluate our therapeutic efforts? What are the theories and assumptions which are used to construct such evaluations? How best can our educational and informational services show that community psychiatric services are indeed based on sound scientific rationale and provide essential medical services which should be readily available to all in every community? Finally, on what basis should evaluation be developed: by criteria of "accepted practices" with "approved clinics", certified by appropriate professional bodies, by licensure by appropriate state agencies, or by continuing analysis of local experience and results as related to local needs?

*Based on the Roundtable on Emergency Psychiatric Services, sponsored by the Joint Commission on Mental Illness and Health, and the Committee on Public Health of the American Psychiatric Association at the Annual Meeting, San Francisco, May 13, 1958.

NOTE - See Chief John D. Holstrom's article - previous issue of the Newsletter.