

Enforcement Assistance Administration

U.S. Department of Justice



T W O

HUNDRED YEARS

AMERICAN

CRIMINAL

JUSTICE

321

An LEAA Bicentennial Study

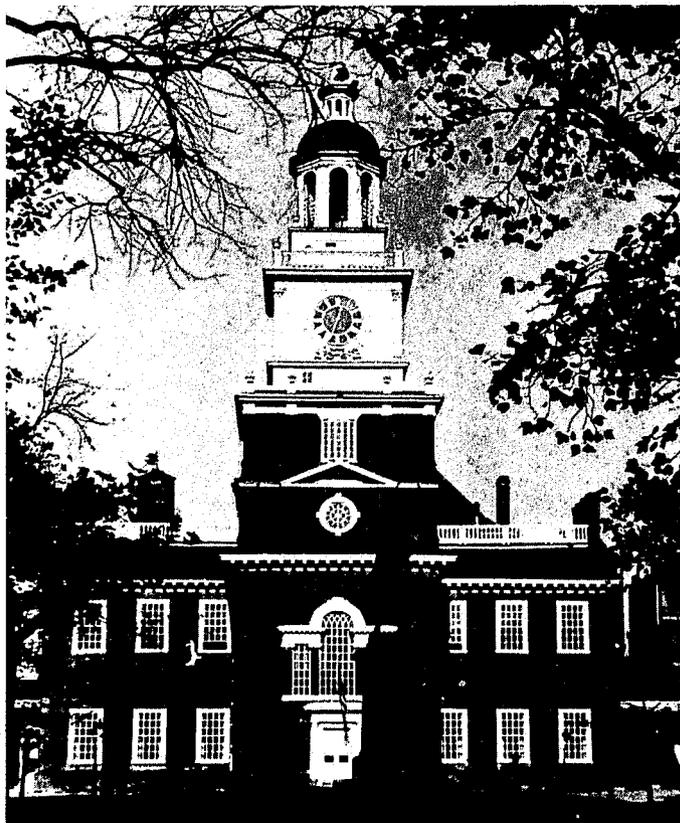
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Two Hundred Years of American Criminal Justice

An LEAA Bicentennial Study

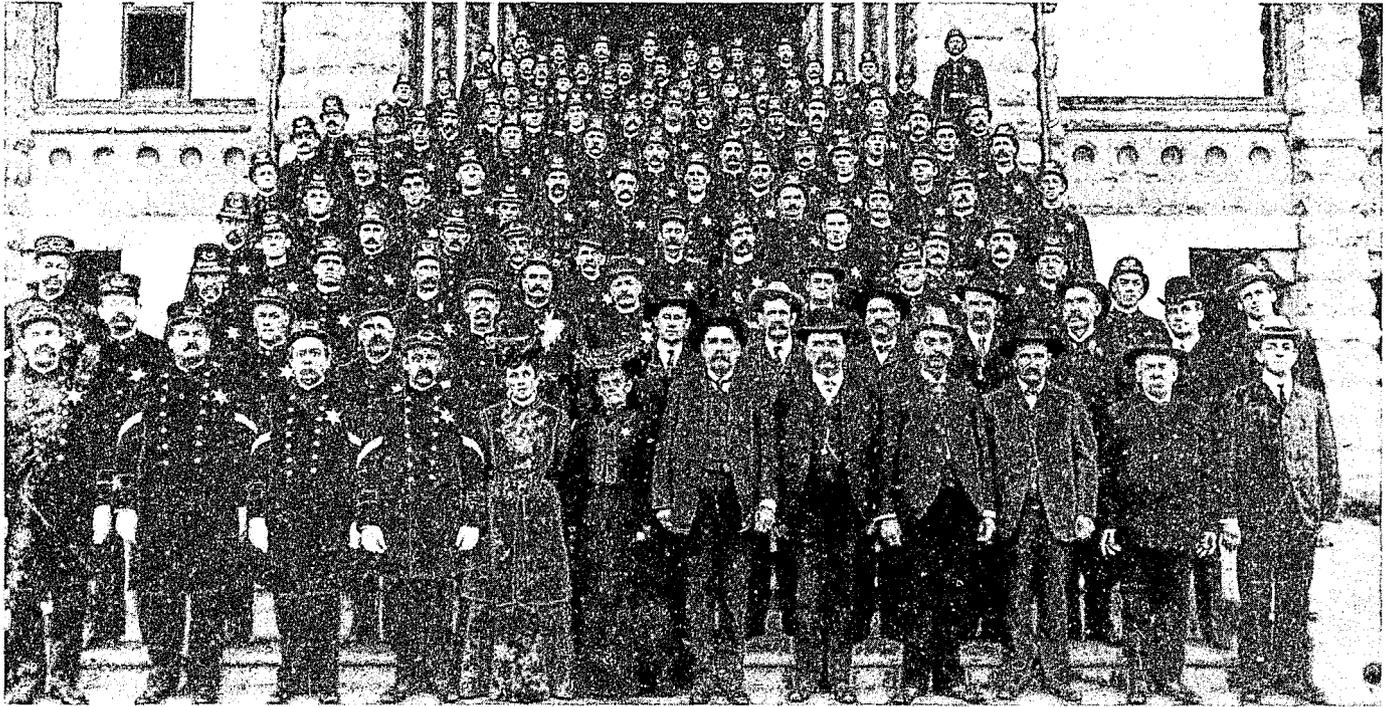
Law Enforcement
Assistance Administration
U.S. Department of Justice

Washington : 1976



Independence Hall.

Foreword



Lucy Gray (front row, in black), pictured with the Los Angeles Police Department. She was the first Los Angeles police matron and a pioneer woman in the criminal justice system. Her family had traveled West in a covered wagon during the 1850's. By the 1880's she had created a police department position to aid women and children—both victims and offenders—who were not receiving appropriate care. She was fearless and kind—known for her ability to calm unruly prisoners. She earned the title City Mother, and although not a policewoman, performed many of the duties associated with that position. (1889)

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As American society has developed, its perception of and response to crime have changed. In the years since colonial times, when the groundwork for American legal institutions was laid, many improvements have been made. Often they resulted from the work of a few concerned individuals or organizations. More recently, the Federal Government, through the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, has begun to assist State and local governments in their crime prevention and reduction efforts.

This study presents an historical view of the origins and development of American criminal justice. It frames LEAA's work in a larger historical context and provides a measure of the Agency's accomplishments since it was established in 1968.

The study is appropriate in this bicentennial year, when Americans are assessing their progress in attaining the goals of the Declaration of Independence and of the Constitution. Among those goals are the

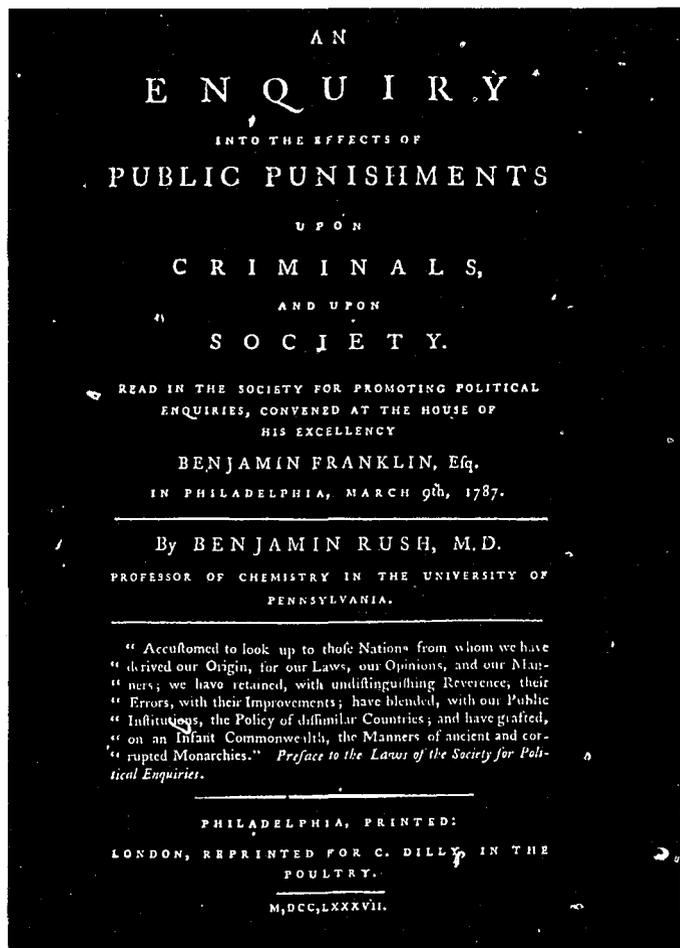
protection of life, liberty, and property, and the fair and equal administration of criminal justice. How well the nation has achieved these goals remains for the individual citizen to determine.

At this nation's founding the criminal justice system consisted of a loose arrangement of policing services, many manned by citizens or part-time watchmen. Its courts had just been freed from a foreign sovereign's control. Corrections facilities were characterized by unspeakable conditions. At that moment the American people stated in their Declaration of Independence their intention to form a nation in which the individual's rights would be paramount. The laws would be applied equally to all who came before the bar of justice.

In the subsequent 200 years, as this report shows, there have been many attempts by dedicated Americans to reform and improve the criminal justice system. Men and women from all parts of society have contributed. Some well intentioned reforms, especially those in corrections, have failed, and some created new problems. Other reforms, such as those in professionalizing police services and removing the judiciary from political control, have succeeded, perhaps beyond the expectations of some early reformers.

Despite those efforts the problem of crime has remained a serious one throughout our history. As this study shows, crime at the time of the Revolution was a matter of citizen concern in major cities. (It should be noted that comparatively little scholarly research has been done on crime rates during various periods in the history of the Republic.) The problem continued through the 19th century and into this century. As this study shows, too, the American people have continued to see the control of crime as essentially one of local, not Federal, responsibility.

Faced with an alarming increase in crime throughout the nation, Congress enacted the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968. The Act created LEAA and charged it with assisting States and municipalities in preventing and reducing crime and in improving the performance of the criminal justice system



Title page of a Benjamin Rush speech about the effects of public punishment on criminals and society—delivered at the home of Benjamin Franklin in 1787. (Photo from a 1787 reprint)



Courthouse in Franklin, Ga.. The local courthouse has been a traditional gathering place in many towns in America. (1941)

in all its components. Since then, LEAA has distributed to States or otherwise expended more than \$4.1 billion in fulfillment of its mandate from the Congress. Other expenditures include those to support innovative projects and for research in law enforcement and criminal justice.

The Congress has amended the enabling legislation three times, adding more responsibilities in corrections in 1970 and in juvenile justice through the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974.

This study is a general overview of the history of crime and of the criminal justice system in this nation during the past 200 years. The recurrent theme of that history is one of change, of a persistent redefinition of problems, of testing, of invention, and of new approaches.

This study also suggests that Americans have made substantial progress in developing a responsive criminal justice system. Today police service is far more efficient and far better serves the people than it did in the Revolutionary period. The judicial and corrections systems are much more fair and humane to defendants and offenders than was the case in earlier times. And the treatment of children has

undergone a virtually complete turnabout, from harsh punishment to education and rehabilitation.

In the American criminal justice system's history LEAA's lifespan of only seven years appears short. But during that time the crime control program has developed criminal justice planning organizations in each State, increased knowledge about what anticrime programs work and about how to measure their success, and established federally supported training and education programs for criminal justice professionals.

LEAA clearly recognizes the magnitude of the task the entire country faces in improving the criminal justice system and in preventing and reducing crime in America. It appears fitting, nonetheless, in this bicentennial year, to observe that the Federal system established by the Founders is intact and functioning well. With Federal leadership and assistance, the States have shouldered the burden of improving the delivery of police services and the operation of the courts and corrections systems.

The final goal of the LEAA program, as it must be for all governments at all levels in this nation, is to protect and enhance the very rights—"life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness"—that are the foundations of this society.

RICHARD W. VELDE
Administrator
Washington, D.C.
July 4, 1976

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one form or another each community throughout history has required its members to conform to the written or unwritten laws or face the customary penalties.

Early American society was no different. When the Thirteen Original Colonies broke with the English Crown and declared themselves to be independent, they already had a century or more of criminal justice history behind them.

The criminal laws themselves changed little in the decades that followed Independence. The English common law that had prevailed in the Colonies continued to be the basic criminal law in the States following the Revolution and the adoption of the U.S. Constitution.

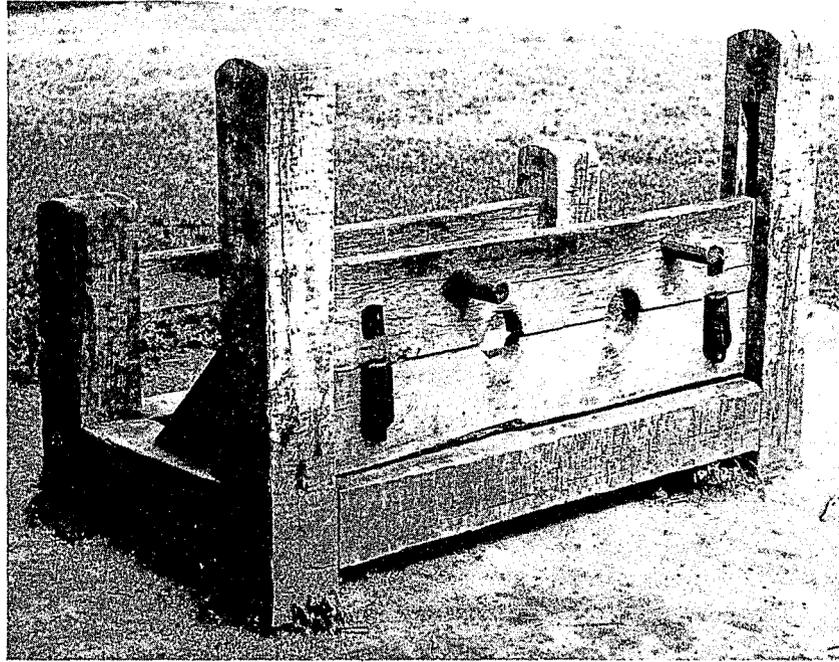
But in one important respect the new country developed something unique. Unlike most advanced nations of its time, the United States did not legislate or otherwise adopt a national criminal code. Each one of the original States maintained full sovereignty in criminal matters, as did the new States that subsequently joined the Union. The only exception to this was the jurisdiction over the originally quite limited number of Federal crimes that were prosecuted in the Federal courts.

Consequently, each State had to rely on its own resources to maintain its criminal justice system—its lockups as well as its courts and prison buildings—and to pay its own law officers, sheriffs, magistrates, judges, and prison wardens. As there were no national resources to tap, each State or Territory's system was only as good as the locally available human and financial resources.

And for the same reason, subsequent improvements were dependent upon State and local income rather than what the Federal Government had at its disposal.

In the latter half of the 1960's the Congress and the executive branch agreed that crime control efforts and State and local criminal justice system improvements were being hampered by underfunding and inadequate planning. The public discussion over remedies resulted in the creation of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration in the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968.

Reproduction of stocks used during the 17th and 18th centuries.



Clerk, unknown to me. Various Opinions concerning them, what will be their fate. They are, I hear, loaded with Irons in the Dungeon."

A Philadelphia paper reported that "wonton Frolicks of sundry intoxicated Bucks and Blades of the City" stole brass knockers from the doors of fashionable homes. The problem was such that Daniel King invented a knocker "the Construction of which is peculiarly singular, and which will stand Proof against the United Attacks of those nocturnal Sons of Violence."

In 1767 the Newport Mercury advised: "The Public would do well to keep a Look-out at their shops, Houses &c, as there are at present a Number of Loitering Persons, of the Infamous Sort, lurking about Town—some thieves narrowly made their escape in their Attempt one Morning Last Week, being discovered in their attempt to rob a Store belonging to Mr. Bird."

In 1762 New York printer John Holt wrote of "such various attempts to rob, and so many Robberies actually committed, having of late been very frequent within the Circuits of this City, both Day and Night; it is become hazardous for any person to walk in the latter."

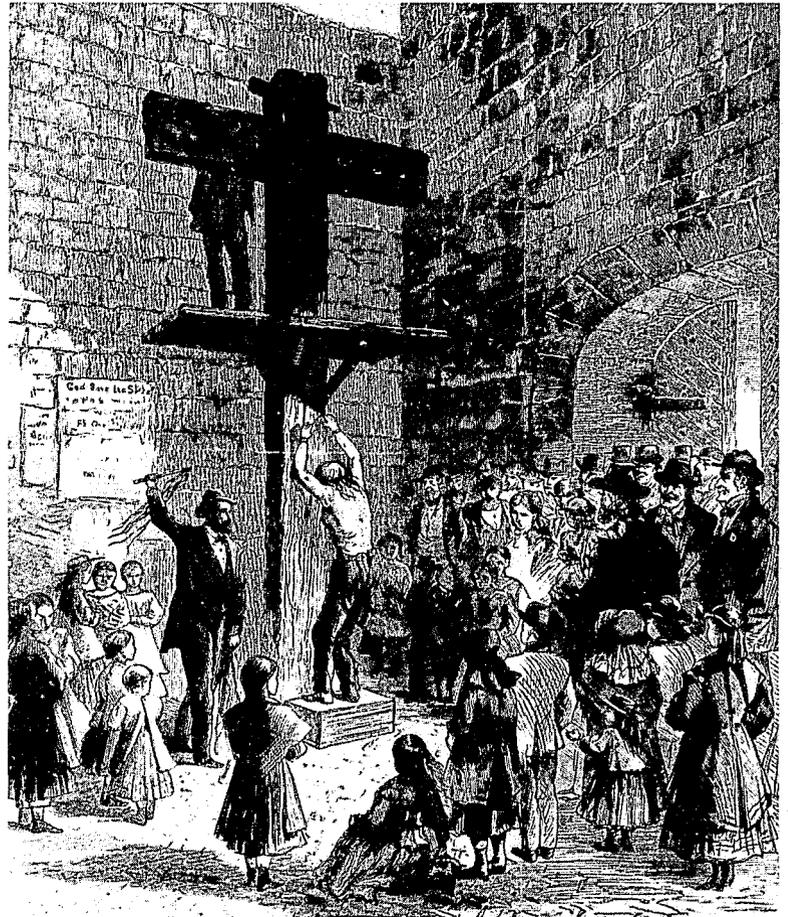
In the Colonies trained police forces did not exist and the peacekeeping methods were ineffective. In New York policing was undertaken by "nightwatchmen, constables, sheriffs, jailkeepers, and justices of the peace." The forces were small and often ill-trained and poorly managed. Some were paid, others were members of the community obligated to take their turns at the watch. The work was hazardous. Strangers sometimes assaulted officers standing duty on the streets. Many citizens understandably refused to take their turns at the watch, preferring fines to risking their lives.

The watchmen's equipment did not offer them much protection. Some carried muskets. Others had to rely on a long wooden stick, which could be rapped on the cobblestones, or a wooden whistle to attract attention to wrongdoers.

In the Colonies the courts system was a branch of the British government and based on English Common Law, under which

On Thursday night last, the house of Mr. Martin Bicker was broke open, & robbed of about £.60 lawful money. On the Saturday following one Levi Ames, was taken up on suspicion, who confes'd he was one of the party, and had about 30l. of the cash with him. One other of this gang he says is named Joseph Atwood, who is absconded; and for the apprehending of whom Mr. Bicker has offered a reward of TEN DOLLARS:—These are the villians who broke open the Rev. Mr. Clark's House of Lexington, last spring, some of whose plate were found upon them.

Article from *The Newport Mercury*.
(Sept. 6, 1773-facsimile)



The whipping-post and pillory at New Castle, Del.
(Date unknown)

H A R T F O R D, Dec. 29

We hear from Albany, that five of the prifoners confined in gaol in that place, for counterfeiting New-York and New-Jerfey money, have had their trial, been found guilty, and received sentence of death.

*Article from The Newport Mercury.
(Jan. 18, 1773-facsimile)*

there were 160 offenses punishable by death, including high or petty treason, piracy, murder, arson, burglary, house-breaking, "putting in fear," highway robbery, horse-stealing, stealing from a person to the value of one shilling, and all robberies.

Although American court procedures were at first based on the English system, each Colony soon developed its own characteristics. For instance, because Pennsylvania citizens often took a skeptical, if not hostile, view of lawyers, defendants were allowed to act as their own counsel. Many self-help law books existed. Among them was Blackstone's Commentaries, which was published in America in 1765. Some 1,557 copies were sold by 1769.

There were problems in the early American judicial system. Many judges were illiterate. Many courts were closed during the winter, when the weather prevented judges, defendants, and witnesses from traveling. Many witnesses, especially arresting officers, refused to appear. Suspects were often released and charges dropped.

Although some offenders escaped punishment, many did not, and they entered the penal system. Three types of sanction were used: corporal punishment, incarceration, and death.

As for corporal punishment, offenders could be sentenced to whipping, dunking, the pillory, or maiming. The sentences were carried out in public view—often in a carnival atmosphere. The purpose was twofold—to punish the offender and to deter others. These types of punishment were only for persons committing minor offenses; major offenses were punished by death or incarceration.

Counterfeiters and larcenists were hanged; other criminals were banished or

sent to jail. Conditions in the early prisons were intolerable. Overcrowding was the norm and "... Unless an inmate could fee the jailer, he or she had to go without even firewood or blankets; their suffering in the winter was most pitiable," as one commentator notes. The Reverend Charles Woodmason described conditions in Charles Town's prison in 1767 as follows: "A person would be in a better Situation in the French Kings Gallies, or the Prison of Turkey or Barbary, than in this dismal Place—Which is a small House hir'd by the Provost Marshall containing 5 or 6 Rooms, about 12 feet square each and in one of these Rooms have 16 Debtors been crowded. . . . They often have no Room to lye at length, but succeed each other to lye down—One was suffocated by the Heat of the Weather of this Summer—and when a Coffin was sent for the Corps, there was no room to admit it, till some Wretches lay down, and made their wretched Carcasses, a Table to lay the Coffin on"

Adults and children were treated alike. Under English Common Law a judge could consider children between the ages of seven and 14 as adults in criminal actions. They were subject to the same punishments as adult criminals, including incarceration and execution. There were no separate institutions for juveniles. Only one special provision for juveniles existed during this period—public whipping for youths under the age of 16 was illegal.

At the time of the Revolution jails were so overcrowded that the Colonies began to build new prisons. These buildings were models of the architecture of the period, renowned for their innovations and outward appearances.

The end of the rule of King George III provided the American people with a unique opportunity to devise a government suited to their own needs. The Declaration of Independence and the Constitution articulated the philosophy of civil rights and liberties that continues to this day. It is reflected in the reforms in the criminal justice system during the past 200 years.

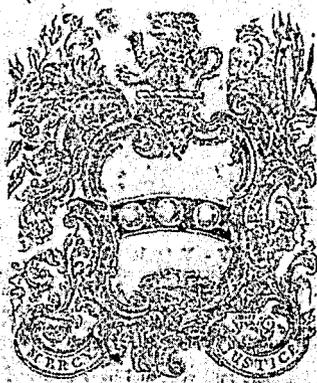
The beginning of the 19th century brought change, reforms, and improvements in every aspect of the criminal justice system from policing methods to

July 10, 1776.

NUMB. 2481.

The PENNSYLVANIA

GAZETTE.



Containing the Freshest Ad-

vices, Foreign and Domestic.

IN CONGRESS, July 4, 1776.
A DECLARATION
By the REPRESENTATIVES of the
UNITED STATES of AMERICA, in
GENERAL CONGRESS assembled.

WHEN, in the Course of human Events, it becomes necessary for one People to dissolve the political Bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the Powers of the Earth, the separate and equal Station to which the Laws of Nature and of Nature's God entitle them, a decent Respect to the Opinions of Mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the Separation. We hold these Truths to be self-evident, that all Men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty, and the Pursuit of Happiness—That to secure these Rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just Powers from the Consent of the Governed, that whenever any Form of Government becomes destructive of these Ends, it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new Government, laying its Foundation on such Principles, and organizing its Powers in such Form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their Safety and Happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that Governments long established should not be changed

For suspending our own Legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with Power to legislate for us in all Cases whatsoever. He has abdicated Government here, by declaring us out of his Protection and waging War against us. He has plundered our Seas, ravaged our Coasts, burnt our Towns, and destroyed the Lives of our People. He is, at this Time, transporting large Armies of foreign Mercenaries to complete the Works of Death, Desolation and Tyranny, already begun with Circumstances of Cruelty and Perfidy, scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous Ages, and totally unworthy the Head of a civilized Nation. He has constrained our Fellow-Citizens, taken captive on the high Seas, to bear Arms against their Country, to become the Executioners of their Friends and Brethren, or to fall themselves by their Hands. He has excited domestic Insurrections amongst us, and has endeavoured to bring on the Inhabitants of our Frontiers the merciless Indian Savages, whose known Rule of Warfare is an undistinguished Destruction of all Ages, Sexes and Conditions.

In every Stage of these Oppressions we have petitioned for Redress in the most humble Terms: Our repeated Petitions have been answered only by repeated Injury. A Prince, whose Character is thus marked by every Act which may define a Tyrant, is unfit to be the Ruler of a free People.

In Attention to or from

Just published, and to be sold by JOHN DUNLAP, in Market-street, Philadelphia, OBSERVATIONS ON THE NATURE of CIVIL LIBERTY, the Principles of GOVERNMENT, and the Justice and Policy of the WAR with AMERICA.

To which is added, An APPENDIX, containing a State of the National Debt, an estimate of the money drawn from the Public by the taxes, and an account of the National Income and Expenditure since the last War.

Virg. By RICHARD PRICE, D.D. F.R.S. This learned, judicious and liberal author had the thanks of the Common Council, and the Freedom of the City of London presented to him in a gold box, for this his much admired most excellent pamphlet on Civil Liberty. And for which he also deserves the united thanks of America.

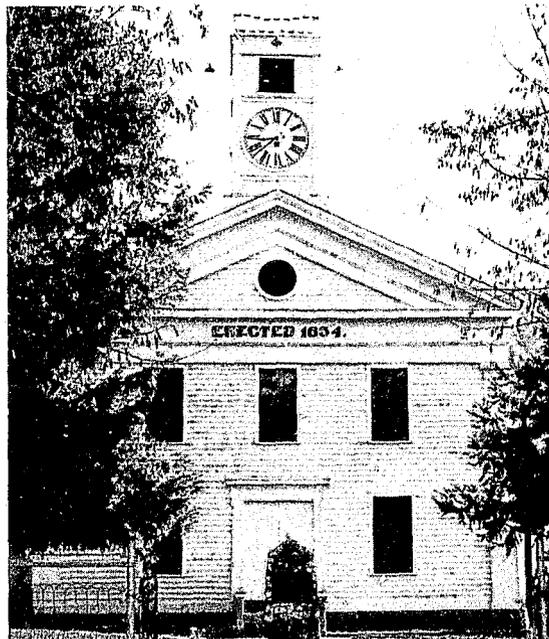
July 2, 1776. SEVEN POUNDS Reward. RUN away, last Sunday night, from the Gulf River, living in Chester county, the two following servants, viz. Edward Gray, about 5 feet 6 in. high, peck-marked, straight black hair, about 26 years of age, was born in London, and served his time with William Hicklin, in New-Castle county, understands all sorts of plantation work, and for which Miller's business was with

research in criminal behavior. It was a period when the American people tried innovations in treating criminals—seeking more humane methods for rehabilitating them while at the same time improving ways to protect citizens from crimes.

By the middle of the century there were paid police forces in many cities. These men were uniformed, equipped, and trained to protect the public. Cities set up police precincts and organized patrol work in a rational, organized fashion. As technology improved, officers were provided with call boxes so that they could seek help when needed. By the 20th century law enforcement was beginning to evolve into a profession.

At first, the courts system developed haphazardly. New courts were established when and as needed. Judges rode the circuit on horseback. Gradually the States began to extend democratic ideas to judicial selection, and by 1847 judges and justices of the peace were elected in every

The first reporting of the Declaration of Independence. (July 10, 1776)



Courthouse in Mariposa, Calif.

\$300 REWARD!

THE ABOVE REWARD WILL BE PAID FOR
the capture of

THOMAS MURPHY,

who escaped from the U. S. Penitentiary at Deer Lodge, Montana, on Friday night, April 9, 1886, between 10 and 11 o'clock.

Murphy was sentenced from Beaverhead county for cattle stealing. He weighs about 150 pounds, is 5 feet 8½ inches in height, and has grey eyes. His hair is inclined to be dark; complexion fair, and has rather a long face, and shows the effect of close confinement. Has a mole on left shoulder and two warts on left side of neck, and a small scar near top of head, on left side. Has a slow, whining voice, and has not been shaved for three weeks. His underclothing is branded 17, and had on shackles when he escaped. The above Reward will be paid for his return to the prison at Deer Lodge.

R. S. KELLEY,
U. S. Marshal.

Deer Lodge, April 10, '86.

Reward poster. (1886)

*Two lie dead outside a dance hall the morning
after a dance in Bear Town, Wyo. (Ca. 1865)*



Invitation to a hanging. (1890)

State. But there were problems of corruption, and little consideration was given to coordinating the various courts within a State or to improving methods of administering case flow.

The penal system also changed as time went on. Corporal punishment was ended and the number of crimes punished by execution was reduced. Reformers in the 19th century experimented with prison design and operation. The Quakers were particularly influential. They experimented with the doctrine of nonviolence in corrections. The prevailing philosophy shifted from one of punishment to one of rehabilitation. Other changes involved the creation of the parole system in the 19th century and of halfway houses in the 20th century.

During the 19th century the treatment of children underwent radical change. By the end of the second decade three reform schools had been opened, taking many children out of the adult prison system for the first time. Since then numerous experiments have been tried to prevent and correct the problems of juvenile delinquency. At the end of the 19th century the juvenile court system was founded, and it gradually began to provide juveniles with many rights that adults had enjoyed.

With an increased knowledge of and interest in the human mind and body at the beginning of the 19th century, some scientists turned their attention to criminal behavior. Throughout the 19th century scientists and sociologists had independently studied criminology. By the beginning of the 20th century professional societies of criminologists had been formed and classification of data had begun.

The 20th century has brought increasing

Mr. James Sterling, Ex. Sheriff
You are hereby invited to be
present at the execution of

GEORGE A. BLACK,

which will take place at the Court
House, in Laramie, Wyoming Territory,
on the 20th day of February,
1890, at the hour of 11 o'clock, A. M.

Not transferable.

CHARLES YUND,

Sheriff Albany County.

public concern not only with crime but also with the operation of the criminal justice system itself. Study commissions began to criticize many elements of the system as being inefficient and unfair. Scholars analyzed many problems, and journalists exposed inadequacies and inequalities.

The following chapters on Police, Courts, Corrections, Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, Technology and the Criminal Justice System, and Research provide brief historical accounts of developments in each subject area from approximately the late colonial period to the present. These accounts are general. A full listing of all references used in this report appears in the Appendix. Each chapter also contains an account of current LEAA activities in the subject.

Two additional elements provide further information about fiscal year 1975 LEAA activities. The final chapter, Management and Operations of LEAA, contains fiscal year reports of the various LEAA offices. The Appendix section entitled The Exemplary Project Program describes an LEAA effort to identify outstanding criminal justice solutions. Tables on LEAA expenditures for the fiscal year are located in the Appendix.

A Wyoming posse prepares to resume pursuit of robbers of a Union Pacific train. (August 1900)



Chain gang in Ayden, Pitt County, N.C. (1910)



Police



St. Louis police officers. (Ca. 1900)

HISTORY OF THE POLICE SERVICE

The early colonists were not experimenters with law enforcement. They quickly established a policing system based on the parish constable—the first English local law enforcement figure. In England the constable had been appointed by local noblemen to police the rural parishes and to maintain the weapons and equipment of each hundred (a group of 100 families). A sheriff traditionally had policed the counties.

Following the same pattern from 1608 to 1783, American sheriffs and constables were large landowners appointed by the colonial governors, and they performed the same functions for the Crown as had their counterparts in England with only slight modifications in their duties.

The Chesapeake Sheriff of early Maryland settlements, for example, not only policed the counties but also was the chief financial officer, who collected taxes and fees and kept 10 percent of the proceeds.

For a time, constables and sheriffs were alone able to contain acts of violence and illegality within the Colonies. But as the Colonies grew, antisocial and unlawful acts increased. As Bopp and Schultz wrote in *A Short History of American Law Enforcement*, “America, even in the seventeenth century, was gaining a reputation for lawlessness, wanton violence, and hedonism, a reputation not entirely unearned, although the English conception of the New World as a hotbed of criminal activity was greatly exaggerated. Yet crime existed and violence occurred regularly enough to be of concern to colonial leaders.”

In response to this concern, many colonial cities adopted the British system of having night watchmen in addition to their constable. The first night watch in American history was instituted in Boston in the 1630's. It was formed at sunset, and it initially consisted of an officer and six men

in a kind of military guard. Later the night watch was staffed primarily by citizens, not soldiers, who were appointed by the town government. New Amsterdam and Philadelphia soon followed Boston's lead and established similar night watches. In New Amsterdam, the "rattlewatch," as the group was called, consisted of citizens equipped with rattles to warn of their watchful presence. This type of watch, except for a brief period during the Revolution, persisted for almost 200 years.

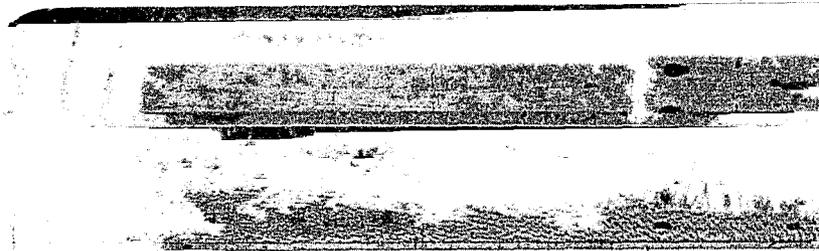
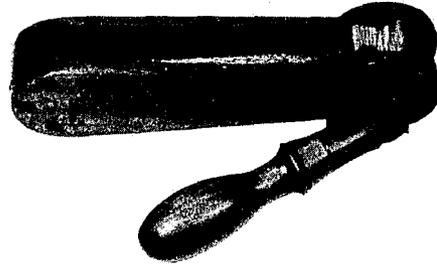
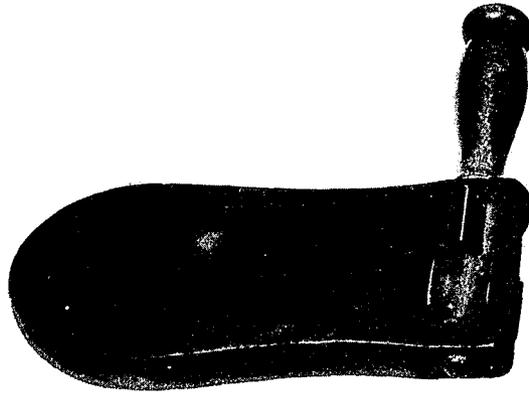
In 1658 eight paid watchmen were appointed to replace New Amsterdam citizen volunteers. When the British took over New Amsterdam and renamed it New York, the police were placed under a high constable. Law enforcement remained unchanged until 1693, when the first uniformed police officer was appointed and the mayor selected a 12-man watch. In 1731 the first precinct station or watch house was constructed.

Policing on the backwoods frontier was sometimes assumed by self-appointed individuals such as Charles Lynch, a Virginia farmer at the time of the Revolution, who led a band of men that tracked down and punished desperadoes, outlaws, wayward Indians, and British sympathizers. So notorious was his conduct that his name was added to the lexicon of the American language—lynch law and lynching.

The move toward formal metropolitan civilian law enforcement was sidetracked by the American Revolution as the military forces assumed public safety duties previously handled by civilians. The army's chief concern, however, was defense; petty crime and vice frequently were ignored. Civilian police control resumed after the war, but the challenges of dealing with an economically battered nation saw crimes against individuals rise dramatically. Toward the end of the 18th century law enforcement was still haphazard.

Following the Revolution one important change began—patronage gradually disappeared, giving way to the popular election of constables and sheriffs.

On the national level Congress created the first Federal law enforcement officer—the U.S. Marshal—in 1789. And in 1829 the Postal Act was passed, and police powers



Rattles used by 17th century watchmen to alert citizens. (1975 photo)

The Newport Mercury reports about a town meeting to consider a paid watch for the coming winter. (Nov. 28, 1774-facsimile)

To the GENTLEMEN FREEHOLDERS of the town of Newport.

THE subscriber, although averse to troubling you, yet thinks it his duty to notify you publicly of the following particulars, of which he imagines a great part of the town are ignorant; viz. That the compact part of the town of Newport was legally warned to meet, on the first instant, in order to consult upon setting a watch during the ensuing winter: That the freemen of said compact part of the town did accordingly meet at said time; and did there vote, that a watch should be appointed, and that a rate of £.250, lawful money, should be assessed upon the inhabitants of said compact part of the town, to defray the expence of said watch; and did then also appoint the subscriber treasurer, to receive and pay away the money raised by said rate:—In consequence of which appointment, I have taken my engagement agreeable to law, and have otherwise acted in said office of treasurer: That since that time certain gentlemen of the town ever studious to promote their own interest, and always upon the watch to serve a party turn, even at the expence and to the dishonor of the town, thought proper to call another meeting on Friday the 18th inst. when by taking care to assemble, principally, those persons who they knew would be friendly to the plan laid, did call in question the proceedings of the town-meeting held on the said 1st instant, and did vote that the same should be repealed and disannulled, and afterwards elected Mr. Daniel Holloway treasurer, in the room of the subscriber; and Jacob Richardson collector of said rate, in the room of Mr. Samuel Burroughs, chosen collector at the former meeting; all which proceedings are contrary to and in violation of law, as will appear by the annexed opinion of several lawyers of the first eminence in the colony, whom I have consulted upon the subject: I do therefore hereby caution all persons concerned, to conduct accordingly.

CLARKE BROWN.

Agreeable with law the town hath no power, or authority to revoke or disannul what the first meeting hath done; neither could they legally chuse any other officers in the room of those first chosen, & what they have done is a mere nullity, and void; and the officers first chosen must and ought to proceed to do their duty during the time for which they were so chosen. For if the second meeting could render void what the first meeting hath legally done, then it will follow, a third meeting may disannul what the first and second had done, which would be absurd, and the error might be continued ad infinitum.

were conferred on a Federal agency for the first time.

The country was growing, and communities began to create civil police forces. At the beginning of the 19th century, Boston became the first city to require by statute the maintenance of a permanent night watch. Pay for the watchmen was 50 cents a night. The first police districts were established in 1807, and by 1823 the city had named its first marshal, James Pollard, a Harvard graduate and a practicing attorney. Cincinnati required all male citizens over the age of 21 to serve in rotation without pay on the night watch. Each night 12 men would gather at the watch house, choose an officer for the night, and patrol the streets equipped with a rattle and a lantern. In New Orleans the military police were replaced by a civilian patrol unit (garde de ville, or city watch) in the early part of the 19th century, but the civilian unit was soon disbanded. Money finally was appropriated in 1818 to pay watchmen, and a professional force—a captain and six watchmen—was hired.

In England police reformers were at work, but they were encountering resistance from a suspicious public. In 1822 Sir Robert Peel became Home Secretary and tried to convince Parliament of the need for a professional police department. For seven years, he worked to build up political support, and in 1829 he submitted the Metropolitan Police Bill to Parliament. Its subsequent passage marked the beginning of formal modern policing. The bill established a patrol force of 1,000 uniformed police—later known as “bobbies” after Peel—commanded by two magistrates. This important reform, however, did not immediately affect the police in this country.

Although the United States was making great strides in transportation and communication, and industrial and port cities were emerging, American law enforcement personnel were still using 17th century police methods in a 19th century setting.

The immediate government response to law enforcement problems in the mid-19th century was to add numbers to the watch but to continue essentially as before. Reform came as responses to specific problems in specific communities.

In the 1830's Philadelphia's crime problems were such that a wealthy philanthropist, Stephen Girard, left a large sum of money to the city to finance a competent police force. The city established a day force of 24 policemen and a night force of 120 watchmen and became one of the first American cities to develop an organized metropolitan police service. The force, although innovative, was shortlived.

Boston was in a period of tumult at this time. The publisher, William Lloyd Garrison, was assaulted in the offices of *The Liberator* by a crowd infuriated by his antislavery writings. The Broad Street Riot of 1837 pitted volunteer firemen against mourners in an Irish funeral procession, and for the first time in the city's history the military had to be called out to quell a disturbance. These events led to the hiring of Marshal Francis Tukey. In time, he built a competent and efficient force. When he expanded the night force to 22 men and it captured more criminals than the entire day force of more than 200 volunteer watchmen, the public was antagonized. Tukey was later discharged for malfeasance, but police reform had caught on in concept, and police operations would never be the same.

Police divisions were created in the Tukey table of organization, and eight precinct stations were opened. The city created the country's first police department detective division in 1851 and the first harbor patrol in 1853. In 1855 the separate Boston watch and police were reorganized and united to form the Boston Police Department. In 1870, when the city aldermen fired the chief of police, the police nominated one of their own to replace him. Their recommendation was followed, and Edward Hartwell Savage, one of the first of the reform-minded police administrators, was appointed. In his time officers' pay was increased, and manpower was deployed on a more equitable basis.

New York during this same period had a police force with three separate components. Rivalries existed among the units, and each force was supervised by a separate authority. In response to this division, New York in 1844 became the first city to merge its day and night forces into a

The first mandatory New York Police Department uniforms. (Date unknown)





A vigilante group at Hangman's Tree in Helena, Mont. (Ca. 1875)

unified police department modeled after Sir Robert Peel's English bobbies. In 1854 Boston consolidated its forces and by the 1870's most large American cities had unified police forces.

Nonetheless this remained a period of mob riots. Organized bands of ruffians and thieves ruled. During the decade preceding the Civil War officers were badly paid, untrained, and ill-equipped to do the job the times demanded. The police image was generally bad. They were said to "inspire no respect," and complaints of police slovenliness were to lead to uniformed police forces. News accounts of the day tell of policemen actually leaving the scene of trouble. Patrolmen were beaten up for sport. Some submitted to the corrupt influences of the day. To control these problems police administration was gradually divorced from the spoils system and given to administrative boards.

The system of State control was introduced in New York in 1857 when the legislature declared the city too politically corrupt to govern itself and seized control of the police department. The Metropolitan Police Bill, modeled after Peel's English version, called for the police officers to be regulated by a board appointed by the Governor. New York City Mayor Fernando Wood immediately and defiantly formed a force loyal to him. The two sets of police forces patrolled the streets and clashes were frequent. The Mets, as the State unit was called, finally assumed full control of the city and held it for the next 13 years. Baltimore, St. Louis, Chicago, Kansas City, Detroit, and Cleveland followed the move to State-controlled forces. The idea did not catch on more widely, however, because of political maneuvering for party advantage and the belief in home rule. State-controlled forces lasted for a year or two in some States and for decades and more in others.

Police reform was slowed by the Civil War and Reconstruction. Probably the most devastating effects were on the police departments of the South. When New Orleans was captured in 1861, for example, civil government was disbanded, martial law was established, and the military assumed the policing. A professional police

force was not established until 1898, although efforts to establish one dated back to the end of the war.

The westward expansion of the country posed special law enforcement problems. Formal policing was not available, and citizens banded together to protect lives and property. Four types of law enforcement evolved at this point—extralegal citizen police, formal police, legal citizen police, and parapolice. Vigilante committees were first organized in California by citizen volunteers to patrol towns. Most were not lynch mobs but honest men who were forced to collective action to protect their communities. Settlements in Arizona, Colorado, Montana, and Nevada utilized this form of policing.

Formal policing in the West provides a colorful historical note in the development of the country. The exploits of these law enforcement figures became legendary as the stories of their achievements were exaggerated. The names of such men as Wyatt Earp, Bat Masterson, Wild Bill Hickok, and Pat Garrett are a part of this era.

Out of the cowtown atmosphere and from the work of such early tough lawmen the Wichita police system evolved into a competent police agency. In 1897 the city established a significant precedent by electing the first black town marshal in the United States.

At the end of the 19th century police officials began to come together to solve their common problems. In 1871, 112 police officials gathered to discuss the increase in crime and other concerns of the day. Twenty-two years later, in a meeting called by a Nebraska police chief, the National Chiefs of Police Union was begun. In 1902 the group changed its name to the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP)—the name that it bears today. Its first major contribution was to establish a central clearinghouse for criminal identification records. Later it was converted to a fingerprint repository, which a city could use by paying a fee. The IACP evolved as an innovative law enforcement institution that has worked to professionalize the American police service.

In 1870 the corruptive influences of



James B. "Wild Bill" Hickok (1837-1876).
(Ca. 1875)

Jeff Thompson (left photo) and Sam Jones (right photo, back row, second from the right). One of these two men was the first black marshal in Wichita and in the United States, elected in the late 1890's. Sources disagree about which one it was. (Both ca. 1895)





Theodore Roosevelt (1858-1919). During his three years as a police commissioner of New York City (1895-7), Roosevelt gained international acclaim for his reforms. He pioneered a bicycle squad, a telephonic communications system, and training for new recruits. He routed out corrupt elements within the department and instituted promotion based on merit rather than on politics. Later he was an enthusiastic supporter of the Pennsylvania State Constabulary (State Police), which became the model for modern state police organizations. In 1908, as President, he organized the Bureau of Investigation in the Department of Justice, the forerunner of the FBI.

William Marcy Tweed, Mayor of New York, prompted officials there to look at the city's police administration. "Boss" Tweed had a good portion of the entire criminal justice system on his payroll or afraid to defy him. There was a subsequent trial-and-error period as New York and other cities experimented with various improved police administration systems. The bipartisan board, the commission government plan, and unified administrative leadership were tried. The bipartisan board, with Republican and Democratic representatives, was an admission that politics would never be completely eliminated from police management. In reality the political influence was compounded, and both parties frequently teamed to thwart aggressive law enforcement.

Various police administration systems were tried in the late 1800's. The commission government system integrated the legislative and executive powers in a small commission elected by popular vote. This concept entailed the designation of one member to serve as commissioner of public safety with authority over police and fire

operations, enforcement of building codes, and health and welfare services.

These efforts were followed by a system of single executive control. One person was appointed by the city's ruling body to run the police department in a system of unified administrative leadership.

The drive for municipal police administration reform was furthered by the Federal Government's passage of the Pendleton Act of 1883. That civil service law ended 75 years of the spoils system by classifying a number of Federal jobs as open to applicants chosen through competitive examinations. Although the law did not apply to municipalities, it did set a precedent for civil service standards. Many communities, encouraged by the Federal success with the law, adapted it to their own governmental systems.

Technological innovations flooded the Patent Office from 1860 to 1890. Although police agencies did not rush to take advantage of the new technology, they did begin to utilize telegraph and telephone callbox systems during this period.

During the early 1900's the rise of big business and trade unionism and the accompanying labor strikes affected everyone including police forces. The Boston Social Club, the patrolman's fraternal organization, petitioned the American Federation of Labor for a union charter in 1919. Ired by the police commissioner's order forbidding union membership, 19 patrolmen refused to disband and were brought up on departmental charges, tried, and convicted. Sentencing was postponed as the union patrolmen demanded leniency. Ultimately they were suspended, and this precipitated a strike. The strikers were subsequently fired, and a new police force was hired.

Police rank-and-file members continued organizing not only for social purposes but also to press economic issues. In 1915 two Pittsburgh patrolmen founded the Fraternal Order of Police, which became a national organization concentrated in the industrial cities of the Northeast. Unlike labor unions, it prohibited striking, but its membership included everyone from patrolmen to chiefs.

The advent of the automobile heightened the rise of the State police force.



Alice Stebbins Wells. In 1910 she became the first police woman in the Los Angeles Police Department and in the world. She was trained in sociology and graduated from a theological seminary. Later, she traveled internationally to help other law enforcement agencies start programs using women. (Ca. 1915)

Earlier State police efforts had occurred in Texas, which organized Rangers, and Massachusetts, which appointed State constables. Pennsylvania created a State Constabulary commanded by a superintendent responsible only to the Governor. The force operated as a mounted and uniformed police department with headquarters and substations located across the entire State, and it served as a model for others.

The 20th century brought with it an air of reform. Women had served as police matrons since 1845, and in 1893 Marie Owens became the first woman appointed to perform police duties in Chicago. In 1910 the Los Angeles Police Department appointed Alice Stebbins Wells as the first full-time, paid policewoman. By 1915, 25 cities had paid policewomen on their staffs. Their work in such cities as Chicago ranged from returning runaway girls to suppressing dancehall brawls, conducting investigations, and securing evidence.

In 1915 the International Association of Policewomen was organized in Baltimore. From the beginning, this group sought professionalism. By 1920 the IAP was



Officer Gail Cobb. She was the first policewoman killed in the line of duty in the United States when shot apprehending a bank robbery suspect in Washington, D.C., on Sept. 20, 1974.



August Vollmer (1876-1955). As Chief of Police in Berkeley, Calif., from 1905 to 1932, Vollmer was the father of modern police management systems. (Date unknown)

encouraging its women and policewomen candidates to seek college educations. In 1918 Ellen O'Grady was awarded the rank of deputy police commissioner in New York. In 1919 Indianapolis created the Bureau of Policewomen. As the contribution of women in policing grew, their names joined the lists of officers cited for outstanding performance. The first policewoman to be killed in the line of duty was Gail Cobb of the Metropolitan Police Department in Washington, D.C., who was shot while apprehending a suspect following a bank robbery in 1974.

The movement toward police training was boosted by Raymond B. Fosdick's book, *European Police Systems*, in 1915. The U.S. police forces were second best in this comparison of European and American police. A second work, *American Police Systems*, published in 1920 was based on visits to 72 cities and presaged some of the recent writing in the field. Political interference, public apathy, judicial indifference to public problems, short police administrator tenure, lack of proper police selection criteria, inadequate recruit training, corruption, a high crime rate, narcotics traffic, uncoordinated police operations—all were discussed in this work.

The first formal training school for policemen was established in Berkeley, California, in 1908. The New York, Detroit, and Philadelphia police departments created academies and training schools during the next few years. In 1916 the University of California at Berkeley created the first university-level police training school. That city's police chief, August Vollmer, was largely responsible for creation of this first criminology program. Vollmer's views on municipal law enforcement and administrative techniques were copied by other police departments throughout the country. He is recognized as one of the chief spokesmen in the move to professionalize police through education.

The biggest police problem of the post-World War I era was Prohibition. Policemen either tried to enforce what quickly came to be an unenforceable law or looked the other way as America engaged in socially acceptable conduct. The status of police



officers at this time did not make their work easier. They were generally underpaid, ill-trained, and poorly equipped. Many worked under politicians who had joined gangsters to thwart the liquor laws. Opportunities for corruption were plentiful. Prohibition accelerated the rise in crime. Underworld empires built on bootlegging flourished.

Communities in search of remedies created ad hoc commissions to study the police problem, and sometimes crime and the criminal justice system. More than 100 such surveys were conducted during the 1920's. One in Cleveland found waste, inefficiency, corruption, overburdened courts, crowded jails, and poor police manpower. Another, in Illinois, found corrupt political influence in the police.

In 1929 President Herbert Hoover named the 11-member National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, whose chairman was former Attorney General George W. Wickersham. In 1931 the commission concluded a comprehensive study which said, among other things, that Prohibition was unenforceable.

The commission made major recommendations about police administration. It said police department commanders should

Stills confiscated in Cheyenne, Wyo. (During Prohibition, 1920-33)

be selected according to their competence. Patrolmen should rate a "B" on the Alpha intelligence tests and meet physical requirements. Salaries should support a decent level of living. Adequate training, communications systems, and recordkeeping are necessary. State police forces should be established in States where rural protection is needed. State bureaus of investigation and information should be established.

For the first time in American history, law enforcement agencies had a set of guidelines for reform efforts and technological improvements. These guidelines were unequaled until the early 1970's, when LEAA supported a National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals to formulate models for the reduction and prevention of crime at State and local levels. The commission's police task force report was issued in 1973. It recommended specific guidelines for evaluating existing practices or setting up new programs for a more effective criminal justice system. The report's standards and goals are being successfully adopted for State and local use across the country with LEAA help.

Although no massive wave of reform followed publication of the Wickersham Commission report there were gradual changes. For example, the Chicago Police Department responded to the calls for reform with flying squads that sped to crimes and launched immediate investigations.

Additionally, police departments moved to minimize political pressure. Modern crime laboratories were developed, and the police adopted the two-way radio for law enforcement use. August Vollmer's *The Police and Modern Society* was published in 1936. It was hailed as a major work in the field of police administration and one that for years served as a classic text consulted by police command officers and executives as they modified the structure and function of their agencies. Police education and training went through a boom period during the 1930's as nearly every State organized a State police force. These new agencies led the way in implementing professional training programs for their personnel. The FBI created the National

Academy for training local police officers in 1935. San Jose State College established the first complete police major program in 1931. The Wichita, Kansas, Police Department under Chief O. W. Wilson created the first cadet program. Students worked for pay in the department while pursuing their studies. Michigan State College established a four-year program leading to a bachelor of science degree in police administration.

The Depression led to positive changes for the police. Because millions were jobless, police agencies had their pick of manpower and persons who had never considered policing as a career filled municipal departments. Some of these well educated young people stayed on to aid in the professionalization of the police throughout the nation.

The Works Progress Administration program, which employed large numbers of people in response to the Depression, also helped improve conditions for law enforcement agencies by building new police stations and renovating others. Firing ranges, substations, jails, maintenance garages, and police academies that otherwise might not have been built until years later were among WPA projects.

World War II was a disruptive force, as local and State police personnel joined the military services. Auxiliary and reserve police forces were organized to fill the vacancies. Later, however, experienced military veterans returned and were a valuable source of police manpower.

In 1950, the Senate Special Committee to Investigate Organized Crime in Interstate Commerce chaired by Senator Estes Kefauver heard hundreds of witnesses allude to the existence of major crime syndicates. At every turn of its investigation the committee uncovered constables, police, and detectives who were taking bribes to protect criminals from prosecution. Sheriffs, police chiefs, and command officers, too, were found on syndicate payrolls. As Bopp and Schultz wrote, "The Kefauver proceedings had a significant impact on the American people in two respects: (1) they shattered the traditional image of the sinewy, brainy criminal, and (2) they showed how easy it was to corrupt the nation's underpaid police forces."

Serious reform initiatives were begun in the Los Angeles Police Department during this period. Under Chief William H. Parker, the department's emphasis was on superior personnel. Chief Parker formed an internal affairs division to investigate citizen complaints of police misconduct. He co-authored a city Board of Rights procedure guaranteeing the separation of police discipline from politics. Community relations programs were started. A bureau of administration with two new features—an intelligence division and a planning and research division—was added. The general economic boom in the State, the demand for increased police services, and the rise of educational institutions with law enforcement programs were factors that made California police officers among the best educated in the country.

Wichita's Chief O. W. Wilson added two books to American police literature in this decade, *Police Administration* and *Municipal Police Administration*. Many police executives adopted the principles in the two works to reform their agencies.

During the 1950's and 1960's citizens with grievances poured into the streets to demonstrate about social issues. Sit-ins, voter registration drives, boycotts, and rent strikes all tested police professionalism. Terrorist tactics rocked some cities. There were clashes between protesters and police as there were complaints against police behavior.

During this era the Supreme Court handed down rulings that changed the way in which police went about their work. The Court reaffirmed the right to be free from prosecution based on unconstitutional searches and seizures, the right to counsel and to be advised of one's rights, and the right against self-incrimination. One of the most important cases for police was *Miranda v. Arizona*, 384 U.S. 436 (1966) which required police to inform a suspect of his or her rights at the time of arrest. The decision required arresting officers to advise the suspects of the right to remain silent, of the potential trial use of any statements, and of the right to counsel. Another decision required States to appoint counsel for indigent defendants.

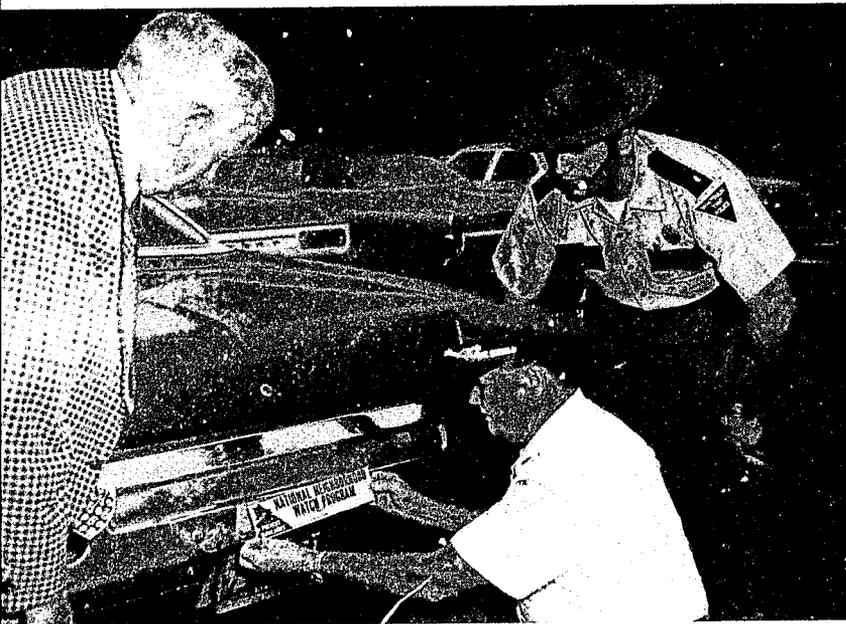
The turbulent social conditions of the



Police officer at a fair in Albany, Vt. (1936)



The disposal of illegal drugs by the New York City Police Department. (Ca. 1970)



The National Neighborhood Watch Program in Montgomery County, Pa. (1972)

1960's prompted the Federal Government to launch official inquiries into the causes and prevention of crime. Chief among these was the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, whose chairman was then Attorney General Nicholas deB. Katzenbach. Its report, *The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society*, was published in 1967 and was followed by task force reports on specific components of the criminal justice system, including the police. The report found that police were isolated from the communities they served, that city officials had given all responsibility for running police agencies to their chiefs, and that police executives had not assumed roles as major policymakers. "Educational requirements should be raised to college levels and training programs improved," according to the report. "Recruitment and promotion should be modernized to reflect education, personality, and assessment of performance," it said.

The report cited the urgent need for police to improve relations with the poor, minority groups, and juveniles. "The establishment of strong community relations programs, review of all procedures in light of their effect on community relations, recruitment of more minority group members, and strengthening of community confidence in supervision and discipline, all aim at making the police more effective in high-crime areas." Facilities and techniques also should be improved, the report recommended.

THE POLICE SERVICE AND LEAA TODAY

A measure of the country's present police manpower is contained in the Federal Bureau of Investigation's Uniform Crime Reports (November 1975) which shows 338,895 police employees in a survey of 6,771 cities with a total population of 136,064,000. Of this total 88 percent are male; 11.1 percent are female. Full-time sworn officers, however, number 286,973—98 percent male, 2 percent female. Additionally, sworn full-time officers in a suburban survey of 3,761 agencies amount to another 105,017 persons. Sworn full-time police officers in sheriffs' depart-



ments (2,503 agencies) number 68,219. Of the sworn police officers, 221,487 serve on patrols in 4,861 cities.

LEAA's funding capability has enabled local police organizations to implement programs and activities that otherwise might not have begun. Programs since 1968 have spanned the full spectrum of criminal justice activity. Research to aid various aspects of the criminal justice system has blossomed. Educational and training programs have aided in the professionalization of police. The purchase of necessary equipment was made possible in many locales by the new form of financial assistance.

Key LEAA-funded efforts in the police area in fiscal year 1975 included:

—The National Neighborhood Watch Program. This \$296,000 public education program run by the National Sheriffs' Association allows sheriffs' departments to distribute literature to suburban and rural citizen workshops and homes on ways in which a community can protect against burglary and theft. The initial goal has been to increase citizen concern for and effort toward personal safety and security. This is a national support mechanism through which LEAA provides pertinent community security information on the broadest possible scale for the nonurban community. More than 25 million crime prevention information packets have been distributed.

A family crisis intervention training program for police in Portsmouth, Va. (1975)

—One program of this type is the Block Association of West Philadelphia—a modern counterpart of the colonial rattlewatch. Shrill whistles are used, and mobile walking patrols have supplanted the stationary watch stations of the rattlewatch.

—Patrol Emphasis Program. This \$2.2 million program, begun in 1975, is designed to provide across-the-board supplemental assistance to police crime analysis units, crime prevention units, and patrol investigative forces. This system support is intended to reduce the number of stationary patrols and to increase mobile patrol force, all police incident-related activities, patrol officer satisfaction, and patrol efficiency. Increased crime analysis and target hardening proficiency will reduce the vulnerability of known criminal attack targets while increasing patrol force apprehension. Service call-time will be more satisfactorily allocated. The product of this program is intended to be a more productive utilization of existing manpower resources with increased security benefits to the communities served.

—Citizen Security Program. This is a joint \$330,000 LEAA-FBI-Secret Service training program designed to improve crisis management in preabduction prevention and postabduction tactics in citizen hostage situations. Its aim is to train police officers

The community helpers program in Raleigh, N.C. (1975)



at the Secret Service and FBI academies in abduction prevention plans. Crisis management during negotiation and investigation, profile evaluation of suspect groups, and techniques for extracting hostages from a hostile environment are emphasized. The program is designed to train 500 of the highest ranking operational law enforcement officers throughout the country.

—Regional Law Enforcement Terrorism Training. This \$800,000 program is designed to transfer the technology acquired in the citizen security program to the regional training level to train as many law enforcement men and women as possible in the necessary techniques involved in negotiating the safe release of hostages.

—Police Program to Protect the Elderly. This \$200,000 program, begun in 1975, is to help elderly citizens. Their needs, capabilities, and security expectations are not well understood by law enforcement agencies. This program is a two-phase project to improve the plight of the elderly through crime prevention. The first phase consists of preparing an instructional manual about elderly citizens to enable law enforcement agencies better to understand the security needs of older people. The second phase is to establish a training team of knowledgeable, interested experts who will provide an elderly service training program at police academies throughout the United States.

—Police Patrol. To answer questions about patrol techniques several studies of patrol activities were funded during fiscal year 1975. They included studies of split-force patrols, neighborhood team policing, specialized patrol operations, and traditional preventive patrols. Results of these studies will be published.

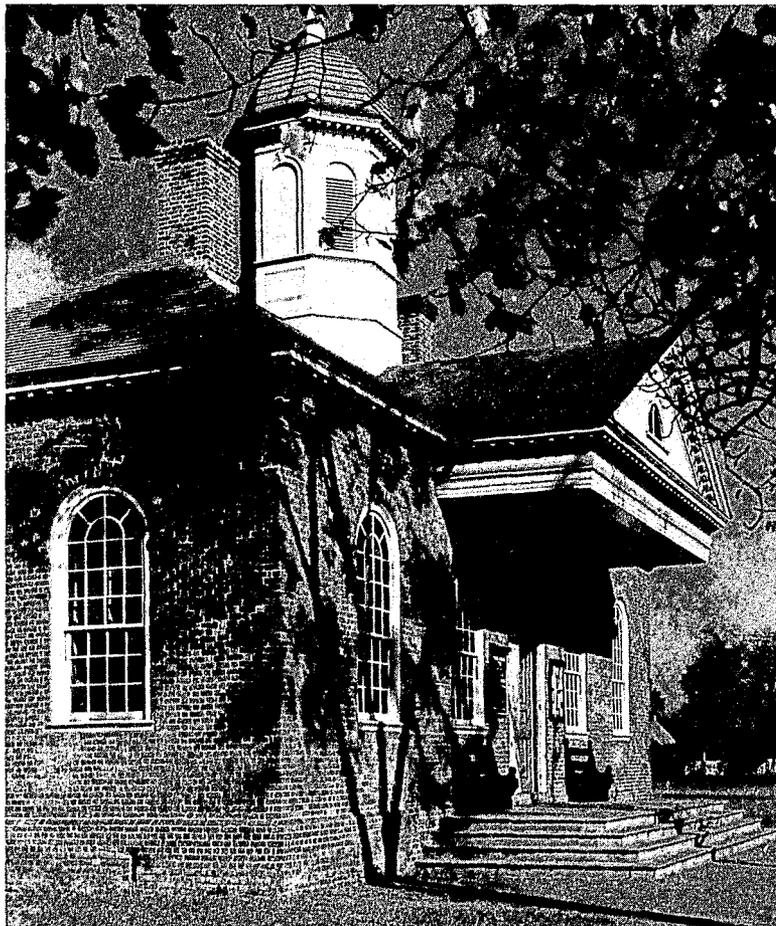
—Law Enforcement Education Program. Through the Law Enforcement Education Program LEAA has provided more than \$180 million in grants and loans to 250,000 men and women to pursue college study in criminal justice. More than 80 percent of the Law Enforcement Education Program participants have been inservice students enrolled in school part-time, and 80 percent of the inservice participants have been police employees. (For details on this program see the chapter entitled Management and Operation of LEAA.)



New Orleans Police Department bomb disposal expert. (1976)

—The Police Chief Executive Project. This \$451,000 project under the direction of the International Association of Chiefs of Police, is designed to improve police service in State, county, and local governments. This is accomplished by providing guidelines for selecting police chief executives, assisting chief executives, law enforcement agencies, and suggesting ways to increase tenure. Because the rapid turnover of executives has an unsettling effect, a study was conducted on the reasons for high attrition rates and on ways whereby they can be minimized. The guidelines will be based on the research. The results of the project will be published by the Government Printing Office and distributed by LEAA. This project is a followup to the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals Police Task Force report. Staff support was provided by the Los Angeles Police Department.

Courts



*Courthouse in Williamsburg, Va., built in 1770.
(1975 photo)*

DEVELOPMENT OF COURTS IN THE COLONIES

A country whose political subdivisions are so diverse in origin can be expected to have widely varying State laws. This diversity was apparent even during the colonial period.

Many of the English colonists had had personal and painful experiences with law, courts, and judges in their mother country. This was especially true of New England and Pennsylvania colonists, whose Puritan or Quaker founders had often run afoul of the English laws on dissent.

Colonial charters required that any legislation passed in the Colony should conform to the English common law. Such statutes as did not conform could be annulled by the British Privy Council, which could also reverse decisions of colonial judges.

But the common law was mysterious and threatening to the colonists as a whole. Records of English courts were kept in Law French, a jargon comprehensible only to persons specially trained in law, who were careful to safeguard their knowledge from the uninitiated. Small wonder that in the Colonies, the common law was considered a "dark and knavish business." Moreover, English common law had developed to serve the needs of a society quite different from those of small groups facing a wilderness.

In the Colonies, particularly in New England, the hand of the clergy was heavy on local courts. Clergymen often served as magistrates and dispensed justice on the basis of the Bible and their personal sense of justice. Colonial Governors often interfered with the administration of justice, removing judges whose decisions they did not like. In this, they followed the example of the Stuart Kings, who were involved in a prolonged contest with courts and lawyers throughout most of the 17th century. Under these circumstances, there was little likelihood that a colony could quickly

establish a code of law or an organized court system. A few examples illustrate the general situation.

The Massachusetts Bay Colony charter of 1629 set up a system wherein the Governor, his deputy, 18 assistants, and 118 elected freemen formed a General Court, which both made the laws and administered justice. (The Massachusetts Legislature is still called the General Court.) By 1639, as settlement spread, county courts had developed, and the General Court heard only appeals, except in "tryalls of life, limm, or banishment" and divorce.

After the Colony of New Amsterdam was taken over by the British in 1664 and renamed New York, it functioned under a code known as the Duke of York's laws, named for the English King's brother (later James II), to whom New York and New Jersey were granted. New York became the first Colony with a permanently established court system.

William Penn wanted the laws in his Colony to be so plain that they would be self-interpreting and every man could serve as his own lawyer. This was the intent of Penn's writing "Laws Agreed Upon in England" prior to his arrival in the New World in 1682. But this hopeful notion proved difficult to put into practice. A statute of the following year provided for a system of "common peacemakers," who would serve to hear disputes and render final decisions. A statute of 1705 provided that parties to a dispute might refer it to a person agreed upon in open court, and his award was to be the equivalent of a jury verdict. Referees were said to conduct much of the administration of justice as late as 1766.

By 1776 all the Colonies had had permanent court systems for at least 50 years. These systems were established during the 1690's by Maryland, Massachusetts, and New York and during the first decades of the 18th century by others, and finally in Pennsylvania in 1722.

The Bar Before the Revolution

For many years after the establishment of courts, there were relatively few lawyers in the Colonies. In fact, laws passed by



Colonial courtroom scene. (Date unknown)

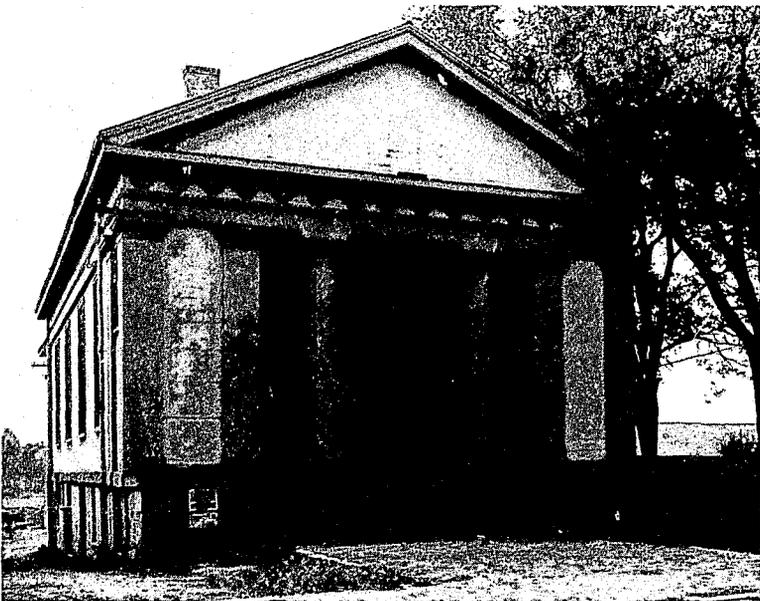


Courtroom scene in a mining town in Colorado. (1886)



*Nineteenth century courthouse in Dedham, Mass.
(Ca. 1890)*

*Nineteenth century courthouse in Portsmouth,
N.H. (1907)*



several colonial legislatures prohibited the practice of law for fees, except by special license of the court where one pleaded. In Virginia, for example, an act of 1645 stated that, because suits had been multiplied by greedy attorneys who were unskilled in the law, “mercenary attorneys” should be expelled from office. A later act provided that attorneys in the principal courts (Quarter Courts) were to be appointed by the Governor and council. Only men who had qualified under the English law (by training in the Inns of Court in London) were entitled to be called counsellors at law. No one was to plead in any court or give counsel to any client for a fee or reward of any kind.

Virginia was the Colony most hostile to the legal profession, but elsewhere the number of trained attorneys also remained relatively small. Between 1695 and 1769 only 41 lawyers were said to have practiced in New York, where they were appointed by the Governor.

These small numbers made a defense against a criminal charge extremely hazardous. In 1735 John Peter Zenger, editor of the *New York Journal*, was arrested on charges of libel for his attacks on Governor Cosby. Because there were so few lawyers, it was easy for the Governor to carry out his threat to disbar any who ventured to handle Zenger’s defense. Thereupon Andrew Hamilton was summoned from Pennsylvania. His masterly conduct of the defense was responsible for Zenger’s acquittal and the first American landmark decision on freedom of the press.

In the Colonies there was no opportunity for formal legal training like that available in England at the Inns of Court. Roscoe Pound noted that in the 18th century it became the custom of families who could afford it to send their sons to study there. From 1760 to 1776 there were more than 100 Americans studying law in England, 47 of them from South Carolina alone. Men who had been called to the bar in England had a considerable advantage in the New World, as their right to practice in most Colonies was unchallenged. The majority of these Americans came from the southern and middle Colonies. At the time of the Revolution, South Carolina and

Pennsylvania had the greatest numbers of lawyers trained at the Inns of Court.

Far greater numbers of aspiring lawyers obtained their training by "reading law" as a kind of apprenticeship in the office of a practicing lawyer. By the eve of the Revolution, the majority of men who had received their training in this fashion had first been students at an American college. John Adams and many of his colleagues of the Boston Bar were graduates of Harvard. George Wythe at William and Mary had a strong influence on his students who subsequently were called to the bar, among them Jefferson, Madison, Marshall, and Monroe.

Twenty-five of the 56 signers of the Declaration of Independence were lawyers, as were 31 of 56 members of the Constitutional Convention. But a great many American lawyers—some very prominent and able men—were loyalists and left the country during the war or immediately thereafter.



Roscoe Pound (1870-1964). In a 1906 speech before the American Bar Association Pound challenged the legal community to improve the administration of justice in this country—marking the beginning of modern court reform. He was a leading legal scholar and Dean of the Harvard Law School. (1955)

THE RISE OF MODERN COURTS

The severe economic depression that followed the Revolution brought about a profound mistrust of government among many citizens. Special objects of resentment were the courts and lawyers, whose business appeared to be mainly the collection of debts. Because the public debt was enormous, heavy taxation was necessary. Many citizens who had property could not find the cash to pay their taxes. Veterans returned home to find themselves heavily in debt and facing foreclosure. While some sought legislative remedies, others took matters into their own hands. In some areas courts were prevented from sitting lest they issue writs of foreclosure. In Western Massachusetts in 1786 feeling about a tax law rose to the point of armed rebellion led by Daniel Shays, a veteran of Lexington. Although the rebels were routed, the most offensive sections of the law were repealed and the rebels were pardoned.

The Federal Courts

One task confronting the new nation was to establish the Federal system of courts called for by Article III of the Constitution, which provided for a Supreme Court

Section 4. The President, Vice President and all civil Officers of the United States, shall be removed from Office on Impeachment for and Conviction
 21. Treason, Bribery, or other high Crimes and Misdemeanors.

Article III.

Section 1. The judicial Power of the United States, shall be vested in one supreme Court, and in such inferior Courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The Judges, both of the supreme and inferior Courts, shall hold their Offices during good Behaviour, and shall, at stated Times, receive for their Services Compensation, which shall not be diminished during their Continuance in Office.

Section 2. The judicial Power, shall extend to all Cases arising under this Constitution, the Laws of the United States, and Treaties made in Pursuance hereof; to all Cases of Ambassadors, Ministers, Consuls, and of public Ministers and Consuls; to all Cases of Admiralty and Maritime Jurisdiction; to Controversies to which the United States shall be a Party; to Controversies between two or more States, between a State and Citizens of another State, between Citizens of different States, between Citizens of the same State claiming Lands under Grants of different States, and between a State or Citizens thereof and foreign States, Citizens or Subjects.

In all Cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, and those in which a State shall be Party, the supreme Court shall have original Jurisdiction. In all the other Cases before mentioned, the supreme Court shall have appellate Jurisdiction, both as to Law and Fact, with such Exceptions, and under such Regulations as the Congress shall make.

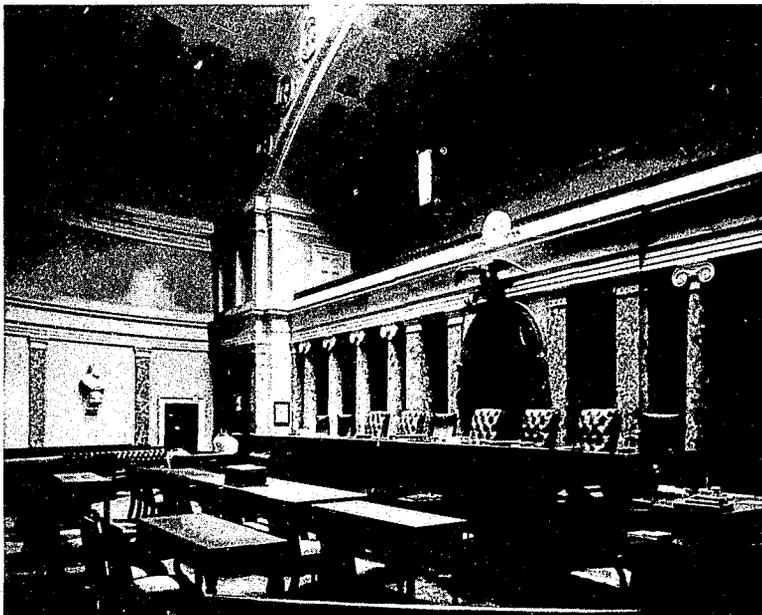
The Trial of all Crimes, except Cases of Impeachment, shall be by Jury, and such Trial shall be held in the State where the said Crimes shall have been committed; but where not committed within any State, the Trial shall be at such Place or Places as the Congress may by Law have directed.

Section 3. Treason against the United States, shall consist only in levying War against the same, or adhering to their Enemies, who are actually in War with the United States; and such Person shall be convicted of Treason only on the Oath of a Majority of the Judges of the supreme Court.

Article III of the Constitution.

and such inferior Federal courts as Congress might establish. The powers of the Federal judiciary extended to "all cases in law and equity arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties." The Federal courts were to have jurisdiction over disputes between States, between citizens of different States, or citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States. The Supreme Court was to have original jurisdiction over all cases in which a State was a party and those affecting ambassadors and other public ministers and consuls. Otherwise its jurisdiction was appellate.

The second location of the Supreme Court chamber within the U.S. Capitol. This chamber was used from 1860 to 1935 when the Court moved to its own building. (Ca. 1920)



The Judiciary Act of 1789 set up a Federal court structure that lasted almost a century. The country was divided into 13 districts, which were to be the seat of Federal courts of first instance. The districts were grouped into three circuits, where courts consisting of two Supreme Court justices and one district judge would hear appeals from the district courts. A highly important section of the Act bound State courts to enforce the Constitution and Federal law and provided that decisions of State courts concerning these matters were subject to Supreme Court review.

Circuit courts were useful in a country in which many areas were thinly settled and communication was slow at best. But riding circuit placed a heavy burden on the justices. In 1801 the law was changed to require only one Supreme Court justice on a circuit court. Finally, district judges began to serve alone in the circuits. By the

1880's, despite the creation of new circuit judges, single judges were disposing of 90 percent of the circuit court business. Appellate cases were swamping the Supreme Court. Not until 1891 did Congress act to relieve this situation by creating nine intermediate courts of appeals. Thus, circuit riding was abolished, although each justice still heads one or more circuits.

Except for the abolition of circuit duty, the structure of the Supreme Court has varied only in the number of its members. From time to time political pressures were exerted to reduce or expand their number, but after 1869 all efforts to change the number of the justices were unsuccessful and it remains at nine.

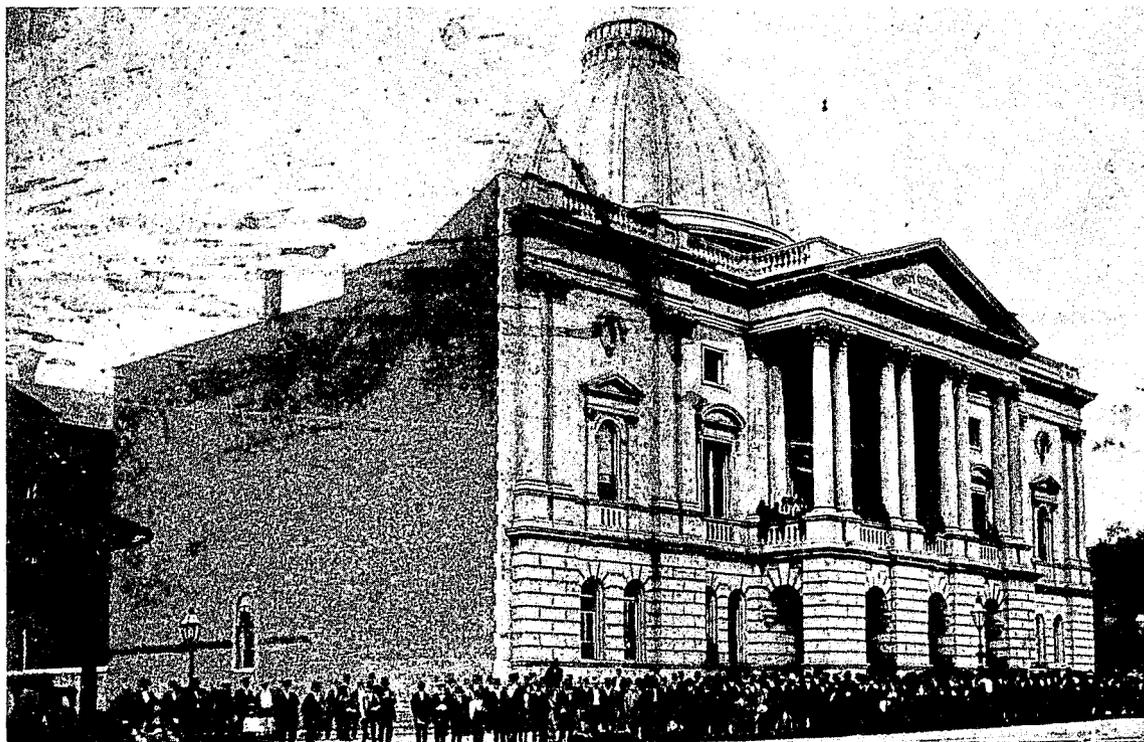
The functions of the Supreme Court did change, however. The 1891 statute gave the Court broad discretion, through the grant or denial of the writ of certiorari, to choose those decisions of the intermediate appellate court that were worthy of Supreme Court attention. As James Willard Hurst notes, "the business of the Supreme Court was, not to see justice done in every case, but to decide the more important policy

issues presented within the frame of a 'case' or 'controversy,' concerning the federal balance, the relations of the branches of the federal government, or the fundamental rights of the individual in relation to government." Many of the Court's most important decisions have been based on a judgment about whether a statute, regulation, or action of a governmental body conforms to the requirements of the U.S. Constitution and, if it does not, to order change. The Supreme Court's power as final arbiter of the meaning of the Constitution was established in its decision in *Marbury v. Madison* 1 Cranch 137 (1803). In no other country does the highest court have such far-reaching power.

State Courts

As the court systems established by the Colonies became the new State court systems after the Revolution, shortcomings became apparent. One general shortcoming was the lack of an appeals mechanism. There was no clear separation in many States between original and appellate jurisdiction. The Massachusetts Supreme Judi-

Spectators wait for a verdict outside the County Courthouse in Brooklyn, N.Y. (1875)



*The County Courthouse in Marquette, Mich.
(1905)*



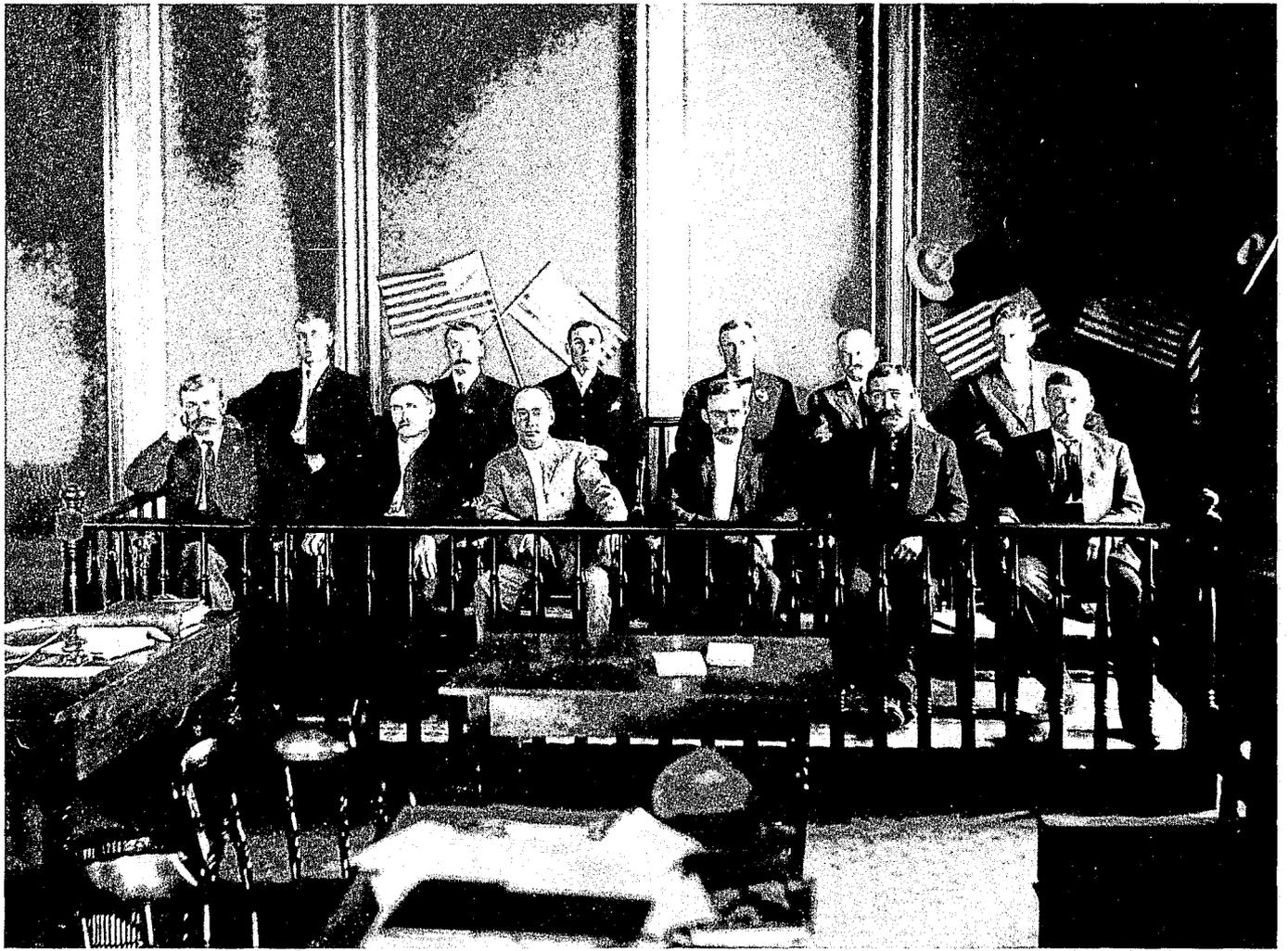
cial Court tried capital cases with a jury until 1872. In Delaware there was no right of appeal in criminal cases until 1897. And in New York the court of last resort consisted of the Senate, the Chancellor, and the judges of the State Supreme Court until 1847. Just before and after the Revolution the colonial and then the State legislature commonly served as the appellate tribunal. After the war the trend, however slow, was toward the establishment of separate appeals courts.

The courts of the Territories—and usually the States carved out of them—were apt to follow the system of the State nearest to the original Territory or that from which most settlers came. There was a heavy emphasis on local autonomy in the courts. Elected justices of the peace had jurisdiction in small civil cases as well as in criminal matters. The law set no qualifications for justices. Indeed, there would have been no point to requiring legal training in areas where there were so few lawyers. But the lack of such a requirement was characteristic in most States as late as 1940 and in many to this day.

Judges as well as justices of the peace were elected in every State of the Union by 1847, and the tradition was carried on in all States admitted during the 19th century. Popular election was usually accompanied by limited tenure.

Legislatures often subjected the courts to strict regulation by designating not only jurisdiction and venue but also minute details of court procedure. The latter was part of the general effort to remake the common law of England into a form suitable for the American scene. Reformers called on the legislatures for help, and the legislatures responded by enacting procedural codes. The Field Code enacted by New York State in 1848 was copied by almost all other States. The New York Legislature later added so many amendments that were specific but unsystematic that the code ran to 50,000 sections covering 2,000 pages.

The codes gave State supreme courts control over the local courts, but most of them never assumed responsibility for administering the flow of court business in the interests of efficiency. Legislatures met



increases in the volume of court business by adding more judges or creating new courts rather than by working out a logical organization to handle more cases or to deal with new problems.

New problems there were in abundance. Many citizens who moved to the new Territories found that their land titles were defective. Lawless characters made travel hazardous, and even judges did not care to ride circuit in the far districts.

In the latter half of the 19th century new problems called for new laws and were often the source of litigation. The urgent need for irrigation water in arid lands called for a change from the laws of the humid Eastern States, which made the water of a stream available to everyone living along its banks. A whole new body of law and precedent had to be created. Disputes, even armed conflicts, over the right to use the

*A Wyoming jury at the turn of the century.
(1909)*

range pitted cattlemen against sheepmen, and pitted both against the farmers on the new homesteads.

In the growing cities problems just as urgent faced the courts. Litigation mounted as landlords, creditors, and spouses sought legal relief. After the Civil War criminal caseloads grew as the cities grew.

Some States tried to meet these problems by creating special tribunals, for example, small claims and domestic relations courts. But generally the courts grew without design. Jurisdictions overlapped, and each court was an institution in itself except for the power of the appellate courts.

CHANGES IN THE BAR

When Alexis de Tocqueville visited this country in 1831 and 1832, he observed that:

The special information that lawyers derive from their studies ensures them a separate rank in society, and they constitute a sort of privileged body in the scale of intellect. . . . In America there are no nobles or literary men, and the people are apt to mistrust the wealthy; lawyers consequently form the highest political class and the most cultivated portion of society. . . . If I were asked where I place the American aristocracy, I should reply without hesitation that it is not among the rich, who are united by no common tie, but that it occupies the judicial bench and bar.

It may be surmised that de Tocqueville's acquaintance with the bar was limited to well educated upper and middle class practitioners. However that may be, the situation changed rapidly in the Jacksonian era, as the democratization of the bar paralleled the democratization of the courts. During the 1840's several States abolished all educational requirements for the practice of law. Every citizen was believed to be qualified to argue his or her own case or those of others in the court. This concept was enshrined in the Indiana Constitution from 1851 to 1933: "Every person of good moral character, being a voter, shall be entitled to admission to practice law in all courts of justice."

Ten years after the Civil War the American Bar Association was formed. Earlier there had been local and State associations, but the formation of the ABA gave the legal profession a strong voice nationally.

The development of the Federal court system after 1920 offered an example to State courts in the improvement of judicial organization. Legislation in 1922 made it possible for the Chief Justice of the United States to assign Federal district judges for temporary duty anywhere in the country on the request of the senior judge in an overburdened district. The Chief Justice was required to call an annual conference of the senior circuit judges to consider the functioning of the Federal court system. The conference has played an important part in securing improvements in rules of procedure and practice in Federal courts and in cooperating with joint committees of the bar, the bench, and the law schools to secure a more effective system of justice. Other legislation reduced the classes of cases that might be appealed to the Supreme Court and made final its authority to determine which other cases could come before it by writ of certiorari.

With the powers and responsibilities granted by these acts, it was possible for the Supreme Court and the Judicial Conference to look at the Federal court system as a whole and for the Chief Justice to take the steps needed to relieve congestion and otherwise further the administration of justice. Such activity was helped by the creation in 1939 of the Administrative Office of the Federal Courts, which among other important functions, collects information on activities of the courts.

Patterns of State Courts

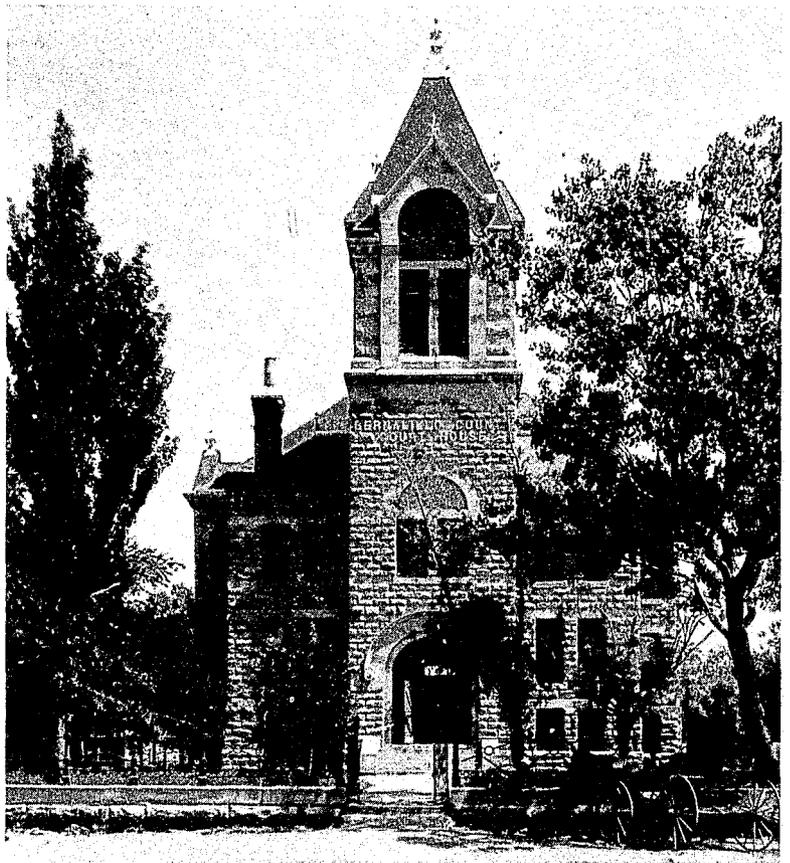
Patterns of State court organization laid down in constitutions and statutes have for years been seen by scholars as expensive and wasteful of judicial manpower. The State supreme courts exercised a measure of supervision, but they had no authority over or interest in looking at the volume of business and the efficiency of the State courts as a whole. When a court's business completely outstripped its capacity, the legislature divided the jurisdiction and an additional judge was authorized, regardless of whether or not the judge in a neighboring jurisdiction had too little business to occupy him.

Court reform in Chicago illustrates the problem encountered in rationalizing court systems. In 1904, after years of struggle in the State legislature, the Constitution was amended to permit special reorganization of the courts in the Chicago area. Popular referendum in 1905 approved the abolition of the justice of the peace courts and the creation of a system of municipal courts with 57 judges.

Thirty years later, however, there were 556 autonomous courts in the Chicago metropolitan area, 205 in Cook County alone in addition to the municipal court system. Jurisdictions overlapped, the courts operated on different rules, and no attempt was made to unify their calendars. In the Chicago area, there were 146 judges and 505 justices of the peace. New York State in the same period had 127 judges in the principal trial courts alone. In contrast, Hurst points out, England and Wales, with more than three times the population of New York State, had a total of 92 judges in the county and trial courts.

Some advances have been made in the selection of judges in recent years. As noted above, election had been the traditional method by which judges reached the bench. Scandals involving corrupt judges, notably the revelations of the Seabury investigations in New York in 1932, spurred the adoption of a plan for selecting judges that had been proposed in 1913 and subsequently endorsed by the American Judicature Society and the ABA. This was a merit plan that would allow voters some voice in the selection of judges through nonpartisan elections. Judges would run on their records, submitting themselves to the electorate periodically with a question on the ballot such as "Shall Judge *** be continued in office?" When vacancies occurred, an impartial committee of lawyers and lay persons would compile a list of qualified persons, from which the Governor would make a selection. This procedure was first adopted in St. Louis and Kansas City, Missouri, in 1940 as the Missouri Non-Partisan Court Plan. A number of States now select some or all of their judges according to this or some similar plan.

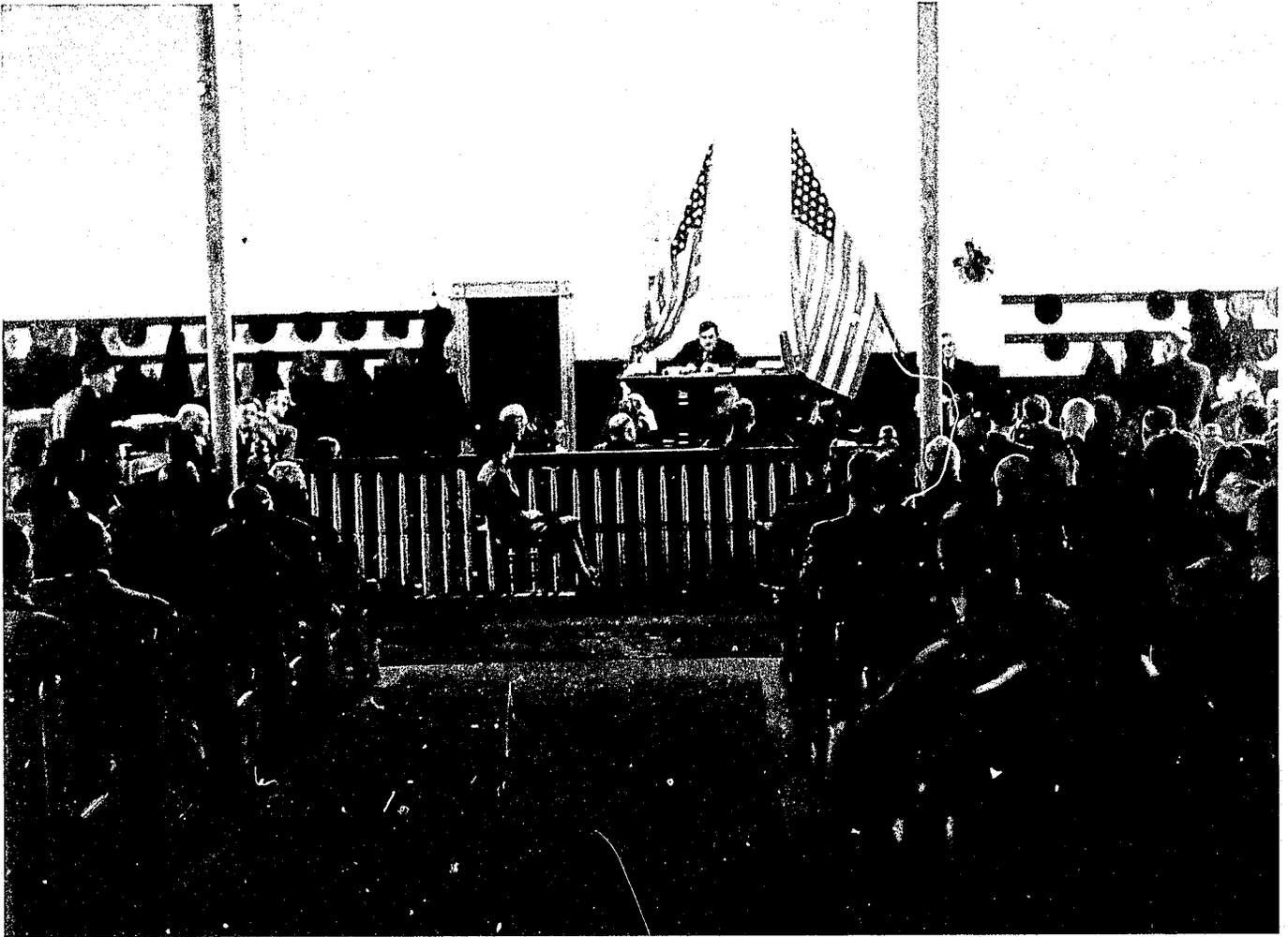
Another significant development in State



The Bernalillo County Courthouse in Albuquerque, N.M. (1908)

The old Criminal Courts Building in New Orleans. (Date unknown)





Court scene in Franklin, Ga. (1941)

court systems since about 1950 was the creation of the office of State court administrator. This official relieves judges of many nonjudicial functions, thus enhancing the performance of judicial duties. The administrator may help the administrative judge of the State expedite the disposition of cases by temporarily transferring judges to jurisdictions where their services are most needed or from one court to another in the same jurisdiction. To do this, the court administrator must have statistical data on caseloads and dispositions at his or her fingertips. The administrator manages the budget and business affairs of the court system, often assists in rulemaking when the State supreme court has that power, and helps with the business of enforcing rules and procedures. There are now State court administrators in all States. The Federal courts have an administrator in each circuit. Because the office of court

administrator is so new, the National Center for State Courts, the National Conference of Court Administrative Officers, and the National Association of Trial Court Administrators have made special efforts to see that training is available for administrators and to share information.

MAJOR PROBLEMS OF THE COURTS TODAY

The preceding sections of this chapter have indicated many of the problems American court systems have faced in the past and measures taken or proposed for their solution. Many of these problems still exist, although they have been the subject of repeated study and recommendations by commissions and other organizations working for effective justice. Moreover, new problems present themselves as society changes. This section examines briefly some of the major problems of American courts today and what is being done to help solve them.

A Rational Court Structure

Chief Justice Warren E. Burger has suggested that the first priority in improving the State courts should be given to securing a rational court structure in which justice can be more effectively dispensed. The prime target would be to unify the court systems now operating in the States. Although in many instances this would require amendments to the State constitution, often a tedious process, such constitutional changes have already been made in half the States, which have unified their court systems, and other States are now working on this process.

The National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals recommended that all trial courts be included in a State system to be administered by a court administrator or administrative judge under the supervision of the chief justice of the State supreme court. Records of all proceedings should be kept to avoid appeals in the form of trials *de novo*. The entire system should be State financed as well as State administered.

All judicial duties in the trial courts should be performed by full-time judges, the Commission declared, and all judges

should be lawyers. The major difficulty with this proposal is that it includes the local courts, which hear cases involving traffic offenses, petty larceny, and other violations of city and county ordinances. These courts today handle an estimated 90 percent of all the nation's criminal prosecutions. An estimated 15,000 to 20,000 judges sit in the lower courts—many of them part time—compared with about 4,000 general jurisdiction judges.

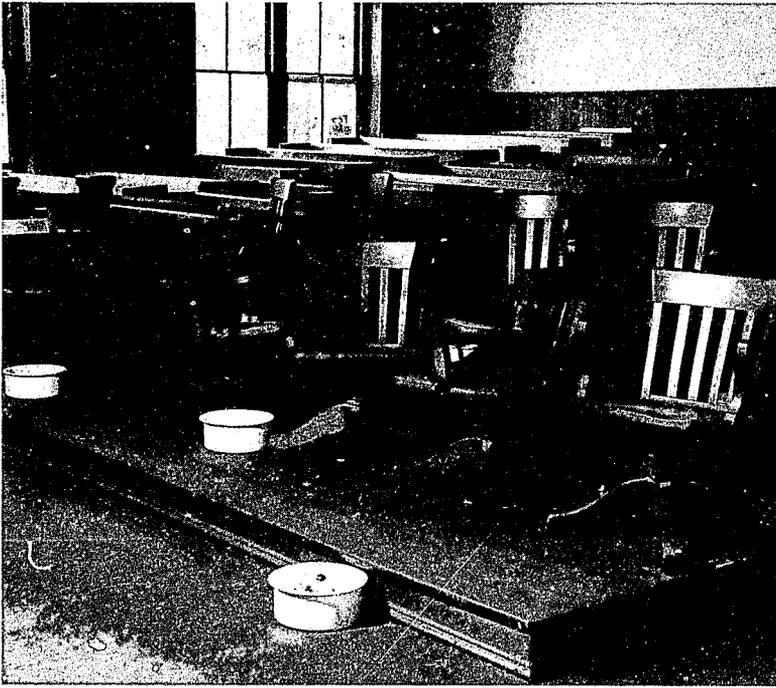
States planning reorganization, it was suggested, might well begin by abolishing justice-of-the-peace and municipal courts in cities and replacing them with unified county or municipal courts where all cases are tried. A precedent is the District of Columbia Court Reorganization Act of 1970, which confers general civil and criminal jurisdiction on the Superior Court of the District. Its criminal division tries all criminal cases, whether felonies or misdemeanors.

The improvement of the lower courts has not had the attention of court reformers and bar groups that have studied the State trial courts, but it is essential if assembly-line-justice trials are to be avoided. Furthermore, because such courts usually deal with first offenders, this is the place to intervene in what might otherwise become criminal careers.

Fair and Speedy Trials

Thousands of persons awaiting trial in American prisons and jails offer some evidence that the constitutional guarantee of a speedy trial is often breached. LEAA's 1970 census of jails showed that 52 percent of the inmates there were awaiting trial; some had been there for as long as two years. The proportion was not quite so high in the District of Columbia jail when a Federal judge found that the overcrowded conditions in the city jail constituted an encroachment on the rights of prisoners. But he pointed out that many of the pretrial detainees were in jail because lawyers had not made any effort to get bail agency decisions reviewed.

The Supreme Court held in *Argersinger v. Hamlin*, 407 U.S. 25 (1972), that an indigent person could not be imprisoned as the result of a criminal trial if he or she had



*The jury section of the Franklin, Ga., courtroom.
(1941)*

been denied the right to court-appointed counsel at the trial. The decision placed important additional requirements on court administration, namely, to assure compliance by providing counsel in more criminal cases than before.

The National Advisory Commission proposed time limits for the disposition of cases to speed up court action. The period from arrest to the beginning of trial in felony cases should generally not be longer than 60 days, the Commission said. In a misdemeanor prosecution the period generally should not be more than 30 days.

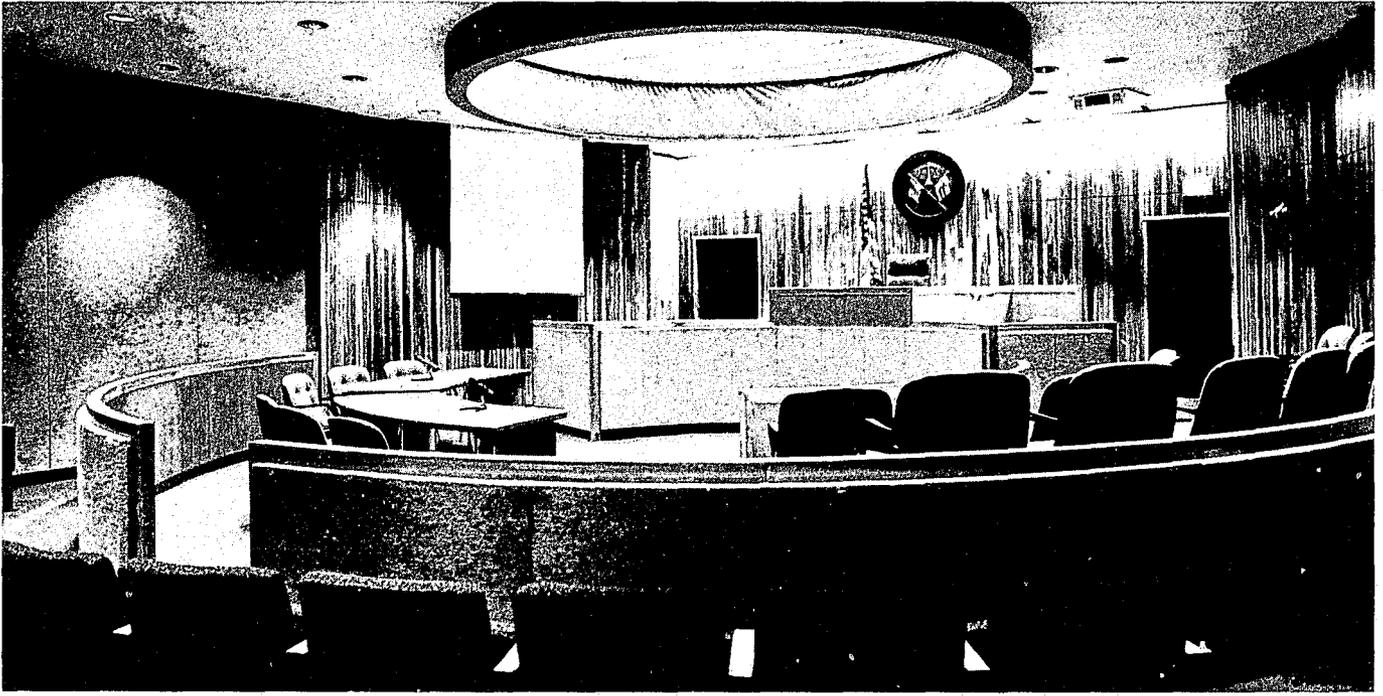
One method commonly used to speed up the judicial process is the negotiated plea, obtained through bargaining between prosecution and defense. More than 90 percent of all criminal convictions are not obtained by the action of a jury or a judge but by a guilty plea. It is not known just how many such pleas are the result of bargains in which the prosecution offered to reduce the charges in return for not having to conduct a trial. The National Advisory Commission recommended that plea bargaining be abolished.

Another Commission recommendation—that grand juries should not be required in any criminal prosecution—would serve to speed up the legal process. England, where grand juries originated, abolished them in 1933.

Reducing Court Workloads Through Diversion

It is clear that the courts could act with greater speed if they had fewer cases to handle. The reduction of their workloads through the diversion of persons charged with criminal offenses into various non-court programs has proved to be useful both to the courts and also to the rehabilitation of persons diverted from the system.

Many persons commonly brought before courts need types of treatment that can be obtained elsewhere—at a general hospital, a mental hospital, a detoxification center, or other community agencies. Screening these persons out of the judicial process has been successfully tried. The Vera Institute's Manhattan Bowery Project uses rescue teams to pick up drunks commonly found along the Bowery and provides emergency



treatment at a detoxification center. If the alcoholic wishes, he or she may obtain longer-term shelter and treatment.

Other diversion projects offer training and employment to young persons who appear likely to benefit. The Vera Institute's Manhattan Court Employment Project and Project Crossroads, formerly operated in Washington, D.C., provided job training and employment to young first offenders.

LEAA AND THE COURTS

Convening the National Conference on the Judiciary in Williamsburg, Virginia, was one of LEAA's first major steps in assisting State and local court improvement efforts. In addition to examining major problems in State court systems today, the conference called for the establishment of an agency to serve as a clearinghouse for court information and to provide technical assistance to the courts. The National Center for State Courts, located in Denver, fulfills these functions and oversees training for judges and court personnel. Chief Justice Burger has said that the Center is "the greatest aid to the improvement of State court systems in the past hundred years." LEAA has provided the majority of the Center's budget both for administration and the support of projects under its supervision.

The Prototype Courtroom for the District of Columbia Superior Court. It was completed in June 1975 through an LEAA grant and is currently in test use. Circular design and variable lighting provide optimal physical proximity and visual contact for the participants. Computerized electronic recording equipment provides easy storage and rapid retrieval of visual, audio, and written evidence, thereby effecting a speedier, more efficient administration of justice.

State Court Planning

Following up on the work of the Commission, a Standards and Goals Division was created within LEAA's Office of National Priority Programs in 1974. Since then support has been provided to nearly all States to develop standards and goals for courts. A major Commission goal was the unification of all trial courts within a State into a single court of general jurisdiction under the administrative authority of the State's highest appellate court. LEAA funding enabled a number of States during fiscal year 1975 to develop improved plans for the operation of their court systems.

Alabama's master plan to unify, streamline, and improve all courts within the State was completed in 1975 with five years of LEAA funding. Organizational improvements achieved by amending the State constitution and statutes include:

- The unification of all State courts.
- The elimination of the office of justice of the peace.
- The creation of 12 new circuit judgeships.
- The establishment of a Department of Court Management.

Civil practices and procedures are patterned after the Federal Rules. To improve the quality of personnel, every judge must now be a lawyer. An accelerated educational program has been set up for judges and court personnel. The impeachment of judges has been replaced by judicial disciplinary procedures. A permanent commission to study the Alabama judiciary system has been established.

As a result of these activities, the backlog of criminal cases in the circuit courts has been reduced by 15 percent in three years, although the number of new cases has increased 32 percent during the same period. Backlogs have been entirely eliminated in three appellate courts.

LEAA has encouraged the planning process in State court systems. Under the supervision of the National Center for State Courts, LEAA is funding special projects in three States. The State of Washington is adding a planning position to the State court administrator's office. Kentucky has a four-person staff to make a statutory analysis of the existing court system and

develop a multiyear statewide court plan. Rhode Island has an adjudicatory planning unit to collect and analyze data, identify court problems, and hold workshops on procedures.

Demonstration Projects

The disparity of court sentences has created public misunderstanding and personal bitterness. In fiscal year 1975 LEAA funded the Boston Urban Courts Model Sentencing Project, under the Massachusetts Committee on Criminal Justice, as one of its demonstration projects. Located in the Dorchester District Court, the project seeks to demonstrate that members of the community, the offender, and the victim can be involved effectively with police and the courts in the sentencing process. Specially trained members of the community will be directly involved in the mediation of disputes and will make sentencing recommendations to the judge. Victims may participate in devising sentences—for example, restitution by the offender. State and local officials from police, courts, defenders, prosecutors, probation, and parole agencies will take part. It is believed that the process of involving the lay public with criminal justice professionals, the offender, and the victim will help promote the rehabilitation of offenders and reduce recidivism, as the offender as well as the public and the victim will perceive the sentence to be just.

Another LEAA-funded project is designed to foster fairness and impartiality in the courts. The American criminal process requires counsel to represent one side of the case exclusively. The courtroom can become an arena for combat between opposing counsel, a combat in which the defendant plays a secondary role. The Exchange of Counsel project coordinated by Justice Resources, Inc., has set up a system of role exchanges between defenders and prosecutors in four jurisdictions: Yuma, Arizona; Hennepin County, Minnesota; Philadelphia County, Pennsylvania; and the State of Vermont. It is expected that the project will advance the trend toward discovery proceedings, lessen sentencing disparity, and generally improve the administration of criminal justice.

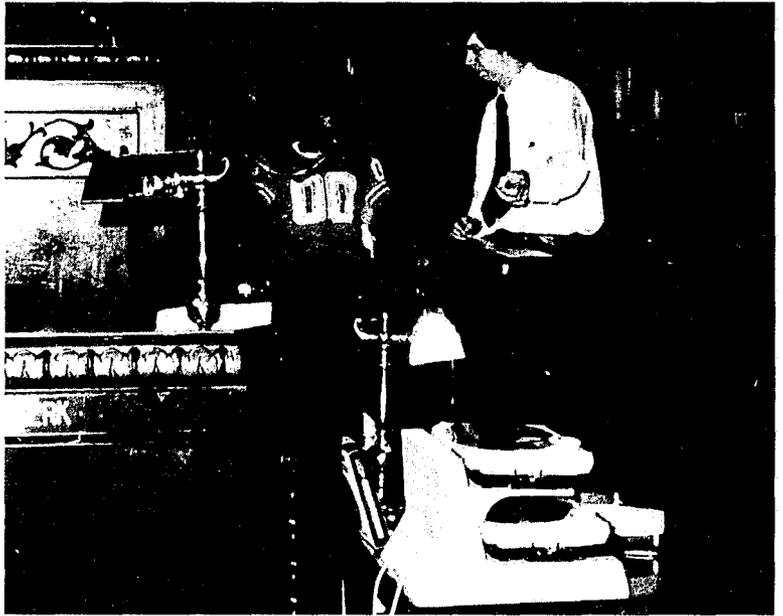
Technical Assistance and Training

LEAA funds substantial technical assistance and training for courts. The National Legal Aid and Defenders Association, through the LEAA-funded National Center for Defense Management, is designed to improve services to indigent defendants. Technical assistance is offered to State and local governments and defender offices about the management, design, and evaluation of model systems, as well as the establishment of a national brief bank. Accomplishments include helping the States of North Dakota and Vermont develop appellate defender programs. A survey is under way to determine the need for a public defense program in El Paso County, Texas.

Technical assistance has been made available to virtually every State and Territory and to the court community generally through the National Center for State Courts. The Center's work emphasizes State court organization, administration, and management. Personnel and financial management and the design of court facilities have been the subjects of technical assistance, as have court procedure and process, including bail, jury administration, and sentencing. The Center is a clearinghouse for judicial statistics and court information.

The Center also supervises the work of national judicial training organizations. These are: the Institute for Court Management, funded jointly by LEAA and the Ford Foundation; the Appellate Judges Seminar; the National College of the State Judiciary; the National College of Juvenile Court Judges; and the Institute of Judicial Administration. It is estimated that about 7,000 State court judges and court personnel have been trained in these programs.

The National College of District Attorneys at the University of Houston's Bates School of Law is sponsored by the National District Attorneys' Association. More than 1,000 prosecutors have attended its three-week career prosecutor course, and many more have attended regional seminars. Comparable training for defense lawyers is provided through the National College of Criminal Defense Lawyers and Public Defenders, which receives LEAA assistance.



The victim/witness program in New Orleans. The witness is being familiarized with courtroom equipment prior to testifying.

Corrections



Old cellblock—still in use—in an unidentified prison. (1975)

British colonists brought to the New World an ancient institution—the jail. Early in the 19th century the young country itself invented another type of institution that was to have a profound effect on corrections in this and many other countries—the penitentiary. The two types of institutions survive to this day.

Also in the 19th century, and with increasing frequency in the 20th, the United States originated or further developed noninstitutional methods of correction. Probation, parole, diversion, work and study release, and other systems were designed either to keep offenders out of institutions altogether or to shorten their terms of incarceration or permit them to serve part of the time under supervision.

THE JAIL

Jails in the Colonies, as in Europe, were not primarily institutions for the punishment of those who broke the law. Rather than imprisonment, convicted persons faced death or corporal punishment—the gallows or the whipping post, the branding iron, the stocks, and other methods of inflicting pain and public humiliation. A lawbreaker who did not live in the locality might be whipped and sent on his way with all dispatch. The major functions of the jail in the criminal justice process were to hold convicted persons until the sentence and punishment had been meted out and to detain persons accused of crimes until trial.

However, the insane, the ill, vagrants, deserted wives or children, the aged, and the poor were more numerous than the lawbreakers in the country's early jails. Typically the Colonies provided housing and other care for the sick, the aged, and the poor. Larger cities had almshouses, and relief for the poor was a traditional function of government. Workhouses were set up where vagrants were to be introduced to the virtues of work. But where none of these arrangements was available or until

some measure of relief could be worked out, these people were incarcerated.

In addition to being crowded into filthy quarters, inmates had to pay for their keep. The poorest among them begged passersby for food or the money to buy it, and instances are on record of starvation in jails. On the other hand, those who had money could buy liquor as well as food, privacy, and privilege.

Inmates who had no such resources but were strong enough were used in heavy manual labor on public works. Clad in conspicuous uniforms and encumbered with ball and chain, they were under constant surveillance by armed guards.

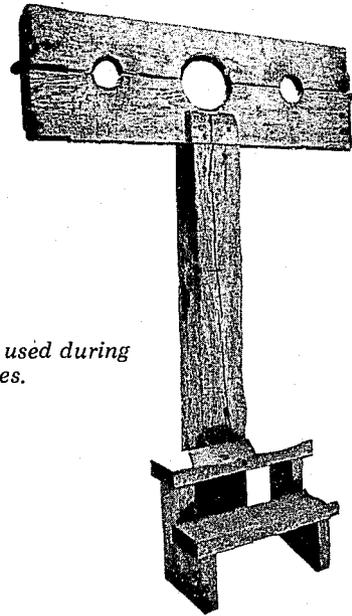
The beginnings of reform came in Philadelphia in the latter part of the 18th century, owing in large part to a group of Quakers called The Philadelphia Society to Alleviate the Miseries of Public Prisons, an organization that still functions today as The Philadelphia Prison Society. The Society urged that hardened criminals be separated from lesser offenders, that the sexes be segregated, and that the sale and consumption of liquor be prohibited.

In 1790 the Pennsylvania Legislature ordered the renovation of the Walnut Street Jail in Philadelphia to segregate hardened offenders. They were housed in single cells in a separate building in almost total isolation. Other prisoners worked together and spent their off-hours and nights in larger rooms. Women and debtors had their own buildings. Children were removed from the jail entirely. Food and clothing were supplied at public expense, and no liquor was allowed. Thus, with a rudimentary system of classification and the provision of free essential services, the fundamentals of modern correctional management were introduced.

For a time, the jail on Walnut Street seemed to offer hope for more effective and more humane corrections. But serious problems soon arose. The planners had miscalculated the expected number of inmates and the workrooms became so crowded that work became impossible. Fifteen years after its founding the jail held four times the number originally anticipated. Two visiting Frenchmen, Gustave de Beaumont and Alexis de Tocqueville,

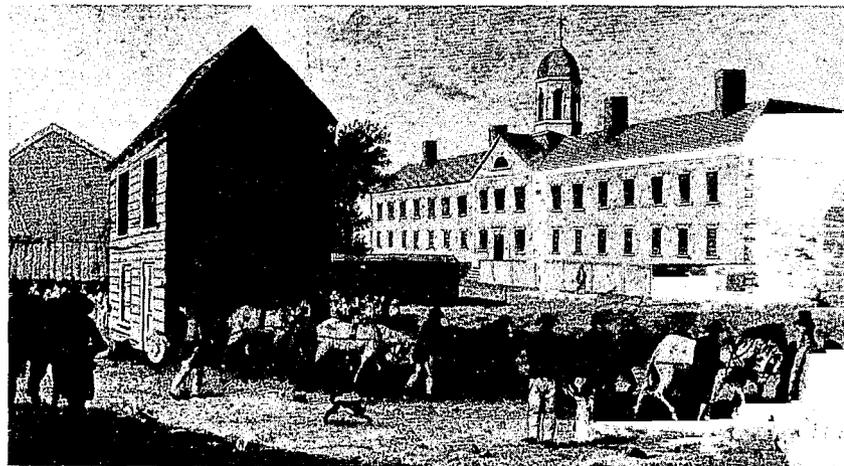


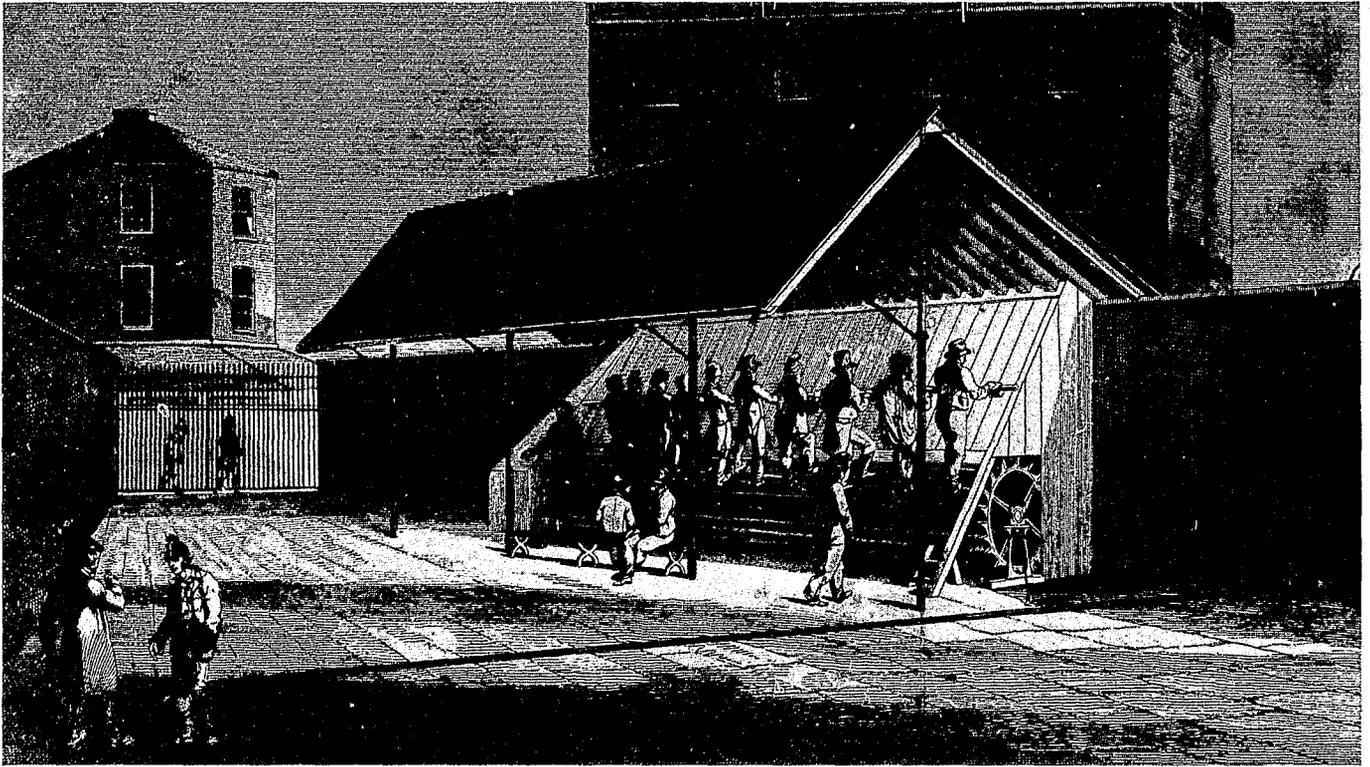
Interior of the Old Dungeon at the Old Witch Jail in Salem, Mass. (Date unknown)



Reproduction of a pillory used during the 17th and 18th centuries.

The Walnut Street Jail, Philadelphia, Pa. (1799 drawing)





A treadmill used at the end of the 18th century as a prisoner work program. (Date unknown)

pointed out the serious results: "It corrupted by contamination those who worked together. It corrupted by indolence the individuals who were plunged into solitude."

THE NEW INSTITUTION— THE PENITENTIARY

Eastern State Penitentiary. Opened in 1829, it became the model for many prisons around the world. (1973)



In the 1820's it became obvious that the Walnut Street Jail could not deal effectively with the growing prison population. Pennsylvania then turned toward the "silent system," so called because no inmate might speak to any other. Silence was enforced by the architecture of the institution. The Eastern State Penitentiary at Cherry Hill, which opened in 1829, was designed with seven cellblocks radiating from a central rotunda like the spokes of a wheel. Each prisoner occupied a cell about 8 by 12 feet in dimension, with running water and toilet facilities. Each prisoner also had his own "exercising yard," about 8 by 20 feet, surrounded by a high brick wall. Walls between cells were thick and virtually impenetrable to sound. The prisoner therefore neither saw nor heard anyone else except the "keepers," who inspected prisoners three times a day and occasional pious persons who came to pray

and offer spiritual guidance. Meals were delivered through a hole in the otherwise solid door. In his cell the prisoner worked at weaving, carpentry, shoemaking, sewing, or other hand manufacture that could be done by one person in a small space. When he was not at work or exercising, he was to read the Scriptures and meditate upon his sins.

Another silent system was operated at the Auburn Prison in New York. This, too, provided for the solitary and silent confinement of prisoners, but only at night. During the day they worked together under surveillance and even then they could not speak to one another. The prisoners marched in lockstep, one hand on the shoulder of the man ahead, with all heads turned in the direction of the guard. Arriving at their work site in the prison, they marked time until commanded to stop.

The Auburn system was a brutal one, with silence enforced by lashes and other punishments. But it had one aspect very appealing to the legislature. The sale of prison-made goods produced almost enough money to cover prison expenses.

However profitable their production, penitentiaries were expensive to construct. Eastern State was estimated to cost \$500,000 for 250 prisoners, an enormous sum for the time. In fact, it was the most expensive public building in the New World. It was the first public building in the country to have flush toilets and hot air heating.

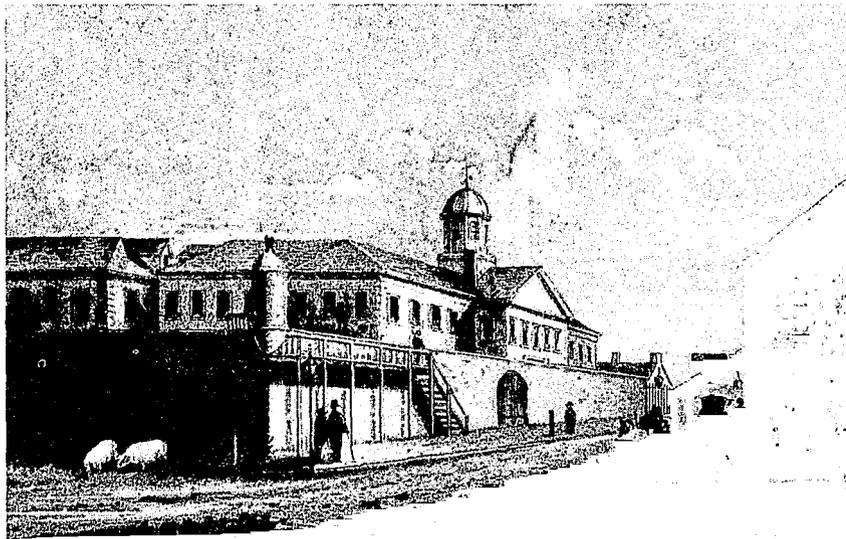
The very fact that penitentiaries were substantial and erected at great cost made them a lasting feature of the many States that built them during the 19th century. Eastern State was in use as a part of the Pennsylvania system until 1968 and then briefly served Philadelphia as a detention center. Several institutions in use today were built about the same time as Eastern State and Auburn.

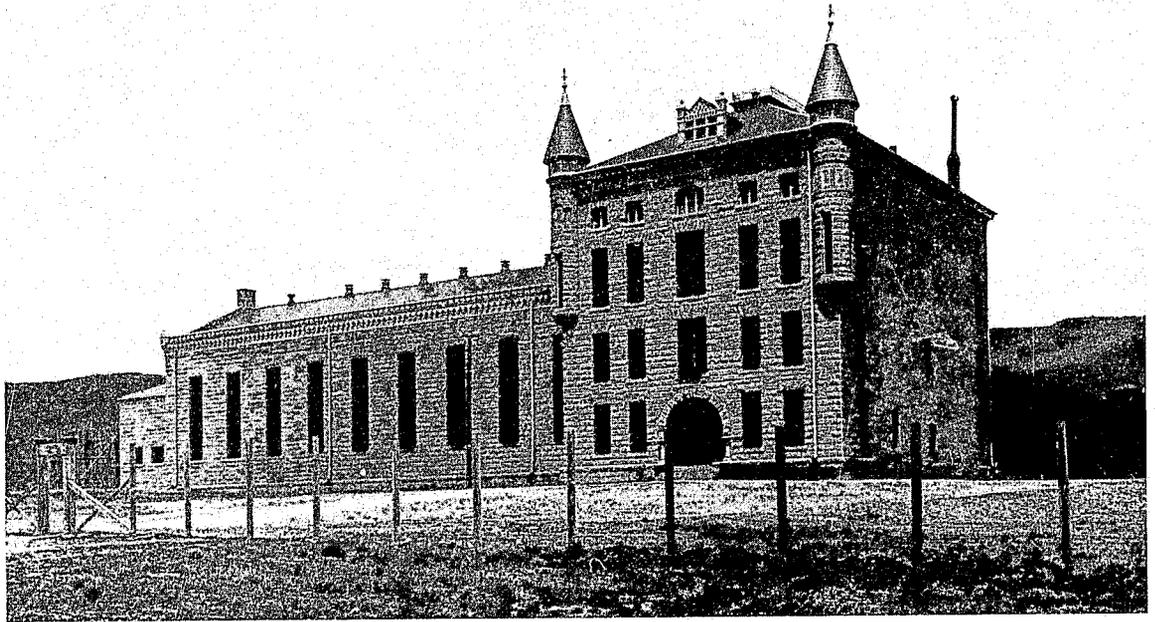
Most of the 19th century prisons were built for maximum security. They were forbidding structures and were referred to as bastilles for very good reasons. Even the reformatories developed for young felons beginning about 1825 were built on the maximum security model, possibly because

"State prisons should be so constructed that even their aspect might be terrible, and appear like what they should be, dark and comfortless abodes of guilt and wretchedness. No mode or degree of punishment which ever has been made or which ever can be adopted is in its nature so well adapted to purposes of preventing crime and reforming a criminal, as close confinement in a silent or solitary cell, in which, cut off from all hope of relief during the term for which he shall have been sentenced, the convict shall be furnished with a hammock on which he may sleep, a block of wood on which he may sit, and with such coarse, though wholesome food as may be best suited to a person in a situation designed for grief and penitence; and shall be favored with so much light from the firmament, as may enable him to read from the New Testament which shall be given him as his sole companion and guide to a better life. There his vices and crimes shall be personified, and appear to his frightened imagination as the co-tenants of his dark and dismal cell. They will surround him as so many hideous spectres, and overwhelm him with horror and remorse."

The purpose of prisons. The report of Daniel Rose, first warden of the Maine State Prison, after a one-year investigation of the subject of punishment of convicts and the establishment of a State penitentiary. (July 1, 1824-facsimile)

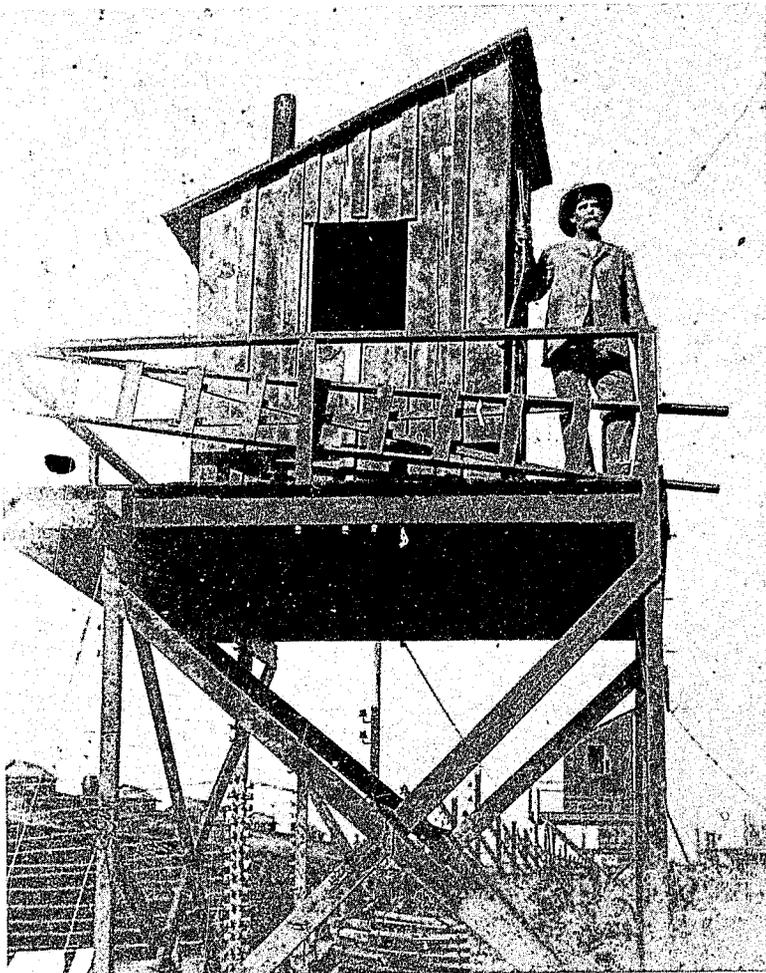
New York State Prison. (1853)





Wyoming State Penitentiary. (1905)

Guard tower at the Oklahoma State Penitentiary at McAlester, Okla. (1909)



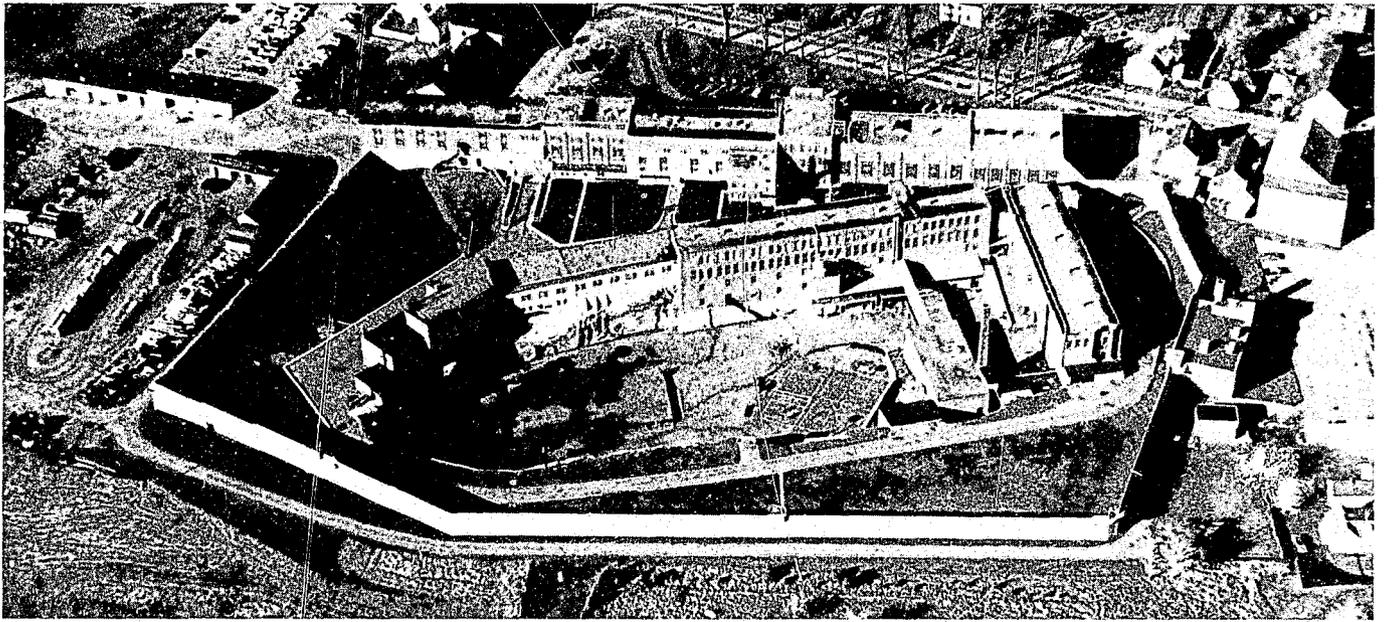
the first such institution—at Elmira in New York—was designed as a penitentiary and then converted into a reformatory. Not until the 20th century did medium and minimum security institutions come into being, as well as juvenile institutions.

INSTITUTIONS TODAY

Forty percent of the inmates reported in the most recent (1974) National Prisoner Statistics report on State correctional facilities are confined to maximum security institutions; 34 percent are held in medium security institutions. Nearly two-thirds of all State prisoners are held in the closed prisons.

The total number of persons held in State correctional facilities in 1974 was almost 188,000. About 10,000 were in classification or medical centers and 9,000 were in community correctional centers. The remaining 169,000 were confined in some type of prison.

Jails hold almost as many inmates on the average day as State correctional facilities. The latest available figures on jail populations show almost 142,000 persons held at midyear 1972. Jails range from very small, with only a few inmates, to very large, with more than 700. These institutions are usually under city or county control, but five States—Alaska, Connecticut, Delaware, Rhode Island, and Vermont—now administer jails.



*Maine State Prison in Thomaston—built in 1824.
(1975)*

Prisons and jails in this country are apt to suffer from a common problem—overcrowding. A recent court investigation in the District of Columbia found that the city's jail, built to accommodate 663 inmates, had a population of 988. In the cellblocks built in 1872, which are now used as maximum security units, cells are seven feet 10 inches long, six feet wide, and nine feet high. Most have double-decker bunks and house two persons. The court found that:

It is virtually impossible for two men to move around in the cell simultaneously . . . [I]nmates so housed adopted a system which allowed one inmate to move around the cell every other day while his cellmate stayed in bed. Twenty-two hours in such a cell constitutes a normal day for many of these inmates.

The overcrowding, in the judge's words, is "by far the most flagrant and shocking encroachment on constitutional rights," and is caused in part by the fact that the jail has no classification system to determine which inmates need maximum security. Almost two-thirds of the inmates were pretrial detainees who had not been found guilty of any offense, and some were housed in the maximum security blocks. More than 20 percent of the unsentenced inmates had been held more than four months.

The Louisiana State Prison at Angola, with a design capacity of 2,641, was

Prisoner in the Tenderloin Station, New York City. (1905)





Tom Green County Jail, San Angelo, Tex. Built in 1884. (1915)



One of four one-room jails in Montana. This one, in Custer, was built in 1907 and used until 1968. (1975 photo)

Jailer of the Tom Green County Jail. (1915)



holding 3,900 when a Federal judge in 1975 ordered the State not to admit more prisoners until the number was reduced to the design capacity. The 74-year-old Tennessee State Prison was built to house 1,700 inmates. It now has 2,100.

With such overcrowding it is virtually impossible to keep an institution clean, to provide opportunities for effective education and training, or even space to exercise. It is not surprising, therefore, that tensions build up and violence erupts.

The isolation of many State prisons not only makes it easy for the public to be unaware of their problems but also itself creates difficulties. At Attica, in rural New York, and at Angola, in rural Louisiana, most employees are whites from the surrounding small communities, and the inmates are mostly black men from urban slums. The isolation of prisons often dates from early days when State and Territorial institutions were parceled out among the legislators. But geographic isolation was also related to the concept of removing offenders from a contaminating environment.

Such isolation makes it difficult to maintain family relationships, viewed by many penologists as a keystone of rehabilitation. Families often have to travel 100 miles on

the infrequent visiting days. Some prison and jail systems have inaugurated furloughs that allow inmates to visit their families over weekends. In other systems provisions are made for families to visit inmates in special housing on the prison grounds. There is substantial disagreement among correctional officials about the efficacy of furloughs and conjugal visits, but each has vigorous supporters.

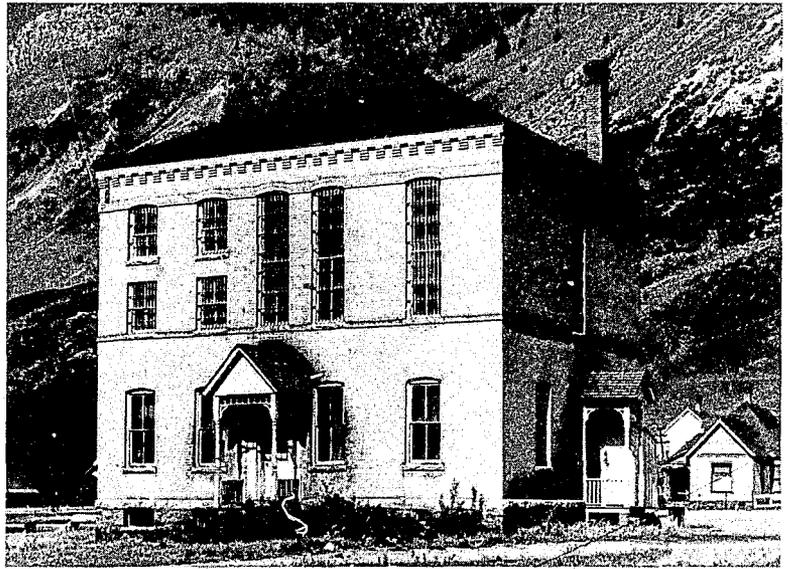
As in the District of Columbia and Louisiana, the courts—both Federal and State—have been coming to the aid of prisoners with increasing frequency during the past decade. Racial segregation, overcrowding, poor sanitation, lack of medical treatment and educational facilities, prohibitions on correspondence, restrictions on religious activities, lack of classification programs, State failure to provide legal assistance, and many other policies have been enjoined by judicial order on the ground that they violate one or more of the prisoner's constitutional rights.

CORRECTIONS OUTSIDE THE INSTITUTION

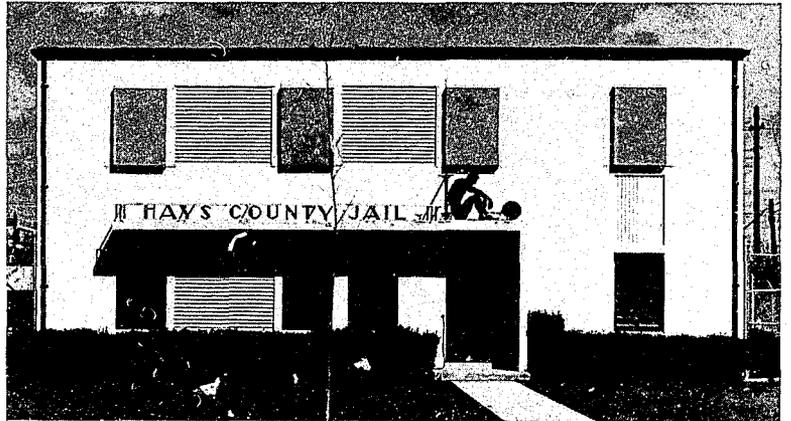
Corrections outside the institution originated in the 1840's, 20 years after the first penitentiaries. The basic concept was that not all persons who commit offenses need to be incarcerated, that, indeed, many will become law-abiding citizens more quickly and permanently if they are not shut up out of contact with the free community. It was realized, too, that institutions are expensive to operate. Therefore, a form of correction that did not require institutions would be a saving to the taxpayer.

Probation

The oldest form of noninstitutional corrections in the United States is probation. In 1841 John Augustus, a Boston boot-maker, asked the court to release to him certain misdemeanants whom he thought he could assist. Methods used by Augustus as a volunteer worker are still used by probation officers: investigation and screening, interviewing, supervision, and services such as employment and education. Augustus and his fellow volunteers were so successful that the Massachusetts Legislature in 1878 established the first



Silvertown, Colo., Jail. (Ca. 1930)



Hays County Jail in San Marcos, Tex. (1940)



Turn-of-the-century cell at Sing Sing Prison in Ossining, N.Y.. The prison, first opened in 1825, is still in use. Cells like the one pictured have been replaced or renovated. Now called the Ossining Correctional Facility, it is undergoing extensive renovation to improve recreational and housing facilities. (1905)

State probation agency with a paid staff. All States now have probation, administered by either a State or local agency.

In 1966 California began a program of State subsidies to local probation departments designed to substitute intensive probation supervision in small caseloads for incarceration in State facilities. Under the program counties receive approximately \$4,000 for each additional case—juvenile and adult—retained under local sentence and not committed to a State institution. By June 30, 1973, participating counties had earned more than \$83 million and the program was credited by the State formula with reducing first admissions to State correctional agencies by more than 25,000 cases.

Under a grant from LEAA's National Institute, the Center on Administration of Criminal Justice, University of California, Davis, recently completed an evaluation of the program. Among the findings:

- The program has reduced commitments by at least as much as the State formula indicates.
- The program has cost participating counties several million dollars a year but has saved the State even more. Overall, there has been a cost saving of about \$6 million per year.
- Intensive probation supervision has not proved to be either very innovative or very effective in reducing recidivism.
- The effect of reducing commitments has been a small increase in the amount of crime in the State.

The study concludes that the program's advantages outweigh its disadvantages. It recommends that other jurisdictions consider such programs. Rather than emphasizing any one approach—such as intensive probation supervision—communities should experiment with a wide variety of correctional programs and services.

Parole

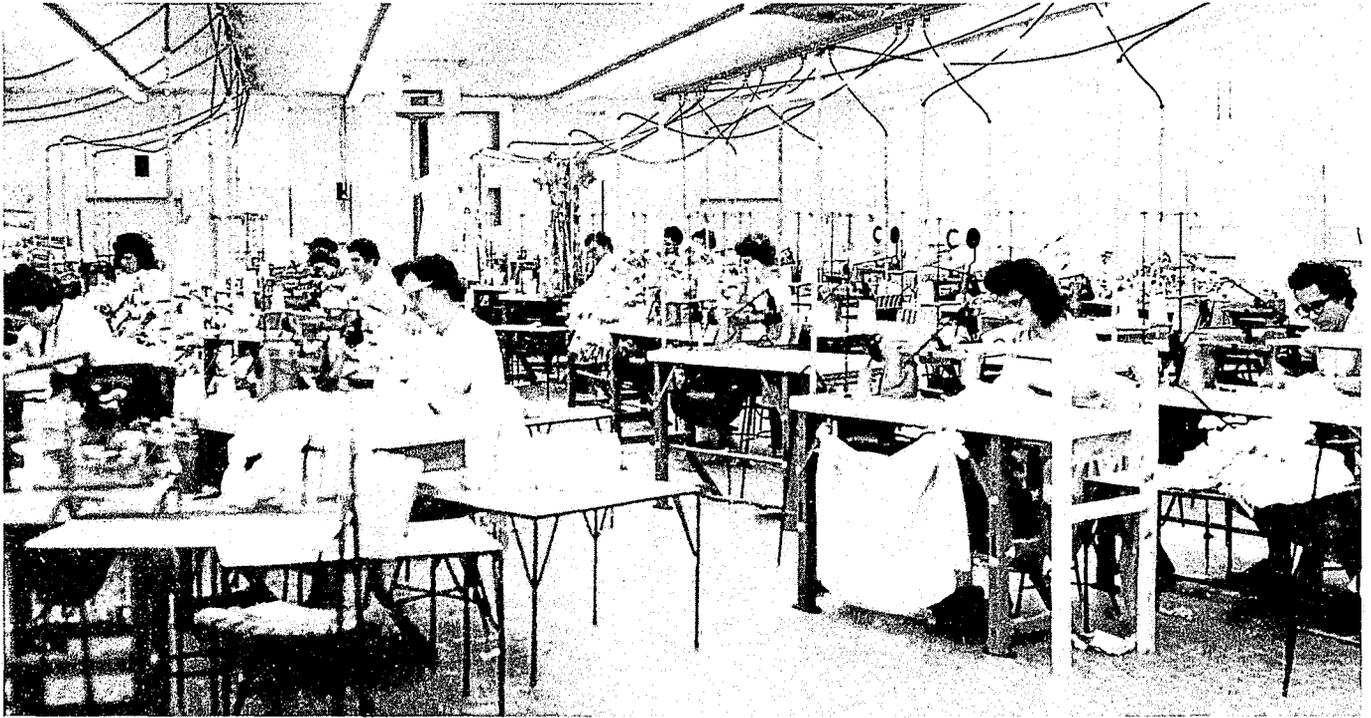
Parole allows an offender to be released under the continued custody of the State after his or her sentence has been partially served. If the offender misbehaves during the parole period, he or she will be reincarcerated. Parole is the principal form of



Chain gang at work in Griffith Park, Calif. Prisoners were hired out to private employers during this period. (1919)

Convicts working on a road in Oglethorpe County, Ga. (1941)





Sewing plant in the North Carolina Correctional Center for Women. (1963)

release of prison inmates today and probably will continue to be. It is not available to the inmates of most jails.

Parole has been attacked by many persons who charge that it returns hardened criminals prematurely to the streets. Supporters of parole point out that 99 percent of all felons will return to the community in any event. Without parole they serve out their sentences and are discharged without any continuing responsibility on their part or the part of the State. Under parole they are released under supervision at the time when it seems best for their return to the community. Available data show that inmates who are released on parole have already served slightly longer terms than those who are discharged after serving full terms.

One problem with parole is that the inmate who appears for a parole board hearing may not be informed promptly of an adverse decision and may never know its reasons. Courts are now beginning to take an interest in parole procedures and are starting to require that inmates be represented by counsel at the revocation hearing or on appeal.

Sentencing procedures also complicate parole problems. The disparity of sentences imposed by different judges for offenses

that are nearly identical and committed under similar circumstances has been a source of bitterness among prisoners since the beginning of incarceration as punishment. The indeterminate sentence, under which an inmate does not know when he or she may be eligible for parole, is also a source of bitter controversy.

In 1975 Maine became the first State to abolish parole and to require judges to impose flat sentences for various categories of offenses. Judges there have discretion in imposing the terms and conditions of sentence. They may select probation, fines, restitution, imprisonment, or a combination of those penalties. The State's Bureau of Corrections may allow an inmate to return to his or her community under a work release or study release program. "Good time" (credit for good behavior) is authorized for all sentences of more than six months.

OTHER CORRECTIONS IN THE COMMUNITY

While probation and parole have long been used as community alternatives to incarceration or continued incarceration, newer methods are being used in many localities. Work release is a program by which an inmate goes to work daily in the community, returning at night to the institution or to a halfway house. The offender uses part of his or her earnings to pay for room and board and the rest for family support or similar responsibilities. A variation of work release is the restitution center established by Minnesota in 1972, where men live while working to earn funds to compensate victims of their offenses. Another variation is study release, which allows offenders to leave institutions for study at local colleges.

There is also growing use of diversion, in which formal adjudication is halted in favor of processing an individual by noncriminal disposition. Schools in some cities handle vandalism and other misdemeanors by students through counseling, family conferences, and their own disciplinary action rather than referring them to the police. In some other cities police and other public and private agencies sponsor youth service bureaus, family crisis intervention projects,

and other programs that divert youth and adults from juvenile or adult criminal justice systems. Courts place children in foster or group care. There are also pretrial diversion programs in which counseling and training are provided and jobs found for young first offenders under the U.S. Department of Labor or local auspices; for youths who successfully complete the program, charges are dismissed after an amount of time set by the courts.

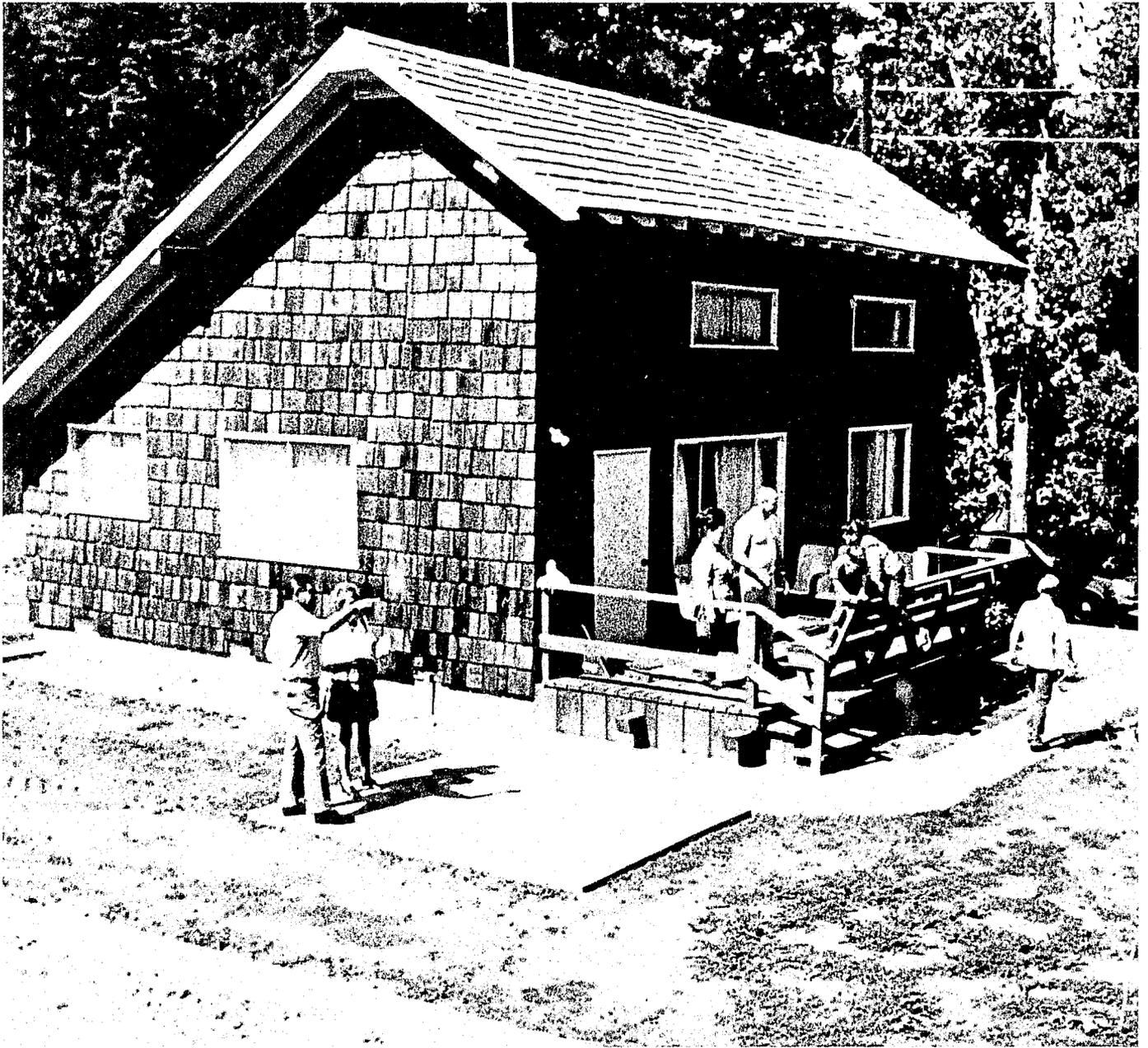
LEAA AND CORRECTIONS

Soon after establishing LEAA, the Congress added a new mandate to the agency to provide immediate assistance to States and municipalities to help them improve their corrections systems. This element was added in Part E of the Omnibus Crime Control Act of 1970. It authorized LEAA to provide funds to States and municipalities to improve correction systems and to develop innovative alternatives to incarceration.

The involvement of LEAA in American correctional reform is one of the latest steps taken in a long succession of efforts to find successful methods for returning wrongdoers to a useful and productive life. The correction system as it exists today was born of a reform movement, and its development has been characterized by efforts to improve the system as well as to reform the offender.

The judiciary and the press have joined the correctional reform movement in recent years. The judiciary, including the Supreme Court, has begun to express concern for the rights of citizens who are incarcerated, suggesting that their constitutional rights may not be entirely suspended or revoked upon imprisonment. The press has exposed conditions in some of the worst prisons in the nation and has called for change.

The search for effective rehabilitation methods goes on, and few experts in the field would predict early success. The search is an old one, and it is accompanied by an erratic but recurring desire of Americans to eliminate inhumane conditions in prisons and to provide incarcerated men and women with adequate, if austere surround-



A contemporary family visiting unit for inmates at Garberville Prison in California.

ings, a balanced diet, physical security, a modicum of privacy, and, increasingly, liberalized visiting privileges.

LEAA uses three major ways to help State and local government strengthen and improve law enforcement and criminal justice: grants to State and local government for planning and development of programs, block action grants, technical assistance on specific problems, and research. LEAA also funds the National Clearinghouse for Criminal Justice Planning and Architecture and the National Institute of Corrections. The Institute is located in

the Bureau of Prisons, which is part of the Department of Justice.

During fiscal year 1975, funds to State and local governments for corrections totaled \$88,702,000, or about 39 percent of all LEAA block and discretionary grants. Since the establishment of LEAA in 1968, the Agency has made grants totaling more than \$1 billion for corrections, which is 39 percent of the total funding during this period.

An emphasis has been placed on community corrections and the problems of special groups of offenders. In one project, the Minnesota Department of Corrections, the University of Minnesota, and a business consortium are cooperating in a community corrections program for female offenders who have dependent children. These women will be diverted from the court system or institutions into a community program designed to deter them from further crime by giving them vocational or other education, helping them to find or continue in jobs, and improving their homemaking skills. The program includes services to the children to help them overcome problems arising from their mothers' involvement in crime and to prevent their delinquency.

In Maryland a State institution program for women will help the inmates to receive training and obtain jobs in the community.

Another type of effort for adult parolees and probationers is being undertaken in a project in Georgia that utilizes two community-based therapeutic residences. Major felons will be given intensive therapy at one residence. At the other, offenders released from an institution during the last eight to twelve months of their sentence will receive counseling and work-release placement and supervision. The Georgia Department of Offender Rehabilitation hopes to reduce recidivism in these groups.

A reduction in recidivism among adult probationers is the objective of a program of the Monroe County Probation Department, Rochester, New York. In Birmingham, Alabama, the Jefferson County Correctional Center works with both sentenced felons and misdemeanants as well as pre-trial detainees to provide a complete range of rehabilitation services.



A convict learns to weld in a commercial building maintenance class at the Community Vocational Center in Lawtey, Fla. (1975)

In San Juan, Puerto Rico, workshops in the women's and men's prisons offer training in a variety of trades that will reduce unemployment among ex-offenders, one of the prime reasons why so many return to crime. Workshops are also used in an Essex County, New Jersey, program directed at offenders convicted of stranger-to-stranger violent crime in an effort to reduce recidivism through providing job training and placement following psychological testing and treatment.

A key problem for offenders is the lack of legal assistance during incarceration. A consortium of three States—Georgia, Kansas, and Minnesota—provides the services of law student volunteers and practicing attorneys who offer legal assistance in the entire spectrum of inmate grievances and legal problems.

Two projects are designed to improve education in institutions. The American Correctional Association is conducting a survey to determine the state of the art for a correctional educational network. The Education Commission of the States is making a survey of educators, legislators, and users of educational programs in State correctional facilities to examine issues and problems. One objective is to provide a basis for decisionmaking among legislators about the critical elements in correctional education. Another objective is to develop a plan for implementing the recommendations that grow out of the survey.

The training of correctional personnel has long been known to be essential to a well functioning correctional system. LEAA is funding the first large-scale formal, comprehensive training program for Oklahoma correctional personnel.

LEAA is also assisting a correctional management and manpower development program to implement standards and goals consistent with the correctional recommendations of the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals. The program, located at the University of Georgia, is designed to serve the entire Southeast.

LEAA also has supported almost all States in their efforts to develop standards and goals for corrections. LEAA funded a major project in Michigan to implement

many of the State's corrections standards at the operational level.

In Florida LEAA is helping to fund a program to recruit correctional employees, both professionals and nonprofessionals, from the ranks of minority groups and ex-offenders.

The American Correctional Association is conducting a broad, LEAA-funded study of methodology for State correctional facility accreditation.

LEAA research programs are described in the chapter entitled Research. Listed below are several programs of special significance to corrections:

- The economic costs of implementing the recommendations of the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals.
- Alternatives to incarceration.
- Prison industries—new approaches, new industries, new products.
- The effectiveness of community corrections.
- Parole models.
- Classification for parole decisions.
- Recruiting and retaining correctional personnel.
- Correctional employees' organizations.
- Jail drug programs.

A LOOK AHEAD

The prospects for corrections in the United States appear mixed at this time, but some recent events presage a brighter future:

- Courts from the District of Columbia to California have ordered sweeping changes in State prisons and local jails.
- Many cities and counties are seeking to keep more offenders out of jails and prisons and place more of them into community correctional centers or divert them out of the criminal justice system altogether.
- The concept of restitution to victims is receiving renewed attention.
- The special problems of certain groups of offenders—women, minority groups, youthful felons—are being addressed both in institutions and community-based programs.
- New efforts are being made to train correctional personnel and to recruit

Interior view of the maximum security section of a prison for female offenders in North Carolina. (1970)

women and minority groups to correctional staffs.

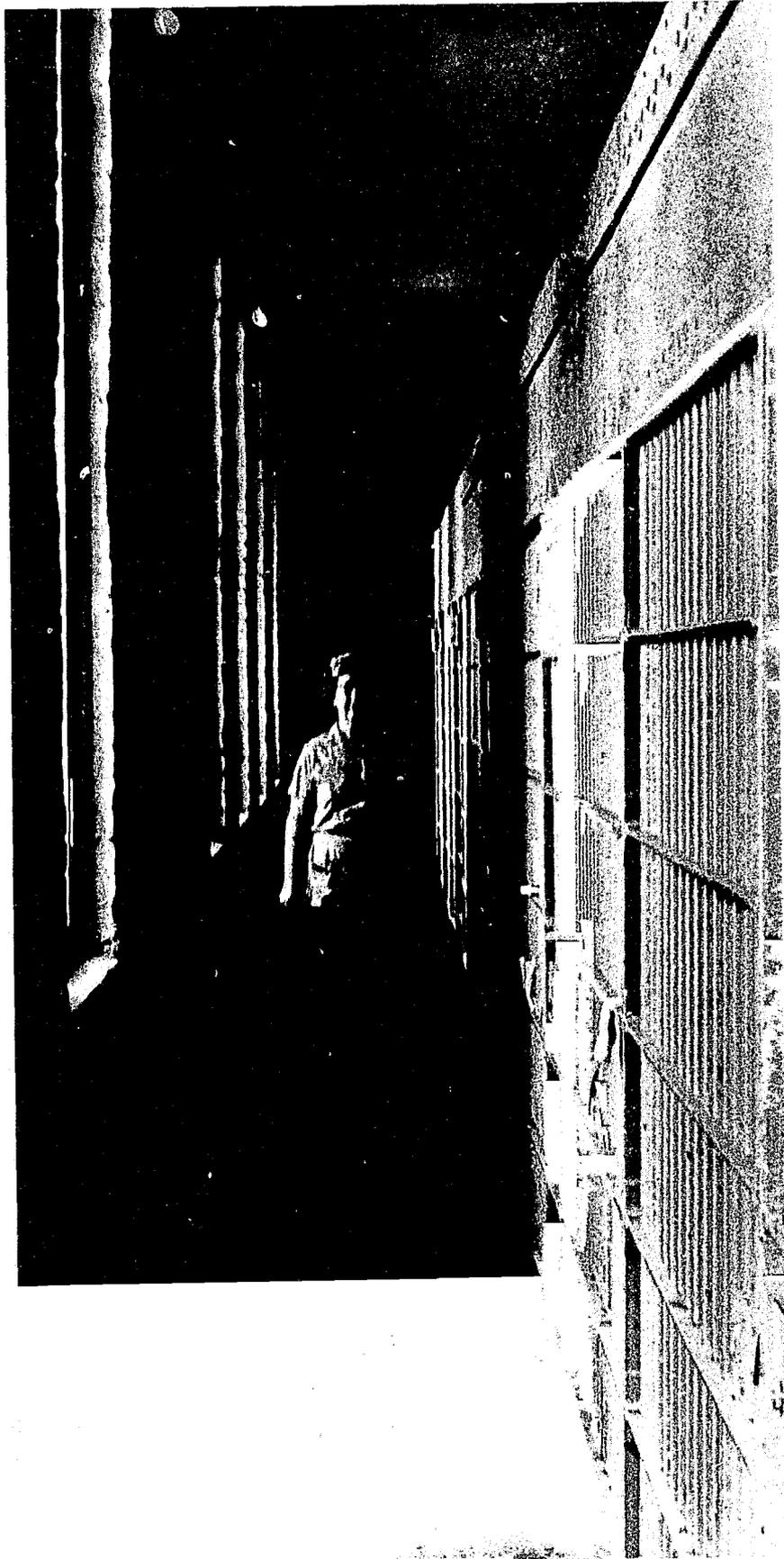
But the public is aware of the appalling conditions in prisons and jails. An Attica riot brings the picture into every home with a television set. It has been four years since Chief Justice Warren E. Burger reminded the American people that:

When a sheriff or a marshal takes a man from a courthouse in a prison van and transports him to confinement for two or three to ten years, *this is our act*. We have tolled the bell for him. And whether we like it or not, we have made him our collective responsibility. We are free to do something about him; he is not.

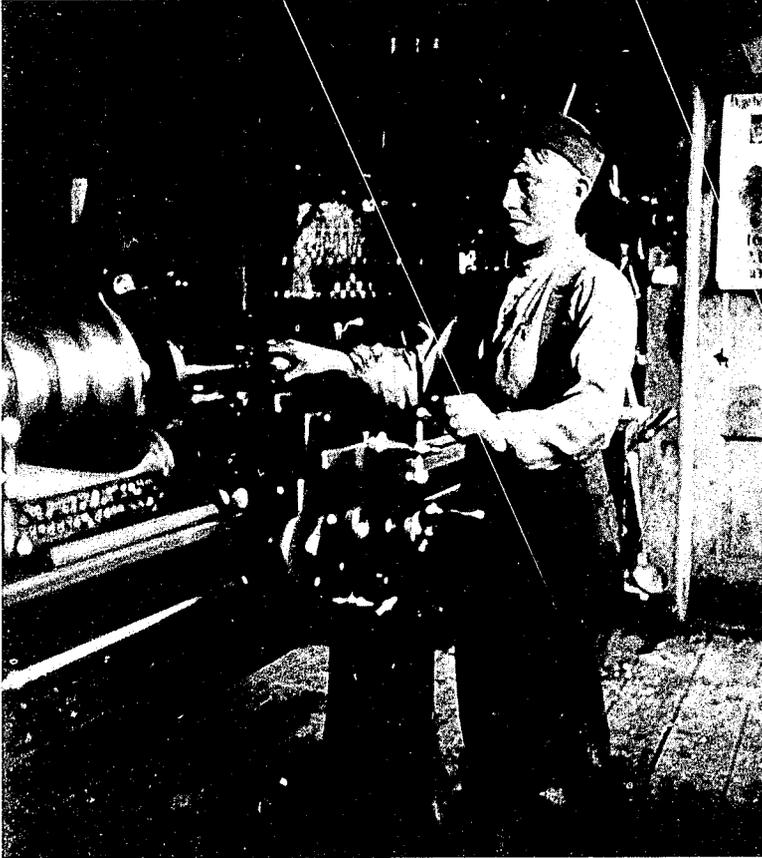
Strenuous efforts are being made by some States to obey court orders on prisons. But decisions not to admit more offenders to overcrowded prisons may mean only that men and women are held in jails that are equally crowded until there is room for them in the prisons. Indeed, jails appear to present the most acute problems today.

Despite the fact that incarceration costs much more per person than does probation, it seems likely that the trend toward disposing of most cases through probation may be changing. Part of the reason probably is attributable to the increasing numbers of persons being diverted from the criminal justice system—persons who otherwise would have been placed on probation. But some undoubtedly is attributable to a hardening of public opinion that is being felt by the courts.

It should be noted, too, that corrections systems take the brunt of mistakes or lack of action by other segments of the criminal justice system. The judge hearing the District of Columbia Jail cases pointed out that much of the overcrowding was caused by the fact that attorneys for pretrial detainees had failed to request reviews of their clients' eligibility for bail. It is clear that all parts of the criminal justice system, including the courts and police as well as attorneys, need to work together more effectively if the system is to achieve maximum effectiveness.



Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention



*Boy at work in a reform school machine shop.
(Ca. 1890)*

Juvenile delinquency as it is known today did not exist in the early colonial days. The Puritan settlers considered the young an important and vital part of the labor force. Most of their children worked by the age of 12, and many at an even younger age. Puritan children also were apprenticed and indentured, because their parents believed that it was healthy for a child to work outside the home.

The Virginia Company valued child labor and in 1619 sought to import children from London, which seized the opportunity as a way to rid its city streets, jails, and poor houses of vagrants, paupers, petty thieves, and unwanted orphans.

An English Act of 1620 permitted the deportation of children with or without the child's approval, and it led to the abduction of children from every part of London. Upon arrival in the New World the children were apprenticed until they reached 21 years of age, at which age they were freed and given public land with cattle and corn. Mistreatment by masters and no guarantees that they would comply with their agreements once the children reached the end of their service were common problems.

Punishable offenses for youths in colonial days were running away from masters, incorrigibility, lying, swearing, fighting, stealing, and cheating—offenses for the most part not punishable if committed by adults.

Until the Revolution Americans lived under English common law, which held a child accountable for its acts after the seventh birthday. Prior to that age a child was considered incapable of possessing the ability to understand the nature of criminal behavior. Judges determined culpability of children between the ages of seven and 14 years. But the maximum sentence—death by hanging—was the same as for the adult.

Capital punishment was common for children in 17th century England, where there were 33 offenses for which the

sentence applied. In America it was less likely to be imposed. Instead corporal punishment or incarceration was often used, although one eight-year-old was convicted and hanged for burning a barn with "malice, revenge, craft and cunning." From the 17th century to the early part of the 18th century children were sentenced to public whippings and to long-term prison sentences. Prisons in those days held a conglomeration of men, women, and children under the same roof. Physical conditions were inhuman.

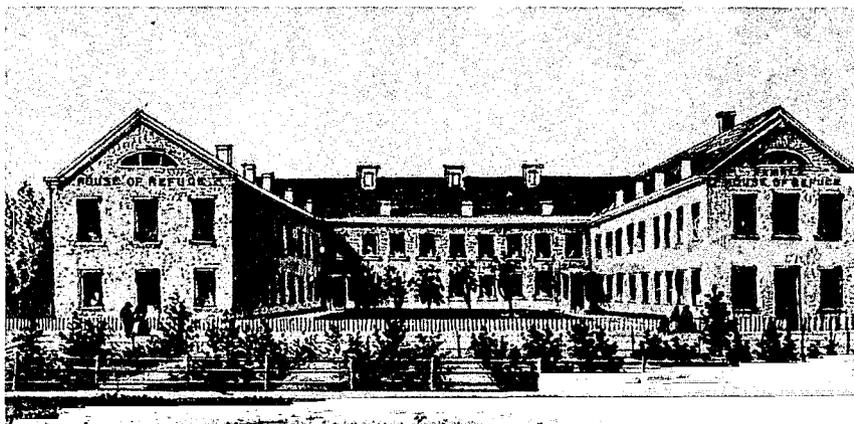
A 1748 English case typifies the thinking of that time. William York, a boy of 10, allegedly stabbed a little girl. She died and he buried her. At trial "there arose a fierce argument . . . Could a child of that age form a criminal intention? Did he know what he was doing? If so, did he realize it was wrong?" The boy was found guilty and sentenced to death, but the judge intervened. William served a nine-year prison term and was released when he agreed to join the navy.

More humane treatment attended the beginning of the 19th century. The Society for the Prevention of Pauperism of New York City was established in 1817. It was one of the first groups to call attention to "those unfortunate children from 10 to 18 years of age, who from neglect of parents, from idleness and misfortune have . . . contravened some penal statute without reflecting on the consequences, and for hasty violations, been doomed to the penitentiary by the condemnation of the law."

The House of Refuge opened its doors in 1825 in New York City. It was one of the earliest institutional facilities for children and was funded by private donations. It admitted two types of children—those convicted of a crime and sentenced to incarceration and those who were not convicted but were destitute or neglected and who were in imminent danger of becoming delinquent.

That was the first time that children and adults were jailed separately. Superintendent Joseph Curtis designed a system of rewards and deprivations. Discipline was imposed and infractions put to a trial by a jury composed of peers, and Curtis as the judge. Whipping, solitary confinement, re-

The New York House of Refuge. (1832)





The Philadelphia House of Refuge emblem. (Designed ca. 1830)

duction in food supply, and the silent treatment were not uncommon. Children were placed in irons for serious offenses.

The boys made goods to be sold. The girls did domestic work and all earnings were returned to the house for upkeep. Children could be apprenticed and released in the custody of masters. All inmates were subject to recall if further character building was deemed necessary.

The house was given the right to act as a parent for neglected or criminal children. Although parents objected, they usually were unsuccessful in gaining the release of their children. Houses of refuge also were established in Boston and Philadelphia. The Boston House of Reformation was State-supported. Corporal punishment was prohibited. In the privately funded Philadelphia House each child had its own small cell, lighted and ventilated and with a bed and a shelf.

Black children were not accepted at these houses initially, but in 1834 the New York house began making plans for the "coloured section" of its institution. Nathaniel C. Hart wrote of the necessity for facilities for blacks, describing the great increase in the number of poverty-stricken black children in the cities because of the Southern policy that forbade free blacks from continuing to "reside among them" in those States. New immigrants also were subject to discrimination. Those who arrived destitute might automatically be labeled criminals and their children incarcerated as a matter of course. In 1829, 58 percent of the refuge house inmates were from the immigrant population.

REFORM AND JUVENILE JUSTICE INSTITUTIONS

Many children remained in prisons. In 1827 the Boston Prison Discipline Society's Second Annual Report reported the following statistics:

	Total Prisoners	Under 21 Years	Proportion
Maine	116	22	1 to 5
New Hampshire	253	47	1 to 5
Vermont	534	75	1 to 7
Connecticut	117	39	1 to 3
Virginia (Richmond)	201	30	1 to 7

The report added that many of the children were under 12 years of age. During 1845, 97 children between the ages of six and 16 were sent to the House of Corrections in Massachusetts.

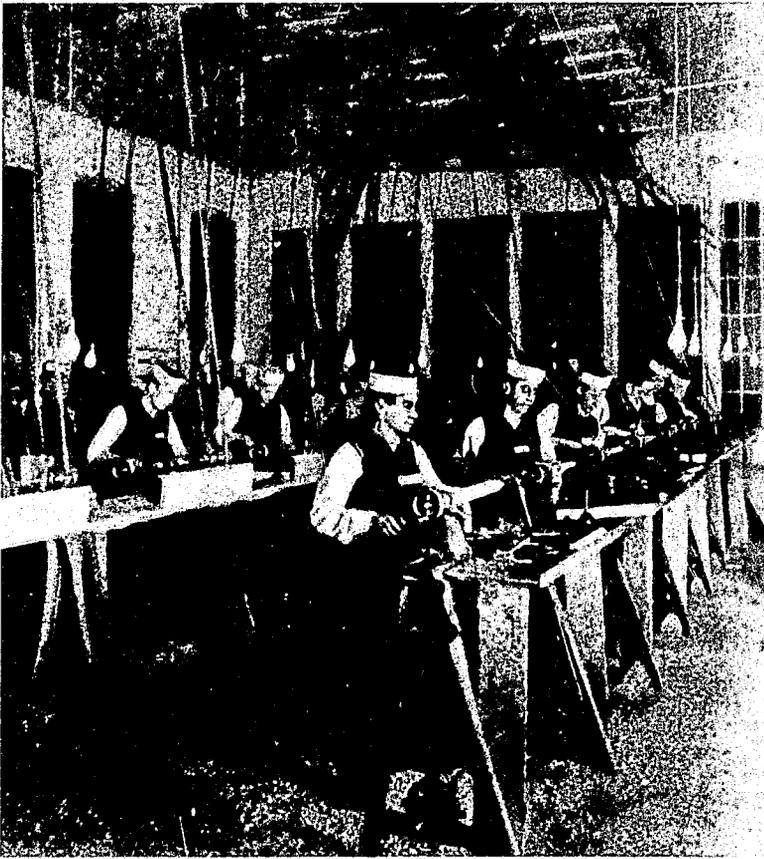
In 1847 Massachusetts opened the first State institution for the reform of juveniles. The Massachusetts State Reform School was patterned after the Houses of Refuge. It accepted any boy under the age of 16 years convicted of an offense who was thought to be capable of change. Pupils could be bound out as servants or apprentices after they had been there for one year.

Concern for female juvenile offenders also began to grow. It was thought that reform schools for girls should be different from those for boys. The girls not only needed to have a strong mothering environment, but they also needed to be taught high moral values so that they would become good mothers. The Massachusetts State Industrial School for Girls was opened in 1856. It was the first girls reformatory and the first to adopt the cottage plan, which departed from the traditional dormitory style of institutional living. It separated children into smaller housing groups, with lesser offenders separated from repeaters.

Other institutions developed similar plans. In Chicago the cottage or family plan also was adopted. The emphasis at the Chicago school was "on creating a family life for children." The Ohio Reform School, founded in 1857, embodied all of the positive ideas of reform during the period. It followed the cottage plan and was located in the country. Prevailing theory viewed cities as evil and a cause of many juvenile problems. Cities had temptations, such as theaters and bars, that were bound to catch the interest of a child and eventually lead him or her astray. The country, on the other hand, provided hard work, close families, and few corrupting influences. In 1853 the New York Children's Aid Society was founded, providing placement services in the country rather than institutionalization. Because it was believed that the child should grow up in the country within a family environment, many groups of children were sent West to



A 19th century political cartoon called: "An Infant Desperado". (Date unknown)



Boys turning wood at the Elmira Reformatory, Elmira, N.Y. (1894)

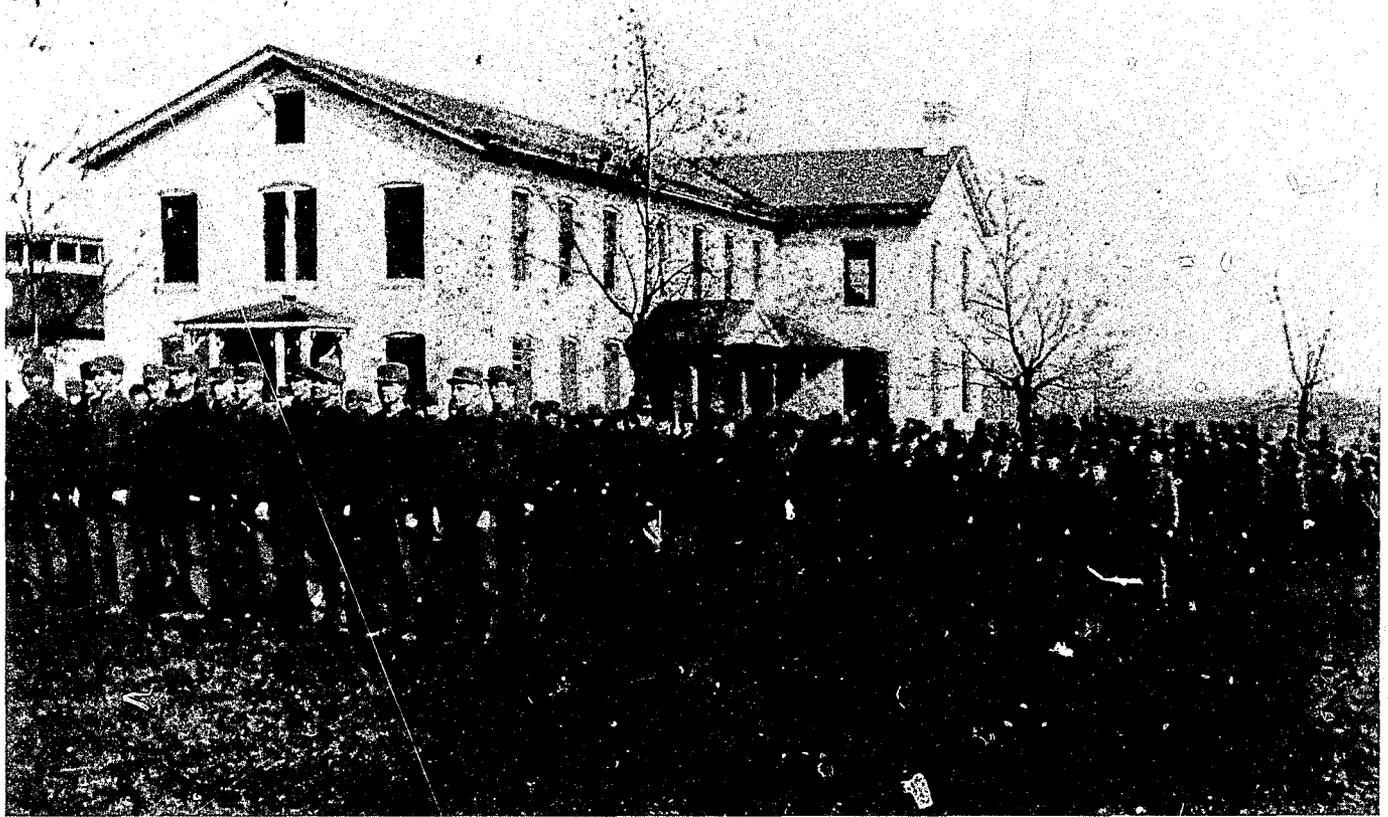
find new lives, until it became increasingly difficult to find placement homes for these children.

The beginning of the 1860's saw yet another kind of experiment—the ship schools. Over the years it had been suggested that young male juveniles would respond positively to military life. The ship schools were supposed to provide the necessary regimentation as well as training for the merchant marine. Boys were accepted until the age of 16. On board ship they were separated into rotating work and study groups. Those on work duty spent their time in “domestic employments; in repairing sails and rigging; in going through sheet and halyard, brace and clewline, and the technical language of sailors; in short, in becoming practical seamen.” These schools died a quick death, because of disciplinary problems, heavy operating expenses, and the economic depressions that put adult seamen out of work.

The last of the new types of reformatories was the New York Catholic Protectory, founded in 1863. It was the largest institution of its kind at the time. An emphasis was placed on educating the children, and “benefiting the community by furnishing well-tutored and reliable youths to mechanical, agricultural, and general commercial pursuits.”

Discrimination against blacks, Mexican Americans and other Spanish-speaking peoples, Indians, and some poor whites remained a problem in all types of reformatories and institutions across the country from their inception until the 1960's. Sexual abuse and physical attack by peers (and sometimes staff) also remained a problem, and the juvenile justice reform leaders of the 1970's are still struggling to devise means to end these evils.

The 1870's and 80's brought a new wave of social interest in society's young criminals. The child-saving movement began. The child-savers were mostly women, well educated, politically oriented, with genteel backgrounds. By 1895 the Chicago Women's Club, one of the leaders in the child-saving movement, had a bill drafted providing for the formation of a separate court for juveniles. The bill failed, but it had aroused public interest. Illinois enacted



An unidentified reform school. (Ca. 1900)

a subsequent bill, entitled "an act to regulate the treatment and control of dependent, neglected, and delinquent children," in 1899, making the State the first to establish a separate Juvenile Court System. The City of Denver and the State of Rhode Island also passed juvenile court legislation that same year. The purpose of the juvenile court was to provide a more informal private atmosphere in which the judge could operate in a surrogate parental role—thus lessening for the child the trauma of courtroom proceedings.

FEDERAL AND STATE EFFORTS IN THE 20TH CENTURY

The first Federal effort to improve child welfare and delinquency prevention was the establishment of the Children's Bureau in 1912. This was a period during which children worked under inhumane conditions in mills and factories throughout the North, South, and Midwest. Children of all races labored in sweatshops for mere pennies a day. Those conditions also prompted the passage in 1916 of the first Federal child labor law, which reinforced the in-

Judge Benjamin Barr Lindsey (1869-1943) conferring with juveniles in his chambers. Judge Lindsey was a leader in the creation of the juvenile court in Denver at the end of the 19th century. (Ca. 1910)





Delinquent boys from the New York City slums at a reform farm. This farm was a project of Jacob Riis, the New York journalist-social reformer. (Ca. 1910)

creasingly protective social attitudes toward children.

From 1920 to 1940 some States and major cities constructed reformatories and other institutions for the confinement of juveniles. Although most of the institutions were built for custody and punishment, the best of them provided programs for recreation, educational programs, and followup family case work during incarceration and upon release. Gradually, professional counseling, education courses, psychological testing, employment, and foster family placement efforts were added to the juvenile treatment processes.

The desperate economic conditions of the Great Depression brought the first nationwide diversion program for youth. The Civilian Conservation Corps was begun in 1933 as an alternative to unemployment and rootlessness for males between the ages of 17 and 23.

Subsequent programs created to deal with the special problems of youth included the National Youth Administration during the Depression, the Congressional Interdepartmental Committee on Children

and Youth in 1948, and the Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth in 1950.

The 1950's brought new approaches to aiding troubled juveniles. The teachings of John Dewey, Karen Horney, Carl Rogers, and Erich Fromm, among others, gained prominence. There was a greater acceptance in criminal justice work of professionals from the psychological disciplines. Several outstanding local programs were created to deal with the psychological roots of juvenile problems. Among these was the utilization of the guided group interaction therapy approach which was instituted at Highfields in New Jersey in 1950. It was a treatment approach copied across the country during the next two decades.

In 1950 the Federal Youth Correction Act established a Youth Correction Authority, as a State government unit, to improve techniques for the treatment and rehabilitation of youthful offenders. The U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare was established in 1953, and included a Children's Bureau. A division of Juvenile Delinquency was established within that Bureau in 1954.

During the 1960's pioneering youth programs surfaced in quantity. Front runners were Mobilization for Youth, started in 1962 in New York City, and the HARYOU-ACT, a Harlem youth involvement program begun in 1964. The VISTA (Volunteers in Service to America) program grew out of the Peace Corps concept. The Neighborhood Youth Corps, the Job Corps, Upward Bound, and various other programs were begun under the impetus of the War on Poverty. Youths were trained and paid as nonprofessional aides, community organizers, and community agency workers. Another approach involved peer counselors and workers on loan from schools and recreation centers to work with youth gangs. Storefront centers came into existence. The employment of more minority youth and those with specific language skills useful in dealing with social service clients were another innovation of the period.

During the past 75 years Federal and State agencies and interested private citizens have stimulated innovations for the

Group Home for Boys in Portland, Maine. (1975)





Rehabilitation counseling for delinquents in Kalamazoo, Mich. (1975)

improvement of the corrections system for juvenile offenders. During most of the same period, however, little was known to the public about the workings of the juvenile court system. The activities of the juvenile courts remained closed—beyond public scrutiny and thus unchallenged and uncriticized.

Beginning in 1966, four landmark Supreme Court cases helped to define juvenile rights. They were *Kent v. United States*, 383 U.S. 541, (1966); *In re Gault*, 387 U.S. 1, (1967); *In re Winship*, 397 U.S. 358, (1970); *McKeiver v. Pennsylvania*, 403 U.S. 528, (1971); and *Breed v. Jones*, ___ U.S. ___, 95 S. Ct. 1779 (1975). These cases and others gave juveniles the right to proper hearings, the right to counsel, the right to confront the accuser, the right to cross-examine witnesses, and the right to

protection against double jeopardy. The one right denied was the right to a jury trial. These rulings ushered in a new era for juvenile justice.

Innovations in juvenile justice continue during the 1970's. In 1972 the State of Massachusetts Youth Services Department closed its juvenile reformatories and placed the children in community-based work and education programs. Other States are considering following suit.

But juvenile justice problems remain despite reform efforts. A major drawback in dealing with the juvenile problem is an overall lack of coordination and consistency in the approach to solutions. Research in evaluating the efforts also has been sorely lacking.

In the meantime, juvenile crime has continued to be a serious national problem. Between 1960 and 1973 the arrests of juveniles for acts of violence and other crimes increased by 144 percent. Studies showed that persons 18 years of age or younger accounted for 45 percent of the arrests for serious crime and 23 percent of arrests for violent crime. Burglaries and auto thefts were found to be committed overwhelmingly by youths. The peak age for arrests for violent crime was found to be 18 years, followed by 17, 16, and 19 years. The peak age for arrest for major property crimes was found to be 16 years, followed by 15 and 17 years.

At the same time, many juveniles were incarcerated for so-called status offenses, which are acts that would not be considered criminal if committed by an adult. These offenses include running away from home, truancy, promiscuity, curfew violation, and incorrigibility. In some States juveniles continued to be incarcerated with adult offenders. And there is no general agreement among the States on the definition of what constitutes juvenile delinquency or even on what age constitutes majority.

These conditions prompted the 1974 Congressional hearings on the subject. Findings from those inquiries called attention to understaffed and overcrowded facilities, inadequate protective facilities, and a lack of technical assistance for States and cities.

The Congress pinpointed two separate but related needs—the need to protect society from juvenile crime and the need to provide the most effective management and care for juveniles in trouble. In response, the Congress enacted the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974.

OFFICE OF JUVENILE JUSTICE AND DELINQUENCY PREVENTION

A new dimension was added to the LEAA program with the enactment of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (Public Law 93-415). Although LEAA has always funded delinquency prevention projects, the Act expanded this role and gave LEAA the responsibility for coordinating the overall Federal delinquency prevention effort.

The Act created the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention and, within that Office, the National Institute for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. The provisions of the Act are similar in many respects to the already existing LEAA program. The Act calls for:

- Formula grants to the States, according to each State's relative population of persons under 18 years of age.
- Special emphasis funds for LEAA discretionary use. LEAA retains from one-quarter to one-half of the action funds for demonstration projects.
- Creation of an institute for research demonstration and evaluation, information, training, and developments of standards for the administration of juvenile justice.
- Technical assistance to Federal, State, and local governments, agencies, or organizations.

PRIORITY AREAS

The Office has developed four Special Emphasis funding programs to address priorities established by the Act:

- Develop community-based alternatives to traditional forms of institutionalization.
- The diversion of offenders from the juvenile justice system.
- The reduction of serious crime committed by juveniles.
- The prevention of delinquency.

Program and research staff members

worked together during the year to develop fully integrated programs based on research and coordinated with evaluation and technical assistance efforts. By the close of the fiscal year, the Office had solicited grant applications for the removal of status offenders from secure detention and correction facilities. Planning was underway for Diversion, the second major program. The Office anticipates that it will solicit applications for the second area shortly after the beginning of calendar year 1976. Applications for the third and fourth areas will be solicited in the spring and summer of 1976.

STATUS OFFENDER INITIATIVE

The first major initiative assessed the necessity to insure that status offenders—juveniles who commit acts that would not be criminal if committed by adults—are kept out of adult correctional facilities and placed in community-based programs.

The Office received more than 450 pre-applications for funding under the initiative. By December 13, grants were awarded for a total of nearly \$12 million. The Institute made a separate group of awards to evaluate the programs. One grantee was chosen to coordinate these evaluations.

Youths involved in a recreational program at the Portland, Maine, Police Department's new East End Recreation Center. (1975)



OVERVIEW OF PROGRAM EFFORTS

Earlier LEAA efforts were devoted to juvenile crime prevention and diversion. The Agency supported experimental education programs, training programs for the parents of delinquents, employment opportunities for youth, drug information and education programs, police-juvenile relations units, police-juvenile recreation programs, and pretrial diversion projects.

The new legislation provides for a unified national program to deal with juvenile delinquency prevention and control within the criminal justice system. This is the first time that such a unified approach has been taken. The Act calls for a nationwide program of leadership and coordination in the field of juvenile justice and research to provide new solutions to the dilemmas posed by juvenile crime.

Diversion and innovation are two concepts in the program. Data from recent



studies indicates that the greatest progress is noted when the juvenile has minimum contact with the juvenile justice system—or avoids it altogether. As a step in this direction, to receive Juvenile Justice Act formula grant funds, the States are now required to develop and utilize alternative shelter facilities, programs, and services. Special diversion programs are under way in youth service centers across the country and in drug education projects connected with public schools.

Innovative projects include the utilization of probation officers, volunteers with youth, peer counseling both inside and outside school, and new methods of reaching parents. Research and evaluation are built-in parts of these diversionary and innovative programs. As one example, a study of more than 3,000 juveniles in Illinois is underway to provide insight into delinquent behavior and its distribution.

Under the new legislation the LEAA program places more emphasis on research and evaluation, especially as it concerns action programs. The National Institute of Juvenile Justice is being aided in its research effort by studies undertaken through various other organizations and agencies. The National Evaluation Program

Youths in a counseling session at the YWCA Capitol Hill Tower in Washington, D.C. The program provides residential facilities, counseling, legal, medical, tutorial, and employment services for adjudicated female delinquents. (1975)

of the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice will collect data and perform studies about juvenile criminality to be monitored by the Juvenile Justice Institute. A project on National Assessment of Juvenile Corrections at the University of Michigan is providing comprehensive national information on juvenile corrections conditions and program effectiveness. Research on status offender projects and needs is being provided by the Social Science Research Institute of the University of Southern California, in cooperation with Portland State University in Oregon. The National Center for Juvenile Justice of the National Council of Juvenile Court Judges will establish and maintain a panel of consultants, who will be responsible for serving as a type of early warning system on trends in juvenile justice. The U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare will conduct an initial statistical survey of runaway youth as part of its responsibility to administer programs under Title III of the Juvenile Justice Act. The American Institutes for Research will assess the total Federal program to provide maximum utility and efficiency.

Several LEAA-funded programs on the regional and local levels illustrate the interplay between diversion, innovation, and research. For example, the Juvenile Justice Project of Washington, D.C., provides a group living home for young women aged 12 to 17 1/2. Referrals come from community agencies and the courts. The program is family centered, and the use of family counseling is geared to help residents return to their home environments. Peer counseling, intensive group counseling, and individual counseling are also used. Each resident's school performance and career preparation are followed up as well as her progress in social living in the outside world. The group living home is a part of an inner city community. Because many neighborhood residents already know the girls, there has been no community opposition to the facility. The philosophy of the Juvenile Justice Project is that facilities should exist in areas similar to those in which the residents live and to which they will return, that meetings should be held with community leaders to gain their sup-

port, and that the facility should cooperate with community aims. The Juvenile Justice Project has been able to avoid the friction that sometimes occurs when a group home, halfway house, or other shelter opens in a community. A research component is an ongoing part of this project.

Among other innovative and promising youth projects are Huckleberry House in San Francisco; Project REACT in Richmond, Virginia; the Reentry Program of Eugene, Oregon; youth programs of Model Cities (now named Community Planning and Development) in Honolulu, Hawaii, and in Texarkana, Texas; Camelback Girl's Residence Day School Project in Phoenix, Arizona; the course in "Administration of Justice" at Juneau-Douglas High School, Juneau, Alaska; the 601 Diversion Project of Santa Clara County, California; the "Sanctuary" program of the Youth and Recreation Commission of Guam; the Bridge for Runaway Youth in Minneapolis, Minnesota; the Boys Club of Taos Valley, New Mexico; and the county counselor program of Nelson County, North Dakota.

OTHER ACTION PROJECTS

Other action projects funded through discretionary funds include a project in Illinois that uses peer groups to help students resolve their problems and ease young offenders back into the school community, a grant to Pennsylvania to remove children from its adult facility at Camp Hill and replace it with a variety of community-based programs, a project that serves female juvenile offenders in Massachusetts, and support for a youth resources center in Philadelphia.

OTHER RESEARCH AND EVALUATION

The Institute's research and evaluation program plans and activities include the development of assessment centers around the country that will keep up to date on new developments in delinquency and juvenile justice, an evaluation of the community-based programs that have developed in Massachusetts since that State closed its training schools in 1972, a multiyear project that is assessing the state of juvenile corrections across the country, a study of youth gang violence in the 12 largest



The Bridge for Runaway Youth in Minneapolis, Minn. It provides emergency shelter care, counseling and referral services for runaways. (1975)



Juveniles involved in a photography workshop project of the Ponce Youth Services in Puerto Rico. The photographs are by two of the students. (1975)

American cities, and an analysis of programs that attempt to reduce violence in the schools.

STANDARDS

The Institute is reviewing existing reports, data, and standards concerning the juvenile justice system and is developing standards for the administration of juvenile justice at the Federal, State, and local levels. This is being coordinated with two other ongoing standards development projects—the Juvenile Justice Standards Project, conducted by the American Bar Association and the Institute of Judicial Administration in New York, and the LEAA-funded Standards and Goals Task Force.

STATE FORMULA GRANTS

Formula grants to the States are based on the number of persons in each State under 18 years old. To have received these funds from the initial appropriation a State must have submitted a Plan Supplement Document amending their fiscal year 1975 LEAA Comprehensive State Plan. LEAA required that the Plan include assurances that the State would meet the Act's requirements. Plans had to be submitted by August 1, 1975. Forty-six States and Territories submitted plans, and \$10.6 million was awarded to them for the fiscal year 1975 formula grant effort.

CONCENTRATION OF FEDERAL EFFORTS

Recognizing that there were more than 100 Federal juvenile justice and delinquency prevention programs in existence but no central policy authority, the Congress made the concentration and coordination of Federal delinquency control and prevention efforts a specific mandate of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act. The Act created a Coordinating Council on Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, composed of representatives of Federal agencies with delinquency responsibilities, and a National Advisory Committee for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, whose 21 members are appointed by the President. At least seven of the the Advisory Com-

mittee members must be under 26 years old at the time of appointment.

The Coordinating Council, under the chairmanship of the Attorney General, met twice during fiscal year 1975 to identify critical areas for future focus and to gather information about the Federal delinquency prevention role.

Members of the National Advisory Committee were appointed by the President on March 19, 1975. The Committee met twice during the fiscal year. It has three subcommittees: one to advise the LEAA Administrator on standards for the administration of juvenile justice, one to advise the Director of the Institute on its activities, and one to work with the Coordinating Council. Each of the subcommittees also met during the fiscal year.

OPERATIONS AND FUNDING

During much of the fiscal year, preparations for implementation of the new Act were made by a Task Group composed of existing LEAA program and research staff members. The Task Group administered a budget of approximately \$20 million in Crime Control Act funds.

On June 12, 1975, the President signed Public Law 94-32, which provided \$25 million in supplementary funds to LEAA to implement the Act. The appropriation had two parts:

- \$15 million in new money required under the Appropriations Act to be obligated by August 31, 1975. These funds were subject to all the statutory provisions of the Act.
- \$10 million in reprogramed LEAA funds to be used only for administrative purposes, State planning costs, and special emphasis prevention and treatment programs. This money had to be obligated by December 31, 1975.

On June 25, 1975, LEAA Administrator Richard W. Velde formally created the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. On September 23, 1975, the President nominated Milton Luger of New York as Assistant Administrator to direct the program. He was confirmed by the Senate on November 4, 1975 and was sworn in by Attorney General Edward H. Levi on November 21, 1975.



Technology and the Criminal Justice System



The first fixed-to-mobile voice transmission by the St. Louis Police Department. Officers inside the Packard sedan use a buzzer telephone mounted on a table hung from the robe rail (behind the front seat). The seven-wire, ship-type aerial hangs overhead. (1921)

The technological tools used in America's criminal justice system in 1776 were virtually identical to those of medieval England—the sole exception after the 15th century being the sheriff's or constable's musket. The major means of transportation was the horse. In the larger towns night watchmen on patrol rapped on the cobblestones with their long sticks or blew wooden whistles that hung around their necks to call attention to wrongdoers. Smaller communities had haphazard policing. Citizens, that is, property owners, were expected to deal with crime when and where they observed it.

Judges sat in makeshift courtrooms. If the case were important enough or the court fairly regular in its sessions, a clerk wrote down a summary of the proceedings in longhand with a quill pen. There might be a copy of Blackstone's Commentaries on hand for reference. "Gaolers" carried huge iron keys. To subdue unruly prisoners they had sturdy clubs, usually hickory or oak, and wooden handcuffs. The most important tools in corrections were the whip and the gallows.

The record of court sentences in Boston on a day in 1776 is illuminating: "One burglar to be hung; five female thieves to be whipped; four male thieves whipped; two big thieves to sit on the gallows; one counterfeiter to stand in the pillory and have right ear cut off. . . ." Rehabilitation was to be achieved through pain, whether in this world or the next.

TECHNOLOGY AS TOOL AND AS CONCEPT

Technology is the application of tools and skills. Most commonly it is thought of in terms of employing a specific piece of equipment or gadget—something material that can be touched. But, as French sociologist Jacques Ellul has demonstrated, technology includes another kind of tool, less tangible but just as important in everyday life—the rational method or systematic

organizing concept, such as the assembly line. The distinction is a vital one to the technological history of the American criminal justice system. Throughout American history the police, for instance, have adapted comparatively swiftly the newest technological developments in things, but slowly to new concepts or systems.

Communications equipment is one example. In 1867 the first telegraph police callboxes were installed. Subsequently, the Gamewell Company invented a box with more than a single signal and it was promptly put to use in several cities. Routine police reporting was done by a turn of the key, and the box's location and number were automatically registered on tape at headquarters. Other calls, such as for a wagon or for emergency assistance, were registered by opening a little door, turning a pointer, and pulling a lever. In some cities, responsible citizens were given keys to use to call in an emergency.

Alexander Graham Bell invented the telephone in 1876. Washington, D.C., installed its first telephone in a police station in 1878, and by 1880 Chicago had installed them in boxes on policemen's beats. The Cincinnati Police Department was the first to replace the telegraph with the telephone.

A much heralded 1889 crime is often cited to show the impact of communications on law enforcement. Walter Koeller was sick in bed in a Chicago boarding house. It was late afternoon. Two men, one with a suitcase, robbed him and stabbed him to death. The landlady went for a policeman who, finding the men gone, telephoned the landlady's description of the culprits to headquarters. The alert was sent to every precinct when its hourly report was called in to headquarters. Within a few hours, as every policeman checked in, all had the descriptions. By 11 p.m. that same night the two men were apprehended, and a few hours later they confessed.

The teletypewriter evolved during World War I from printing telegrams. It became a police workhorse during the 1920's. Telephotography dates from the early 1900's. In 1911 a criminal was captured in Pittsburgh after his photo had been transmitted by facsimile from New York City.



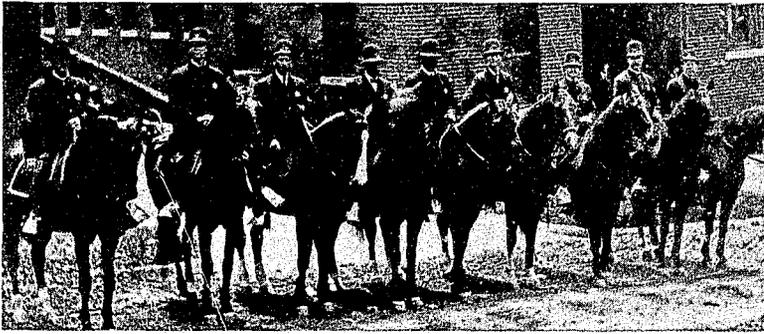
Berkeley, Calif., police officer uses a call box to contact the police station. (1921)



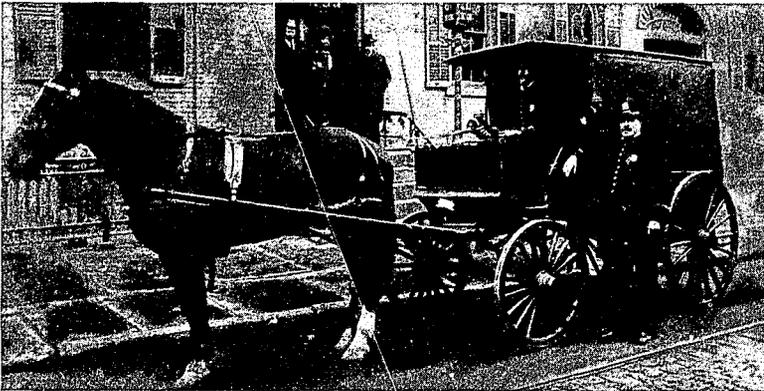
The first radio communications center in the Los Angeles Police Department. Station KGPL, established in May 1931, transmitted to 44 automobile receivers. (Ca. 1931)



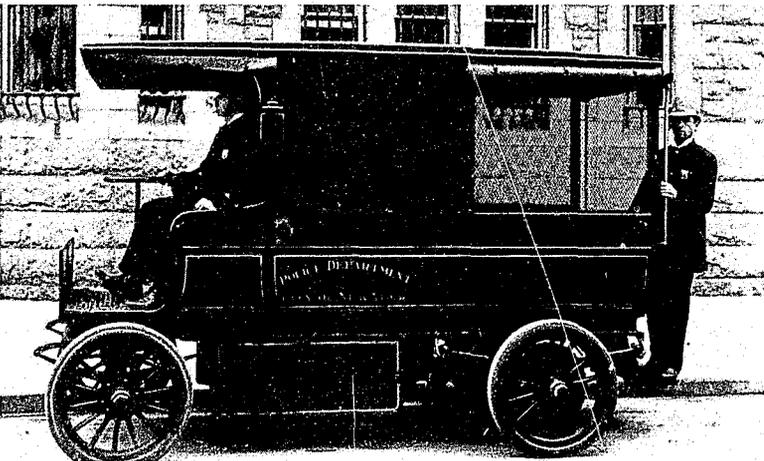
Modern police patrol radio communications in Kansas City, Mo. (1975)



Kansas City, Mo., police officers. (Ca. 1890)



New York City Police Department wagon. (1901)



A New York City Police Department motorized wagon. (1908)

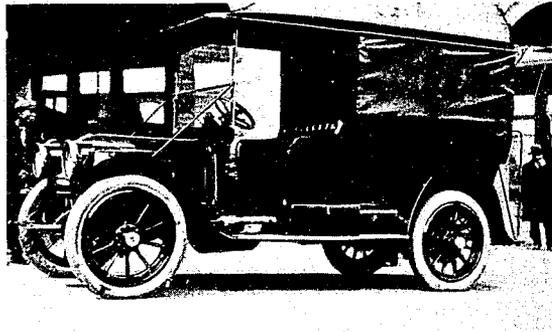
In 1926 Berkeley, California, went on the air with the first police owned and operated radio system. Moving cars caused a reception problem, however. One emergency broadcast was not received by any police cars but was heard clearly in the Panama Canal Zone, 2,000 miles away. Commercial manufacturers worked out these technical problems by 1930. In 1935 Kansas City, Missouri, installed two-way radios in its police cars.

Law enforcement agencies also adapted to changes in transportation technology. In 1897 the Detroit Police Department added bicycle patrolmen. Called the "scorcher cops," they were responsible for apprehending other speeding cyclists. Police also were early users of the motorcycle, especially the Excelsior Autocycle on which the rider pedaled hard to get moving, when a belt drive took over. The Fitchburg, Massachusetts, Police Department organized a motorcycle detail in 1913. The world's first police car was a Model T Ford used in Akron, Ohio, in 1910. By 1912 motorized patrol wagons were being used in Cincinnati and elsewhere.

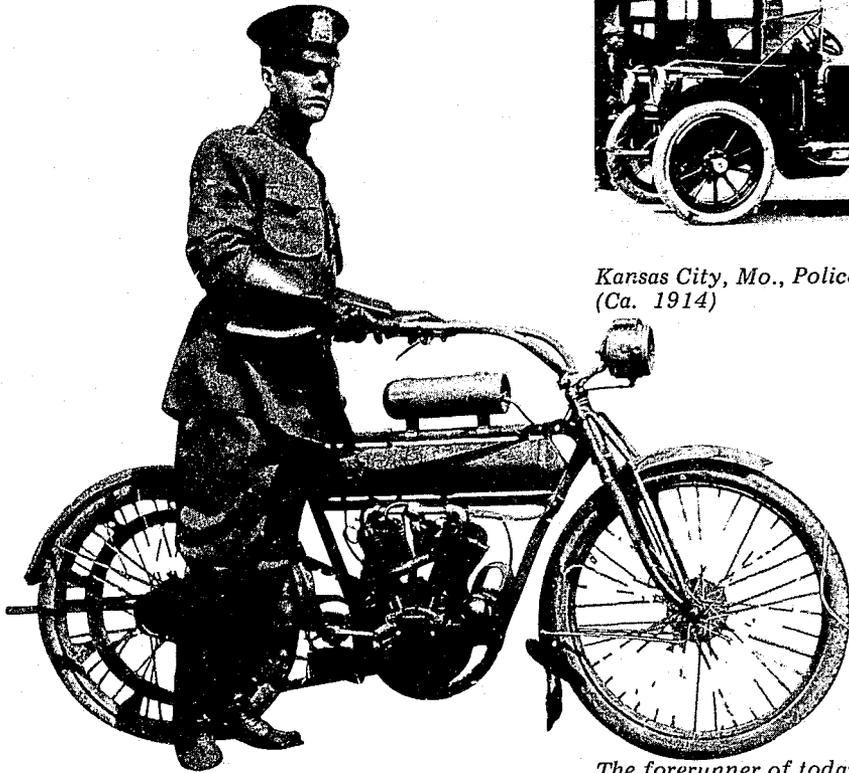
During Prohibition the police were second only to gangsters in the alacrity with which they acquired automobiles. It was during this period that Detroit operated the first police armored car. Looking like a triangular dragon, it went forth in search of bootleggers and publicity. In 1929 New York City police obtained five airplanes, purchased with private donations.

The combination of advanced electronic communications equipment and new methods of transportation represented one of the most significant changes in policing in the past 200 years.

In weaponry law enforcement officials relied upon nightsticks and muskets well into the 19th century. In 1830 James D. Colt whittled a wooden model of his six-shooter while on a sea voyage. Returning home, he started production, but he could find willing buyers only among the Texas Rangers. His factory went bankrupt in 1842 and production was halted. But in 1845, during the war with Mexico, the Texas Rangers refused to fight without six-shooters. Colt went back into production, and law enforcers of the West used



*Kansas City, Mo., Police Department wagon.
(Ca. 1914)*



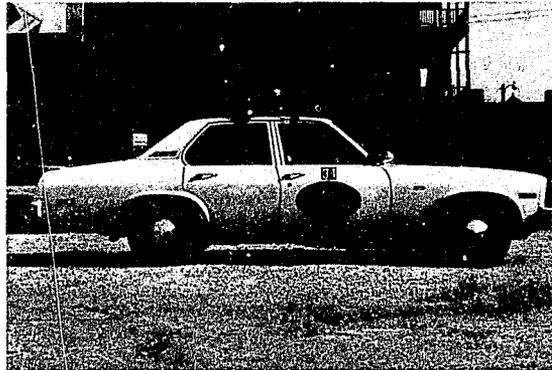
*The forerunner of today's police motorcycle used
by the Kansas City, Mo., Police Department. (Ca.
1915)*



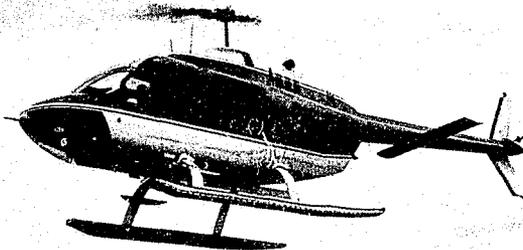
St. Louis Police Department wagon. (Ca. 1930)



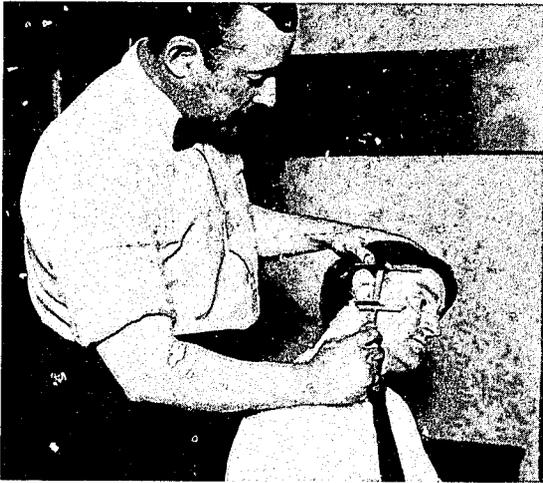
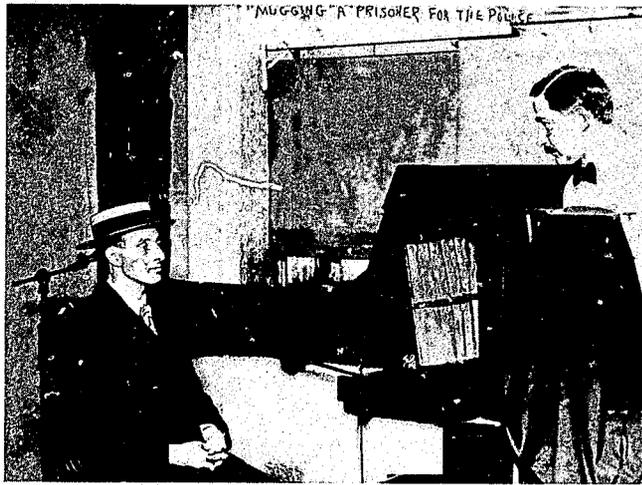
New York City Police Department aircraft. (1949)



*Modern St. Louis Police Department patrol car.
(1976)*



*New York City Police Department helicopter.
(1975)*



The Bertillion System. Developed in Paris by Alphonse Bertillion in 1883, it was the first system of criminal classification and identification. Although the system was used as late as 1903, fingerprinting replaced it as a more accurate method. (1909)

six-shooters into the first decade of the new century. Then they, too, began to change over to the smaller but potent .38-caliber Smith and Wesson, which already had become the basic weapon of policemen in most other parts of the country.

Techniques developed in the laboratory sciences began to be applied to crime investigation at about the turn of the century. The idea of tracing and identifying an individual typewriter by peculiarities of type first appeared in Arthur Conan Doyle's 1891 story, "A Case of Identity." Three years later such a process was invented to help authenticate documents. In 1910 Albert Gross developed a whole system of authenticating questioned documents. The Henry system of classifying fingerprints was adopted by Scotland Yard in 1901 and became standard by the next decade in major American police departments. The first modern polygraph was constructed in 1921 by John A. Larson, a medical student at the University of California, working with a member of the Berkeley Police Department.

EARLY POLICE MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS

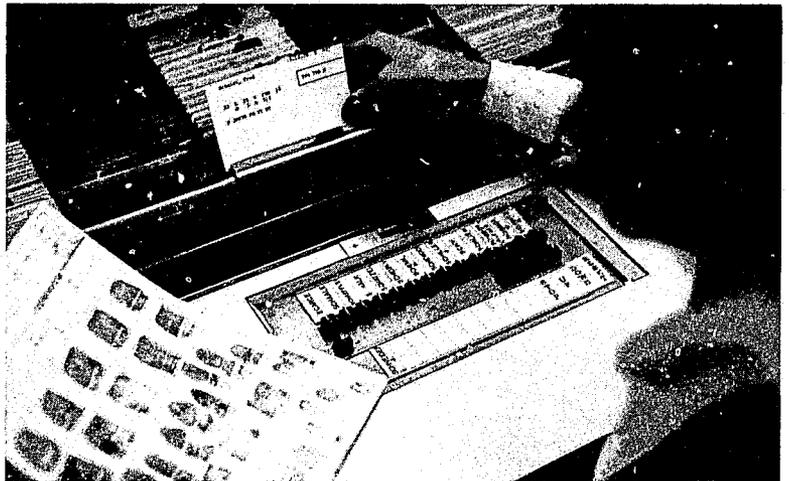
Police management and accountability systems lagged far behind advances in hardware. Data collection in the criminal justice system could be said to have begun in 1832 at the Massachusetts State Prison, where the chaplain issued a published report containing statistics on the prisoners, their families, background and health. In 1850 the Texas Rangers issued a list of 3,000 individuals to be hunted down. In 1884 Chicago established the nation's first criminal identification bureau. But it was not until the 1920's that systematic recordkeeping became the rule rather than the exception in local, State, or Federal law enforcement.

In 1912 the Cleveland Bar Association, disturbed by the rapidly rising crime rate, requested that the privately funded Cleveland Foundation conduct a massive study of the city's criminal justice system. The findings were particularly critical of the police:

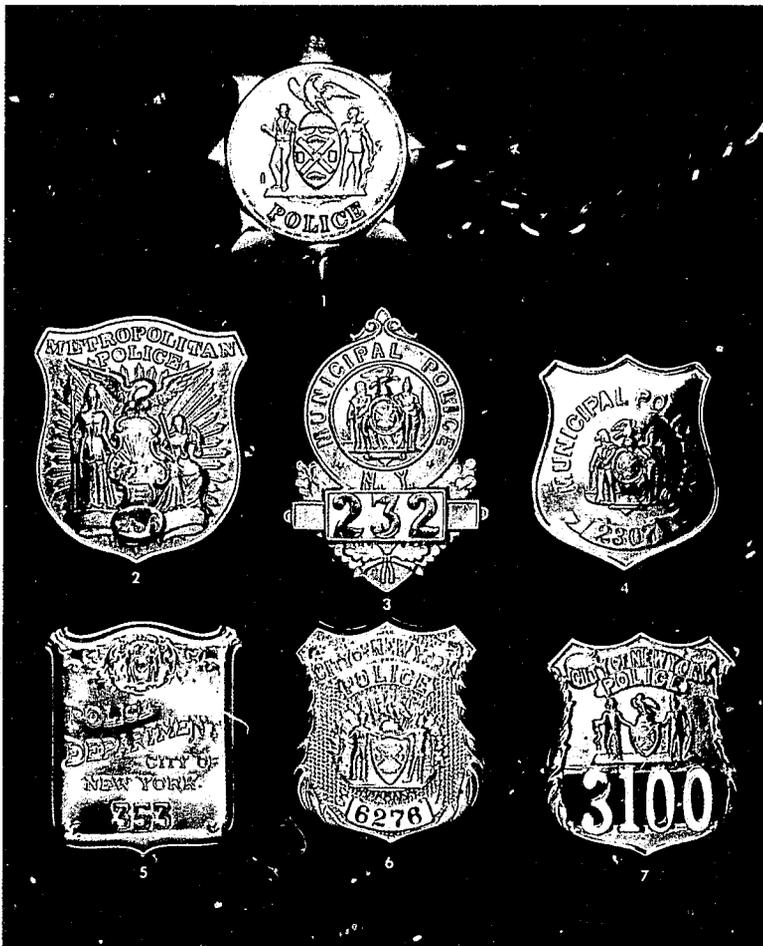
Police machinery in the United States has not kept pace with modern demands. It has



Fingerprint coding and classification at the Homer Garrison, Jr., Memorial Training Academy in Texas.



The comparison of a current fingerprint card with a coded index card of fingerprints on file with the FBI in Washington, D.C.



Shields of the New York City Police Department: 1845-1975. 1. The copper star (1845-57)—first badge of the City's police and the only form of official identification until uniforms became compulsory in 1854. 2. The white metal shield of the "Metropolitan Police" (1857-70)—used during the years when New York City policing was under State control. 3. The copper-numbered, white metal "Municipal Police" badge (1870-72). 4. The white metal shield of the "Municipal Police" (1872-89). 5. The shield of the "Police Department of New York City"—adopted at the time of the department's restructuring (1889-98). 6. The first shield after the consolidation of the City's five boroughs (1898-1902). 7. The present nickel silver shield—adopted in 1902.

developed no effective techniques to master the burden which modern social and industrial conditions impose. Clinging to old traditions, bound to old practices which business and industry long ago discarded, employing a personnel poorly adapted to its purpose, it grinds away on its perfunctory task without self criticism, without imagination, and with very little initiative.

In 1844 New York City became the first American city to adopt a unified police structure patterned after Peel's London "bobbies." The next year eight-pointed copper stars were issued to policemen for identification. But in 1853 a noted journalist wrote of the New York police: "If you want one suddenly by night or day, where will you look for one?.. look at their style of dress, some with hats, some with caps, some with coats like Joseph's of old, parti-colored. If they mustered together, they would look like Falstaff's Regiment." Police uniforms were not worn regularly until the Civil War.

August Vollmer, Berkeley's chief of police, established the first training school for police. In 1929 the University of Chicago added a police training course to its regular curriculum. That marked the initiation of policework in regular undergraduate study. In 1936 Vollmer's landmark text, *The Police and Modern Society*, was published. It emphasized sound management principles in police administration. After World War II the police increasingly emulated management and accounting techniques of business and the military.

TECHNOLOGY IN THE COURTS

The impact of technology on the courts in this nation has been twofold. In regard to courtroom operations, few changes took place until the past three or four years; since then, major change has occurred in the manner in which the most advanced court systems operate. Those changes arise from the implementation of data processing and computerized information systems and videotape.

Technology also has had an effect on the law of evidence. American judges have been faced with complex technical factual situations that also involve difficult constitutional issues. Under what circumstances, for example, should the results of labora-

tory analysis be admitted as evidence at a criminal trial? What are the implications of using videotape as evidence or as a record of trial? What issues are involved in the submission of evidence based on electronic surveillance or wiretapping equipment? How reliable is the polygraph as a means of verifying testimony?

Technology, in effect, has been thrust upon the courts, and they have dealt with it cautiously. American courts appointed medical experts to examine defendants as early as the 1880's. But a New York dictum in 1884 stated: "It's generally safer to take judgements of unskilled jurors than opinions of hired and generally biased experts."

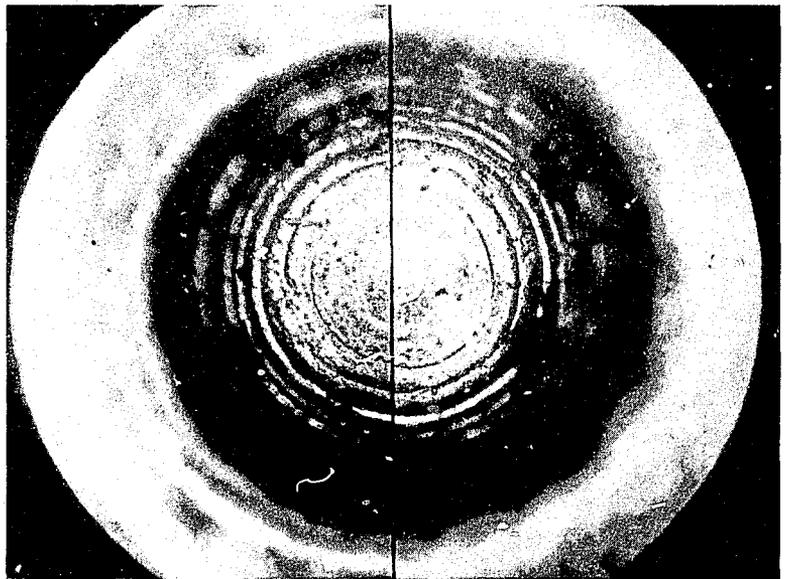
The courts have struggled to determine the scientific validity of various technical procedures. Fingerprints were ruled admissible in 1910, some nine years after their general acceptance by police. It was 1930 before ballistic findings of bullet identification were ruled admissible.

The Supreme Court has upheld the constitutionality of Federal legislation that authorizes court-approved wiretapping in criminal cases, but there remain unexplored areas of the law regarding wiretapping and the electronic surveillance of suspects. The law also is still developing regarding police efforts to obtain physical evidence from the suspect, whether in custody or not.

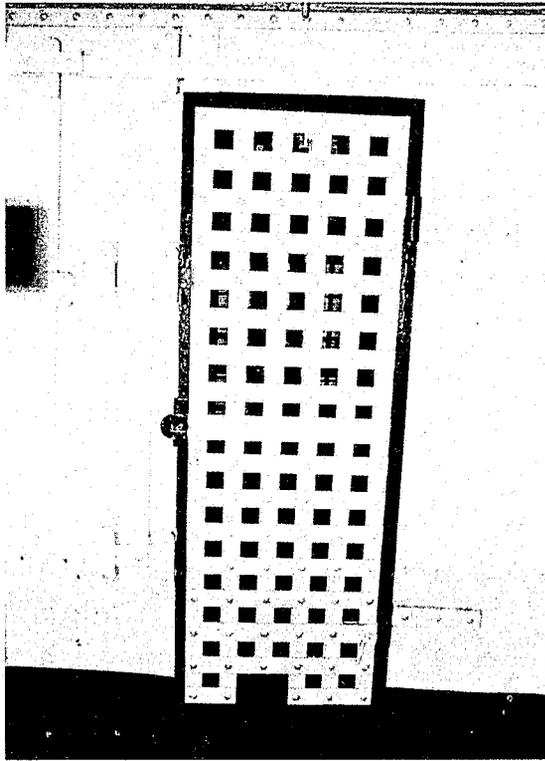
TECHNOLOGY IN CORRECTIONS

In corrections, technological developments in equipment have tended to lag somewhat behind those in law enforcement. Prison standards have varied even more widely than those of policing from region to region, thereby making generalizations precarious. Correctional institutions adopted systematic management and accounting procedures, although of a primitive nature, more readily than did the police. It may have been a matter of necessity, as capital and corporal punishment gave way to prison sentences. The advent of parole in the 1870's put an additional emphasis on the need for orderly data collection and classification.

Throughout American history different theories about criminal rehabilitation have been translated into the stone and mortar



Comparison of cartridges by means of photo-micrography.



An iron-grated cell door at Knox County Jail in Rockland, Maine, built in 1885. (1975 photo)

of prison architecture. The Quakers believed that the best way to encourage criminals to mend their ways was through silent contemplation—solitary confinement. They divided up the big common rooms, where prisoners of all ages and criminal records mingled, into individual cells. The coming of the Industrial Revolution saw the building of American prisons with massive but functional cell blocks, factory-like work areas, and high walls. In 1826 Sing Sing was built. Iron-grated cell doors were put flush with the corridors, allowing 2 1/2 more feet for the prisoner to pace. It was a highly acclaimed development, both for its more efficient use of space and as a humanitarian gesture. In recent times the greater emphasis on prisoner education and psychological treatment has been reflected in prison design—with clusters of smaller buildings.

CONTEMPORARY TECHNOLOGY

Since World War II there has been an explosion in technology, especially in electronics, medicine, optics, pharmacology, chemistry, and systems analysis. Historically, the criminal justice system has been reactive to technology. That is, it has not been the innovator but rather the borrower of technology developed in other fields. This trend continued in the 1950's and 1960's. It accelerated in the 1970's after Congress established LEAA and gave it the task of facilitating the transfer of technology to the criminal justice system from other disciplines.

A central goal for LEAA since its inception has been the application of technology to State and local criminal justice systems. To what extent has that adaptation been made? To what extent should States and municipalities avail themselves of the new technology? What potential benefits might accrue? What were the time factors and costs in adapting technology to the national effort against crime?

In 1968, when LEAA was established, the most casual observer could see that the adaptation of technology to the State and local criminal justice systems was, at best, mixed. Many large police departments were making use of certain new equipment and techniques. Many courts systems, however,

looked and operated the same way they had for half a century; only the personnel changed over the years. The same was true in the corrections. Furthermore, in 1968 there was little research being conducted in adapting technology to the criminal justice system. And there was no academic discipline or management function akin to what is now an important profession—the criminal justice planner.

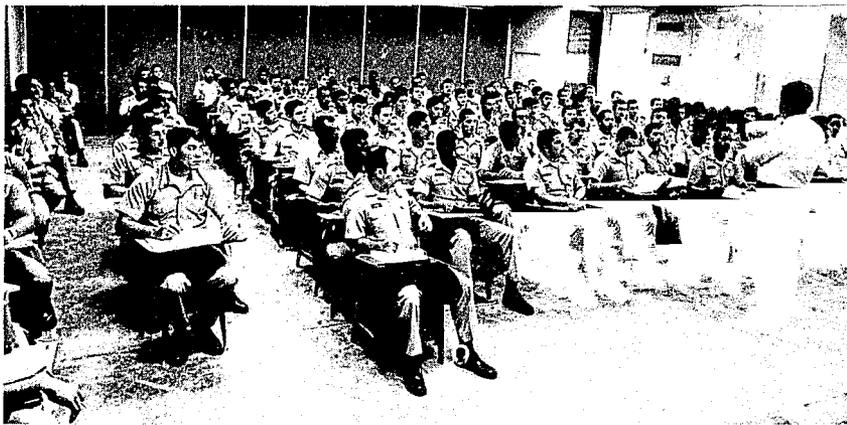
Most technological innovations first occur either in the military services during wartime or in the private sector—business or academia. These are the areas that possess the necessary wherewithal—funds, facilities, and people. But seen in this context, the criminal justice system cannot be portrayed as entirely technologically underprivileged or backward. Since World War II, it has fared as well as, or better than, other municipal services in its acquisition of new equipment. However, the tendency of the criminal justice agencies to acquire new hardware for integration into archaic methods and systems did continue until the late 1960's.

At the Third National Symposium on Law Enforcement and Technology in 1970 Charles E. Moylan, a Maryland State attorney, described the technological transformation undergone by metropolitan police departments as "a miracle." He added:

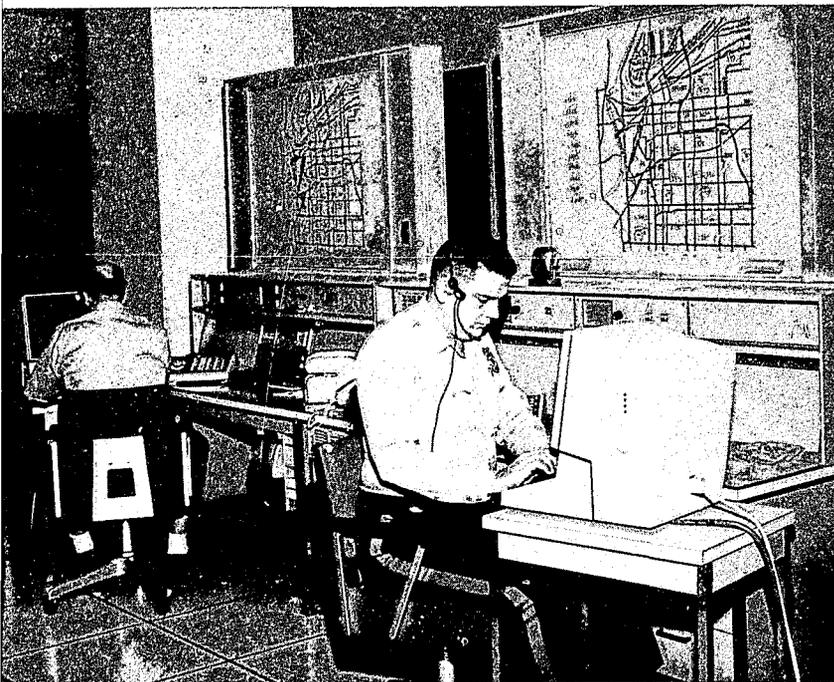
Local training academies now rival the FBI's. Attractive career salaries are luring college graduates into the ranks. Computerized record keeping and space age communications complement complete vehicular mobility, elaborate psychological testing, continuing in-service training and nationwide recruiting drives for top salaried executive officers. The miracle, of course, cost millions, but millions were no object to a public and its legislative representatives terrified of crime in the streets. More guns to the infantry was the immediate and visible solution to an easily dramatized problem.

Managing technology requires knowledge. Recent developments in education are, therefore, notable. At least 184 colleges and universities now grant degrees in police science, police administration, criminology, criminalistics, and criminal justice. Professional journals such as *Criminologica* and *Issues in Criminology* are a further indication of technical advancement in law enforcement.

In March 1967 the historic First Na-



Police training in Puerto Rico. (1975)



The Kansas City, Mo., Police Department communications unit. (1975)

tional Symposium on Law Enforcement Science and Technology was held at the Illinois Institute of Technology in Chicago. This event revealed the cornucopia of technological tools available to the criminal justice system. There were some 1,000 participants—about one-third of whom were from police departments, another third from private industry, one-tenth from academia, and the remainder from other local, State, and Federal agencies. The scientific papers presented concerned many disciplines. Among them were papers entitled “Cultural Anthropology Analysis of Causes and Threat of Organized Crime” and “Present and Future Computer Hardware Configurations in Data Processing for Law Enforcement.” Ten papers alone dealt with the subject of automating fingerprint identification. The symposium proceedings were published in a monumental 985-page volume, which became the most comprehensive work on technology in the criminal justice system.

ELECTRONIC DATA PROCESSING

In 1964 only one city in the United States—St. Louis—had a police computer system. No computerized information system for law enforcement existed then at the State or national level.

By 1968, 10 States had State-level criminal justice computerized information systems, as did more than 50 cities. Some of the more sophisticated systems included the Police Information Network (PIN), which electronically links the 93 different law enforcement agencies in the greater San Francisco area. At the national level, the FBI’s computerized National Crime Information Center (NCIC) began operation in January 1967. It makes possible the rapid collection and retrieval of data about persons wanted for crimes or about identifiable items of stolen property such as weapons, airplanes, or automobiles from anywhere in the 50 States.

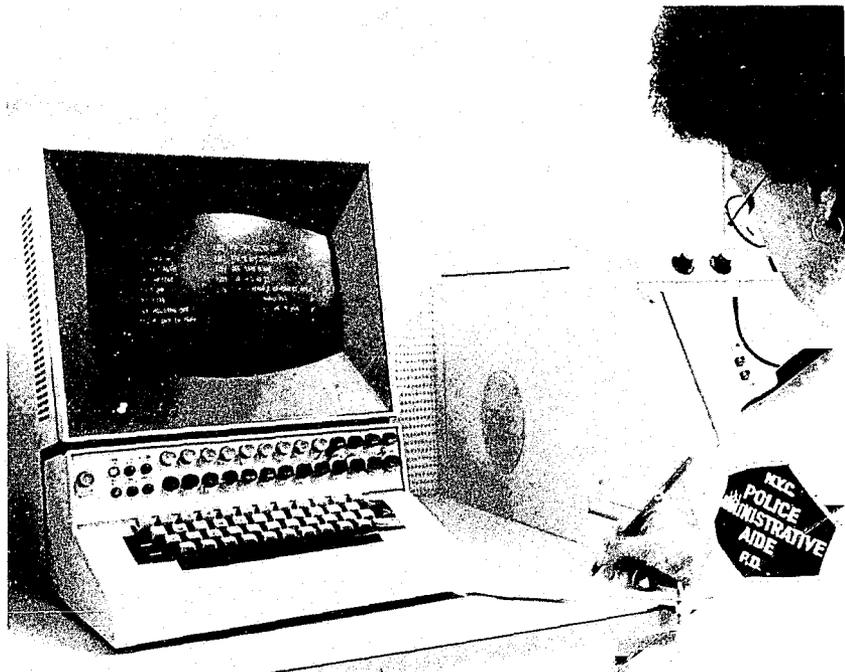
The LEAA-funded Project SEARCH found that by 1972 there were some 400 criminal justice computerized information systems in operation across the country, 46 percent of which were at the State level and 54 percent at the local level. Of these information systems, 41 percent served law

enforcement agencies, 17 percent courts, 8 percent other criminal justice agencies, and 28 percent a combination of agencies.

Also in operation by 1972 was the National Law Enforcement Telecommunications System (NLETS), making possible teletype communications between all States except Alaska and Hawaii. By 1975 NLETS had been upgraded so that more rapid telecommunications, from computer to computer, were possible between the States. Some 37 States now operate comprehensive information systems at the State level. In addition, it is estimated that 95 percent of the nation's metropolitan areas now use computers in law enforcement.

How are the police using this tool, the computer? An LEAA survey in 1972 identified 39 different police functions being performed by computer. The most common are housekeeping jobs such as keeping track of personnel and expenditures. Although undramatic, the computer's recordkeeping role has had a significant impact on police administration. For example, the Tulsa, Oklahoma, Police Department estimated that it saved \$180,000 the first year that computers did these simple chores. Computers also keep track of operational data on missing persons, criminal histories, stolen cars, organized crime, and many other categories.

In a nationwide survey of urban police departments by the International City Management Association, the overwhelming majority of officials agreed it was in the area of resource allocation and deployment that the computer had the greatest impact on their work. The Philadelphia Police Department has been an innovator. It developed a computerized model that will report the number and kinds of crimes (homicide, rape, aggravated assault, burglary, etc.) committed at a particular time (month, day, and hour) under different weather conditions and phases of the moon and in different neighborhoods of the city. When combined with current socioeconomic data on the specific neighborhoods—percent of males unemployed, percent of dwelling units with 1.01 or more persons per room, etc.—this tool can produce highly detailed, historically accurate crime predictions for every section of the city at



A New York City Police Department administrative aid copies down information from a computer.

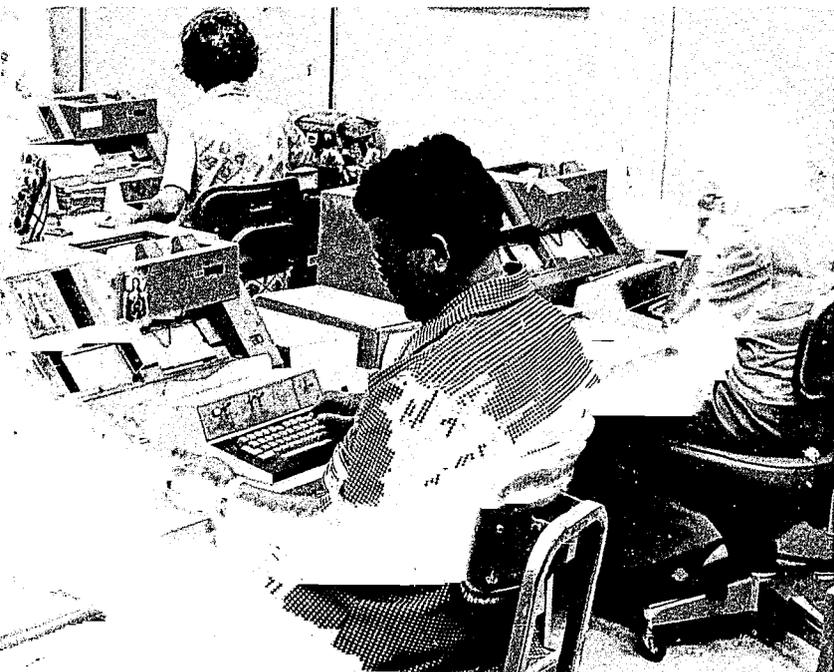
A New York City police officer working with computerized information. (1975)





A judge in Kansas City, Mo., reads a computer printout of the Municipal Court docket. (1975)

Criminal justice information systems in use in courts administration in Puerto Rico.



any given time. The police can then plan accordingly—deploying their forces when and where most needed.

Police costs also can be estimated by computer. Joel N. Bloom of the Franklin Institute Laboratories and Philip Carrol of the Philadelphia Police Department explained:

The public (through their elected officials) specifies a tentative goal and the police professional determines its cost, either in money or reduction of other service. The final decision can then be made not on emotion or newspaper headlines of a particularly frightening rape, but on a hard, cold analysis of facts and costs.

How police are using advanced computer systems in planning can be seen from the following message from the Kansas City, Missouri, Chief of Police to the department's data processing department: "There is a possibility that we can get a one-time grant to pay for 50 additional patrolmen for one year. We would be responsible for needed equipment and other support. What would this cost?" He got a prompt, computer-calculated estimate.

The use of computers to make the operations of courts more efficient is certainly not a new idea. The first experimental project dates back to 1961. But as the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals noted in 1973: "computer-aided court administration and legal research have not kept pace with data process developments generally."

In 1972 an LEAA survey identified 23 different court functions being performed by computer. The most significant included calendaring and scheduling, case disposition monitoring, docketing, jury management, and summons and warrant control. In recent years LEAA has increasingly emphasized the application of computers to court administration.

The State Judicial Information System (SJIS) is a case-following information system which can also track individual felony defendants in criminal cases. The SJIS model being developed by SEARCH Group, Inc. is a system for collection and analysis of judicial information to assist in planning, management, and operation of court systems at the State level. To date, eleven States are participating in the design of this model.

If the LEAA-funded Prosecutor Management Information System (PROMIS) is any indication, computers can have a major impact upon the efficiency of one of the most beleaguered components of the criminal justice system—the prosecutor's office. PROMIS uses a computerized information system to identify high-priority cases in the U.S. Attorney's Office, Superior Court of the District of Columbia, for intensified pretrial preparation by a special team of attorneys. Pending cases are ranked daily according to four criteria: (1) the seriousness of offense, (2) the defendant's criminal record, (3) the strength of evidence, and (4) the age of case or number of continuances. During its first 19 months of operation the conviction rate of cases receiving special preparation was 25 percent higher than that of cases routinely processed.

Computers also can be useful in criminal investigations and trials. The Watergate Special Prosecutors Force computerized the voluminous records with which it had to cope. During the height of the Watergate investigation some 900 records a month were being fed into the computer. Information could be retrieved from this data base on the basis of (1) witness statements, (2) events relating to a certain person, (3) events relating to a certain topic, (4) events in which statements were attributed to a certain person, and (5) key words or phrases. The computerization of these records, the Watergate prosecutors reported, "resulted in comprehensive ordering of information in ways which would have been virtually impossible under a manual system." It also "proved useful as a double check and as a basis for preparation of cross-examination of some trial witnesses for the defense."

The Watergate prosecutors' report added:

The computerized telephone records, diaries and appointment logs did not merely replace manual efforts; they produced reports which could not have been produced manually because of the great volume of material and the level of detailed analysis which was required. The manipulation of data made possible by the computerized entries served as a valuable investigative tool . . . Much more needs to be done by the ongoing prosecutorial agencies to develop systems and applications which can be

planned and evaluated over time, with careful implementation of the resulting methodological changes in order to build maximum use by prosecutors and a proper measure of cost effectiveness.

The correctional system, too, has begun to use computers. The 1972 survey identified 13 different functions being performed by computers in correctional institutions. Almost all fall into the housekeeping category: inmate records, menu planning, physical goods inventory, and trust fund accounting. In a few cases, however, computers have been used to predict prisoner behavior and the probability of recidivism. A project of the California Department of Corrections developed mathematical models on prisoner recidivism with the aid of a computer information system and found that the key variables in predicting whether a prisoner will return to a life of crime are prior criminal record and narcotics use history. The length of time served in prison, it was discovered, had no relationship to the prisoner's performance after release.

The initiative to use computers in the criminal justice system has been primarily State and local. But the Federal Government has played a pivotal role. The initial development of a computerized information system is a capital expense of sometimes prohibitive proportions for a municipality or State. According to the International City Management Association survey of 1971, six out of every 10 police departments that used computers had received or were about to receive Federal funding. About 51 percent of the police departments that did not have computers but planned to get them hoped to receive Federal funds. The Association report concluded that "computer development took place as long as federal money was available." Similar statistics do not exist for courts and corrections, but it is estimated that Federal funding has been equally important there as well.

MANAGEMENT

Speaking at a National Science Foundation seminar in the mid-1960's, a noted systems analyst said of the criminal justice system: "There generally is not a systems approach to most problems and hence no

accountability, no measurements of effectiveness, no capability to accommodate to major changes much less than to initiate them."

The systems approach is a valuable management tool in the control of complex social institutions. One of the toughest questions a police chief, a court administrator, or a correctional official has to face is: "how do I know what I am doing is working?" The systems approach employs the rigorous techniques of quantitative analysis to help management get an answer. The next toughest question is: "how do I know that new program x or y will work?" These kinds of problems depend on the simultaneous interaction of multiple variables, and without systems analysis the relationship of the variables to each other will be impossible to understand.

With a few exceptions, the police took to the computer—technological hardware—more readily than to systems analysis—a technological concept. As a consequence, to quote from a study done at the Joint Center for Urban Studies of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and Harvard University: "a lot of computer hardware has been sold to police departments which don't need it or don't know how to use it." But there does appear to be a greater awareness today of the traditional police time lag between hardware and management methods. For example, management institutes for police chiefs have been held at dozens of universities, including the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration, to remedy this situation.

LEAA has played an important role in improving management methods in the criminal justice system. It has, for example, encouraged the implementation of a systems-oriented approach to crime statistics—the Offender Based Transactional Statistics concept developed by Project SEARCH. Traditionally, the so-called rap sheet, which is filled out and filed at the local police department at the time a person is arrested, has been the basic source of criminal history information. However, rap sheets are often incomplete and do not show arrests in other jurisdictions or the ultimate disposition of the case.

Under the offender-based system the

States become the repository of criminal history information on individuals as they move through the criminal justice system. This approach offers several striking advantages over the old one. The system tracks the offender through the whole system, thereby providing information, such as the number of persons who leave the system at all levels, the time it takes to process an offender from one point in the system to another, and the up-to-date status at any level of the system. These kinds of data should give managers a better understanding of where the bottlenecks in the system exist, how decisions at the different levels affect one another, and what increases in the number of offenders at various levels to anticipate as a function of increases in individuals arrested, dismissed, and incarcerated. To date, 23 States have installed or are installing OBTS systems.

LEAA has also encouraged more rigorous management methods in the criminal justice system by requiring an analysis and evaluation of the programs it funds and in the Exemplary Projects it selects. For example, the LEAA literature on the New York City Police's new Street Crime Unit, which places officers disguised as potential crime victims in areas where they are likely to be victimized, emphasizes the unit's quantitative results. It pinpoints the average man-days per arrest—8.2 compared with 167, the departmental average for all uniformed officers; in 1974 over 90 percent of all arrests led to conviction.

In addition to quantitative analysis, another aspect of the systems approach is the use of expertise from other disciplines. This can be accomplished through conferences or specific projects. An LEAA-funded study by architect and urban planner Oscar Newman resulted in the publication of *Defensible Space*, a significant contribution to the state of the art of designing high density urban housing for the maximum safety of the residents. Economists are being called upon to discuss theories of optimum resource allocation and various analytical tools, such as cost-benefit analyses.

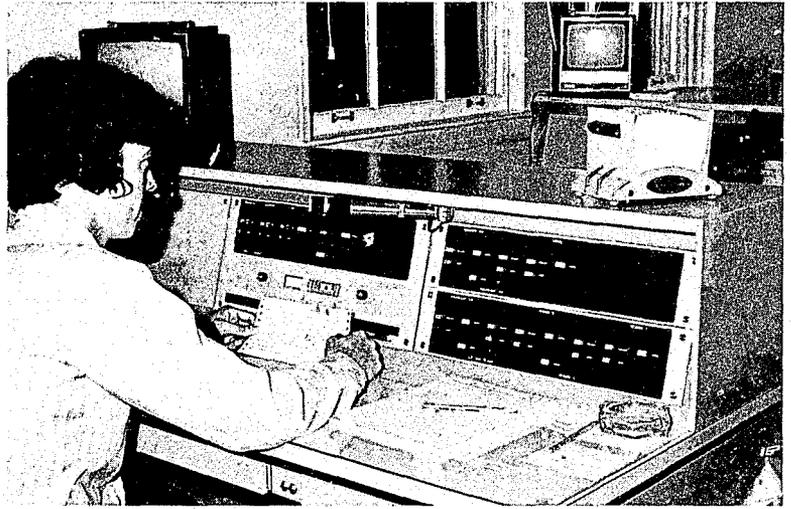
A systems approach can have a major impact on law enforcement communications, as was demonstrated by the LEAA-

funded Central Police Dispatch program in Muskegon County, Michigan. The program consolidated the radio dispatch and information services of nine law enforcement agencies into a central system. Eight of the nine departments operated on a single radio frequency, independently of each other; only four had around-the-clock dispatch service seven days a week; almost 10 percent of the combined personnel in the agencies were assigned to dispatch services, an unusually high proportion. Now, with central dispatch, all nine have around-the-clock, seven-day service; the number of dispatch personnel required has been reduced and so has duplication and communications confusion. Central dispatch also helped make possible the implementation of a 911 emergency system in the county's sparsely populated areas.

The inability of courts to keep abreast of their workloads is a nagging concern throughout the entire criminal justice system. Charles Moylan noted in 1970 at the Third National Symposium on Law Enforcement Science and Technology that "if a moratorium were declared on crime tonight, the existing system would require over 13 months to dispose of the 7,000 criminal cases now pending in Baltimore." Moylan added:

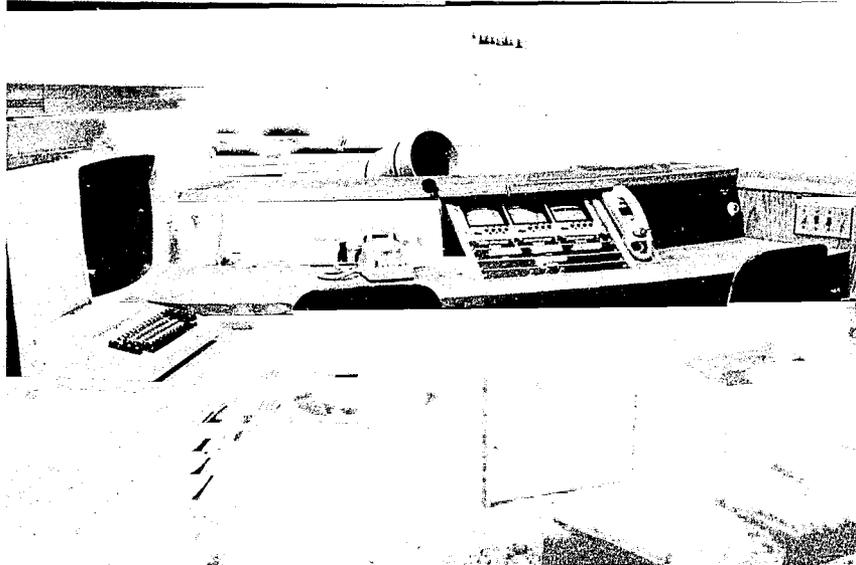
That long overdue and justly heralded miracle at the initial terminal (the police), however, has served only to aggravate problems at the still tragically neglected way stations further along the line. As a people and as a government, we have been so obsessed with how to catch criminals that we have shut our eyes to the problems of how to try them once they are caught or what to do with them once they are tried. The criminal courts and the prosecutors' offices have for decades been the neglected and forgotten step-children in the law enforcement system. We now represent the bottleneck that could cause that system to collapse.

To clear this bottleneck, most court administrators say they need more personnel and improved facilities. In addition, they need more rigorous management methods. According to Edward B. McConnell, the then administrative director of the courts of New Jersey, part of the courts' problem "is that we don't know—or at least can't convincingly demonstrate—just what our needs are."



Modern communications dispatch console at the Regional Communications Center in the Maine State Police Headquarters in Augusta. The system provides for statewide radio-voice communications.

The Prototype Courtroom in the District of Columbia. The view of the courtroom from the clerk's position shows the computer terminal, video display equipment, and monitoring devices.



McConnell urged that objective criteria be established for estimating the number of prosecutors, detectives, public defenders, investigators, judges, probation officers, clerks, and stenographers needed to run the system. He added that the tasks to be performed in the court system need to be analyzed by management experts to determine reliable load measures. "Such studies have been done and standards established in business and other governmental areas," he said.

With LEAA assistance, some of this much needed systems analysis of the courts is now being done. For example, an LEAA-funded project applied a systems approach to the Recorder's Court of Detroit, one of the busiest criminal courts in the country. It resulted in administrative reforms that have reduced the time from warrant recommendation to arraignment from five months to 10 days. In other LEAA-funded projects, statistical and modeling techniques are being applied to court case flow management and computerized information systems in the same way that they were applied to comparable tasks in police work.

Management through systems analysis is new to corrections, as well. A systems analysis prepared for the International Symposium on Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Systems in 1972, sponsored by Project SEARCH, concluded: "Due to the introverted character of classic correctional programs aimed at the secure and controlled warehousing of individuals, information systems that aim to measure effectiveness have been neglected. . . . Most prisons operate like businesses that do no bookkeeping, and remain in blissful ignorance of their gains or losses."

But the introversion referred to seems to be diminishing. As one systems analyst noted: "Currently, the field of corrections is somewhat akin to the 30-day occupant of a life raft far from shore. Its thirst for meaningful information goes unabated as it is surrounded by a sea of raw, swirling, unorganized data; it stands poverty stricken in the midst of plenty."

Keith S. Griffiths of the California Youth Authority stated the major correctional problem in a nutshell:

At the present time there does not exist a verifiable body of knowledge on what constitutes "best" correctional practices. In other words, correctional management does not know, in any systematic way, what works and what does not work. At a time in American history, when about 80 percent of felonies are committed by repeaters, cold, hard facts about different rehabilitation approaches are urgently needed.

The establishment of the offender-based statistics system should help to provide correctional institutions with a better base of information from which to work. In addition, the Correctional Decisions Information Project of the American Justice Institute, funded by the National Institute of Mental Health, has developed a conceptual design for an information system for corrections managers that should prove useful. The key word, however, in any correctional information system is feedback—the ability to weigh data about a person after release against what was done with the person while in that institution.

Alternatives to prison also are being explored. One LEAA-funded project is the Community-Based Corrections Program in Des Moines, Iowa. Using a systems approach, the program attempts to synchronize the four basic services for defendants and convicted offenders: pretrial release on recognizance, pretrial supervised release, probation, and residence at a correctional facility offering release for education or employment. It eliminates overlapping and fragmented administration. In 1973 the program saved the county and State correctional systems an estimated \$454,300. The pretrial components also saved defendants an estimated \$154,000 for the cost of bail bonds and enabled many to retain their jobs and support their families. The recidivism data also seems to be encouraging. Of the 246 clients released by the Des Moines correctional facility, 21 percent were charged with indictable offenses during an average 19-month period following release.

But the LEAA research into the uses of computers has not been geared exclusively to the demands of the law enforcement community. LEAA is very sensitive that maximization of the benefits of computerization must always be balanced against the

individual's rights of privacy. Because of this, LEAA, in coordination with other agencies in the Department of Justice, has published regulations to protect the individual's right of privacy.

These regulations place restrictions on dissemination of information outside law enforcement agencies and require that complete information, from arrest to disposition, be maintained. The regulations also provide for the individual's right to review his or her record and to challenge incorrect data. Additionally, computerized criminal information systems will be required to conduct periodic audits to insure their accuracy and to delete incorrect, unnecessary, or outdated information.

EQUIPMENT

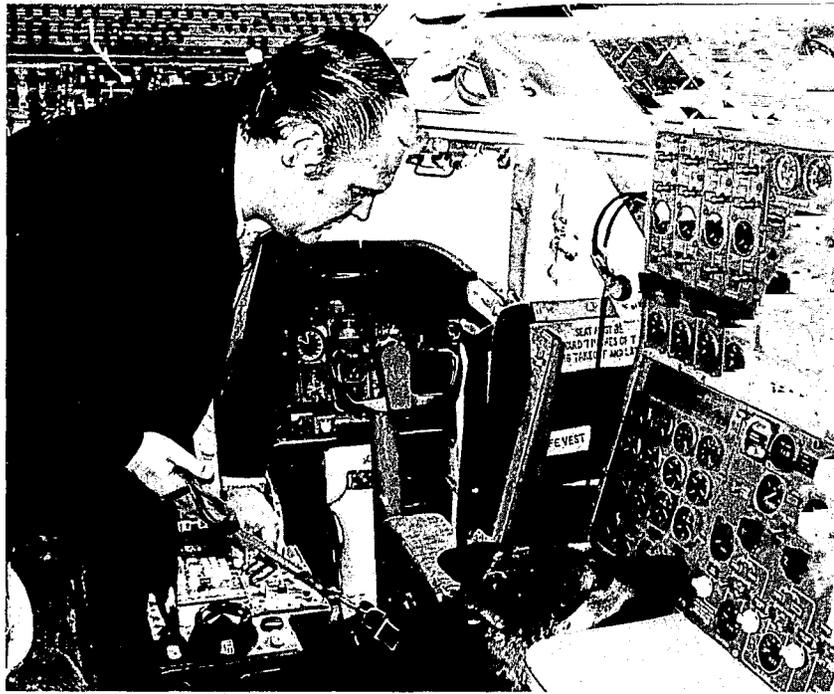
The sums spent during the 1960's on national military defense and space research and development also generated equipment useful in the criminal justice system, especially law enforcement. At the 1975 annual conference of the International Association of Chiefs of Police the equipment on display ranged from a handheld, digital radar pistol that tells police if a car is speeding to a special kind of telescope developed for night patrols in Vietnam that emits no light but is equipped with an interior light-intensifier tube.

Computers aside, the most important new piece of equipment for police during the past 10 years might well be the lightweight, transistorized, two-way radio that provides the police officer on foot with a communications link to the rest of the force.

About one in 10 or some 200,000 police officers will be assaulted this year, and of those, about 40 percent or 8,000 will sustain injuries. Some will die. LEAA has supported the development of a lightweight body armor, now being field-tested, that could ultimately save the lives of many police officers.

The following status report is given in Introduction to Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, a popular college textbook, by A. C. Germann, Frank D. Day, and Robert B. Gallati:

Police equipment, in thoughtful communities, is up-to-date, well-maintained and



A New York City Police Department dog, trained to detect explosive devices, at work in the cockpit of a jetliner.

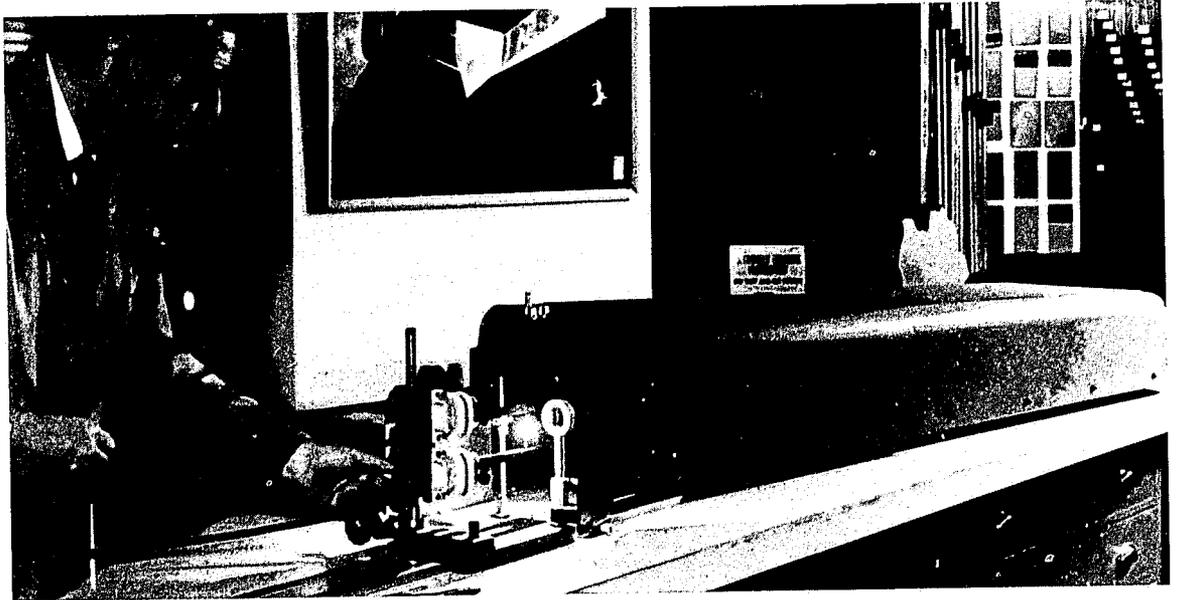
A sound spectrographic analyzer used for voice print comparison by the Los Angeles Police Department.



A District of Columbia police officer uses a hand-held radio for instantaneous communication with his dispatcher.



An emission spectrograph at the FBI Laboratory used to determine the chemical composition of evidence in criminal offenses.



sufficient for the assigned task. Crime laboratories, communication systems, records and identification equipment, transportation, armaments and personal gear are improved each year. This is not to say that all American communities have the equipment and facilities that are necessary to an effective and edifying police operation, but that the past 100 years has seen sweeping and forceful change in the area of police material.

LEAA also is supporting research and development in new equipment for the courtroom. New techniques, such as videotape or multitrack voice recording or computerized translation systems to produce transcripts, can significantly improve the court proceedings record.

The development of spectrographic analysis to identify the voice of an extortionist or perpetrator of bomb scares is now sufficiently advanced that courts will soon have to begin ruling on its admissibility as evidence. The same can be said about a whole new generation of instruments now available to the crime laboratory in identifying physical evidence, such as hair, blood, or sperm. These new tools include neutron activation analysis, mass spectrometry, microprobe, and radioisotopes.

The application of new equipment in corrections has centered on improved physical security. Devices such as walk-through metal detectors, closed circuit television, and electronic sensors are being used increasingly in prisons. In addition, LEAA is supporting efforts to set up computer-

ized television educational programs in prisons.

THE FUTURE: THE LIMITS OF TECHNOLOGY

In the near future many more functions in law enforcement and criminal justice will be affected by the technological revolution. It will be technically feasible, for example, for metropolitan police departments to have communications and information systems that enable officers on patrol to signal the position of their patrol car by means of an automatic tracking device to a receiver connected to a computer. When a citizen calls for assistance, either by means of phone or a miniature alarm, the location and urgency of the call will be fed to the computer, which will automatically locate the closest patrol car and send a message to it. The patrol car will receive the message on a small printout terminal beneath the radio (now used only in emergencies).

If, in the process of assisting the citizen, the police officers apprehend a suspect, they will be able to query the computer, which will answer them directly about the suspect's criminal history, if any, or will query a computer central index in the State or in Washington, D.C., for the information. The police officers will know in less time than it takes to book a reservation through an airline computer system whether the suspect is dangerous, wanted for another crime, or driving a stolen car.

The question likely to be raised with frequency about such systems is one of economics. Do benefits outweigh costs? Rigorous cost-benefit analysis will help answer that question.

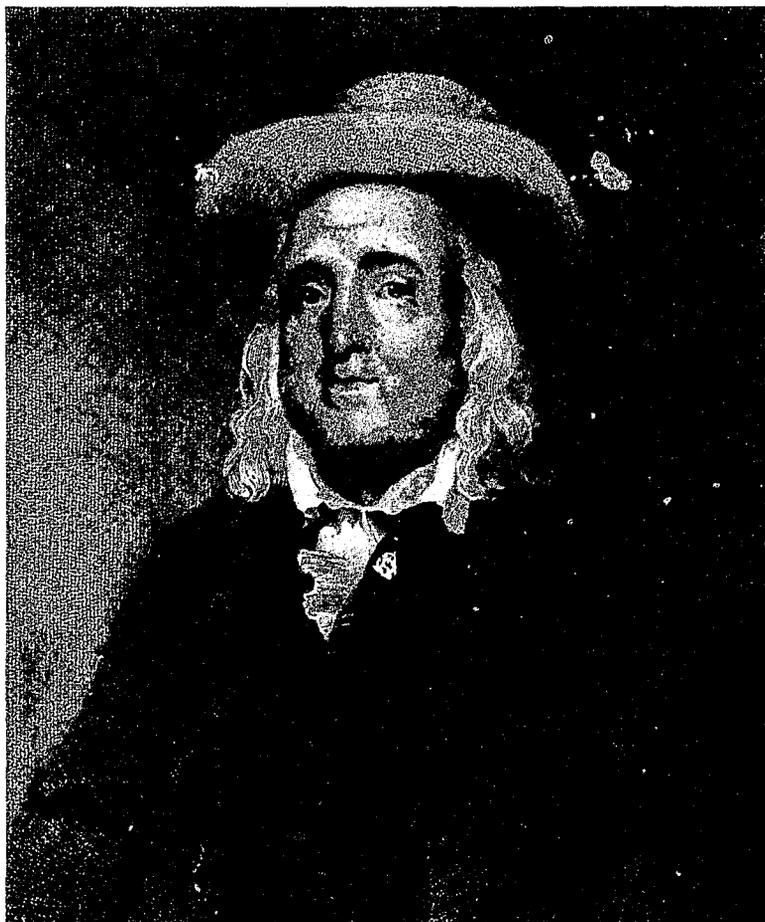
Costs are not the only limit to technology. The system itself poses formidable barriers. At the Johns Hopkins University Applied Science Laboratory two feedback models of the flow of criminals through the criminal justice system were applied to existing data on crime statistics and the principal conclusion was sobering: "Improving the courts and corrections, even to their maximum efficiency, will not result in a large percentage reduction in crime. The reason is that the number of criminals in the courts and corrections is so small in relation to those moving through the whole

society that these institutions cannot be expected to act as a significant deterrent to crime." The study recommended that "attention be focused on unreported, unapprehended, and uncharged criminals." This recommendation is being directly addressed by LEAA's victimization surveys, which attempt to uncover the "dark figure" of unrecorded criminal incidents unknown to the police by interviewing a probability sample of households and businesses both nationally and in major metropolitan centers.

Another limit to technology is human nature itself. Structured, quantifiable problems yield to technological solutions. The root causes of crime lie in the unstructured and unquantifiable realm of human behavior. This is the province of the human or social sciences, especially sociology and psychology. These disciplines cannot predict human behavior with the precision with which the physicist, for example, can quantitatively predict what will happen when a given amount of uranium-235 is bombarded by neutrons of a given mass and velocity. California social scientists Steve Kolodney, Paul L. Patterson, and Douglas Daetz have observed: "Rehabilitative efforts are either not being directed at the problems which are associated with eventual parole adjustment, or are ineffectual in producing results which last after the man is released. This is an important determination but very incomplete."

There are many other practical questions the social scientist cannot answer precisely: Why can some prisoners be reformed and some not? Can programs be devised to rehabilitate the majority who do not? Why will so many commit more crime? Even if the social scientist could answer these kinds of questions, the fundamental human problem of crime will remain. The criminologist and former Superintendent of the Chicago Police Department O. W. Wilson put the matter bluntly: "All of the scientific and technological data available will not make law-abiding and responsible citizens out of criminals." Any applications of technology in criminal justice must accommodate the rights and privileges guaranteed to all persons in the United States by the Constitution.

Research



Jeremy Bentham (1748-1832).

Crime and criminal behavior were not systematically researched until the 20th century. In the 1700's and 1800's the subjects were considered by such philosophers and scientists as Cesare Beccaria, Jeremy Bentham, Franz Gall, Cesare Lombroso, and Enrico Ferri. But only Lombroso and Ferri worked together in a coordinated program of study.

During the close of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century, however, when techniques improved and societies for the study of criminology began to meet and publish papers, criminology as an integrated science began to grow. Thereafter the number of criminologists and the amount of research rapidly expanded. In time it included not only the study of the criminal and appropriate methods for dealing with the offender, but also how crimes are committed, ways to prevent offenses, and the judicial system itself.

THE EARLY THINKERS

The foremost 18th century criminologists were the Italian Cesare Beccaria and the Englishman Jeremy Bentham—both products of the Enlightenment.

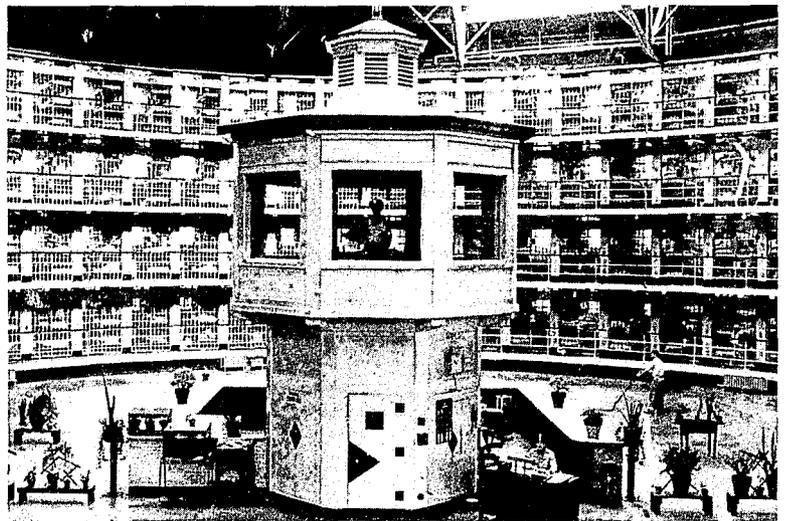
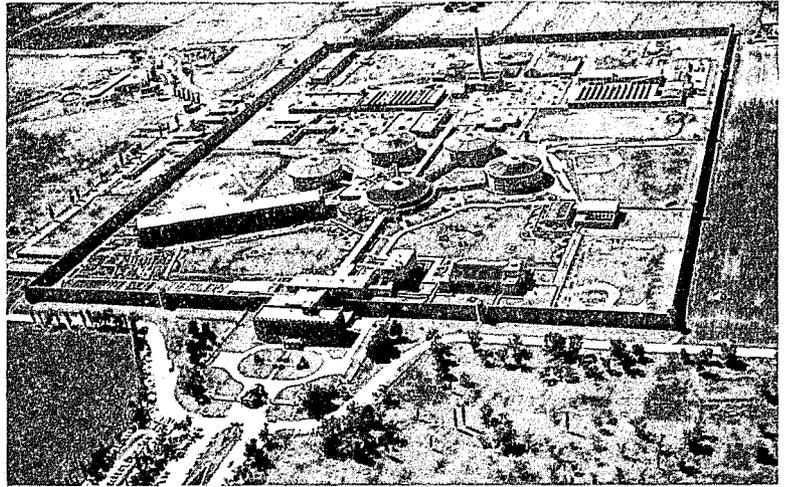
Beccaria's work, "Dei delitti e delle pene" (Crime and Punishment), was published anonymously in 1764. It called the Italian penal system barbaric and repressive. Beccaria also examined the courts and called for a uniform system that punished all members of society equally, irrespective of social or economic status. He considered the death penalty itself as an act of violence and useless as a deterrent. He argued for punishment that educated the offender and convinced him or her not to do further wrong. He wrote: "So that any punishment be not an act of violence of one or of many against another, it is essential that it be public, prompt, necessary, as minimal in severity as possible under given circumstances, proportional to the crime, and prescribed by the laws." Al-

though Beccaria's ideas were not new at the time of his article—many others had put forward similar suggestions—Beccaria synthesized the various concepts and produced a work that was both intelligent and understandable. The article was quickly accepted and distributed throughout Europe. Within the next 10 years six editions were published.

Jeremy Bentham was one of the most important philosophers in English legal literature. Like Beccaria, he was interested in penal reform and the prevention of crime. Bentham proposed a theory of happiness, using mathematics to weigh various behavioral traits. He believed that an individual would act in the manner that provided the most pleasure, unless the pain derived as a consequence of the pleasure was great enough to act as a deterrent.

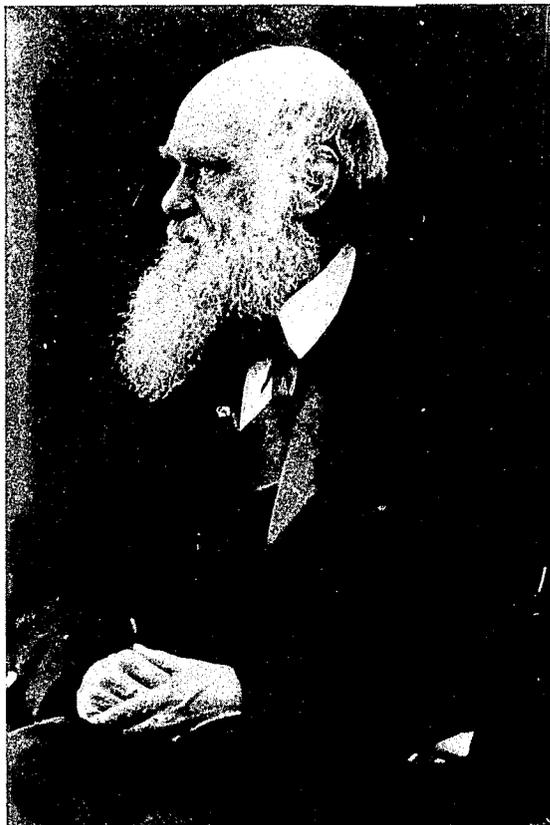
He and Beccaria believed that the purpose of punishment was to educate and thereby prevent further criminal behavior. He proposed a model prison which he called the Panopticon. It was to be a circular building with cells on each story. Every cell was to be visible to the prison inspector, stationed at the center of the building. A manager would be responsible for the reformation of the inmates and would employ the prisoners in contract labor. The manager would be required to pay a fine if any felon who had once been his charge subsequently committed an offense. Bentham contended that the Panopticon would reform the morals, preserve the health, invigorate the industry, and educate the minds of the inmates, as well as lighten the public burden.

Bentham envisioned the Panopticon as a utopian prison, but when put to use the prisons turned out to be impractical. The Panopticon idea was never adopted in Europe, but two prisons were built on this model in the United States. The Western State Penitentiary in Pittsburgh was built on this plan and opened in 1826. By 1833 the prison was deemed "unsuitable for anything but a fortress," and ordered rebuilt. Illinois constructed the Stateville prison from 1926 to 1935. After only four of the circular cell houses were built, however, the architecture was changed to a more conventional plan.



Interior, exterior, and aerial views of Stateville Correctional Center in Illinois. Built between 1926 and 1935, this is one of two prisons in the United States built according to Bentham's Panopticon plan.

THE 19TH CENTURY



Charles Darwin (1809-82).

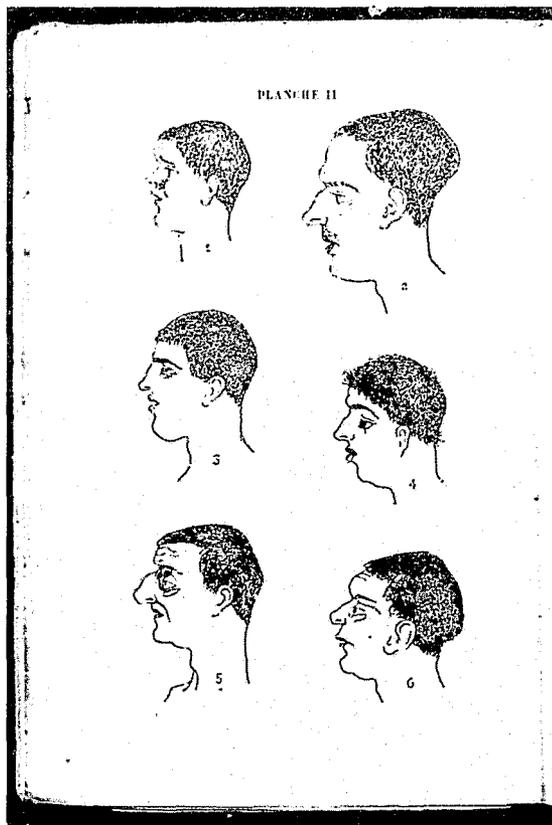
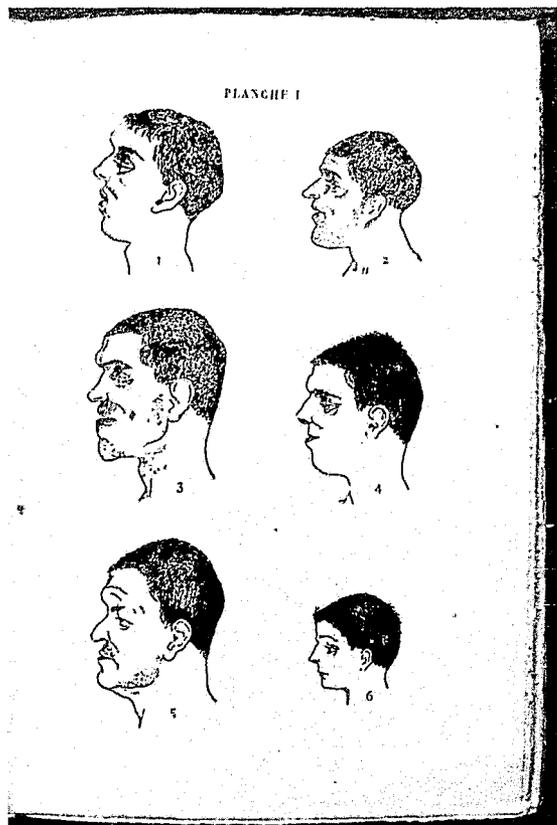
The beginning of the 19th century brought medical advances that provided new methods for the study of the criminal. Leading thinkers began to turn from pure philosophy to scientific research. These developments began with the work of the Viennese physician, Franz Gall.

Gall's research centered on the nervous system and the brain. He thought that the lobes of the brain were represented in protuberances of the skull. He theorized that mental characteristics could be identified by the shape and size of these bumps, and he sought to confirm this hypothesis by extensive studies of criminals in the Viennese jails.

In 1859 the publication of Charles Darwin's *Origin of the Species* prompted a revolution in criminal research. The treatise, based on the theory of the survival of the fittest, asserted that there existed superior and inferior beings. Criminologists, scientists, and lay people quickly accepted Darwin's theory as an explanation of criminal behavior because it seemed to offer a scientific confirmation for their belief in a criminal class. This theory prevailed and formed the basis for much of the criminal research during the next 40 years. Researchers believed that offenders were born with criminal traits, and they expended much of their energy in attempts to identify and classify these supposedly innate characteristics.

In 1876 Cesare Lombroso, an Italian physician, brought physical measuring techniques to the study. In his book, *The Criminal*, Lombroso hypothesized that there are "born criminals." He sought to prove this through the study of 5,900 offenders in the Italian jails. He measured the skulls and noted other physical characteristics of the inmates. The result was a list of the characteristics of the criminal class: "outstanding ears, frontal sinuses, voluminous jaws and zygomas (prominence of the cheekbone), a ferocious look, thin upper lip." Lombroso concluded that the criminal was a primitive man who somehow had not been eliminated through the Darwinian natural selection process.

Although Lombroso's works were not published in the United States until 1911,



criminologists throughout the world knew of his measurements and theories long before then. During this period there were numerous studies of a similar type. Lombroso, not attaining the fame or acceptance he wished in Europe, eventually came to the United States to continue his work.

A contemporary, Enrico Ferri, was attracted by the Lombrosian views and joined him at the University of Turin. Ferri, however, went far beyond Lombroso in his work, *Criminal Sociology*. He believed the criminal was the product of three factors: "physical or geographic; anthropological and psychological; and social." Ferri's hypothesis is stated in his "law of criminal saturation" as follows: "As a given volume of water at a definite temperature will dissolve a fixed quantity of chemical substance and not an atom more or less; so in a given social environment with definite individual and physical conditions, a fixed number of delicts, no more and no less, can be committed."

Raffaele Garofalo made up the third member of the Italian group. Although his work was partially related to that of Lombroso and Ferri, Garofalo was more

*Cesare Lombroso's original drawings of heads showing supposedly criminal characteristics, from his book *Nouvelles Recherches de Psychiatrie et D'anthropologie Criminelle*. (1892)*

THE JUKES

A STUDY IN CRIME, PAUPERISM
DISEASE, AND HEREDITY

BY
ROBERT L. DUGDALE

FOURTH EDITION

WITH A FOREWORD BY
ELISHA HARRIS, M.D.

CORRESPONDING SECRETARY PRISON ASSOCIATION

AND AN INTRODUCTION BY
FRANKLIN H. GIDDINGS
PROFESSOR OF SOCIOLOGY IN COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS
NEW YORK AND LONDON

THE JUKES.

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TABLE IX.

CRIMES AGAINST PROPERTY.

		NUMBER OF OFFENSES.										Total	Total	
		2d Gen.		3d Gen.		4th Gen.		5th Gen.		6th Gen.				
		M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.			
Misdemeanor	Juke	7	6	14	14	1	2	24	22	..
	X	1	1	8	1	10	3	..
Peit larceny	Juke	1	..	6	7
	X
Grand larceny	Juke
	X
Burglary	Juke
	X
Forgery	Juke
	X
False pretenses	Juke
	X
Robbery	Juke
	X
Total	Juke	1	..	10	6	32	14	1	2	44	22	66
	X	3	..	8	2	13	1	22	3	25
Grand total, offenses	Juke	3	..	18	8	44	15	1	2	66	25	91
	X	1	..	8	4	12	9	1	1	22	15	37
Number of offenders	Juke	2	..	6	3	8	1	16	3	19
	X	1	..	14	6	20	10	1	2	38	18	56

CRIMES AGAINST THE PERSON.

Assault and battery	Juke	3	..	3	6
	X	1	..	2	4
Assault, intent to kill	Juke
	X
Murder	Juke
	X
Rape, and attempted rape	Juke	5	5
	X
Total offenses	Juke	5	1	9	..	1	..	15	1	16
	X	3	1	4	8	..	8
Grand total, offenses	Juke	8	1	13	..	1	..	23	1	24
	X
Number of offenders	Juke	5	11	1	12
	X	3	1	4	9	..	9
Total number of offenders	Juke	8	1	10	..	1	..	20	1	21
	X

The fourth was a criminal and died of syphilitic consumption; the fifth was the father of a criminal; also the sixth, who had received

TABLE II.

Second generation.	Third generation.	Fourth generation.	Fifth generation.	REMARKS.
Ada, harlot before marriage.	A. M. B., no crime *.	A. B. M. X., crime	A. B. X., crime	Preponderance of males } Bastard line. Semi-successful
	A. M. C., no crime	A. B. M. D., X., reputable	A. B. D., X., reputable	Legitimate. Preponderance of girls.
	A. M. D., no crime	A. D. M. X., no crime	No crime	
	A. M. X., no crime	A. X. M. E., X., pauper	A. X. E., X., pauper	Legitimate. Distinctly vulgar poster.
Bell, harlot before marriage.	B. M. X., no crime	B. X. M. X., reputable	B. X. X., crime	Successful branch } Bastard line. Criminal branch
	B. M. C., no crime	B. C. M. X., no crime	B. C. X., no crime	Legitimate.
	C. M. X., not traced			Legitimate. Not traced.
Clara, of good repute	See A. M. C. and B. M. C.			Legitimate.
Della, harlot before marriage	D. M. X., no crime	D. X. M. X., crime	D. X. X., no crime	Legitimate.
	E. M. X., no crime	E. X. M. C., no crime	E. X. C., no crime	Bastard line.
	E. M. X., no crime	E. X. M. X., crime	Not traced	Bastard line and barren. Legitimate.

* Explanation. * Married. = Cohabiting with.

THE JUKES

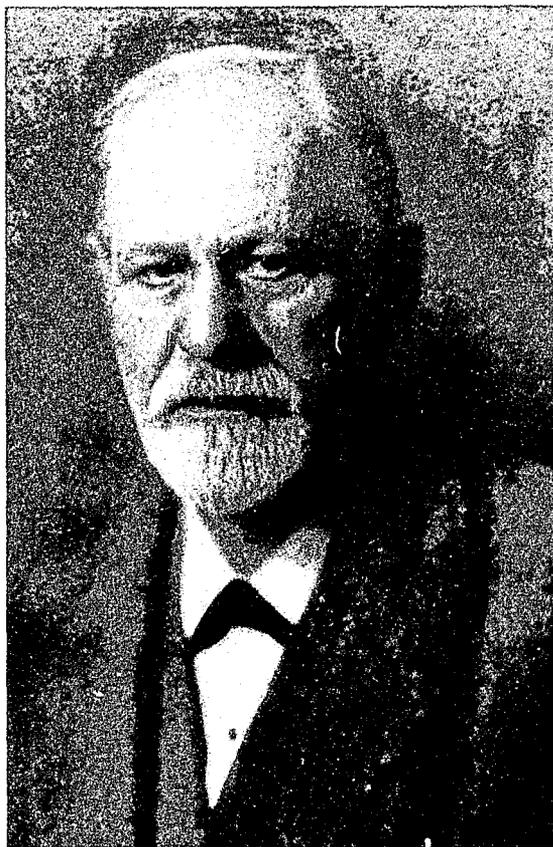
Data published by Robert Dugdale in the 1910 edition of *The Jukes: A Study in Crime, Pauperism, Disease, and Heredity*. (First published in 1877)

concerned with penal reform than with criminal class identification or the causes of criminality. He supported the death penalty as an application of Darwin's theory of natural selection. He formulated the concept of "natural crime," which he said was "that conduct which offends the basic moral sentiments of pity (revulsion against the voluntary infliction of suffering to others) and probity (respect for property rights of others)." Therefore the criminal is "he who has revealed the absence or deficiency of either or both these essential moral capacities."

While research in Italy was being conducted by Lombroso and Ferri, an American, Robert Dugdale, undertook what became a classic criminal research project. In 1874 the New York Prison Association commissioned Dugdale to examine 13 county jails in New York State. During his examination, he discovered a family that had an unusually high percentage of members in jail. He studied the group in minute detail, giving it the fictitious name Jukes to protect the privacy of its members. His study, *The Jukes: A Study in Crime, Pauperism, Disease and Heredity*, was published in 1877.

Dugdale had written that environment, interacting with heredity, was responsible for criminal behavior, but the public chose to interpret the book as confirming a widely held belief that criminal traits were inherited. In a later edition of the work Franklin H. Giddings wrote in the introduction: "An impression quite generally prevails that 'The Jukes' is a thorough-going demonstration of 'hereditary criminality'. . . . It is nothing of the kind, and its author never made such claims for it. . . ."

Thus, during the 18th and 19th centuries two schools of criminology prevailed. The first was a product of Beccaria's and Bentham's work in the 18th century. It concerned itself with penal reform. Its adherents sought to define crime in legal terms, emphasized the free will of the criminal, and believed that punishment had a deterrent effect. The second was a product of Lombroso's, Garofalo's, and Ferri's work in the 19th century. It attempted to apply scientific methods to the study of the criminal. Its adherents rejected the legal



Sigmund Freud (1856-1939). (Ca. 1930)

definition of crime, focused their attention on the act as a psychological entity, emphasized determinism, and believed that punishment should be replaced by a scientific treatment of criminals calculated to protect society.

THE 20TH CENTURY

The works of Sigmund Freud were published at the beginning of the 20th century. Instead of measuring bumps or ears, Freud observed early childhood and explored the inner recesses of the psyche. He explained human behavior through the primary drives of sex, food, and sleep.

In addition to the theories of Freud and improved scientific research, the turn of the century brought institutions for the study of criminology, criminological societies, and new journals to report criminological studies.

Chicago early became a leading criminology center in the United States. By 1893, criminal justice courses were offered at the University of Chicago's Department of So-



Research in the Regional Crime Laboratory in Dayton, Ohio.

ciology. Then, around the turn of the century, within the University, there developed what came to be known as the Chicago Ecological School. This school of thought represented a trend toward urban studies and crime using a social problems approach. Its followers included such leading criminologists as William Healy, Henry McKay, Clifford Shaw, and Edwin H. Sutherland.

The National Conference on Criminal Law and Criminology was held in Chicago in 1909. It was one of the most important such events of the decade, for it was at this meeting that the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology was founded with John Henry Wigmore, one of the conference's prime movers, as its leader. Another conference byproduct was the journal to translate and publish the writings of leading criminologists throughout the world. The publication, *The Journal of the American Institute of Criminal Law*, was founded to "arouse and extend a wider interest in the administration of the criminal law, including the cause and prevention of crime, methods of criminal procedure and the treatment of criminals, to provide a common medium for recording the results of the best scientific thought and professional practice in this and foreign countries concerning the larger problems of criminal science"

For the first time American criminologists were able to read the works of foreign writers, rather than having to rely on summaries.

Other developments during this period were the founding of the National Probation and Parole Association in 1907 (expanded in 1958 and renamed the National Council on Crime and Delinquency) and the opening of the first institute devoted to the study of crime at the University of Graz, Austria, in 1912. The latter offered for the first time what was described as a "university center for teaching and research purposes."

In 1934 the Academy of Criminology was founded in Chicago under the direction of Sutherland. Its purpose was to bring together leaders in the field for the purpose of discussion and research. It exists today as the Illinois Academy of Criminology.

THE STATE OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE RESEARCH TODAY

The pioneers of American criminal justice research inspired many students to devote their careers to the examination of the criminal and of crime, which led to the rapid production of substantial amounts of research material, so much so that managing it soon became a problem.

There have been three major attempts to accumulate and organize this material. The first was undertaken by the Illinois Institute of Criminology in 1932. Researchers reviewed the entire state of criminological research.

The other two attempts were made during the last decade. Robert Martinson surveyed research done from 1945 to 1965. His volume, *The Effectiveness of Correctional Treatment*, provides summaries and questions whether there is any known effective way to change the criminal's future propensity to commit crimes. The third attempt, begun in 1973 with funds from the National Science Foundation, was undertaken by the University of Pennsylvania's Center for Studies of Criminal Law under the direction of Marvin Wolfgang. The Center analyzed 220,000 citations from 4,000 criminology works written between 1945 and 1972 in an effort to "bring some order to criminology research." The

volume, called *Criminology Index: Research and Theory in Criminology in the United States 1945-1972*, was completed in the summer of 1975.

Currently, much of the research on crime, criminal behavior, and the judicial system is being undertaken through Federal and foundation grants. In addition to LEAA, whose efforts are discussed later in this chapter, the Center for Studies of Crime and Delinquency at the National Institute of Mental Health and the Ford Foundation are funding leaders.

The Center for Studies of Crime and Delinquency is 10 years old. Its function is to fund persons or institutions for research in "crime and delinquency, individual violent behavior, and law and mental health interactions." It places its primary emphasis on "efforts to understand and cope with problems of mental health..." as "reflected in various types of deviant maladaptive, aggressive, and violent behaviors that frequently involve violations of the criminal or juvenile law."

The major research areas for which Center funds are granted are:

- The development of needed knowledge.
- An improved understanding of the role of public policies.
- The development of new community-based treatment models.
- Studies and program development in law and mental health interactions.
- Research utilization, i.e., the development of appropriate strategies for information dissemination and research utilization.

As of July 1975, the Center listed 46 research projects in progress. They ranged from "Predictive Sentencing of Habitual Juvenile Traffic Offenders" to "Perinatal Brain Damage and Later Antisocial Behavior" and the "Effects of Withheld Evidence on Juror Decisions."

During the early 1960's the Ford Foundation began to fund studies of crime and crime prevention. The foundation also supported the creation of youth neighborhood projects and assisted in founding criminal justice centers at Harvard University, Georgetown University, the University of California at Davis, and the University of Chicago. The National Council on Crime



A police officer frisks a suspect.



Sheldon (1896-) and Eleanor (1898-1972)
Glueck. (1971)

Karl Menninger (1893 -).



and Delinquency also has supported important research in crime and delinquency for many years.

Despite the tendency toward the organization and institutionalization of scientific investigation in this nation, individual researchers have continued to play an important role in criminal justice research. Among the more important in recent years have been Sheldon and Eleanor Glueck, long associated with Harvard Law School.

The Gluecks began their studies during the early 1920's. For the next 15 years they followed the lives of 510 juveniles who had been inmates at the Massachusetts Reformatory. They reported on their subjects in three five-year periods. The Gluecks were able to predict success and failure rates for former inmates. Their research indicated that in more than 50 percent of the cases—sometimes as high as 80 percent—treatment at the reformatory failed. After further research, they concluded in 1959 that “about three-fourths of those entering jail have been there before. And the younger the person at the time of the first offense, the higher the rate of recidivism and the sooner it occurs.”

Other scientific investigators have endeavored to study street crime. Through the control of various factors, they have tried, occasionally with success, to affect the juvenile delinquency rate, at least during the duration of the project.

There have been other studies. In the early 1960's, for instance, the XYY chromosome abnormality was discovered. At first it was thought to offer an answer to the causes of criminality, but the interest faded when research showed that many normal people also had this extra chromosome. Currently, the Center for Studies in Crime and Delinquency is funding four studies dealing with XYY chromosome abnormality.

Through the late 1950's and the early 1960's new theories in criminal behavior emerged. Some of the biological and psychological theories of personality maladjustment that had long been accepted were abandoned. Instead, the problem turned from examining the characteristics that separate the criminal and the non-criminal to questioning why some persons

and not others are stigmatized as "criminals" in society.

This follows crime studies that have shown that many if not most people in the society contribute to crime in one way or another, even if solely minor crimes. The question that is unanswered is why some persons are sent to prison while others are not.

Among the leading figures in theories of criminal behavior are Richard A. Cloward, Donald R. Cressey, Lloyd E. Ohlin, and Edwin H. Sutherland. The Sutherland and Cressey text, *Principles of Criminology*, remains a significant book on the subject of crime. The authors review many of the theories but prefer the concept "that criminal behavior is learned by a person in intimate interaction with others whose good opinion he values, and that this learning places him in 'normative conflict' with the larger society."

Cloward and Ohlin, writing in 1960, addressed themselves to the problem of juvenile crime. They theorized that a "delinquent gang . . . arises in response to the conflict that exists between socially approved goals (primary monetary success) and socially approved means to realize those goals."

Crime prevention also has been the subject of research projects. In 1965 the Mayor of New York City increased the police patrols in subways so that an officer could be on every subway train and at every station between 8 p.m. and 4 a.m. Researchers at the Rand Institute analyzed the results of the increased police coverage for an eight-year period. They found that total subway crime declined for about one year and then increased. The number of felonies committed on the subways during the evening fell in 1965 and remained low, while the number of subway felonies committed during the day increased. The researchers concluded that the increase in uniformed officers during the evening deterred subway crime for those hours.

A more recent study in Kansas City, Missouri, supported by the Police Foundation, was less conclusive. Fifteen police beats in one part of the city were divided into five groups of three beats. Each of the three beats used a different patrol strategy.

In the control group, one visible patrol car cruised the streets when not on call. The proactive patrol used two to three times as many visible patrol cars as did the control beat. And in the reactive patrol group, patrol cars entered the beat only when called and did no regular cruising of the area. After a year no fluctuations were noted in the crime rate among the three patrol areas.

Medical research in America has made a major contribution to scientific knowledge about criminal conduct. An example is the work of the psychiatrist, Karl Menninger, who long has been a proponent of the humanization of penal institutions and of the treatment rather than punishment of inmates.

THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF LAW ENFORCEMENT AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE

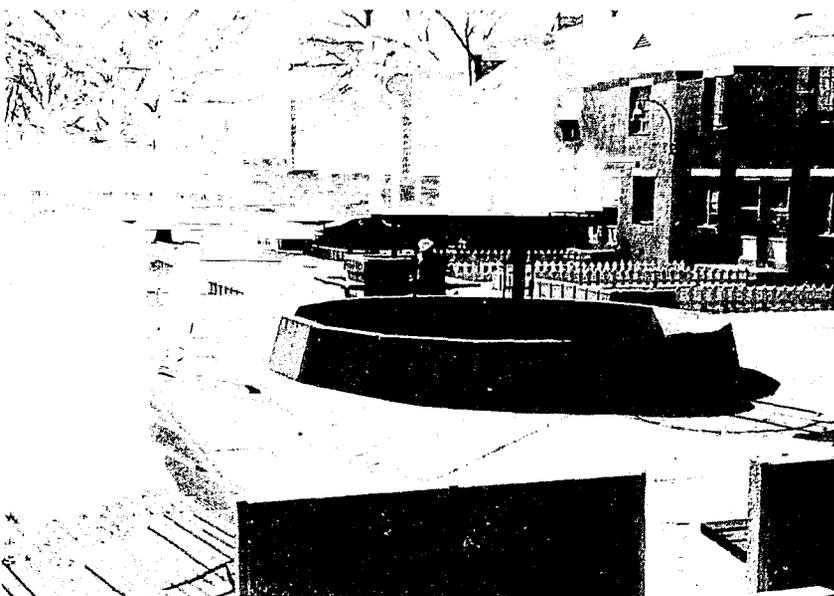
In an effort to increase research in criminal justice, the Congress established in the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Street Act of 1968, the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice as LEAA's research center. The Institute began with a staff of four persons and a budget of fewer than \$3 million for fiscal year 1969. It has grown to a permanent staff of about 75 persons and a fiscal year 1975 budget of \$32.2 million. In the years from 1969 to 1975 it provided about \$152 million in research funds and assumed a leadership role in criminal justice research.

The Institute is charged with developing knowledge and programs to reduce crime and improve the criminal justice system, and to disseminate that knowledge and program information to the criminal justice community. Its three offices—the Office of Research Programs, the Office of Evaluation, and the Office of Technology Transfer—fund programs that are designed to encourage criminal justice research, evaluate law enforcement and research programs, and develop and disseminate criminal justice information.

Although the Institute supports basic as well as applied research and is concerned with the entire spectrum of the criminal justice system, increased emphasis in recent years has been focused on the evaluation of experimental projects. The Institute is



Clason Point, N.Y. Typical neighborhood conditions before environmental design modifications. (1971)



Clason Point, N.Y., four years after environmental design modification. (1975)

working on improved methods of measuring success and failure in crime control efforts—a key to the successful planning of future anticrime programs.

The Institute was joined in its efforts during fiscal year 1975 by the National Institute for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (NIJJDP), established in LEAA by the Congress in the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974. The Institute transferred its juvenile delinquency research programs to the NIJJDP. The two research organizations coordinate their efforts with each other and with other Federal agencies conducting or supporting criminal justice research, such as the Center for Studies of Crime and Delinquency; the new National Institute of Corrections, also established by the 1974 legislation; the National Institute of Education; and the Office of Youth Development of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. (For a comprehensive review of Federal research programs in criminal justice, see the Attorney General's Report on Federal Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice Assistance Activities.)

Reports on the fiscal year 1975 activities of the Institute's three major offices—Research Programs, Evaluation, and Technology Transfer—follow.

RESEARCH PROGRAMS

The Office of Research Programs disburses most of the Institute's funds. This office is responsible for designing, awarding, and administering research to develop knowledge on how to reduce crime and improve the criminal justice system.

Current research activities include:

—*Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design.* The Institute is currently sponsoring three major environmental design demonstrations as part of a \$2 million contract with a consortium of urban planners, architects, and citizen groups. This approach to the reduction of crime deals with the interaction between the physical environment and human behavior. The key assumption is that the effective use of physical space can lead to better citizen control over the environment and hence to a reduction in the incidence and fear of crime.

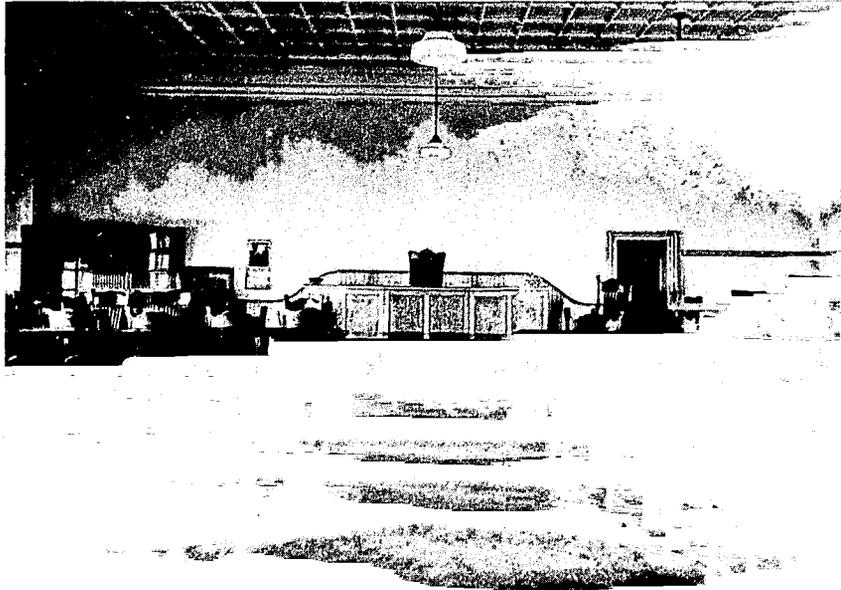
The Institute is designing and funding projects to demonstrate this concept in a commercial strip (Portland, Oregon), in a school system (Broward County, Florida), and a residential neighborhood (Minneapolis, Minnesota).

The principles of environmental design also are being applied on a neighborhood-wide basis in the LEAA Residential Neighborhood Crime Control study now underway in Hartford, Connecticut. Here a major priority is to restore the residential character of the neighborhood. Traffic patterns on certain streets will be adjusted and intersections and cul-de-sacs redesigned or created to stimulate greater use of the streets by residents. Law enforcement operations will be changed to include such techniques as team policing, and community crime prevention groups will be encouraged.

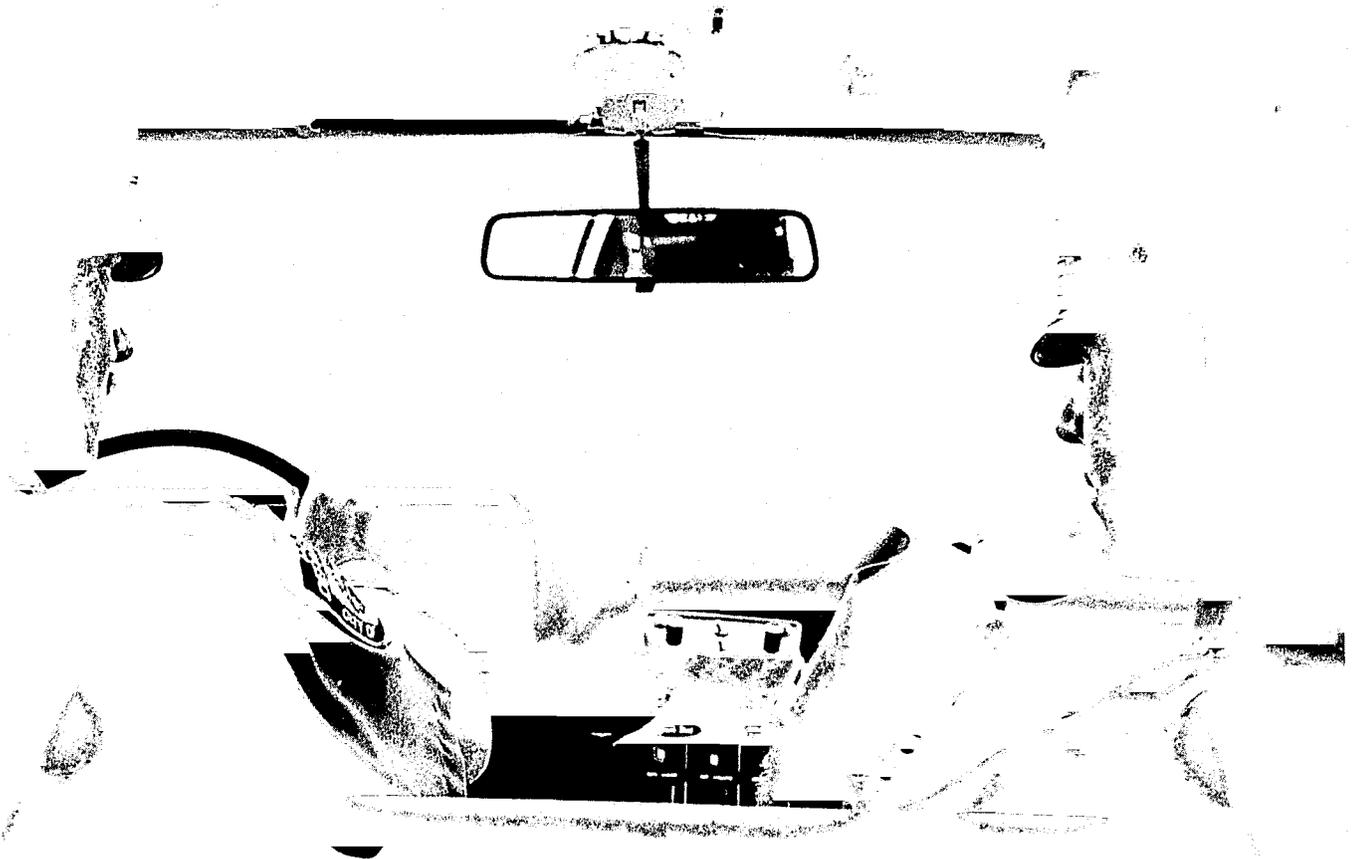
—Reducing Sentencing Disparity. The Institute has two current projects that focus on devices for reducing sentencing disparity. The first is evaluating two existing methods for controlling disparity—sentencing councils and appellate review of sentence. A small number of jurisdictions in this country have employed sentencing councils of several judges to avoid disparity before it occurs. Researchers have found that, while the sentencing councils did tend to narrow the range of extremes in sentencing, they had only a slight influence on reducing the average disparity. Thus, the study concluded, sentencing councils are not the best answer to reducing overall disparity.

To remedy inequities in sentences after they have been handed down, the same researchers are evaluating appellate review of sentences. This project will produce an index of sentencing disparity with which interested judges will be able to compare the sentence they would impose in a case with the sentence of another judge in a similar case.

The second project is developing sentencing guidelines for judges. Working closely with jurists from four jurisdictions, researchers are identifying those factors judges consider to be important in sentencing decisions. This information will form the basis of a sentencing guide for routine



Courtroom in the old courthouse in Rawlins, Wyo. (Date unknown)



*Police officers on patrol in New York City.
(1975)*

cases. In exceptional cases that do not fall within the scope of the guidelines, judges would be urged to meet with their colleagues and receive several opinions before handing down a sentence.

—*Parole Decisionmaking.* Similarly, for incarcerated offenders, the question of who is paroled and who remains in prison need not be inconsistent. In 1972 the Institute sponsored a project that helped Federal officials develop parole guidelines for making equitable and consistent decisions. The guidelines were based on “experience tables”—statistical profiles developed from an analysis of 3,000 offenders whose paroles had been reviewed by the U.S. Board of Parole. By providing objective information on past offenders, the tables help parole officials to predict the risk of releasing various types of offenders. Good parole risks can thus be identified and

released earlier; poor risks can be retained in prison.

The guidelines have been used in all Federal parole decisions since June 1974. Because of their acceptance and success at the Federal level, a similar effort is now underway at the State level. Modifications of the strategies developed during the Federal project are being used to identify major criteria used by State parole board members in making individual case decisions. Based on this information, workable guidelines for use at the State level will be devised.

—*Police Patrol.* Patrol is central to police work. Much of a department's resources are devoted to patrol activity. Yet, questions have been raised about the efficacy of patrol in general, and preventive patrol in particular, as a result of the Police Foundation's Proactive-Reactive Patrol study in the Kansas City, Missouri, Police Department. This study, previously described, found that routine preventive patrol can be altered substantially without noticeably affecting crime patterns or community attitudes toward police.

These findings raise important questions about the time devoted to routine patrol and how it can be used more efficiently. Some of the answers should be provided by Institute-sponsored research in the Kansas City Police Department. This study is examining a traditional assumption that guides the allocation of patrol resources: that the speed with which officers appear on the scene is a critical factor in apprehending offenders. Tentatively, the findings show that the greatest delay occurs between the time an offense is committed and the time the complaint is lodged. Thus, it may well be that response time is critical only for crimes in progress or in cases of personal injury, and that other calls for service could be deferred without impairing effectiveness.

The implications of such findings—if confirmed—are enormous. When the response time study is completed in mid-1976, it should help to stimulate a careful rethinking of patrol operations.

Meanwhile, in a corollary effort to develop more effective techniques for deploy-



New York City police officers prevent a man from committing suicide. (1975)

ing police officers, the Institute is now exploring:

Split force patrol will split the patrol force in Wilmington, Delaware, into two parts. One will respond only to complaints and to requests for service. It will undertake no preventive patrol activity. The other will be responsible only for preventive patrol and will not respond to calls for service. An important byproduct of the research will be the development of a directed or planned approach to preventive patrol, instead of leaving the strategy to the discretion of individual officers.

Neighborhood team policing will explore a form of patrol organization that shows promise of combining the specialized equipment of large departments with the more personal police-community contact services of small departments.

Specialized patrol operations is assessing various patrol strategies. These include plain-clothes, tactical, and suspect-oriented patrol units.

Traditional preventive patrol is studying the effectiveness of traditional preventive patrol and the suitability of varying kinds of neighborhoods for different patrol forms, citizen perception and acceptance of traditional patrol forms, officer perception of his or her role and discretion, and efforts to accentuate the service function of patrol officers.

Crime analysis addresses a critical patrol support function, undertaken at various levels in police departments to deepen understanding of crime, to predict probable future occurrence of crime, and to develop crime-specific operational responses. It may vary in sophistication from the traditional pin-map plotting to computerized analyses and models.

Plea Bargaining. The National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals advocated the abolition of plea negotiation. Many criminal justice practitioners, however, believe that this is both impractical and undesirable.

The plea bargaining project will first identify plea negotiation variations throughout the country, and then analyze the way they both affect and are affected by such factors as caseload pressure, adjudicative resources, and the cost of alternative

procedures. By understanding the way plea negotiations systems operate, opportunities for abuse may be minimized.

—Correctional Programs for Women. Although crimes by women are increasing, many States have no correctional facilities or programs designed especially for women. The Institute has funded a national study of this subject. Thirteen States—Colorado, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Nebraska, New York, North Carolina, Texas, and Washington—are included in the survey. Each is typical of several other States in such factors as population, geographic location, or pattern of female incarceration. Data have been collected in 62 prisons and jails and in more than 50 community-based correctional programs. An analysis of the data is now underway. The final report is due early in 1976. The preliminary findings indicate that programs for the female offender are generally limited both in the scope of services offered and in the range of choices available to the individuals. Some programs appear to be based on work release programs, which have been thought to be successful for men but may not be appropriate for women. In those cases where programs have been designed especially for women, they often seem to be based on stereotypes of traditional female roles. A typical prison industry for women is sewing American flags. The grantee for this study is the California Department of Youth Authority.

—Body Armor. The Institute is continuing its testing of body armor. Earlier tests showed the armor can stop most handgun bullets fired 15 feet away from guns as powerful as the .38-caliber police special. Made of a clothlike synthetic fiber that is stronger and lighter than nylon, the armor is currently being field-tested in 15 communities throughout the country for comfort when worn for a full working day, adaptability to temperature extremes, and durability through long periods of use. Equally important is the psychological effect the garments might have on officers who wear them. For example, a policeman wearing the protective armor might become too relaxed or too aggressive or more prone

to risk his life. The evaluation will involve some 3,000 policemen.

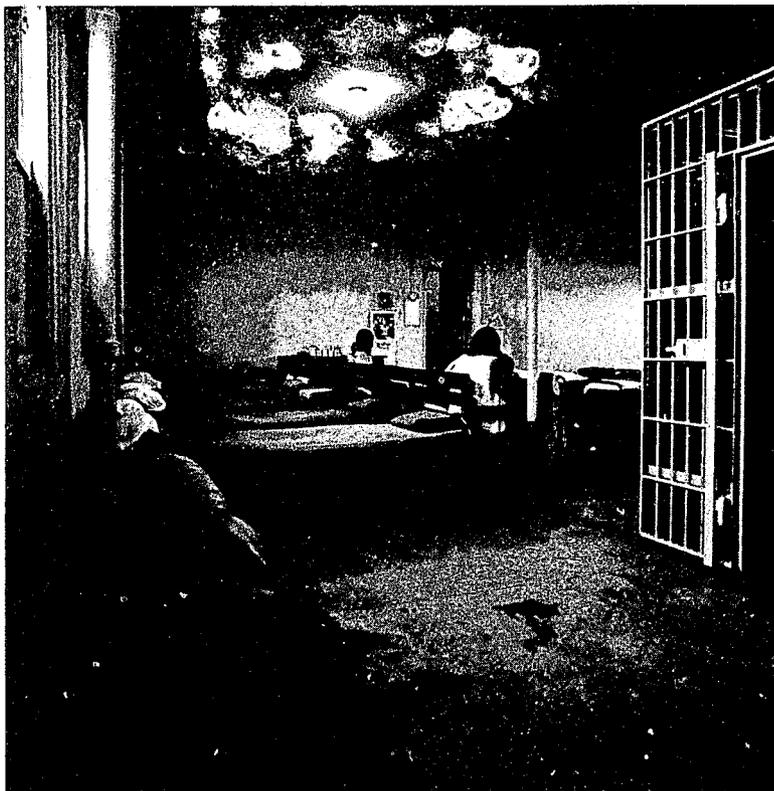
The armor cannot be penetrated by bullets fired by 80 percent of all guns and 90 to 95 percent of all handguns. It also seems to be effective in absorbing blunt trauma—the crushing effect of a bullet on human tissue and bone when a bullet strikes but does not penetrate the armor. The Institute is continuing its studies on this effect.

The cities participating in the test are: Albuquerque, New Mexico; Atlanta, Georgia; Birmingham, Alabama; Detroit, Michigan; Miami, Florida; Newark, New Jersey; New Orleans, Louisiana; Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; Portland, Oregon; Richmond, Virginia; St. Louis, Missouri; St. Paul, Minnesota; Seattle, Washington; Tampa, Florida; and Tucson, Arizona.

—*Fencing.* The Institute's analysis of the criminal redistribution system in a major metropolitan area is nearing completion. This project has applied market research methods to develop techniques for collecting and classifying information about different types of fences and to devise strategies for making the various types of fencing systems more vulnerable to detection and interdiction.

—*Research Agreements Program.* The National Institute has designed the Research Agreements Program as an experiment in providing long-term support to established research organizations for studies in selected broad criminal justice areas. Under this program initial grants of two years duration—with the possibility of annual continuation awards based on performance—are provided to support a series of interrelated research projects in a coherent subject area. An important goal of the program is to support the development of a unique national expertise on the part of each grantee in an important area of criminal justice research.

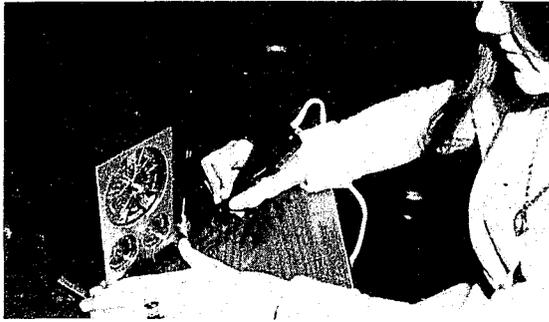
The program was implemented late in fiscal year 1975 with the awarding of four research agreements focusing on the following subjects: habitual criminal offenders (The Rand Corporation), community-based responses to crime (Northwestern University), the application of econometric analy-



Interior of an unidentified women's jail in a large city. (Date unknown)

Keypunch equipment available for training inmates at the Women's Detention Center in Washington, D.C. (1975)





Operation Identification in Raleigh, N.C. (1975)

sis to crime problems (Hoover Institution on War, Revolution, and Peace), and regulatory processes in criminal justice (Yale University).

EVALUATION

The Institute assesses widely used criminal justice programs and LEAA's national-level programs, reviews and assists the evaluation efforts of SPA's and develops new evaluation methods. Project activities for fiscal year 1975 included:

—*National Evaluation Program.* This program is assessing the effectiveness of 19 criminal justice programs now in wide use throughout the country. For example, an evaluation of Operation Identification projects found that householders who engrave personal identification on their property appear to reduce their chances of being burglarized. In this survey four cities reported that residents who participated in property-marking projects had significantly lower burglary rates. The majority of project officials surveyed in another 74 communities said they believed their programs had been successful in deterring burglary, although they had not collected supporting statistics.

Other programs being evaluated include: youth services bureaus, treatment alternatives to street crime, pretrial release programs, early warning robbery reduction projects, pretrial screening projects, diversion and alternatives to incarceration, citizen crime reporting programs, citizen patrols, community crime prevention programs, prevention of juvenile delinquency, and detention of juveniles and its alternatives.

—*Model Evaluation Program.* This \$2 mil-

lion program is part of the Institute's effort to develop improved evaluation capabilities in State and local planning agencies. Eleven grants have been awarded to SPA's and regional planning units to demonstrate the ways in which evaluation information can be generated and used to assist agencies in achieving their objectives. These locally developed evaluation strategies are being documented, and a description of their costs, tasks, and accomplishments will be produced to assist other agencies interested in adopting similar evaluation programs. SPA grantees are Illinois, Michigan, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Washington. Regional planning unit grantees are Columbia, South Carolina; Alameda County, California; Jacksonville, Florida; Oklahoma City, Oklahoma; and Ventura County, California.

TECHNOLOGY TRANSFER

The Technology Transfer Office is responsible for insuring that knowledge acquired through research or project experience is made available to the law enforcement and criminal justice community.

For example, the Institute identifies model projects and fashions guidelines to help communities establish similar efforts. During fiscal year 1975, there were six Exemplary Projects for which the Institute prepared operating manuals and provided special information and training materials. Descriptions of all Exemplary Projects appear in this report's Appendix.

The Institute's Prescriptive Package Publication Series synthesizes the best available knowledge and operating experience in selected areas of criminal justice administration. The fiscal year 1975 Prescriptive Packages covered such areas as police robbery control, managing criminal investigations, the amelioration of physical child abuse, rape and its victims, multiagency narcotics units, and programs for special offenders in corrections institutions.

Through short but intensive workshops, the Institute's national Training Program acquaints key officials of major criminal justice agencies throughout the country with the most promising new techniques developed through research and field experience. During fiscal year 1975, training

packages and curricula were developed in four new subjects: full-service neighborhood team policing, improved lower court case handling, evaluative research in corrections, and neighborhood youth resources centers. To date, more than 2,500 criminal justice officials have attended the workshops.

The Institute's Demonstration Program supports the implementation in selected communities of the most outstanding new criminal justice management and operations concepts from the training program.

During fiscal year 1975, grants were awarded for the implementation of two new demonstration efforts in 10 cities. They are: full service neighborhood team policing in Hartford, Connecticut; Elizabeth, New Jersey; Winston-Salem, North Carolina; Boulder, Colorado; Santa Ana, California; Multnomah County, Oregon. Improved lower court case handling in New Castle County (Wilmington), Delaware; Richmond County (Columbia), South Carolina; Kalamazoo, Michigan; and Clark County (Las Vegas), Nevada.

The Institute's activities also include the National Criminal Justice Reference Service, which provides more than 36,000 registered users with documents, information, and reference services related to criminal justice information needs. The Service began operations in September 1972 and since then has disseminated about 1.5 million LEAA documents, at the rate of one copy per person. There are currently 12,000 documents in the data base and new documents are being received at the rate of 500 per month.

The Service issues a biweekly Selective Notification of Information to its clients, informing them in brief abstracts of new publications in any of 70 subject areas. Individual requests for information or publications also are processed. The Service receives about 2,100 requests for information per month.

During fiscal year 1975 the Service instituted a microfiche program that is capable of reproducing full-length books and reports in greatly reduced format. The Service also initiated a reading room and acquired the LEAA reading room grant collection.



Police officers on night patrol.

Management and Operations of LEAA



During fiscal year 1975, LEAA provided increased financial and other assistance to State and local governments and to private organizations and individuals. Since its establishment in 1969, LEAA's budget has ranged from \$63 million to the fiscal year 1975 level of \$895 million. In fiscal year 1974 the budget for the Agency was \$870 million.

LEAA is organized with a central office located in Washington, D.C., and 10 regional offices located in the standard Federal regional centers throughout the nation. LEAA provides funds through block grants directly to States for their use in implementing their crime control program. The size of these grants is based on the relative population of the State. These grants are processed through the regional offices to the State Criminal Justice Planning Agencies (SPA's), which exist in each of the 50 States as well as in American Samoa, the District of Columbia, Guam, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands.

LEAA also provides funds through discretionary grants that the Agency awards for innovative projects with a broad impact. Through LEAA's National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, the Agency also funds numerous research projects in the criminal justice field.

ADMINISTRATION

The management and operations of LEAA were directed during most of the fiscal year by Richard W. Velde, who was sworn in as Administrator on August 29, 1974. Mr. Velde began service with LEAA in March 1969 as an Associate Administrator. He served later as Deputy Administrator for Policy Development before becoming Administrator of the Agency.

Charles R. Work served as LEAA's Deputy Administrator for Administration during fiscal year 1975. He resigned from that office on November 21, 1975.

NEW LEGISLATION

The Congress enacted important new legislation affecting LEAA during fiscal year 1975—the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (Public Law 93-415). The legislation charged LEAA with a major new effort to reduce and prevent juvenile crime throughout the nation and to improve the quality of juvenile justice for young people.

The Act established in LEAA the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, and, within that Office, the National Institute for Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. Further details on the background, intention, and provisions of the legislation are contained below in the report of the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

SYNOPSIS OF CRIME CONTROL LEGISLATION

—The Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968 (Public Law 90-351). Title I of this Act created LEAA and the block grant program and provided for the establishment of State Criminal Justice Planning Agencies in the 50 States, the District of Columbia, Guam, American Samoa, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands.

—The Omnibus Crime Control Act of 1970 (Public Law 91-644). This Act amended Title I of the 1968 Act by altering LEAA's administrative structure, revising funding requirements, and adding a new section for the additional funding of corrections facilities and programs.

—The Crime Control Act of 1973 (Public Law 93-83). This Act further refined LEAA's administrative structure, revised block and discretionary funding requirements, expanded the role of the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, and added security and privacy guidelines to safeguard criminal history information.

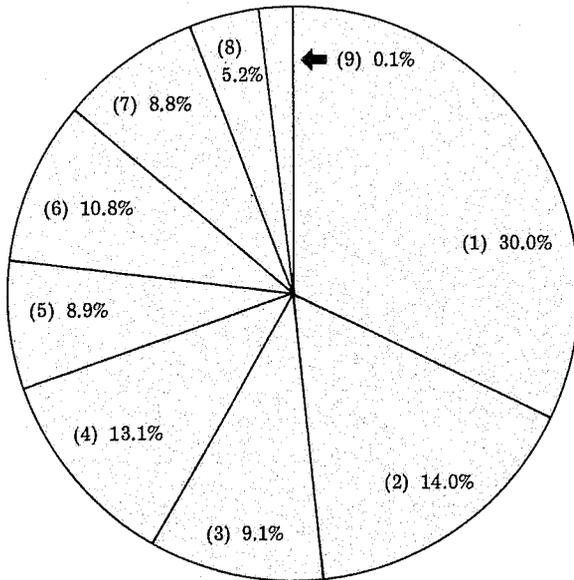
—The Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (Public Law 93-415). This Act established within LEAA a new Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention to deal with the growing problem of juvenile crime and delinquency.



The Barrow Gang. Facing page: the capture of Marvin Barrow and his wife Blanche Caldwell at Dexter, Iowa, July 24, 1933. Marvin lies on the ground with a fatal head wound while his wife is restrained by a law officer. (1933) Above: Bonnie Parker and Clyde Barrow, who were responsible for a series of robberies and killings during their two-year partnership. On May 23, 1934, they were ambushed and killed by six law officers as they drove to meet an associate near Arcadia, La. (1933)

ALLOCATION OF ACTION FUNDS BY PROGRAM AREA

(In Millions)
Fiscal Year 1975
\$483,000,000*



1. Detection, Deterrence, and Apprehension \$145.2
2. Noninstitutional Rehabilitation \$67.6
3. Institutional Rehabilitation \$43.7
4. Adjudication \$63.1
5. Research and Information Systems \$43.0
6. Prevention \$52.3
7. Diversion \$42.4
8. Planning and Evaluation \$25.1
9. Legislation (Criminal Code Revision, etc.) \$0.6

*This figure includes Part C block action funds and \$3 million in discretionary funds for small State supplements.

STANDARDS AND GOALS

LEAA efforts in criminal justice standards and goals implementation rose sharply during fiscal year 1975 and centered on working with the States to establish standards and goals for all components of the criminal justice system.

In 1971 the Attorney General established the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals. The Commission was funded by LEAA. It issued six reports that proposed detailed standards and goals for all agencies of the criminal justice system at the State and local levels.

With the issuance of the Commission's reports, State and local government leaders and professionals within the criminal justice system began the process of examining the Commission's proposals and adapting them for State and local implementation. LEAA has provided extensive support to the States for the standards and goals process. LEAA has not endorsed any particular standards or goals, however, nor has it required any State to implement standards and goals as a precondition to the receipt of Federal funds.

The LEAA Standards and Goals Program objectives for fiscal year 1975 were as follows:

—Help the States meet the statutory requirement to include goals, priorities, and standards in their comprehensive plans for fiscal year 1976.

—Implement a criminal justice planning process in the States that emphasizes broader participation by criminal justice agencies and encourages participation by those outside the criminal justice field.

—Help the SPA's play a broader role in planning for the entire criminal justice system and not solely for LEAA block grant funds.

—Help develop an agreement on the goals of each State's criminal justice system among criminal justice agencies, State officials, State and local legislators, and the public.

Allocations under the Standards and Goals Program have been made as follows:

DISTRIBUTION OF LEAA FUNDS

FY 1969-1975
(In Thousands)

^aIncludes \$14.2 million that was transferred to the Department of Justice.

^bIncludes \$7,829 thousand that was transferred to the Department of Justice from prior year funds returned by the States.

^c\$10 million was derived from prior year funds returned to LEAA by the States.

	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975
		\$60,000	\$267,937	\$528,954	\$698,723	\$855,366 ^a	\$895,000 ^b
		\$21,000	\$26,000	\$35,000	\$50,000	\$50,000	\$55,000
		\$182,750	\$340,000	\$413,695	\$480,250	\$480,250	\$480,000
		\$19,000	\$32,000	\$70,000	\$73,005	\$88,750	\$84,000
Comprehensive Plans	\$19,000	\$32,000	\$70,000	\$73,005	\$88,750	\$88,750	\$113,000
Action Grants	\$24,650	\$70,000	\$97,500	\$113,000	\$113,000	\$113,000	\$113,000
Discretionary Grants	\$4,350	\$	\$47,500	\$97,500	\$45,000	\$45,000	\$44,500
Aid for Correctional Institutions and Programs	\$	\$	\$47,500	\$97,500	\$45,000	\$45,000	\$44,500
(E Block and E Discretionary)	\$	\$18,000	\$22,500	\$31,000	\$40,098	\$40,098	\$42,500
Manpower Development	\$6,500	\$18,000	\$22,500	\$31,000	\$31,598	\$31,598	\$26,000
National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice	\$3,000	\$7,500	\$7,500	\$21,000	\$21,200	\$24,000	\$26,000
Data Systems and Statistical Assistance	\$	\$1,000	\$4,000	\$9,700	\$10,000	\$12,000	\$14,000
Technical Assistance	\$	\$1,200	\$4,000	\$6,000	\$	\$	\$25,000 ^c
Juvenile Justice	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
Administration	\$2,500	\$4,487	\$7,454	\$11,823	\$15,568	\$17,577	\$21,000

—During fiscal year 1974, LEAA allocated \$9,695,466 in Part C and Part E funds to 27 States to develop standards and goals.

—During fiscal year 1975, a total of \$3,272,605 in Part C and Part E funds was allocated to 14 States to begin standards and goals activities.

—During fiscal year 1975, 14 States received a total of \$2,194,344 in Part C and Part E funds to enable them to continue their standards and goals programs.

—During fiscal years 1974 and 1975, a total of 32 States received standards and goals technical assistance.

—Four organizations received LEAA assistance for standards and goals efforts aimed at refining and implementing criminal justice standards and goals. The National District Attorneys Association, the American Bar Association, the National Legal Aid and Defenders Association, and the Council of State Governments are all involved in efforts to implement criminal justice standards at the operational level.

By June 30, 1975, six States had completed their standards and goals development process. These States were Georgia, Louisiana, Michigan, Ohio, Oregon, and Utah.

REPORTS OF OFFICE MANAGERS

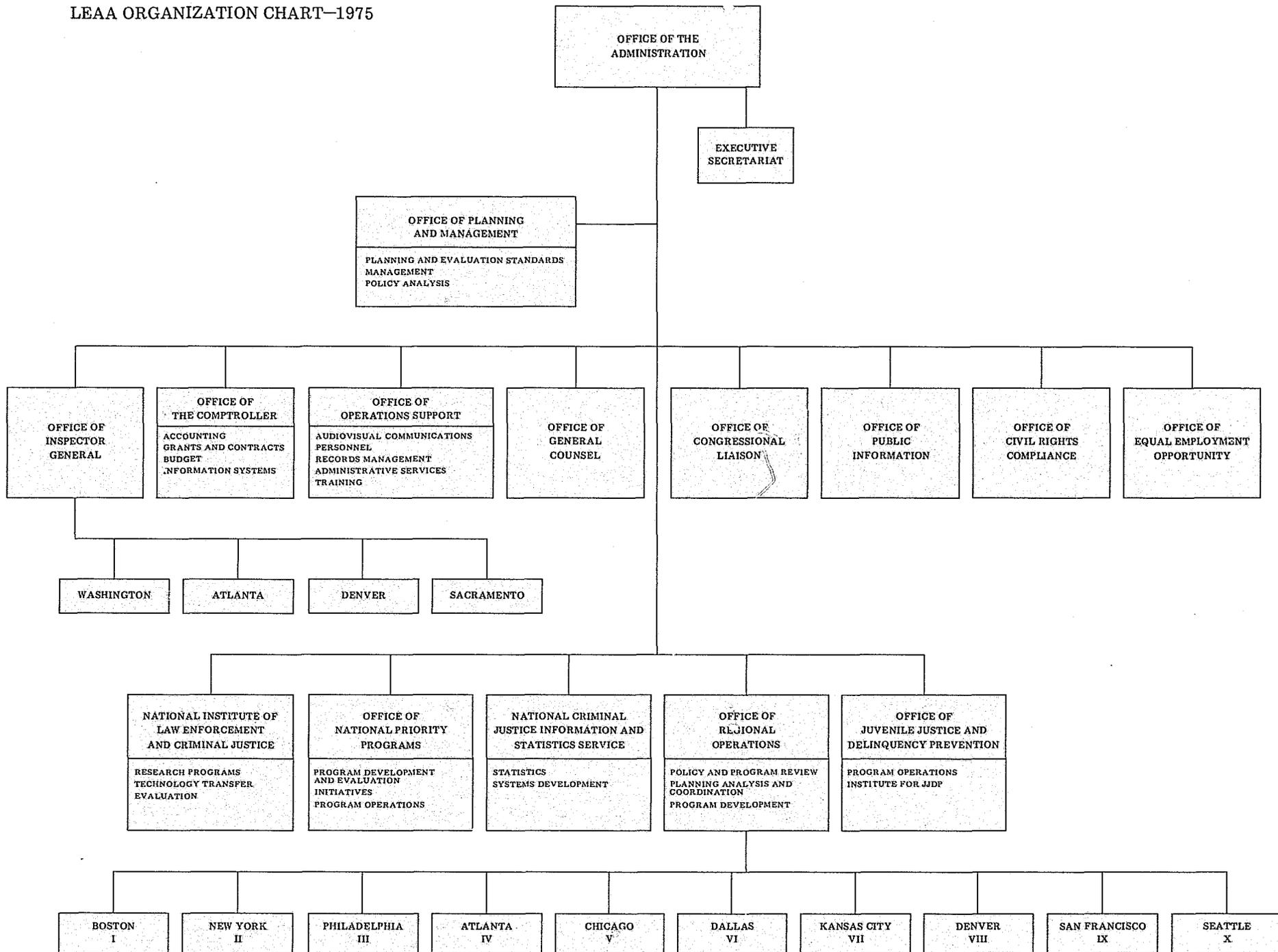
The other chapters in this study present background information on the major subjects of concern to LEAA and current information on LEAA-funded efforts. The chapters set in historical context the central criminal justice problems that are confronted by the criminal justice system, and include brief accounts of how Americans have attempted to solve those problems.

This chapter contains reports submitted by managers of LEAA's major offices. They describe how the offices are organized, what functions they perform, and what they accomplished during fiscal year 1975.



The christening of the first police airplane in the United States. Used by the New York City Police Department. (Dec. 21, 1929)

LEAA ORGANIZATION CHART—1975



U.S. DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE
 LAW ENFORCEMENT ASSISTANCE ADMINISTRATION
 LEAA REGIONAL OFFICES



OFFICE OF REGIONAL OPERATIONS

The Office of Regional Operations coordinates the implementation of the LEAA program through the Agency's 10 regional offices. Its goals are to insure the speedy transmittal of information, directives, guidelines, and policy decisions to the regional offices, and to manage discretionary programs in the area of corrections, organized crime, narcotics and drug abuse, Law Enforcement Education Program, and police. It also has an Indian Affairs Desk that assists in the development of LEAA policy for Indians and other aboriginal Americans.

THE CORRECTIONS DIVISION

The Corrections Division is responsible for programs to improve the delivery of correctional services to offenders with a

special emphasis on offender rehabilitation, diversion of drug abuse offenders, and more effective corrections administration. The division develops, processes, and monitors numerous nationally focused discretionary programs and assists the LEAA central and regional offices on corrections issues. The Courts Initiative program, which operated under ONPP during fiscal year 1975, was transferred to the Office of Regional Operations on July 16, 1975.

Projects funded during fiscal year 1975 include a parole aid program, the provision of legal services to offenders, the development of standards for accrediting correctional institutions, correctional staff training projects, treatment alternatives to street crime, and community-oriented educational and vocational training programs for women offenders.

The division also administers a technical assistance program for correctional agencies that utilizes three contractors: The American Correctional Association, the American Justice Institute, and the National Clearinghouse for Criminal Justice Planning and Architecture. The primary function of the National Clearinghouse is to provide technical assistance for the planning and design of correctional facilities and to insure that the construction of correctional facilities conforms to the highest architectural standards.

Iowa police in chase and arrest practice. (1936)





An old jail in Portsmouth, N.H. (1907)

THE ORGANIZED CRIME SECTION

The Organized Crime Section coordinates LEAA's antiorganized crime and anti-corruption grant program with the regional offices and works with them to develop and monitor such grants. The section also develops, processes, and monitors grants made under the Prosecuting Attorneys' Organized Crime Training Program and projects that provide technical assistance in organized crime matters to State and local criminal justice agencies.

During fiscal year 1975, 28 organized crime discretionary grants totaling \$8,875,397 and representing a 20-percent increase over fiscal year 1974 funding were awarded. Projects in intelligence, investigation, prosecution, training, organized crime prevention councils, corruption control, economic crime, cargo theft, and antifencing were funded.

THE NARCOTICS AND DRUG ABUSE DIVISION

The Narcotics and Drug Abuse Division coordinates LEAA's efforts to assist State and local drug enforcement activities. It also supports programs designed to reduce crime associated with drug addiction.

Intergovernmental cooperation among the Drug Enforcement Administration, the National Institute on Drug Abuse, and the Special Action Office for Drug Abuse Prevention has resulted in initiation of or assistance to the Drug Enforcement Administration Task Force Program, Diversion Investigation Units, Metropolitan Narcotic Enforcement Groups, and the Treatment Alternatives to Street Crime Program.

In conjunction with other Federal agencies, LEAA provided \$20 million in awards for narcotics control and drug abuse programs for fiscal year 1975. The division:

- Developed or continued 16 TASC (Treatment Alternatives to Street Crimes) projects, designed to identify, refer to treatment, and track drug abusers within the criminal justice system.
- Implemented or continued seven narcotic enforcement units to identify and apprehend street-level distributors of narcotics and dangerous drugs.
- Supported seven diversion units to con-

trol the illegal distribution of controlled substances from legitimate wholesale and retail outlets. Five of these units were initiated in fiscal year 1975.

—Supported 43 Drug Enforcement Administration task force units to assist local law enforcement in dealing with traffickers.

—Implemented five narcotics enforcement units to identify and apprehend street-level distributors of narcotics and dangerous drugs.

THE LAW ENFORCEMENT EDUCATION PROGRAM DIVISION

The Law Enforcement Education Program administers the LEAA criminal justice education program. Since the inception of LEAA, the Law Enforcement Education Program has provided grants and loans totaling more than \$180 million to 250,000 men and women to pursue college degrees.

Program grants and loans to persons employed in criminal justice agencies enable them to enroll in college courses that will enhance their criminal justice capabilities. Grants are awarded for tuition, fees,

Prisoners in the first Kansas City, Mo., police wagon. (Date unknown.)





*A New York City Police Department matron.
(Ca. 1910)*

and books for amounts not exceeding \$250 per academic quarter or \$400 per academic semester. Loans cover the student's costs up to \$2,200 per academic year. Grantees who remain in the criminal justice system for two years following completion of the course are forgiven the amount of the grant. Loan recipients receive a 25-percent cancellation of indebtedness for each year of full-time employment with a criminal justice agency following the completion of full-time study.

More than 80 percent of the Law Enforcement Education Program participants have been inservice students, and 80 percent of these have been police employees. Inservice students, most of whom are enrolled part time, received approximately 75 percent of 1975 funds. Preservice students, who attend school full time, received 25 percent. In fiscal year 1975, 1,073 institutions received \$43,935,250 in LEEP funds, including funds from prior year appropriations. (A table of distribution of LEEP funds in fiscal year 1975 appears in the Appendix.)

THE POLICE DIVISION

The Police Division has these functions:

- To support, through direct funding or by technical assistance, programs that will assist the productivity as well as the apprehension potential of law enforcement agencies throughout the United States.
- To provide technical assistance and professional guidance to police specialists in LEAA regional offices.
- To represent LEAA in national police-oriented seminars and programs.

During fiscal year 1975, more than 1,700 police agencies received assistance, including crime prevention training, management training, operational assistance, manpower allocation surveys, bomb handling-investigation, and 300 other courses and categories of technical aid. More than 3,000 law enforcement officers from patrol officers to sheriffs and police commanders have received direct technical assistance instruction from the nearly \$5 million of programs developed and implemented by the Police Division.

THE LEAA INDIAN DESK

The LEAA Indian Desk provides funding to tribes and aboriginal groups that have the responsibility for criminal justice programs affecting their members. These criminal justice programs may include police, courts, corrections, and juvenile projects.

Awards to single Indian tribes range from several thousand dollars to \$500,000. Applications are made through the SPA's and regional offices. Projects funded are for training, assessment, and program development as well as evaluation.

The National Indian Criminal Justice Consultation Committee meets two times a year to consult on national priorities, national scope projects, regional allocations, policy, and legislation. The committee consists of 12 Indians from various parts of the country, Indian coordinators from six regional offices, and six representatives from the States with significant Indian populations.

NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF LAW ENFORCEMENT AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE

For a description of organization, activities, and current projects of the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, see the chapter entitled Research.

NATIONAL CRIMINAL JUSTICE INFORMATION AND STATISTICS SERVICE

The National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service consists of two divisions—Statistics and Systems Development—and the Security and Privacy Staff. The Statistics Division was established during fiscal year 1970 to provide national criminal justice data and assistance to State statistical operations. At that time only four programs provided statistics for State and local criminal justice agencies: the FBI's Uniform Crime Reports; the juvenile delinquency statistics in the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; the expenditure and employment data in the Bureau of the Census; and the National Prisoner Statistics series in the Bureau of Prisons. The Statistics Division has now assumed responsibility for the last three programs.

The Systems Development Division was established in early 1971 as the Technical Assistance Branch to assist the States in developing information systems. Subsequently, the Systems Development Division has provided policy directives for the States, worked with regional LEAA systems specialists to assist the States, and coordinated and monitored the efforts of Project SEARCH, the multi-State consortium of representatives from the criminal justice community concerned with criminal justice information systems.

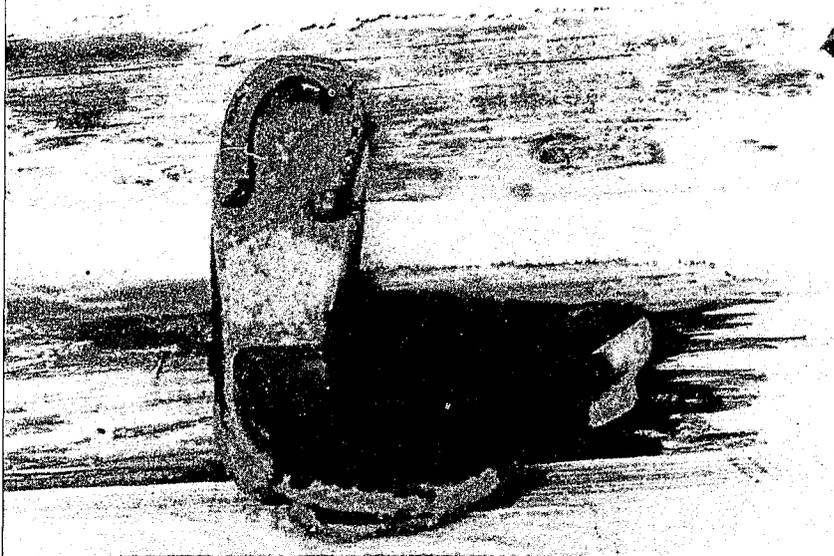
The Security and Privacy Staff was created during fiscal year 1973 to administer the regulations issued pursuant to Sections 524(a) and 524(b) of the Crime Control Act of 1973 (Public Law 93-83).

THE STATISTICS DIVISION FUNCTION

The Statistics Division is responsible for generating national crime statistics related to the incidence of crime, to offenders, and to the operation of the criminal justice system. The program for producing such national statistical crime series includes conceptualization of requisite crime measures, design of appropriate data collection modes, compilation and analysis of findings, interpretation and reporting of findings, and publication and dissemination of continuing statistical series and special analyses. Since its inception the division has developed more than a dozen statistical series covering all aspects of the criminal justice system—victimization, systemwide statistical programs, corrections, judicial, and juvenile justice statistics.

A parallel responsibility is the development of State statistical capability to provide support for State and local criminal justice planning and operations. Program emphasis is given to coordination of State programs and State assistance to national statistical series.

A major program, the National Crime Panel Survey, was designed to assess the extent and character of criminal victimization through a representative probability sampling of households and commercial establishments. The program has two main elements—a continuous national survey and surveys taken periodically in selected major cities.



Shoes used by Wyoming criminals to leave misleading footprints during escapes. (Ca. 1880)

Victimization surveys obtain information not otherwise available on crime and its impact by focusing on the victim. The results from these surveys, along with official police statistics, help law enforcement officials to attack the crime problem more effectively. Official police statistics continue to provide workload measures, counts of police-known incidents, and tactical information about what types of crime are occurring in a city, county, or other local area. The National Crime Panel Surveys, on the other hand, tell law enforcement officials the nature and extent of unreported crime and provide information on the reasons why citizens fail to notify police of crime victimizations.

A second major program encompasses several statistical programs that are system-wide in scope. These include the annual survey of criminal justice expenditures and employment, which covers fiscal year expenditures and employment levels for States, counties, municipalities, and other jurisdictions with a population of 10,000 or more persons.

National and State-by-State estimates of expenditure and employment are published for each of the sectors of the criminal justice system—police, judicial, prosecution, indigent defense, and correctional activities. Another overall program is LEAA's Directory of Criminal Justice Agencies. Its 10 volumes report on names and addresses of all agencies in the police, prosecution, indigent defense, court, and corrections sectors. Volumes are organized by Federal region. The division also sponsors a nationwide survey of the characteristics of criminal justice employees. A sample of 3,000 to 5,000 agencies throughout the criminal justice system and of 50,000 of their employees was surveyed in early 1975. Data collected included the employees' sociodemographic characteristics, occupational experience, and educational background. Finally, the division produces the annual Sourcebook of Criminal Justice Statistics, which presents, in a single volume, data from more than 100 sources of criminal justice statistics.

A third major program is a series of statistical surveys and censuses in the field of corrections, collectively referred to as

National Prisoner Statistics. This program provides statistical profiles of the inmates and the institutions in which they are confined. The National Prisoner Statistics program concerns State prisons and prisoners and includes several component data collection efforts. One such program addresses jails and jail inmates and periodically collects information about institutions such as characteristics of employees, physical facilities of the jail, and rehabilitation programs provided. It also collects information about the inmates, such as their socioeconomic characteristics, work experiences, criminal history, confinement status, and offense.

Other major correctional series include the Summary of Movement of Sentenced Persons, which is an annual program designed to collect data on population movements in and out of the prison system; Characteristics of Admissions and Releases, which provides data on persons admitted to and released from State institutions; the Census of State Correctional Facilities, which focuses on facilities, programs, and administration; and the collection of data about persons executed under civil authority as well as those sentenced to death.

In addition, the division collects data and analyzes programs related to judicial and juvenile justice activities. In regard to the adjudication function, the division has produced a publication describing the organization of State and local courts that is updated as court reorganizations occur. Finally, the division assumed responsibility for the Juvenile Detention and Correctional Facilities statistical program, transferred from the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and now publishes the report, Children in Custody, covering 2,000 juvenile detention and correctional facilities.

The division supports research primarily through grants to nonprofit organizations and universities. Current and proposed programs include the National Crime Victim Survey Evaluation, research into the self-reporting of crime, social indicators of personal harm, and the development of seriousness scales based on the public's perception of crime.

A number of other programs support analytical activities. These activities re-



No.	P. 7. 2. 9. - 15-97	
Name	Butch Cassidy alias Butch Cassidy	
Alias	Ingersfield right name, Robt. Parker	
Age	32	Height 5ft 9" Weight 165
Complexion	Light	Hair Flaxen
Eyes	Blue	Beard _____ Teeth _____
Nationality	American	
Marks and Scars	2 cuts scars back head Small red scar under left eye. eyes deep set. Small brown mole call of leg.	
Arrested for	Grand Larceny Summit Co. Wyo.	
Remarks	July 15-94 Pardon'd Jan 19-97 by Gov. Richards Home in Circle Valley Utah Sandy beard & mustache if any.	
	1166	

Robert Parker alias Butch Cassidy and the record of his arrest for grand larceny on July 15, 1894. (1894)



Kansas City, Mo., wagon. (Ca. 1895)

cently completed or currently underway include the analysis of Impact City victim data by criminal justice researchers and personnel in the cities in which the data were collected; the analysis of attitude data from the victimization survey and its relationship to victimization experiences, and analyses of juvenile justice processing decisions, offender-based transaction statistics, and public opinion about criminal justice topics.

THE SYSTEMS DEVELOPMENT DIVISION

The primary mission of the Systems Development Division is to establish programs to address local, State, and interstate criminal justice information and communication needs. The program focuses on the development, testing, and transfer of new systems applications as well as the enhancement of existing system capabilities. It is based on the premise that the quality of criminal justice planning operations is dependent on a timely access to information and sources of expertise and that information systems and communications technology can play a vital role in effective decisionmaking.

One of the largest programs of the division is Comprehensive Data Systems

(CDS). CDS is a major effort to encourage the States to collect comprehensive criminal justice information to use in planning, implementing, and evaluating criminal justice programs at the State and national levels. Because the administration of criminal justice is largely a State and local function, much of the data needed for national planning must be developed at this level. There are three systems components that the States must agree to adopt before receiving LEAA discretionary funds for the implementation of information systems under the program: the Statistical Analysis Center, the State Uniform Crime Reporting systems, and the Offender-Based Transaction Statistic-Computerized Criminal Histories. During fiscal year 1975, five States received approval of their CDS Action Plans, bringing to 37 the number of States actively participating in CDS. Six more were under preparation or review.

Another major program within the division is designed to advance State and local telecommunications to meet local, intrastate, and interstate needs. During fiscal year 1975, the division funded a review and assessment of the telecommunications planning in the 50 States, the District of Columbia, and the cities of New York, Chicago, and Los Angeles. The task was undertaken by the Associated Public Safety Communications Officers, Inc.

The second phase of the upgrading of the National Law Enforcement Telecommunications System, a network that exchanges criminal justice information among the States, became operational during fiscal year 1975. Thirty-three of the 48 contiguous States currently support a computer-to-computer link with the system.

The National Law Enforcement Communications analysis and design program defined requirements through 1983 for criminal justice telecommunications services and analyzed financial performance implications of alternative systems. The manual, The National Law Enforcement Telecommunications Network Analysis-Final Report, Phase II, presenting the project's findings, was published and disseminated to provide guidance, direction, and coordination for the development or the modification of local and State criminal

justice telecommunications resources.

In Alameda County, California, a 911 emergency telephone service trial hardware implementation and system evaluation program is now underway. This service will provide three advanced features not currently available in any other community: (1) Selective Routing—In a county where the political boundaries do not coincide with telephone exchange boundaries, an electronic system will be devised to selectively route the 911 call to the public safety unit that has jurisdiction for that area; (2) Automated Number Identification—The phone number of the caller will be automatically recorded at the public safety office in the event additional information is needed; and (3) Automated Location Identification—The location of the caller will be automatically recorded at the public safety office in case the caller is not able to provide this information.

A fifth major Systems Development program concerns information systems. The Office's efforts continued in fiscal year 1975 to replicate and transfer successful automated criminal justice information systems that have been thoroughly tested and proven to be effective. One such system, the Prosecutor's Management Information System (PROMIS), which originated in the Superior Court of the District of Columbia, has been transferred nationwide. The PROMIS system is in operation in Los Angeles County, California; Cobb County, Georgia; Wayne County, Michigan. It is being implemented in more than a dozen other locations.

A study of the FBI's National Crime Information Center by the International Association of Chiefs of Police culminated in the compilation of a Property Identification Handbook describing the identification serial numbers of major items and appliances that are frequently the subject of stolen article inquiries. The handbook has been distributed to the 2,500 largest police departments in the United States.

Realizing that police information constitutes only part of a criminal record and does not usually include court dispositions or incarceration records, the division is supporting the development of prototype information systems for courts and correc-

tions. The State Judicial Information System (SJIS) and the parallel Offender-Based State Correctional Information System (OBSCIS) are being designed in connection with the National Prisoner Statistics System and with the CCH/Offender-Based Tracking System.

Phase I of the SJIS Project was completed under the auspices of SEARCH Group, Inc., in fiscal year 1975. The goal of this project is to establish the minimum judicial data elements required to design and document a model for collecting and analyzing judicial information. Ultimately the system will assist in the planning, management, and operation of court systems at the State level.

The Offender-Based State Corrections Information System is a two-phase program to develop, test, implement, and evaluate a system for the collection, processing, and utilization of a State-level corrections information system. Under the direction of SEARCH Group, Inc., Phase I has been completed and resulted in documentation for a model program.

PRIVACY AND SECURITY STAFF FUNCTION

The Privacy and Security Staff was created during fiscal year 1973 to assist in drafting and administering regulations issued pursuant to Sections 524(a) and 524(b) of the Crime Control Act of 1973. The 524(b) regulations were published in the Federal Register on May 20, 1975. They insure the privacy and security of criminal history record information; limit dissemination of such information; require that criminal history record information be collected, stored, and disseminated in a manner that insures the completeness, integrity, accuracy, and security of such information; and insure the individual's right to access and challenge of data.

The regulations also require the States to submit a Privacy and Security Plan setting forth the operational procedures to insure compliance. Under the Privacy and Security program, supplementary instructions were developed and training workshops were sponsored to aid the States in complying with these regulations. A 50-State grant program was also initiated to provide finan-

cial support for plan preparation.

Regulations being drafted under 524(a) are intended to insure the confidentiality of research and statistical material. Draft regulations for this purpose have been published in the Federal Register and it is expected that they will be issued in final form in fiscal year 1976.

STATISTICS DIVISION ACCOMPLISHMENTS

Twenty reports were published in fiscal year 1975 as part of the Statistics Division data collection program. Five were National Crime Victim surveys, both nationwide and in selected cities. The Bureau of the Census collected, tabulated, and analyzed data for the surveys as well as for the following programs:

—A 10-volume series, Criminal Justice Agencies in Regions One through Ten, brought up to date a series first published in fiscal year 1972 listing the name, address, and county of each agency in each State, by function and level of government, as well as national and State summary statistics.

—Expenditure and Employment Data for the Criminal Justice System, 1972-73, is the seventh in an annual series. It presents both summary data on Federal, State, county, and municipal expenditures and employment and breakdowns for police, courts, corrections, legal services and prosecution, indigent defense, and other criminal justice functions.

—Capital Punishment 1971-1972 and Capital Punishment 1973 were published in fiscal year 1975 under the National Prisoner Statistics program. One of the Federal Government's oldest statistical series, the program was transferred from the Bureau of Prisons to LEAA in 1971. In various stages of collection, tabulation, and analysis during the year were three special NPS reports, Census of State Correctional Facilities, Survey of Inmates of State Correctional Institutions, and a three-year annual report, Prisoners in State and Federal Institutions on December 31, 1971, 1972, and 1973.

—In 1971 LEAA took over from the Department of Health, Education, and Wel-



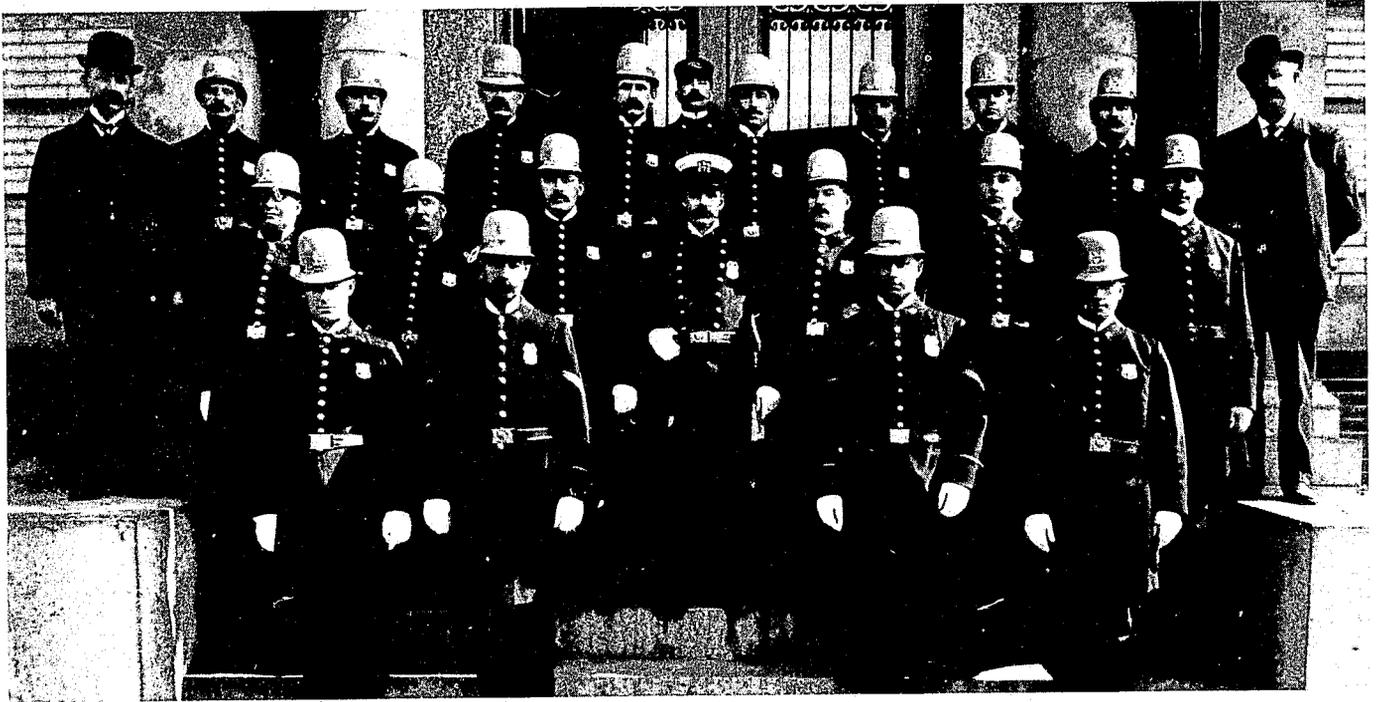
The Berkeley, Calif., Police Department. (Ca. 1911)

fare an annual survey of public residential facilities for adjudicated juveniles and broadened it to include, for the first time, facilities for juveniles awaiting court action. The first in the Children in Custody series described the 1971 survey results; the second, the combined 1972-73 results. The 1974 survey was expanded to include both public and private facilities.

—Survey of Inmates of Local Jails, 1972 (Advance Report) presented the first nationwide assessment of the socioeconomic characteristics of jail inmates and the second nationwide jail census, updating the 1970 census.

LEAA assumed funding responsibility in 1972 for the Uniform Parole Reports program. The Research Center of the National Council on Crime and Delinquency issued in fiscal year 1975 four newsletters describing the success and failure rates of State parolees and one report describing the national reporting system.

The 500-page Sourcebook of Criminal Justice Statistics 1973 was published as part of the program to demonstrate to State and local planners and other users of criminal justice statistics how available data can be used for solving practical problems.



New York City police officers. (1905)

It is an annual series compiling nationwide statistics from a broad spectrum of sources in one comprehensive reference volume.

THE SYSTEMS DEVELOPMENT DIVISION ACCOMPLISHMENTS

The division is currently updating and expanding a Directory of Automated Criminal Justice Information Systems, initially published in 1972. It is also developing a series of handbooks and manuals that will provide policy, guidelines, and procedures in the electronic data processing and communications field for LEAA, SPA's, and grantees.

During fiscal year 1975, the division funded a Comprehensive Data System Cost and Benefits Study to project development and operating costs associated with installing each component of the Comprehensive Data System program in the various States. The study indicated certain adjustments and policy changes that could result in significant cost savings.

OFFICE OF JUVENILE JUSTICE AND DELINQUENCY PREVENTION

For a description of the organization, activities, and current projects of the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, see the chapter entitled Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

OFFICE OF NATIONAL PRIORITY PROGRAMS

The Office of National Priority Programs, created in February 1974, develops crime reduction programs that address major crime problems and prompt citizen involvement in criminal justice processes.

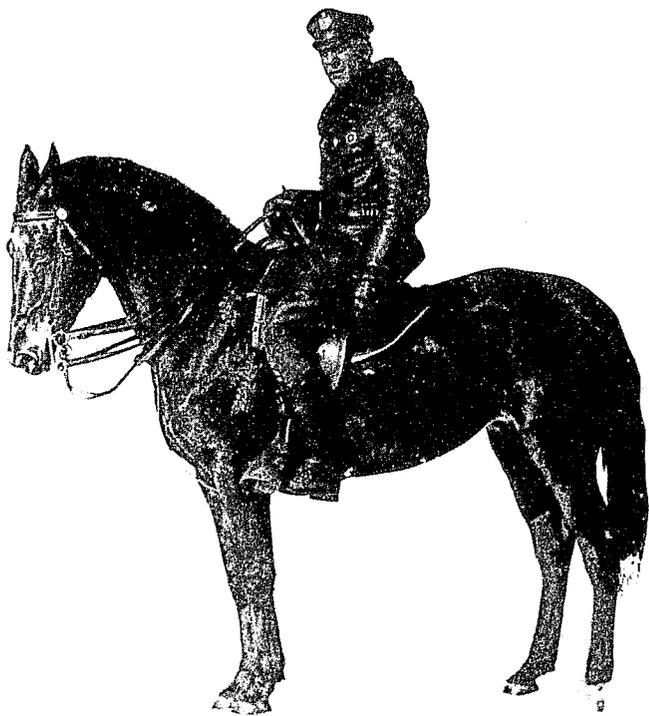
The Office consists of five divisions. Four are major priority program divisions: Crime Prevention Initiative, Citizens Initiative, Career Criminal Initiative, and Standards and Goals Initiative. The Courts Initiative program, which operated under ONPP during fiscal year 1975, was transferred to the Office of Regional Operations on July 16, 1975. The division of Program Development and Evaluation develops new programs and provides planning, analysis, and evaluation assistance to the four other divisions.

Citizens' Initiative Division. This program, begun in 1974, was an outgrowth of the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, and LEAA's National Crime Panel Survey, which noted that citizen apathy and indifference contribute to the spread of crime. The purpose is to develop projects that result in the prevention and reduction of crime through citizen action.

Early in fiscal year 1975, LEAA reserved \$3 million for a national competition entitled "Justice for Victims, Witnesses, and Jurors."

The Kansas City, Mo., Police Department. (1896)





Maine State Police officer. (Ca. 1920)

Career Criminal Initiative Division. LEAA provided more than \$9 million for this program, which is designed to focus the attention and resources of the criminal justice system on the repeat serious offender. Its purpose is to design and implement model programs that will allow for the speedy prosecution of persons whose criminal histories indicate repeated commissions of dangerous criminal acts, specifically, offenders who frequently commit homicide, forcible sex offenses, aggravated assault, robbery, and burglary.

The goals of this program are to (1) reduce pretrial delay, (2) reduce the number of cases in which charges are reduced through plea bargaining, (3) reduce the number of continuances per case, and (4) reduce the number of cases dismissed because witnesses were not given effective notice of the necessity of their appearance in court.

Approximately \$4 million has been awarded to Dallas, Texas; Houston, Texas; New Orleans, Louisiana; Salt Lake City, Utah; Indianapolis, Indiana; San Diego, California; Kalamazoo, Michigan; Detroit, Michigan; Suffolk County (Boston), Massachusetts; Columbus, Ohio; Manhattan, New York; and Rhode Island.

The Standards and Goals Initiative Division. The Standards and Goals Initiative Division was established during fiscal year 1974 to help the States:

- Meet the statutory requirement to include “goals, priorities, and standards” in their comprehensive planning.
- Institutionalize a broadbased participatory criminal justice planning process with input from criminal justice practitioners and representatives of the community.
- Expand the State Planning Agency role in setting policy for State criminal justice systems by relating LEAA Block Funds to other State expenditures in the Comprehensive Plan.
- Increase the commitment to and participation in setting the direction of the criminal justice system among the public, elected officials, and criminal justice practitioners.

The LEAA Discretionary Grant Program

in Standards and Goals has assisted 41 States to analyze the States' criminal justice system, develop a comprehensive set of statewide performance standards for criminal justice agencies, integrate the adopted standards into the comprehensive planning process, and implement specific standards on the operational level.

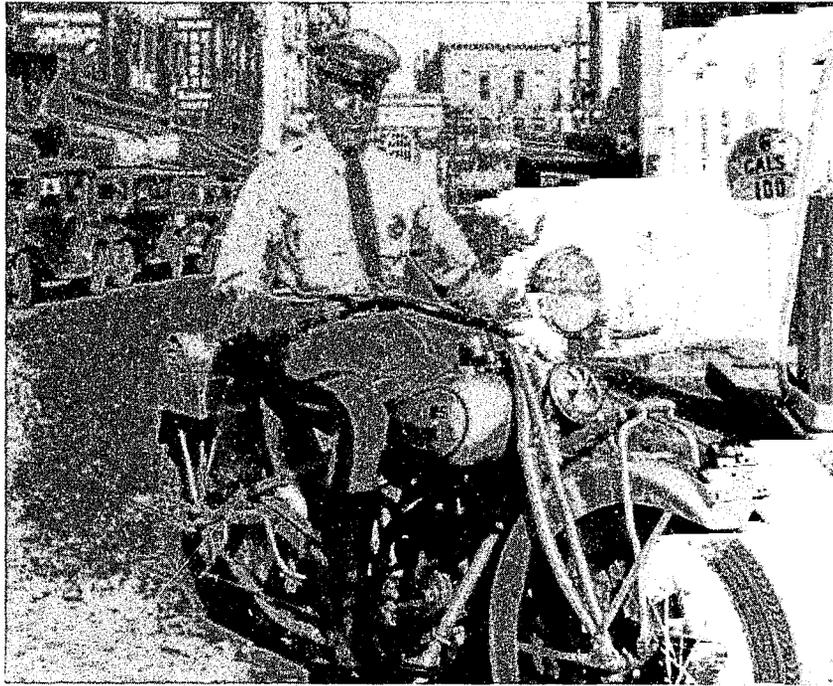
During fiscal year 1975, 14 States were awarded \$2,194,344 in discretionary funds to continue their programs, and an additional 14 States were awarded \$3,272,605 to begin the process. This brings the total to more than \$15 million for support of the Standards and Goals process. Twelve States have completed the Standards and Goals process and have begun to implement priority standards. National projects to develop standards in the areas of prosecution, judicial administration, and defense have been supported.

Courts Initiative Division. The renewed LEAA program emphasis on courts launched a courts initiative during 1974. During fiscal year 1975, approximately \$12 million in central office discretionary funds were used for new courts projects.

The Courts Division is responsible for developing and implementing programs that improve the efficiency of adjudication at the State and local level. It reviews, processes, and monitors numerous national discretionary projects and serves as a clearinghouse for courts information for the central and regional offices. The Courts Division concentrated fiscal year 1975 activities on the development and functioning of State court planning units and the delivery of technical assistance to facilitate modernization efforts within State and local court systems.

Projects funded included support for the National Center for State Courts (which provides technical assistance for State court planning), a national technical assistance program administered by The American University, a community arbitration-mediation project in Boston, and a National District Attorneys Association project to combat white-collar crime in 15 localities.

Early in fiscal year 1976, administration of the LEAA courts program was transferred from ONPP to the Office of Regional Operations.



Maine State Police officer. (1933)

Program Development and Evaluation Division. The Division has the responsibility for project evaluations. The Division policy on evaluation requires that all grants have evaluation components unless the requirement is waived by the Assistant Administrator in charge of ONPP. The evaluations must be carried out by evaluators who are independent and qualified in experimental design and statistical analysis. The qualifications of proposed evaluators, the evaluation plans, and the evaluation reports must be reviewed and approved by this Division.

Thirty-one grant applications, ranging in size from \$22,000 to \$1.3 million and totaling \$10 million were evaluated during fiscal year 1975. Other already awarded projects involving substantial additional amounts are being subjected to overall program evaluations.

At the end of the fiscal year, this division had developed a new Crimes Against Businesses Initiative to counter such offenses as arson, shoplifting, fraud, and employee theft.

At work in the Berkeley, Calif., Police Department. (Ca. 1914)



OFFICE OF GENERAL COUNSEL

The Office of General Counsel provides legal opinions, interpretations, and advice concerning LEAA's authorization and appropriations legislation, regulations, and guidelines. The Office also provides legal guidance and assistance in LEAA's compliance with other Federal statutes, such as the Freedom of Information Act, the Privacy Act, the Federal Advisory Committee Act, the Clean Air Act, the National Environmental Policy Act, the National Historic Preservation Act, the Uniform Relocation Assistance and Real Property Acquisition Policies Act, the Intergovernmental Personnel Act, the Congressional Budget and Impoundment Control Act, the Joint Funding Simplification Act, the Intergovernmental Cooperation Act, and various provisions of the U.S. Code.

The Office also drafts and approves legal documents and provides advice on legal matters concerning procurement and contracts. The Office participates in all administrative hearings involving the Agency and assists the Department of Justice in court proceedings involving LEAA. The Office issued 59 formal legal opinions in two volumes during the fiscal year and it issued hundreds of informal opinions.

The Office together with the Federal Bureau of Investigation drafted regulations governing data contained in criminal justice information systems. The regulations were published in the Federal Register on May 20, 1975. In helping the States comply with the regulations, the Office prepared a 389-page compendium of State laws governing the privacy and security of criminal justice information.

Proposed draft regulations to implement Section 524(a) of the Safe Streets Act relating to use of research and statistical information were prepared and have been published in the Federal Register.

The Office published a 440-page indexed legislative history of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974 (Public Law 93-415). The Office also participated in training sessions on the Act in each of the LEAA regions.

Work on two more compendiums expected in fiscal year 1976 also has begun. They will deal with State laws and Ex-

ecutive orders establishing the SPA's, and State hearing and appeal procedures. A report, "Analysis of the Legal Formulation on State Planning Agencies Under The Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, as Amended," was completed and distributed.

OFFICE OF INSPECTOR GENERAL

The Office of Inspector General is operationally independent of other Agency offices. It provides national direction, control, and leadership for integrated comprehensive audit, investigation, review, and internal inspection services for LEAA and for all parties performing under LEAA contracts, grants, or other agreements. The Office investigates alleged irregularities and conducts special inquiries; it coordinates those investigations with other Federal and State investigative agencies. It also provides training and technical assistance to State and local audit functions. The Office consists of four headquarters divisions and four field divisions. For the addresses of the field offices, see the Appendix.

The Office is responsible for the auditing of other Federal funds in specified organizations. The Federal agency that has the most Federal money in a particular State agency or nongovernmental unit has the audit responsibility for the Federal money in that agency or unit. Currently LEAA is responsible for the audits of more than 20 State agencies and 28 nongovernmental entities. Most of the nongovernmental units are nonprofit, private organizations associated with the criminal justice field.

A three-day session is also held annually at the Interagency Auditor Training Center for the heads of the State audit agencies. This session is to explain LEAA's two-week training program for State auditors, and to explain the LEAA block grant program and the LEAA audit methodology. By this method the Office hopes to speed up each State's assumption of audit and review responsibilities.

Coordination on the actual audits is another way in which the Office attempts to work with the States. There has been State auditor participation on Office audit teams in 31 States. In another five States,



*Berkeley, Calif., police officer calling in an arrest.
(1921)*

there has been limited participation. This total plan provides a means for each State more readily to assume its responsibility for auditing its block grant program, eliminating the need for a large staff of LEAA auditors, and for strengthening State audit capabilities.

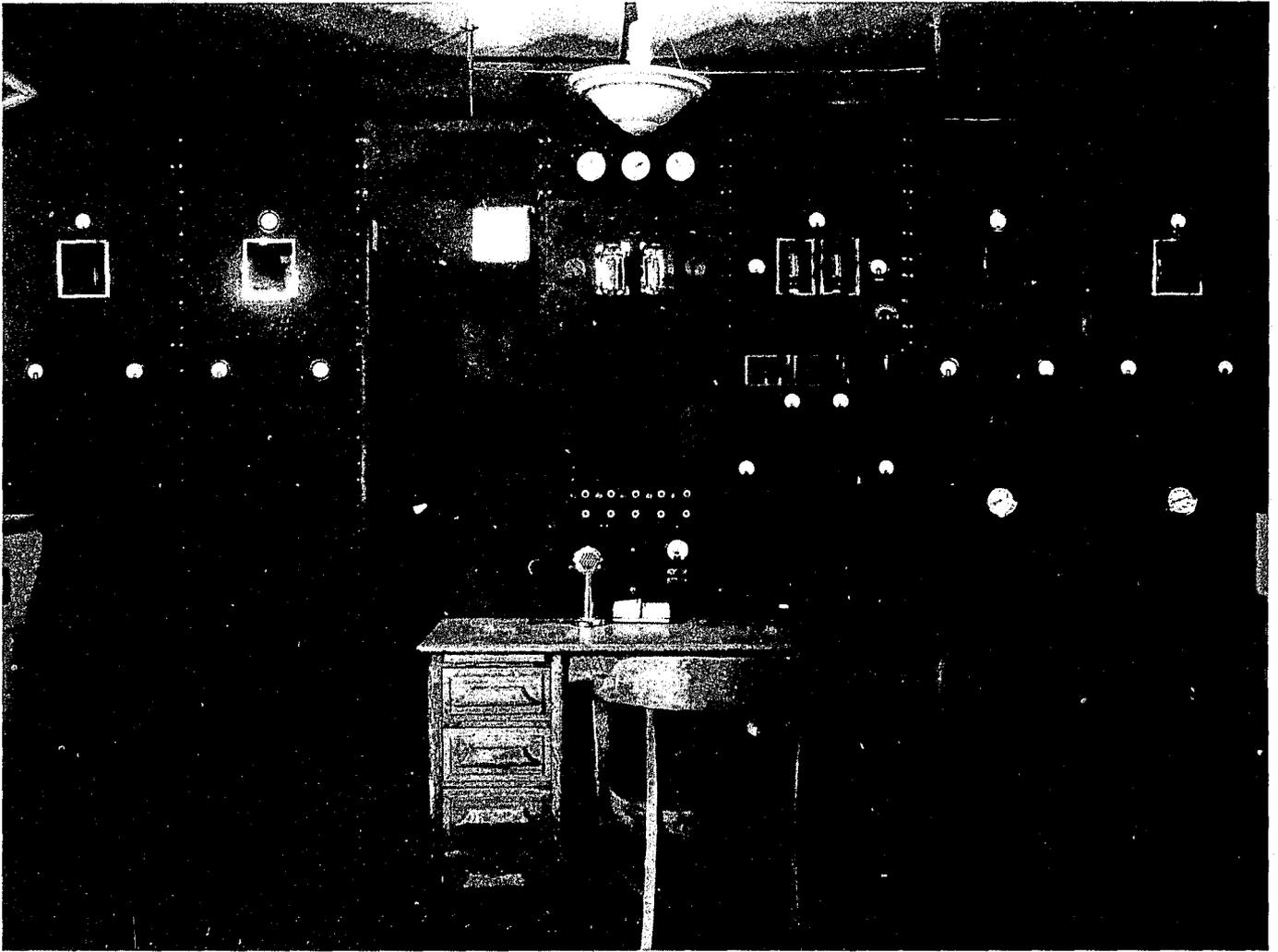
During fiscal year 1975, the Office completed 261 audits, reviews, and inspections. The Office continued its effort to assist the States in assuming the responsibility for comprehensive audits of LEAA programs. The inspection and investigative functions were strengthened with inspections or reviews of the 10 regional offices and 57 investigations accomplished during the fiscal year.

During each year since fiscal year 1972, the Office has sponsored a series of two-week training programs for State and SPA auditors responsible for auditing SPA's and their subgrantees. During fiscal year 1974, a special one-week advanced course was begun for those who had previously attended the initial course. Classroom instruction has been given to 781 auditors—535 in the two-week course and 246 in the advanced course. In fiscal year 1975, 189 State auditors participated in the training course.

OFFICE OF CIVIL RIGHTS COMPLIANCE

LEAA-funded projects and programs are subject to Federal civil rights laws and regulations and to Executive Orders prohibiting discriminatory practices. State and local criminal justice agencies must comply with the provisions of Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1974, the Department of Justice Equal Employment Opportunity Regulations, Section 518(c) of the Crime Control Act of 1973, Section 262 of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974, and Executive Orders 11246 and 11375 prohibiting employment discriminations under federally assisted construction contracts. The Office of Civil Rights Compliance, therefore, is responsible for:

—Conducting compliance reviews of State and local criminal justice agencies receiving LEAA funds.



—Processing complaints of discrimination based on race, religion, sex, age, or national origin alleging discriminatory practices in employment or provision of services.

—Monitoring LEAA-funded construction projects to prevent discrimination in living practices.

—Providing technical assistance to improve employment opportunities and services for minorities and women within the criminal justice system.

The first Berkeley, Calif., Police Department radio communications center. (1919)

During fiscal year 1975, the Office continued developing a reporting system to examine the participation of minorities and women in LEAA-funded programs in correctional institutions and in probation and parole programs. The system will be implemented during fiscal year 1976.

Compliance reviews were expanded to include reviews of selected Equal Employment Opportunity Programs required by

LEAA Guidelines. Preaward reviews were conducted of 41 discretionary grant applications.

One hundred thirty complaints of discrimination were docketed during fiscal year 1975. This was a substantial increase over similar complaints in the previous fiscal year. Most recipient agencies voluntarily comply with the Office's recommendations. If so, the Office monitors the implementation of its recommendations to make sure that the recommendations are being followed. If the agency did not comply voluntarily, LEAA would initiate administration processes for fund termination, and could also take judicial action. The Office has recently begun to refer complaints to SPA's or State or local civil or human rights agencies. The system will be expanded in fiscal year 1976.

Each SPA must provide LEAA with information about all construction or renovation projects that receive more than \$10,000 in LEAA funding. The Office then provides the contractor with monthly reporting forms for the description of minority and female employment on the project. The Office coordinates its activities in this area with the Office of Federal Contract Compliance in the Department of Labor and regularly participates in construction compliance reviews and audits.

LEAA has continued funding the Center for Criminal Justice Agency Organization and Minority Employment Opportunities at Marquette University, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, to help State and local criminal justice agencies improve minority hiring and personnel practices.

LEAA continued to fund the International Association of Official Human Rights Agencies to provide technical assistance and training to SPA's and local criminal justice planners and agencies in equal employment opportunity. The association conducted nine local and four regional training sessions and visited 94 cities to provide technical assistance, training more than 3,200 participants.

The National Urban League was funded to create the Law Enforcement Minority Manpower Project. Operating originally in

An old cellblock still in use. (1975)

three cities, the project is geared to recruit minority men and women for criminal justice careers. The project is designed for replication and now is operating in other cities. Several thousand minority applicants have been recruited and several hundred hired.

A technical assistance grant to the Industrial Relations Center at the University of Chicago was continued to develop a new preselection test for candidates for police work. A new battery of tests will be designed to minimize the adverse impact on minority applicants and to achieve legal and technical validity.

Cleveland, Ohio, was funded to develop job-related promotional examinations and new entrance-level screening procedures having a nondiscriminatory racial or sexual impact.

OFFICE OF EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY

The Office of Equal Employment Opportunity is responsible for assuring observance of legislation prohibiting employment discrimination within LEAA on the basis of race, religion, sex, national origin, or age. The Office assists LEAA management at all levels in taking positive action to eliminate any internal policy, practice, or procedure that denies equality of opportunity to any individual or group.

During fiscal year 1975, the program emphasis shifted from complaints to pre-complaint counseling. As a result, an estimated 95 percent of LEAA employees seeking such assistance are able to resolve problems that might otherwise have resulted in informal or formal complaints. Aiding the situation was the effective liaison and working relationship developed between EEO and the Personnel Office. The goal of the Offices is to identify employee problems and to provide management with a case presentation that includes a recommendation for resolution.

The Office started in 1972 as a two-person office consisting of the EEO officer and a secretary. To date, the staff consists of the EEO officer, two equal opportunity specialists, a secretary, and two part-time staff aides. The additional staff members have enabled the Office to more effectively

implement the equal employment opportunity program at LEAA.

OFFICE OF CONGRESSIONAL LIAISON

The Office of Congressional Liaison's chief functions are to foster effective communications with the Congress and public interest organizations and to develop LEAA recommendations concerning legislative proposals before the Congress.

Working relations with congressional leaders, committees, and staff members, as well as with State and local governments and their respective organizations are among its responsibilities. Proposing LEAA recommendations and positions on legislation in the criminal justice field as well as the preparation of comprehensive reports on legislation and of LEAA testimony to be delivered before the Congress also are duties of this Office.

When the Congress assigned LEAA the responsibility for implementing the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974, congressional inquiries and legislative and oversight activity increased by 50 percent, significantly raising the volume of activity in the Office. Oversight interest was expressed by 16 congressional committees or subcommittees as compared to nine such bodies during fiscal year 1974.

During fiscal year 1975, the Office also responded to more than 3,250 letters from congressional offices and handled approximately 5,000 telephone calls in connection with such inquiries.

PUBLIC INFORMATION OFFICE

LEAA's Public Information Office is responsible for keeping the press and the general public fully informed about the Agency's programs, both as to broad policy and specific details.

The Office's obligations include providing complete details about how the Agency is carrying out its congressional mandate and answering all questions from citizens and news media representatives.

The Office prepares and disseminates news releases, arranges press conferences to announce and describe new projects or important findings, and assists LEAA officials in initiating or responding to re-

quests for news media interviews. The Office is responsible for producing or reviewing most of LEAA's communications with the general public, including written and audiovisual materials.

The Office prepares the LEAA Newsletter, which it publishes at least 10 times a year and distributes to some 37,000 criminal justice professionals, research institutions, schools, colleges, and universities as well as to all other interested citizens. It also publishes an internal newsletter for LEAA employees.

The Office prepares speeches, testimony, and other policy statements for LEAA officials and is responsible for the Agency's annual reports and brochures. It is responsible for coordinating all Freedom of Information Act activity in LEAA.

OFFICE OF THE COMPTROLLER

This Office is the principal adviser to the Administrator on the financial management of LEAA. Specifically, the Office is responsible for:

- Planning, formulating, and executing the Agency's budget.
- Operating and maintaining the Agency's accounting and reporting systems.
- Auditing and scheduling payment on all vouchers and invoices.
- Administering the contract and procurement activity.
- Formulating policies and procedures for the financial administration of grants.
- Providing data processing support for LEAA.
- Providing technical assistance and training to the regional offices and SPA's.

The Office of the Comptroller also provides technical assistance and training to central regional offices and SPA's for financial management, grant administration, budgeting, accounting, and contracting. It also provides systems and data processing support to LEAA, including the development and implementation of a Grants Management Information System and assistance to the National Conference of State Criminal Justice Planning Administrators in developing the SPA management information system.

Its fiscal year 1975 activities included:

-The coordination of the elements within LEAA that are responsible for the financial aspects of the LEAA program.

-The implementation of the recommendations of a Joint Financial Management Improvement Program Project Team for reviewing and analyzing the Law Enforcement Education Program.

-The integration of grant accounting and reporting into a single accounting system.

-The establishment of a centralized grant processing and administration system to insure expeditious processing of grant applications.

-The development of a noncompetitive source selection review board to determine the programmatic necessity for the award of sole source contract awards.

-The implementation of an Automatic Grant Tracking System to assist program managers in determining the status of grant applications, in evaluating the processing of grant applications, and in responding to internal and external inquiries regarding the status of LEAA grant applications and awards.

-The implementation of an administrative procedure that requires LEAA offices to approve or disapprove grant applications within 90 calendar days of receipt.

The Office of the Comptroller also initiated several training courses for LEAA, State, and local employees in procurement processing, and the financial administration and management of the categorical and block grant programs.

The Office of the Comptroller enhanced the Grants Management Information System, an automated management information system. This system contains program data describing all LEAA grants and SPA subgrants. The number of grants in the data base is currently about 85,000. This system provides grant information to Federal, State, and local criminal justice agencies for analysis and planning purposes.

Additionally, this Office pioneered a program for installing a standardized State-level management information system to provide SPA's with a tool for planning, developing, and evaluating their grant programs. This system also fosters the use of standardized procedures and common ter-



minology in transactions between LEAA and the States.

Women's Detention Center in the District of Columbia. (1975)

OFFICE OF OPERATIONS SUPPORT

The Office of Operations Support coordinates support programs in personnel management, health services, delivery system training, audiovisual and communications services, LEAA directives, and publications as well as records, correspondence, files, and forms management for LEAA's central and regional offices. It also is responsible for coordinating all international activities, particularly in programs to counter sky-jacking, terrorism, and narcotics smuggling.

During fiscal year 1975, Operations Support reported that:

—Personnel strength reached 717 employees, an increase from the peak authorized strength of 650 employees reached during fiscal year 1974. LEAA's full-time permanent ceiling increased from 225 in fiscal year 1969 to 763 at the end of fiscal year 1975. The American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees was recognized as the exclusive representative of LEAA headquarters' employees. Officers were elected and a dues-withholding agreement was signed.

—The Personnel Action Review Board concept, developed in the previous year to review the qualifications of all candidates for initial appointment, reassignment, transfer, and promotion at positions GS-14 and above, was expanded to include all actions taken by LEAA that are subject to the merit promotion plan.

The Maine Criminal Justice Academy in Waterville.



—Procedures were developed to utilize volunteer services as a supplement to the Agency's work force.

—A training division was established as a step toward providing a comprehensive program for LEAA employees. The division developed an orientation program consisting of six videotape segments complemented by an orientation manual. The program is conducted in both central and regional offices. A series of technical training programs has been initiated. One of these was in Criminal Justice Planning; this program was developed by the National Institute and implemented by the University of Southern California. Additional programs for State representatives, grants managers, and evaluators were being developed. LEAA personnel participated in 550 training programs, with an average duration of more than 30 hours.

—Approximately \$4.5 million in excess Federal property was acquired and loaned to grantees.

—LEAA established television support services to the central and regional offices as well as to the criminal justice community as a whole. Programs on new Federal Rules of Evidence were videotaped, duplicated, and distributed. An estimated \$100,000 savings were realized by the Department of Justice by disseminating the information in videotape form to 150,000 attorneys. Additionally, a Bicentennial multimedia presentation was made to the Annual ABA Convention on 200 years of criminal justice in the United States.

—During fiscal year 1975, \$658,000 was obligated for international activities. In January 1975, an LEAA Terrorist Information Committee was formed with representatives from various Agency offices and, as an ad hoc member, a staff member of the Working Group-Cabinet Committee to Combat Terrorism.

OFFICE OF PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT

This Office was created in January 1974 to provide general policy direction and control of LEAA's planning, management, and evaluation activities and to advise the Administrator on issues related to achieving LEAA's goals and objectives.

During fiscal year 1975, this Office directed and coordinated the development of Agencywide program and work plans for 1976, and published those plans. It was responsible for the initial planning of the High Crime Area Program. The staff also was involved in management of the Phase II Standards and Goals Task Force, the development of a unified criminal justice education and training program effort, the Compendium of Criminal Justice Projects, LEAA's evaluation policies, and the development of LEAA's guidelines.

Additionally, the Office continued work on the budget development process, participated in drafting LEAA reauthorization legislation, and publication of the Agency's internal monthly publication, Management Briefs.

OFFICE OF THE EXECUTIVE SECRETARIAT

This Office was created in 1974 to facilitate staff coordination and communication to assure timely and high-quality LEAA decisions.

The Office assures the smooth flow of staff recommendations to the Administration and monitors the implementation of administrative decisions. The Office also:

—Handles staff assignments and correspondence.

—Reviews material forwarded to the Administration for format of presentation, quality of response, adequacy of coordination, and consistency with policy.

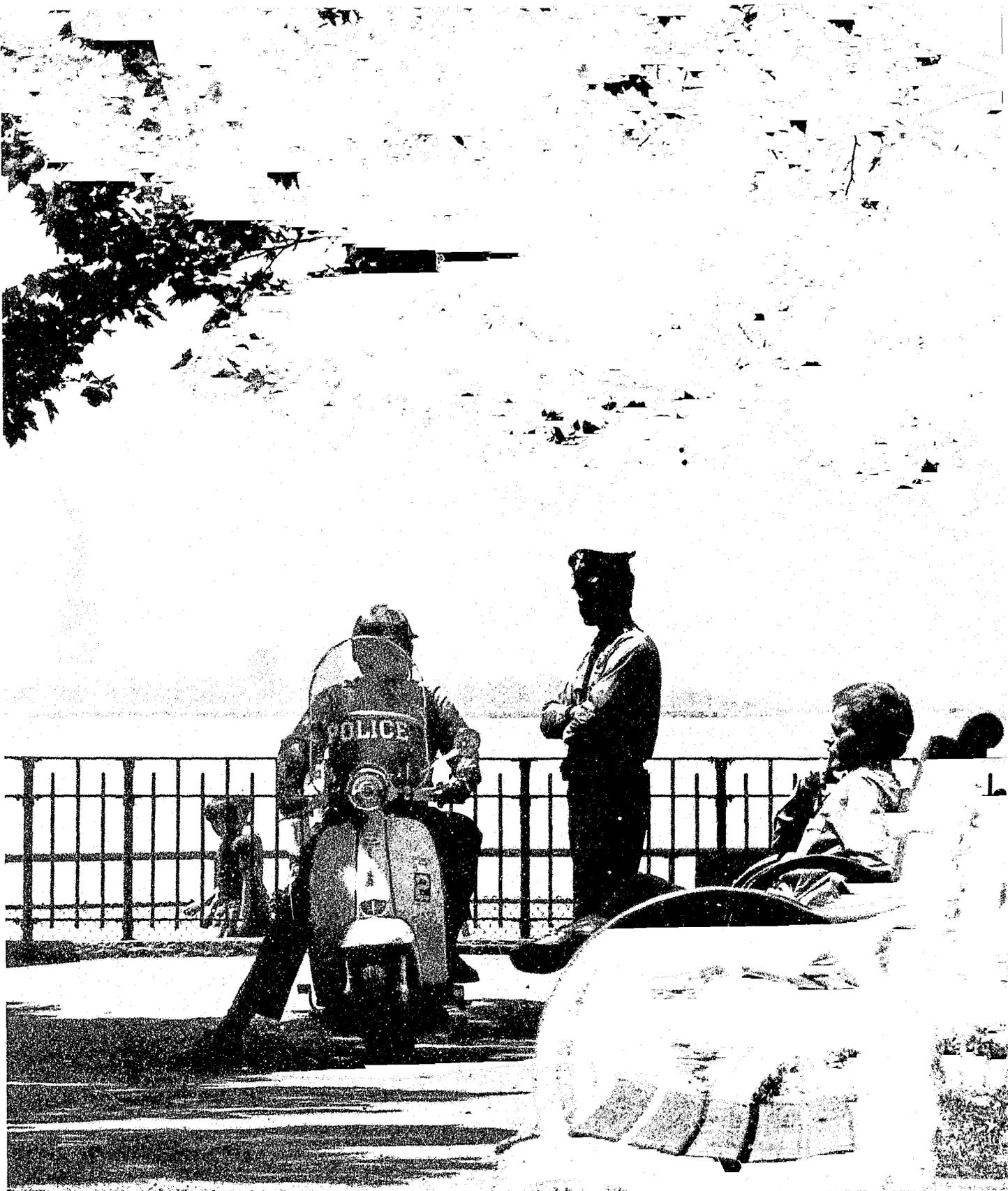
—Screens problems to determine whether particular matters should be submitted to the Administration for resolution and reply or whether action by an office head would be more appropriate.

—Coordinates the agenda and briefing materials for the weekly operations staff meetings.

—Coordinates planning, development, writing, and implementation of guidelines.

—Coordinates and reports on the Freedom of Information Act.

The Director of the Executive Secretariat is the Chairman of the Sole Source Review Board, which provides recommendations to the Administration on non-competitive contracts.



New York City police officers. (1975)

Allocation of Fiscal Year 1975 Part C Funds by Program Categories and by State

State	Funds Available	Legislation	Planning and Evaluation	Research and Info. System	Prevention	Detection, Deterrence, Apprehension	Diversion	Adjudication	Non-Instit. Rehab.	Instit. Rehab.
Alabama	\$8,003,000	—	\$90,000	—	\$1,185,000	\$2,990,000	\$276,000	\$1,696,000	\$1,479,000	\$287,000
Alaska	1,175,000	—	39,000	\$47,000	82,000	440,000	—	122,000	287,000	158,000
Arizona	4,462,000	\$70,000	242,000	714,000	205,000	1,138,000	480,000	720,000	656,000	237,000
Arkansas	4,564,000	40,000	140,000	—	372,000	2,111,000	150,000	670,000	356,000	725,000
California	46,390,000	—	7,816,000	9,045,000	3,203,000	13,261,000	3,636,000	3,394,000	3,584,000	2,451,000
Colorado	5,373,000	—	371,208	1,322,213	312,125	1,443,893	809,516	127,500	611,345	375,200
Connecticut	7,000,000	—	566,000	1,151,000	1,032,000	1,713,000	580,000	773,000	790,000	395,000
Delaware	1,428,000	—	114,000	136,000	246,000	137,000	175,000	424,000	117,000	79,000
D.C.	2,000,000	—	153,000	—	278,000	220,000	190,000	578,000	482,000	99,000
Florida	16,698,000	—	601,000	1,756,000	1,228,000	4,353,000	3,075,000	2,315,000	620,000	2,750,000
Georgia	10,757,000	—	336,000	1,977,000	950,000	3,901,000	58,000	1,611,000	1,457,000	467,000
Hawaii	2,000,000	—	185,000	128,000	432,000	520,000	65,000	272,000	243,000	155,000

Idaho	1,888,000	—	15,000	7,000	204,000	986,000	88,000	157,000	174,000	257,000
Illinois	25,555,000	—	1,612,000	1,628,000	3,965,000	7,870,000	3,768,000	2,407,000	2,254,000	2,051,000
Indiana	12,014,000	—	409,000	311,000	1,947,000	5,628,000	—	1,694,000	1,579,000	446,000
Iowa	6,555,000	5,000	5,395	381,201	259,510	2,707,861	68,640	521,232	2,468,275	137,886
Kansas	5,155,000	—	30,000	50,000	88,000	1,988,500	90,000	1,116,500	1,092,000	700,000
Kentucky	7,514,000	—	415,000	661,000	887,000	2,781,000	247,000	756,000	1,147,000	620,000
Louisiana	8,496,000	—	140,000	797,000	757,000	3,680,000	107,000	1,177,000	922,000	916,000
Maine	2,332,000	—	58,000	145,000	36,000	904,000	492,000	436,000	108,000	153,000
Maryland	9,200,000	—	66,000	587,000	743,000	3,984,000	371,000	1,199,000	1,785,000	465,000
Massachusetts	13,173,000	40,000	249,000	906,000	1,486,000	3,375,000	1,558,000	2,982,000	1,733,000	844,000
Michigan	20,487,000	—	—	2,287,000	2,877,000	6,594,000	506,000	825,000	4,892,000	2,506,000
Minnesota	8,812,000	—	348,000	589,000	628,000	3,683,000	626,000	1,028,000	1,268,000	642,000
Mississippi	5,127,000	—	160,000	655,000	274,000	1,475,000	41,000	1,000,000	1,291,000	231,000
Missouri	10,789,000	42,000	1,917,000	1,800,000	828,000	628,000	1,295,000	1,551,000	2,221,000	507,000
Montana	1,790,000	—	134,650	78,000	40,500	728,325	—	173,675	422,875	211,975
Nebraska	3,473,000	—	40,000	55,000	105,000	1,116,000	470,000	245,000	90,000	1,352,000
Nevada	1,332,000	—	43,000	442,000	46,000	173,000	134,000	180,000	88,000	226,000
New Hampshire	2,000,000	30,000	72,500	50,000	195,000	770,000	15,000	285,000	334,500	248,000
New Jersey	\$16,703,000	—	—	\$500,000	\$1,620,000	\$4,857,000	\$3,679,000	\$3,820,000	\$1,262,000	\$965,000
New Mexico	2,446,000	\$61,000	\$125,000	52,000	425,000	667,000	304,000	136,000	194,000	479,000
New York	41,744,000	—	3,124,000	1,980,000	5,040,000	4,940,000	7,905,000	7,410,000	4,360,000	6,985,000
North Carolina	11,866,000	125,000	423,000	1,033,000	2,417,000	4,765,000	1,428,000	449,000	797,000	429,000
North Dakota	1,585,000	—	217,000	540,000	77,000	283,000	167,000	182,000	73,000	46,000
Ohio	24,369,000	—	1,503,000	1,813,000	2,929,000	5,336,000	1,110,000	3,206,000	6,529,000	1,943,000
Oklahoma	5,984,000	—	140,000	290,000	791,000	1,808,000	660,000	748,000	1,375,000	172,000
Oregon	4,966,000	—	52,000	892,000	1,060,000	1,200,000	730,000	300,000	330,000	402,000
Pennsylvania	27,058,000	80,000	383,504	601,959	3,536,688	10,191,124	2,046,033	2,863,186	1,781,237	5,574,269
Rhode Island	2,202,000	11,000	243,800	—	241,000	1,119,831	114,000	300,369	152,700	19,300
South Carolina	6,109,000	—	49,000	649,000	153,000	2,987,000	538,000	576,000	628,000	529,000
South Dakota	1,701,000	—	—	30,000	257,900	409,375	200,000	441,303	205,000	157,422
Tennessee	9,255,000	—	115,000	2,261,000	127,000	3,161,000	641,000	869,000	1,628,000	453,000
Texas	26,374,000	—	—	789,000	2,444,000	11,011,000	—	5,835,000	5,715,000	580,000
Utah	2,561,000	72,806	72,042	347,040	145,616	894,755	—	403,009	406,623	219,109
Vermont	1,175,000	—	96,000	64,500	439,000	299,500	—	140,500	55,500	80,000
Virginia	10,830,000	—	676,083	1,390,400	1,110,276	2,165,402	242,500	841,334	3,138,522	1,265,483
Washington	7,768,000	—	150,000	538,000	2,079,000	1,910,000	1,250,000	1,032,000	336,000	473,000
West Virginia	4,080,000	—	70,000	187,050	600,000	1,121,000	30,000	740,950	668,000	663,000
Wisconsin	10,287,000	—	1,150,000	197,000	1,007,000	2,035,000	1,932,000	1,600,000	1,314,000	1,052,000
Wyoming	1,175,000	—	10,000	165,000	5,000	610,000	45,000	105,000	115,000	120,000
American Samoa**	147,000	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Guam	365,000	—	—	11,000	178,000	73,000	—	62,000	27,000	14,000
Puerto Rico	6,343,000	—	—	891,000	676,000	1,982,000	—	590,000	1,894,000	310,000
Virgin Islands	365,000	—	50,000	—	75,000	85,000	—	—	107,000	48,000

Total *483,000,000 579,806 25,017,182 42,927,363 52,324,615 145,210,566 42,392,689 63,086,558 67,643,577 43,670,644

*Small State supplements from discretionary grant funds, totaling \$3,000,000 are included in these figures: however, American Samoa's Part C allocation (\$147,000) is included in the total Part C available but not in the nine categories.

**American Samoa's FY 75 Comprehensive Plan was not approved.

Distribution of Law Enforcement Education Program Funds, Fiscal Year 1975

State	Number of Institutions	Amount
Alabama	28	\$721,797
Alaska	2	54,946
Arizona	14	481,295
Arkansas	10	68,901
California	93	4,451,026
Colorado	15	353,040
Connecticut	13	594,455
Delaware	6	222,156
District of Columbia	5	758,917
Florida	41	2,114,445
Georgia	30	897,845
Hawaii	6	253,010
Idaho	4	97,212
Illinois	57	1,944,837
Indiana	15	809,320
Iowa	22	488,283
Kansas	19	400,487
Kentucky	13	664,387
Louisiana	12	534,994
Maine	6	162,850
Maryland	21	1,054,631
Massachusetts	29	1,582,734
Michigan	42	2,214,083
Minnesota	25	523,913
Mississippi	13	274,436
Missouri	25	1,034,536
Montana	7	142,804
Nebraska	7	300,962
Nevada	5	188,094
New Hampshire	3	168,140
New Jersey	27	1,618,101
New Mexico	7	271,605
New York	75	5,122,668
North Carolina	24	728,449
North Dakota	6	61,502
Ohio	32	1,733,611
Oklahoma	25	632,589
Oregon	19	767,127
Pennsylvania	36	2,303,579
Puerto Rico	4	274,400
Rhode Island	4	112,240
South Carolina	14	421,915
South Dakota	5	156,042
Tennessee	17	526,941
Texas	81	2,657,915
Utah	4	199,855
Vermont	6	122,110
Virginia	31	589,957
Virgin Islands	1	15,700
Washington	34	1,194,015
West Virginia	6	131,010
Wisconsin	22	699,992
Wyoming	5	35,391
Total	1,073	\$43,935,250*

*Includes funds from prior year appropriations.

Allocation of Planning (Part B) Funds by State, Fiscal Years 1969-75

(Amounts in Thousands)

State	FY 1969	FY 1970	FY 1971	FY 1972	FY 1973	FY 1974	FY 1975
Alabama	\$338	\$369	\$440	\$593	\$852	\$852	\$934
Alaska	118	121	130	143	257	257	268
Arizona	210	228	277	354	535	535	609
Arkansas	232	252	290	375	564	564	618
California	1,388	1,566	2,090	2,957	3,976	3,976	4,452
Colorado	233	258	320	416	618	618	693
Connecticut	297	326	401	534	774	774	842
Delaware	135	141	155	178	304	304	319
Florida	504	575	773	1,072	1,485	1,485	1,731
Georgia	404	450	553	757	1,068	1,068	1,186
Hawaii	150	159	176	210	345	345	370
Idaho	147	154	170	202	335	335	357
Illinois	833	938	1,207	1,691	2,303	2,303	2,543
Indiana	436	487	619	844	1,183	1,183	1,301
Iowa	285	312	382	504	734	734	801
Kansas	253	275	324	422	625	625	672
Kentucky	315	347	419	561	809	809	889
Louisiana	346	384	460	622	889	889	979
Maine	165	175	199	243	388	388	414
Maryland	347	384	491	662	942	942	1,043
Massachusetts	465	516	668	914	1,277	1,277	1,407
Michigan	678	763	986	1,371	1,879	1,879	2,078
Minnesota	340	380	480	645	920	920	1,008
Mississippi	258	280	318	417	620	620	670
Missouri	409	452	568	770	1,085	1,085	1,189
Montana	147	153	170	199	331	331	349
Nebraska	197	211	248	312	481	481	518
Nevada	130	134	149	171	292	292	311
New Hampshire	146	154	173	206	340	340	361
New Jersey	571	641	816	1,126	1,556	1,556	1,731
New Mexico	168	176	201	245	392	392	424
New York	1,333	1,490	1,914	2,704	3,651	3,651	4,027
North Carolina	439	492	601	828	1,162	1,162	1,288
North Dakota	143	148	162	188	317	317	332
Ohio	803	911	1,164	1,625	2,216	2,216	2,434
Oklahoma	267	294	352	466	684	684	748
Oregon	234	253	307	399	596	596	655
Pennsylvania	882	998	1,278	1,788	2,432	2,432	2,680
Rhode Island	161	169	193	236	379	379	402
South Carolina	274	304	355	471	690	690	760
South Dakota	145	151	167	195	326	326	342
Tennessee	362	402	487	662	942	942	1,048
Texas	831	942	1,209	1,703	2,319	2,319	2,618
Utah	169	179	207	251	400	400	435
Vermont	128	133	144	164	284	284	296
Virginia	405	452	558	766	1,080	1,080	1,193
Washington	308	352	438	588	845	845	912
West Virginia	221	239	272	350	530	530	574
Wisconsin	382	422	541	733	1,036	1,036	1,143
Wyoming	121	125	134	148	263	263	272
District of Columbia	154	161	175	208	343	343	357
American Samoa	102	102	103	104	205	205	206
Guam	106	108	109	113	216	216	217
Puerto Rico	281	308	371	485	713	713	781
Virgin Islands	104	104	106	109	212	212	213
Total	\$19,000	\$21,000	\$26,000	\$35,000	\$50,000	\$50,000	\$55,000

Allocation of Block Action (Part C) Funds by State, Fiscal Years 1969-75

(Amounts in thousands)

State	FY 1969	FY 1970	FY 1971	FY 1972	FY 1973	FY 1974	FY 1975
Alabama	\$434	\$3,175	\$5,645	\$6,915	\$8,026	\$8,026	\$8,003
Alaska	100*	249	493	607	700	700	739
Arizona	201	1,503	2,933	3,559	4,127	4,127	4,462
Arkansas	242	1,787	3,157	3,862	4,482	4,482	4,564
California	2,352	17,287	32,999	40,060	46,495	46,495	46,390
Colorado	243	1,863	3,646	4,432	5,143	5,143	5,373
Connecticut	360	2,669	5,001	6,088	7,064	7,064	7,000
Delaware	100*	480	909	1,100	1,277	1,277	1,298
Florida	737	5,597	11,166	13,631	15,821	15,821	16,698
Georgia	555	4,127	7,518	9,215	10,695	10,695	10,757
Hawaii	100*	699	1,253	1,546	1,791	1,791	1,855
Idaho	100*	639	1,169	1,431	1,660	1,660	1,716
Illinois	1,339	9,877	18,368	22,314	25,898	25,898	25,555
Indiana	614	4,565	8,609	10,428	12,102	12,102	12,014
Iowa	338	2,501	4,670	5,672	6,581	6,581	6,555
Kansas	279	2,065	3,712	4,516	5,235	5,235	5,155
Kentucky	392	2,906	5,290	6,464	7,500	7,500	7,514
Louisiana	449	3,344	5,966	7,315	8,485	8,485	8,496
Maine	120	882	1,636	1,995	2,312	2,312	2,332
Maryland	451	3,349	6,485	7,875	9,140	9,140	9,200
Massachusetts	666	4,902	9,424	11,422	13,257	13,257	13,173
Michigan	1,055	7,817	14,692	17,819	20,681	20,681	20,487
Minnesota	439	3,302	6,307	7,639	8,866	8,866	8,812
Mississippi	289	2,117	3,614	4,451	5,166	5,166	5,127
Missouri	565	4,155	7,760	9,391	10,897	10,897	10,789
Montana	100*	627	1,162	1,394	1,618	1,618	1,627
Nebraska	176	1,310	2,457	2,979	3,457	3,457	3,473
Nevada	100*	405	807	981	1,139	1,139	1,211
New Hampshire	100*	634	1,210	1,481	1,719	1,719	1,759
New Jersey	860	6,372	11,870	14,388	16,703	16,703	16,703
New Mexico	123	896	1,671	2,040	2,367	2,367	2,446
New York	2,251	16,392	30,093	36,522	42,496	42,496	41,744
North Carolina	619	4,625	8,305	10,203	11,842	11,842	11,866
North Dakota	100*	562	1,022	1,240	1,439	1,439	1,441
Ohio	1,284	9,563	17,645	21,386	24,821	24,821	24,369
Oklahoma	306	2,291	4,182	5,138	5,964	5,964	5,984
Oregon	246	1,806	3,442	4,199	4,873	4,873	4,966
Pennsylvania	1,427	10,591	19,532	23,679	27,482	27,482	27,058
Rhode Island	111	819	1,544	1,907	2,206	2,206	2,202
South Carolina	318	2,406	4,223	5,201	6,036	6,036	6,109
South Dakota	100*	599	1,107	1,337	1,551	1,551	1,546
Tennessee	478	3,562	6,425	7,878	9,143	9,143	9,255
Texas	1,334	9,926	18,393	22,480	26,091	26,091	26,374
Utah	126	929	1,775	2,127	2,468	2,468	2,561
Vermont	100*	387	733	893	1,035	1,035	1,046
Virginia	557	4,150	7,604	9,333	10,832	10,832	10,830
Washington	380	2,971	5,612	6,845	7,944	7,944	7,768
West Virginia	221	1,640	2,849	3,502	4,064	4,064	4,080
Wisconsin	515	3,795	7,309	8,870	10,294	10,294	10,287
Wyoming	100*	290	556	667	775	775	786
District of Columbia	100*	723	1,249	1,519	1,763	1,763	1,709
American Samoa		28	47	56	63	63	61
Guam	40*	90	146	175	198	198	191
Puerto Rico	330	2,454	4,502	5,401	6,320	6,320	6,343
Virgin Islands	40	50	106	127	146	146	141
Total	25,062	182,750	340,000	413,695	480,250	480,250	480,000

*Includes Small State Supplements.

Allocation of Corrections Improvement (Part E) Block Funds by State, Fiscal Years
1971-75

(Amounts in thousands)

State	FY 1971	FY 1972	FY 1973	FY 1974	FY 1975
Alabama	\$418	\$815	\$944	\$944	\$942
Alaska	37	71	82	82	87
Arizona	215	419	486	486	525
Arkansas	233	455	527	527	537
California	2,421	4,721	5,470	5,470	5,460
Colorado	268	522	605	605	632
Connecticut	368	717	831	831	824
Delaware	67	130	150	150	153
Florida	824	1,606	1,861	1,861	1,966
Georgia	557	1,086	1,258	1,258	1,266
Hawaii	93	182	211	211	218
Idaho	87	169	195	195	202
Illinois	1,348	2,629	3,047	3,047	3,008
Indiana	630	1,229	1,424	1,424	1,414
Iowa	—	668	774	774	772
Kansas	273	532	616	616	607
Kentucky	391	762	882	882	884
Louisiana	442	862	998	998	1,000
Maine	121	235	272	272	274
Maryland	476	928	1,075	1,075	1,083
Massachusetts	690	1,346	1,560	1,560	1,551
Michigan	1,077	2,100	2,433	2,433	2,411
Minnesota	462	900	1,043	1,043	1,037
Mississippi	269	524	608	608	604
Missouri	565	1,107	1,282	1,282	1,270
Montana	84	164	190	190	192
Nebraska	180	351	407	407	409
Nevada	59	116	134	134	143
New Hampshire	90	175	202	202	207
New Jersey	870	1,696	1,965	1,965	1,966
New Mexico	123	240	279	279	288
New York	2,207	4,304	5,000	5,000	4,914
North Carolina	617	1,202	1,393	1,393	1,397
North Dakota	75	146	169	169	170
Ohio	1,292	2,520	2,920	2,920	2,868
Oklahoma	310	605	702	702	704
Oregon	254	495	573	573	585
Pennsylvania	1,431	2,790	3,233	3,233	3,185
Rhode Island	115	225	260	260	259
South Carolina	314	613	710	710	719
South Dakota	—	158	183	183	182
Tennessee	476	928	1,076	1,076	1,098
Texas	1,358	2,649	3,070	3,070	3,104
Utah	—	251	290	290	302
Vermont	54	105	122	122	123
Virginia	564	1,100	1,274	1,274	1,275
Washington	414	807	935	935	914
West Virginia	212	413	478	478	480
Wisconsin	536	1,045	1,211	1,211	1,211
Wyoming	40	79	91	91	93
District of Columbia	92	179	207	207	201
American Samoa	3	7	8	8	7
Guam	11	21	23	23	22
Puerto Rico	326	636	744	744	747
Virgin Islands	8	15	17	17	17
Total	\$24,447	\$48,750	\$56,500	\$56,500	\$56,500

LEAA Discretionary Grants (Part C) Awarded as of June 30, 1975

(Amounts in thousands)

State	FY 1969	FY 1970	FY 1971	FY 1972	FY 1973	FY 1974	FY 1975
Alabama	—	\$443	\$1,327	\$1,076	\$846	\$200	\$546
Alaska	—	368*	664*	674*	965*	772*	1,019*
Arizona	—	600	1,870	811	1,335	2,207	2,702
Arkansas	—	130	140	130	150	360	456
California	\$860	2,025	8,485	7,951	6,170	6,949	3,651
Colorado	18	828	1,384	2,076	5,903	2,289	7,939
Connecticut	12	634	842	405	317	124	434
Delaware	25	273*	626*	724*	428*	449*	205*
Florida	166	1,681	3,883	4,264	1,662	512	2,766
Georgia	—	499	1,652	2,455	2,441	4,684	5,908
Hawaii	—	70*	615*	533*	277*	209*	306*
Idaho	—	279*	694*	315	280*	400*	342*
Illinois	184	808	1,614	1,145	2,739	4,750	2,919
Indiana	—	597	924	629	281	686	1,015
Iowa	—	166	800	315	333	456	805
Kansas	15	35	1,228	342	125	423	180
Kentucky	72	1,005	1,596	611	1,345	343	2,187
Louisiana	20	593	1,389	2,303	840	2,087	1,148
Maine	—	180*	917*	206	220	199*	355
Maryland	122	611	1,333	2,483	1,223	607	6,169
Massachusetts	174	1,321	2,357	1,125	1,270	2,259	1,367
Michigan	112	1,288	3,418	2,106	5,559	764	2,068
Minnesota	—	747	1,334	968	46	1,462	726
Mississippi	—	154	656	539	—	359	93
Missouri	—	386	1,218	1,777	4,375	3,266	3,995
Montana	—	134*	766*	383*	893*	886*	249*
Nebraska	—	253	734	363	355	533	—
Nevada	15	295*	887*	399*	866*	1,352*	656*
New Hampshire	—	297*	497*	263*	478*	281*	508*
New Jersey	30	1,356	1,141	3,000	4,201	3,341	7,107
New Mexico	80	116*	613*	830	374	1,580	957
New York	193	1,396	2,055	7,587	9,294	4,175	7,469
North Carolina	—	778	883	1,076	807	629	566
North Dakota	10	204*	480*	237*	299*	653*	281*
Ohio	120	1,579	2,310	4,126	6,268	6,600	1,088
Oklahoma	—	400	842	583	914	280	257
Oregon	29	373	374	563	4,159	2,205	2,106
Pennsylvania	100	900	2,071	2,731	2,410	986	4,942
Rhode Island	—	327*	650*	371*	235	55	—
South Carolina	12	578	1,179	529	510	231	232
South Dakota	—	130*	474*	284*	650*	1,081*	635*
Tennessee	—	266	730	329	—	200	—
Texas	204	1,312	1,864	3,853	4,382	7,767	1,974
Utah	—	363*	371*	88	412	355	832
Vermont	—	250*	305*	205*	269*	261*	177*
Virginia	—	401	928	1,066	1,169	737	405
Washington	61	150	759	933	1,000	628	475
West Virginia	50	272	797	1,063	391	—	—
Wisconsin	149	604	973	429	220	338	1,678
Wyoming	—	287*	234*	333*	625*	569*	403*
District of Columbia	—	2,479*	4,708*	3,583*	2,842*	2,388*	4,316*
American Samoa	—	22*	28*	82*	87*	87*	—
Guam	15	105*	104*	145*	162*	162*	174*
Puerto Rico	—	219	180	138	—	450	120
Virgin Islands	—	235*	436*	173*	214*	249*	488*
Miscellaneous	894	109	—	—	—	—	—
Total	\$3,742	\$31,971	\$69,339	\$71,708	\$83,616	\$75,875	\$88,396

*Includes Small State Supplements.

LEAA Discretionary Grants (Part E) Awarded as of June 30, 1975

(Amounts in thousands)

State	FY 1971	FY 1972	FY 1973	FY 1974	FY 1975
Alabama	\$400	\$1,794	\$507	\$175	\$244
Alaska	156	—	81	510	159
Arizona	839	338	500	606	710
Arkansas	1,397	276	1,887	3,282	54
California	500	4,595	2,780	1,370	1,740
Colorado	180	2,526	3,880	—	1,585
Connecticut	120	474	692	717	—
Delaware	403	237	105	25	25
Florida	650	281	712	163	719
Georgia	278	1,662	2,861	2,089	2,180
Hawaii	7	—	1,120	4,418	38
Idaho	573	365	265	—	154
Illinois	1,914	1,192	2,116	2,514	1,557
Indiana	630	128	233	228	268
Iowa	—	—	167	250	487
Kansas	150	—	—	—	645
Kentucky	417	20	1,521	159	300
Louisiana	775	2,055	3,750	2,312	987
Maine	73	—	157	375	301
Maryland	734	2,718	—	—	7,552
Massachusetts	690	1,023	2,573	758	2,352
Michigan	1,155	807	—	—	2,675
Minnesota	350	508	327	849	634
Mississippi	239	999	2,270	107	—
Missouri	1,351	2,662	4,908	5,157	1,240
Montana	276	34	—	—	321
Nebraska	112	337	2,200	124	153
Nevada	201	103	500	400	1,032
New Hampshire	110	289	515	298	22
New Jersey	567	1,869	2,138	767	3,190
New Mexico	310	232	34	639	362
New York	750	2,150	381	129	1,671
North Carolina	314	137	325	—	115
North Dakota	210	—	318	—	—
Ohio	500	3,700	3,535	2,852	2,000
Oklahoma	142	158	—	2,421	3,199
Oregon	150	1,934	160	7,852	894
Pennsylvania	1,431	1,000	—	376	35
Rhode Island	135	270	154	137	32
South Carolina	428	1,452	1,998	1,122	354
South Dakota	—	—	250	384	—
Tennessee	125	576	200	53	203
Texas	1,052	3,274	691	2,876	1,211
Utah	154	183	226	572	138
Vermont	46	5	107	430	—
Virginia	649	307	153	—	500
Washington	244	—	124	256	43
West Virginia	300	16	275	—	—
Wisconsin	450	—	—	726	537
Wyoming	131	—	—	444	236
District of Columbia	74	292	517	95	838
American Samoa	17	—	25	—	—
Guam	31	19	—	—	—
Puerto Rico	—	46	—	150	24
Virgin Islands	17	500	—	—	60
Total	\$22,907	\$43,543	\$48,238	\$49,167	\$43,776

**Distribution of National Institute Program Funds,
Fiscal Year 1975***

Program Area	Amount	Percent of Total Awards
Community Crime Prevention	\$1,008,991	3%
Police	1,300,038	4%
Courts	2,072,693	6%
Corrections	1,716,590	5%
Advanced Technology	9,208,321	29%
Research Agreements	2,392,830	7%
Visiting Fellows	192,970	1%
National Evaluation Program	2,221,016	7%
Education and Manpower	1,644,410	5%
Evaluation	4,135,744	13%
Technology Transfer	6,361,251	20%
Total	32,254,854	100%

**Not including pass-through awards (\$9.1 million to the Drug Enforcement Administration, \$700,000 to the Impact (Cats) Teams and \$239,000 to the LEAA Pilot Cities Program) or purchase orders.*

Note: This table includes grants and contracts developed and processed during fiscal 1975 although in some cases actual awarding of funds was not concluded until after the close of the fiscal year.

Publications of the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice

Grant/Contract Number	Title	GPO Stock Number	Price
NI 71-143-PO	Anatomy of a SCAM: A Case Study of a Planned Bankruptcy by Organized Crime	2700-00230†	\$1.20
NI 71-126G	Arson, Vandalism and Violence: Law Enforce- ment Problems Affecting Fire Departments	†	
NI-71-157G	Bail and Its Reform: A National Survey	†	
NI-70-053	Cases and Materials on Prison Inmate Legal Assistance	2700-00222	\$1.60
NI-70-065-4	Criminal Justice - The Consumer's Perspective	2700-0143	\$0.70
NI-093-G	Criminal Appeals, English Practices and American Reforms	2700-00202	\$0.60
71-DF-7618	Crime Scene Search and Physical Evidence Handbook*	2700-00221	\$2.70
J-LEAA-014-74	D.C. Public Defender Service, Vol. I (Policies and Procedures)**	†	
J-LEAA-014-74	D.C. Public Defender Service, Vol. II, (Training Materials)**	†	
NI-70-038	Determinants of Police Behavior	2700-00215	\$0.55
J-LEAA-014-74	Dilemma of Diversion (Resource Materials on Adult Pre-Trial Intervention Programs)	†	
NI-72-010-G	Diversion from the Juvenile Justice System	2700-00241†	\$0.85

Publications of the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice—
Continued

Grant/Contract Number	Title	GPO Stock Number	Price
72-TA-03-0007	Diversion of the Public Inebriate from the C.J. System*	†	
71-076	Ethnic Succession Organized Crime	027-000-00242-3†	\$0.70
LESP-RPT-0101.01	Evaluation of Police Handgun Ammunition: Summary Report	†	
73-TA-1001-G	Evaluative Research in Corrections (A Practical Guide)*	2700-00270†	\$2.00
NI-70-068	Family Crisis Intervention: From Concept to Implementation	2700-00244†	\$0.65
NILECJ-STD-0201.00	Fixed and Base Station FM Transmitters	2700-00283†	\$0.70
NILECJ-Guide	Fixed Surveillance Cameras - Selection & Applications Guide	2700-000-00281-1†	\$0.85
0201.00 LESL			
NI-69-051	Flight Characteristics and Stain Patterns of Human Blood	2700-0079†	\$0.90
73-NI-99-0012-G	Guide to Juror Usage	4000-00328†	\$1.40
72-TA-05-002	Guide to Improved Handling of Misdemeanant Offenders	2700-00243†	\$1.65
72-NI-99-0031-G	Gimelli System of Multi-Track Voice Writing: An Evaluation of a New Court Reporting Technique (Summary)	027-000-00299-4†	\$0.65
NILECJ-STD-0602.00	Hand-Held Metal Detectors for Use in Weapons Detection	2700-00285†	\$0.65
LESP-RPT-0303.00	Image Quality Criterion for the Identification of Faces	2700-00261†	\$0.65
NI-70-044	Impact of Police Unions - Summary Report	2700-00248†	\$0.65
NI-71-129-G	Investigation of Digital Mobile Radio Communications	2700-00233†	\$1.60
NI-70-053	Law of Detainers	2700-00223†	\$1.65
LESP-RPT-0801.00	Life Cycle Costing Techniques Applicable to Law Enforcement Facilities	2700-00284†	\$0.70
NILECJ-STD-0301.00	Magnetic Switches for Burglar Alarm Systems	2700-00238†	\$0.65
NILECJ-STD-0302.00	Mechanically Actuated Switches for Burglar Alarm Systems	†	
NILECJ-STD-0303.00	Mercury Switches for Burglary Alarm Systems	†	
NILECJ-STD-0307.00	Metallic Handcuffs	027-000-00292†	\$0.60
72-TA-99-0017	Methadone Treatment Manual	2700-00227†	\$1.80
NILECJ-STD-0205.00	Mobile Antennas	†	
NILECJ-STD-0202.00	Mobile FM Transmitters	2700-00287†	\$0.70
72-TA-99-0002	Mutual Aid Planning	†	
72-TA-99-0023	Neighborhood Team Policing	2700-00240†	\$1.90
J-LEAA-014-74	New York City Police Street Crime Unit **	027-000-00338-9†	\$2.40
75-NI-99-0046	Operation Identification Projects (National Evaluation Program) Phase I Report	†	
NILECJ-STD-0203.00	Personal/Portable FM Transmitters	027-000-00293†	\$0.70
NI-70-052	Perspectives on Prison Legal Services	†	
J-LEAA-014-74	Philadelphia Neighborhood Youth Resources Center**	027-000-00298-6†	\$2.00
73-TA-99-1000	Police Crime Analysis Unit Handbook*	2700-00232†	\$1.75
73-TA-99-1006	Police Robbery Control Manual*	027-000-00316-8†	\$1.55
NILECJ-STD-0103.00	Portable Ballistic Shields	2700-00253†	\$0.55
NI-70-072	Portable Police Pensions - Improving Inter-Agency Transfers	2700-0082	\$0.95
NI-71-097-G	Prevention and Control of Collective Violence - Vol. 1 thru 5 (Below)		
	Vol. I Guidelines for Chiefs of Police	2700-00197	\$1.10
	Vol. II Community Relations Personnel	2700-00198	\$0.85
	Vol. III Guidelines for Intelligence Personnel	2700-00199	\$0.85
	Vol. IV Guidelines for Patrol Commanders	2700-00200	\$0.85
	Vol. V Guidelines for Patrol Personnel	2700-00201	\$1.25

Publications of the National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice—
Continued

Grant/Contract Number	Title	GPO Stock Number	Price
NI-70-057	Vol. 1 - Private Police in US: Findings and Recommendations	2700-0137	\$1.50
NI-70-057-B	Vol. 2 - Private Police Industry	2700-0138	\$1.80
NI-70-057-C	Vol. 3 - Current Regulations of Private Police	2700-0139	\$2.20
NI-70-057-D	Vol. 4 - Law and Private Police	2700-0140	\$1.20
NI-70-057-E	Vol. 5 - Special Purpose Public Police	2700-0141	\$0.85
Inhouse	Program Plan for 1975 - NILECJ	†	
NI-71-122	Prosecution of Adult Felon Defendants in Los Angeles County: A Policy Perspective	2700-00224	\$2.00
J-LEAA-013-74	Providence Educational Center - Handbook*	027-000-00294-3†	\$3.20
LESP-RPT-020600	Repeaters for Law Enforcement Communications Systems	027-000-00288-9†	\$0.65
NI-71-026-62	Residential Security	2700-00235†	\$1.60
NILECJ-STD-0104.00	Riot Helmets	2700-00286†	\$0.65
LEAA-NI-1-0877	Role of Campus Security in a College Setting	2700-00172†	\$2.60
NI-69-025	Role of Correctional Industries - Summary Report	†	
NI-71-078-G	Semiautomatic Speaker Recognition System	2700-00231†	\$4.55
LESP-RPT-0304.00	Simplified Procedures for Evaluating the Image Quality of Objective Lenses for Night Vision Devices	2700-00255†	\$0.60
LESP-RPT-0502.00	Summary Report on Emergency Vehicle Sirens	2700-00289†	\$1.10
LESP-RPT-0301.00	Survey of Image Quality Criteria for Passive Night Vision Devices	2700-00214†	\$1.75
LESP-RPT-0305.00	Terms and Definitions for Intrusion Alarm Systems	027-000-00290-1†	\$0.65
LESP-RPT-0401.00	Terms and Definitions for Police Patrol Cars	2700-00252†	\$0.60
LESP-RPT-0302.00	Test Procedures for Night Vision Devices	†	
NI-72-017-G	Utilization of Experience in Parole Decision-Making	2700-00277†	\$0.80
LESP-RPT-0204.00	Voice Privacy Equipment for Law Enforcement Communications Systems	†	
NILECJ-STD-0601.00	Walk-through Metal Detectors for Use in Weapons Detection	2700-00256†	\$0.65
	First Annual Report - NILECJ - FY 1974	2700-00268	\$1.45
LESP-RPT-0205.00	Automatic Vehicle Location Techniques for Law Enforcement Use	2700-00282†	\$0.75
LEAA-J-IAA-009-2	Ballistic Resistance of Police Body Armor	2700-00155	\$0.50
LEAA-J-009-2	Batteries Used With Law Enforcement Communications Equipment (Comparison and Performance Characteristics)	2700-0156	\$0.80
J-LEAA-014-74	Citizen Dispute Settlement (A Replication Manual)	2700-00267†	\$1.65
Inhouse	Criminal Justice Evaluation (An Annotated Bibliography)	†	
71-109-6	Prosecution in the Juvenile Courts - Guidelines for the Future	2700-00246†	\$1.60
Inhouse	Utilization of Criminalistics Service by the Police	2700-00249†	\$0.95
Inhouse	Virginia Statewide Forensic Laboratory System	†	
	What Law Enforcement Can Gain From Computer Designed Work Schedules	2700-00279†	\$0.70

*A Prescriptive Package

**An Exemplary Project

†Single copies of these documents are available without charge through the National Criminal Justice Reference Service, P.O. Box 24036, S.W. Post Office, Washington, D.C. 20024.

Documents accompanied by a GPO stock number must be ordered directly from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. Order publications by title and stock number and enclose remittance (check or money order) payable to the Superintendent of Documents.

Fiscal Year 1975 Publications of the
National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service (NCJISS)

Title	GPO Stock #	Price
Security and Privacy Staff		
Privacy and Security Planning Instructions	Available from NCJISS	
Statistics Division		
Sourcebook of Criminal Justice Statistics 1973	2700-00185	\$6.95
Crime in Eight American Cities: National Crime Panel Surveys of Atlanta, Baltimore, Cleveland, Dallas, Denver, Newark, Portland, and St. Louis—Advance Report	Available from National Criminal Justice Reference Service	
Survey of Inmates of Local Jails 1972: Advance Report	Available from National Criminal Justice Reference Service	
Criminal Victimization in the United States: January-June 1973	Available from National Criminal Justice Reference Service	
Expenditure and Employment Data for the Criminal Justice System, 1972-73	0324-01046	\$4.05
Criminal Justice Agencies in Regions	Available from National Criminal Justice Reference Service (all 10 volumes)	
1: Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont		
2: New Jersey, New York		
3: Delaware, District of Columbia, Maryland, Pennsylvania, Virginia, West Virginia		
4: Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee		
5: Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, Wisconsin		
6: Arkansas, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Texas		
7: Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska		
8: Colorado, Montana, North Dakota, Utah, Wyoming		
9: Arizona, California, Hawaii, Nevada		
10: Alaska, Idaho, Oregon, Washington		
Capital Punishment 1971-72: National Prisoner Statistics Bulletin	Available from National Criminal Justice Reference Service	
Criminal Victimization Surveys in the Nation's Five Largest Cities: National Crime Panel Surveys in Chicago, Detroit, Los Angeles, New York, and Philadelphia	Available from National Criminal Justice Reference Service	
Capital Punishment 1973: National Prisoner Statistics Bulletin	Available from National Criminal Justice Reference Service	
Criminal Victimization in the United States: 1973 Advance Report	Available from National Criminal Justice Reference Service	
Systems Development Division		
State Judicial Information System Final Report Phase I: Technical Report No. 12	Available from SEARCH Group, Inc., 1620 35th Avenue, Sacramento, California 95822	
Prosecutor's Management Information System Briefing Series #1-12	Available from Institute for Law and Social Research, 1125 15th Street N.W., Washington, D.C. 20005	

Fiscal Year 1975 Publications of the
National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service (NCJISS)—Continued

Title	GPO Stock #	Price
Property Identification Manual, Volumes I and II	Available (to law enforcement personnel only) from International Association of Chiefs of Police, 11 Firstfield Road, Gaithersburg, Maryland 20760	
Criminalistics Laboratory Information System: Supplement to Technical Report No. 11	Available from SEARCH Group, Inc., 1620 35th Avenue, Sacramento, California 95822	

THE EXEMPLARY PROJECT PROGRAM

Many communities have implemented new programs that provide constructive answers to criminal justice problems. LEAA's National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, as part of its continuing effort to identify and disseminate the best in criminal justice solutions, has developed an Exemplary Project Program. It identifies outstanding locally developed programs and makes information on them available nationally.

An Exemplary Project is one that has significantly reduced crime or measurably improved the quality of the criminal justice system. It need not have received LEAA funding to be eligible for a designation as an Exemplary Project. Any State, county, or local program that has been in operation for at least one year is eligible for consideration. The project must be adaptable to other jurisdictions and must be cost effective. Any project that meets all of these criteria may be proposed to the Institute for consideration as an Exemplary Project.

Proposed projects are screened by the Institute's Office of Technology Transfer. The most promising of these projects are turned over to an independent validator, who analyzes each project to determine its effectiveness, adaptability, and cost efficiency. The validator conducts an onsite visit and makes a statistical analysis of each project to verify its achievements. The validator's report is given to the nine-member Exemplary Projects Advisory Board, which meets twice a year. The Board, which is composed of representatives of SPA's and the LEAA central and regional offices, designates as Exemplary Projects those that best meet all criteria.

The Institute prepares a brochure and an operations manual for each project chosen. The brochure contains a general description of the project. It defines the scope of the problem and the thrust of the project solution. The operations manual contains detailed instructions for implementing the project, including information on how to organize, administer, and evaluate each project.

The instructions detail staffing, training techniques, and potential problem areas. The manual also provides budget information and suggests ways to determine the cost effectiveness of the project. To aid interested communities in adapting these projects for their own use the Institute sponsors nationwide training workshops on several projects each year. They are open to criminal justice experts from any interested community.

Further information on the Exemplary Project Program can be obtained from:

Office of Technology Transfer
National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice
Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
U.S. Department of Justice
Washington, D.C. 20531

Information on projects that have been designated as exemplary is available from:

National Criminal Justice Reference Service
Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
U.S. Department of Justice
Washington, D.C. 20531
Tel: (202) 755-9707

Descriptions follow of all Exemplary Projects the Institute has identified from the beginning of the program through the end of fiscal year 1975.

ADMINISTRATIVE ADJUDICATION BUREAU, NEW YORK STATE DEPARTMENT OF MOTOR VEHICLES (NOT LEAA SUPPORTED)

Traffic cases have traditionally been handled in the criminal courts. In New York State an Administrative Adjudication Bureau, which is a division of the Department of Motor Vehicles, now handles all traffic violations not involving criminal conduct. This Bureau has reduced the congestion in New York's criminal courts and has shortened the time required to process traffic cases.

Motorists who have received traffic tickets can pay their fines by mail. If a motorist does not believe that he or she is guilty of the offense charged on the ticket, a hearing is arranged, utilizing a hearing officer rather than a judge. A prompt administrative appeal is provided if the motorist requests it. The Bureau uses standard sanctions for each offense, thus assuring a uniform dispensation of justice.

In addition to reducing congestion in the criminal courts and streamlining the processing of traffic cases, the Bureau has increased revenues. The number of motorists who evade summonses has been reduced by 25 percent. In fiscal year 1974 the Bureau returned \$4.1 million to the jurisdictions in which the traffic offenses occurred. This sum is what remains after the Bureau's operating expenses have been deducted.

For further information on the Administrative Adjudication Bureau contact:

Project Director
State of New York Administrative Adjudication
Bureau
Department of Motor Vehicles
Empire State Plaza
Albany, New York 12228
Tel: (518) 474-0864

**CENTRAL POLICE DISPATCH,
MUSKEGON COUNTY, MICHIGAN
(LEAA SUPPORTED)**

Consider the following hypothetical situation: A gas station is being robbed. The county police cannot dispatch a car to the scene in time because the radio frequency is jammed with a call from the city police requesting routine information. Such incidents are not unusual in areas where neighboring police departments operate independently of one another. The Central Police Dispatch in Muskegon County, Michigan, solved this problem more than five years ago. With initial funding from LEAA the Central Police Dispatch has provided an efficient, low-cost dispatching service to nine law enforcement agencies.

Before the formation of the Central Police Dispatch, nine departments in Muskegon County operated on the same frequency. Each department dispatched patrol cars from its own headquarters. Only three of the nine had around-the-clock dispatching operations. The nine agencies had a total of 19 police officers working in their individual dispatch units. This was a drain on manpower resources, because it meant that experienced police officers were operating dispatch units instead of doing field work.

Central Police Dispatch consolidated the operations of all nine departments. All continue to use the same frequency. Because all of the dispatchers work in the same location, they are able to coordinate their calls. The dispatchers receive and route calls for assistance and monitor the location of all police units. They also relay information to and from three computerized criminal information networks.

This cooperation between neighboring police

departments has improved the quality and extent of dispatching services at a substantially lower cost. Central Police Dispatch is staffed by 13 civilians, freeing trained officers for field duty. This has resulted in a 32-percent savings in personnel time and a 42-percent savings in personnel costs. The success of this cooperative effort has spurred the Muskegon agencies to pool some of their other police services. A Central Narcotics Unit and a Central Crime Prevention Bureau are already in operation. A Central Records Unit is being developed.

For further information on Central Police Dispatch contact:

Project Director
Central Operations for Police Services
980 Jefferson Street
Muskegon, Michigan 49440
Tel: (616) 722-3524

**FRAUD DIVISION, KING COUNTY
(SEATTLE) PROSECUTOR'S OFFICE
FRAUD DIVISION, SAN DIEGO COUNTY
DISTRICT ATTORNEY'S OFFICE
(LIMITED LEAA SUPPORT)**

White-collar crimes cost the public more economically than do street crimes and crimes against property combined. Fraud divisions located in the prosecutor's office in King County, Washington, and in the district attorney's office in San Diego County, California, have implemented programs to combat economic crimes. Both programs have received limited LEAA funding. Both have the same major goals—the prosecution and prevention of economic crimes.

The fraud divisions in both counties apply the same criteria to the cases they handle. Top priority cases are those that involve major economic loss, have a high probability of being successfully prosecuted, and have a high deterrent value. Both programs also are aimed at redressing the losses suffered by the victims of economic crime.

The San Diego project places a special emphasis on investigating consumer complaints. These complaints frequently result in the prosecution of businesses that have been victimizing many consumers. In 1974 the San Diego Fraud Division received 14,270 consumer complaints and returned approximately \$93,500 to fraud victims. In addition to fielding these citizen complaints, the project prosecuted 75 major cases. Defendants in 60 percent of these cases pleaded guilty. Restitution orders totaling \$138,287 were issued by the courts.

Consumer complaints received by the King County Fraud Division are usually referred to other agencies. This project concentrates on major economic crimes brought to its attention by Federal agencies such as the Securities and Exchange Commission. In two and one-half years the King County Fraud Division successfully prosecuted 95.5 percent of its cases, which represented an economic loss of more than \$3.4 million. The King County Division obtains an average of six guilty pleas without a trial for every case that is

tried. The Division's policy of allowing defendants to see the evidence against them is thought to contribute to the ratio of guilty pleas.

For further information on the Fraud Divisions contact:

Deputy District Attorney
Fraud Division
220 W. Broadway
San Diego, California 92101
Tel: (714) 236-2382

Office of the Prosecuting Attorney
Fraud Division
King County Court House
Seattle, Washington 98104
Tel: (206) 344-2550

**STREET CRIME UNIT,
NEW YORK CITY POLICE
(LEAA SUPPORTED)**

Street crimes and robberies are difficult to investigate. They happen so quickly that the victim often cannot get a close enough look at the assailant to identify him or her later.

The New York City police force formed a Street Crime Unit that uses blending and decoy tactics to apprehend the criminal in the act of committing a crime. Traveling in teams and working in high crime areas at peak crime hours, the Street Crime Unit is in a position to interrupt crimes in progress and to make arrests that result in convictions.

The method is both uncomplicated and effective. An officer, disguised as a potential victim, is stationed in an area where a crime is likely to occur. The police department pinpoints hazardous areas by analyzing monthly reports of crime activity levels in all areas of the city. The officer who acts as a decoy is accompanied by a backup team dressed to blend in with the street life. The backup team watches nearby, ready to come to the decoy's aid and make an arrest.

In 1974 the Street Crime Unit, which represents less than 1 percent of the New York City police force, made 3 percent of the department-wide felony arrests. Ninety percent of all 1974 Street Crime Unit arrests were for felonies. Ninety percent of these arrests resulted in convictions.

For further information about the New York City Police Street Crime Unit contact:

Commanding Officer
New York City Police Department
Street Crime Unit
Randall's Island
New York City, New York 10035
Tel: (212) 348-4783

**VOLUNTEER PROBATION COUNSELOR
PROGRAM, LINCOLN, NEBRASKA
(EVALUATION FUNDED BY LEAA)**

Young people convicted on misdemeanor charges frequently are placed on probation instead of being sent to jail. The Volunteer Probation Counselor Program now operating in Lincoln, Nebraska, is a method for effectively lowering

recidivism rates among offenders between 16 and 25 years old. This program uses volunteers to aid in rehabilitating high-risk offenders without a significant increase in costs.

The youths chosen to participate in this program have an average of 7.3 previous arrests. They are likely to commit additional crimes because they have emotional problems, antisocial attitudes, an unstable living situation, or limited personal assets. When they are placed in the counseling program they are evaluated about their need for a friend and companion, a primary counselor to help them deal with emotional problems, or a supervisor to aid in basic financial management and problems related to getting and keeping a job.

Volunteers are carefully recruited and screened. They receive eight hours of instruction in three evening sessions. Primary counselors usually have had previous professional counseling training. Volunteers are matched to each probationer. For example, an offender whose primary need is for a friend and companion will be matched with a reliable volunteer who is slightly older and who has similar interests and a similar background.

During the 10 months that the volunteer-probationer relationship lasts, the volunteer is supervised in periodic review meetings and attends monthly seminars providing a variety of special information. Most volunteers agree to be assigned to another offender when the relationship has been successfully completed.

Not counting traffic offenses, 15 percent of those offenders placed in the volunteer counseling program committed additional offenses during their probation year. Seventy percent of those placed on conventional probation committed additional offenses while on probation. There was a 93-percent reduction in theft-related offenses among the group assigned to volunteer counselors, while theft-related offenses increased by 91 percent among the group of probationers not assigned to counselors.

For further information on the Volunteer Probation Counselor Program contact:

Court Psychologist
Municipal Court
Probation Office
Old City Hall
920 "O" Street
Lincoln, Nebraska 67408
Tel: (402) 473-6391

**CITIZEN DISPUTE SETTLEMENT
PROGRAM, COLUMBUS, OHIO
(LEAA SUPPORTED)**

Disagreements arising between citizens in Columbus, Ohio, can be settled in an informal hearing outside the regular criminal justice system. The Citizen Dispute Settlement program, established in 1971, provides citizens with a systematic, flexible forum for working out their minor problems without resorting to formal legal proceedings.

This system is also called the Night Prosecutor Program because it provides for hearings to be held

in the evenings and on Saturday mornings. People can lodge charges and respond to complaints without jeopardizing their jobs or losing wages. For those who work evenings and Saturdays, the option of being heard during regular working hours is provided.

The method employed by the Citizen Dispute Settlement Program is simple and straightforward. Within a week after a complaint is lodged, hearings are scheduled at the convenience of both parties. A hearing officer listens to both sides of the dispute and, serving as an arbitrator, draws the parties to an agreement. If the parties cannot reach an agreement themselves, the hearing officer suggests possible resolutions and advises those involved of the legal ramifications of continuing the conflict.

The settlement can either be restitution or a promise to discontinue the objectionable behavior. A shoplifter, for example, could pay for what he or she had stolen. A person whose barking dog had been disturbing the neighborhood could promise to take measures to silence the animal.

The effect of this informal hearing process is to assist citizens in settling disputes rapidly and fairly before a formal complaint is lodged or an arrest is made. This system provides for a more lasting and mutually satisfactory solution to minor disputes. It also eases the burden on the regular court system by diverting the less serious cases, thus providing courts with more time to handle major offenses.

The cost of settling a case through the Citizen Dispute Settlement Program is approximately \$20, compared to a cost of about \$100 for those cases that go through normal criminal justice channels. The social, economic, and emotional cost of airing and settling a dispute is also reduced, as no one involved is burdened with an arrest record.

From September 1, 1972, through September 1, 1973, the program conducted 2,285 hearings. Of those disputes, 84 cases (2 percent of the total) could not be resolved and were referred to the regular court system. The remaining 98 percent were successfully arbitrated.

For further information about the Columbus Citizen Dispute Settlement Program contact:

Project Coordinator
Night Prosecutor Program
120 West Gay Street, Room 105
Columbus, Ohio 43215
Tel: (614) 461-7483

**COMMUNITY-BASED CORRECTIONS
PROGRAM, POLK COUNTY (DES MOINES),
IOWA
(LEAA SUPPORTED)**

In three years the average daily population of the Polk County jail in Des Moines, Iowa, dropped by more than half. In 1970 the average daily population of the jail was 135 persons. In 1973 it was 65. This is the result of a comprehensive community-based corrections project funded by LEAA in conjunction with the Des Moines Model Cities program.

The Des Moines project offers several options. Pretrial programs include screening and community supervision that allow defendants to return to the community pending trial. During 1971 the Pre-Trial Supervision Project alone saved an estimated 3,343 jail days. An estimated 1,231 of these days would have been served by defendants who were acquitted. The county-administered probation program, the most traditional aspect of the project, provides a presentence investigation of the defendant to determine the appropriate sentence as well as the best correction plan.

Fort Des Moines, the community-centered corrections facility, is an alternative to prison for convicted offenders, most of whom are felons. Fort Des Moines has one staff member for every two clients. Each inmate's educational, vocational, and psychiatric needs are evaluated and dealt with in a formalized contract drawn up between the client and the counselor. All inmates either hold full-time jobs or participate in full-time educational or vocational training programs in the community. The escape rate is low, even though Fort Des Moines has no bars or fences. The residents understand that failure to adhere to the contract and its rules will mean return to a conventional jail.

The Des Moines Community-Based Correctional Project, with its various coordinated programs, saved the correctional system an estimated \$454,300 in 1973. The two pretrial release programs saved defendants an estimated \$154,000 in bail costs and assisted many in retaining their jobs.

The Iowa State Legislature has assumed complete funding responsibility for the program and will use the project as a model for future State correctional programs.

For further information on the Community-Based Corrections Program contact:

Project Director
Department of Court Services
Fifth Judicial District
1000 College Avenue
Des Moines, Iowa 50314
Tel: (515) 244-3202

**601 JUVENILE DIVERSION PROJECT,
SACRAMENTO, CALIFORNIA
(LEAA SUPPORTED)**

Teenagers who are runaways, truants, or beyond the control of their parents have traditionally been dealt with by the juvenile courts. The Sacramento, California, Probation Department, in conjunction with the University of California at Davis, has successfully created an alternative to juvenile court for status offenders. The Sacramento Diversion Project provides short term crisis counseling to help the youth and his or her family resolve their problems before the situation further deteriorates.

A project counselor calls to arrange a family counseling no more than two hours after a juvenile is referred to the probation department for a status offense. The program is grounded on the

concept that these problems are best dealt with immediately in a family setting. In a session lasting two hours or more the counselor attempts to improve communication between the parents and the youth. The counselor suggests that the problem is the responsibility of the entire family, not solely that of the youth. The family is encouraged to return for a maximum of five sessions.

Crisis intervention techniques and expert family crisis counseling are crucial to the success of the Sacramento Diversion Project. The program has demonstrated that probation officers can be effectively trained in these techniques without incurring prohibitive costs. The counselors' initial training includes observing family counseling techniques and acting out the situations they will be expected to handle. Once the initial instruction period is over the counselors meet weekly with a professional psychologist and a professional psychiatrist to receive additional training.

This diversion project has reduced the number of status offense cases going to court from 19.8 percent for nonproject youths to 3.7 percent for project youths. A 12 month followup of all cases handled during the first year of the project showed that only 46.3 percent of those youths involved in family crisis counseling were rebooked, whereas 54.2 percent of those youths who did not receive intervention counseling were later booked on either a status charge or a criminal charge. The number of youths detained overnight in a juvenile hall dropped from 69.4 percent of those youths whose cases were handled in a conventional manner to 13.9 percent of project youths. The average cost of handling project youths was \$284 compared to \$562 for those youths not channeled into the diversion project.

For further information on the Sacramento Juvenile Diversion Project contact:

Project Director
Sacramento '601' Project
Sacramento County Probation Department
Sacramento, California 95827
Tel: (916) 363-3161

**NEIGHBORHOOD YOUTH RESOURCES
CENTER, PHILADELPHIA, PENNSYLVANIA
(NOT LEAA SUPPORTED)**

Youths in urban slums often have nowhere to take their problems. The Neighborhood Youth Resources Center serves the two police districts in Philadelphia that have the highest unemployment rates and the highest incidence of gang warfare in the city. This center provides comprehensive services for 4,000 youths between 10 and 16 years old. These services range from direct crisis intervention to referral to other agencies.

The Neighborhood Youth Resources Center emphasizes voluntary participation in an attempt to help the youths gain some control over their own lives. Operating 13 hours a day seven days a week, the center provides five services—crisis intervention, casework, groupwork, referral services, and legal representation.

All cases are initially assessed by a service coordinator. They are then assigned to a Community Resource worker who conducts a home visit. When this process is completed, the youth and counselors meet to agree on a method of dealing with the immediate problem and to set long-range goals. A youth needing the services of one of the many outside agencies with which the center is affiliated will be accompanied to his or her first agency visit by a center staff member. The center keeps track of the youth's relationship with the referral agency and maintains a quality check on the agency's program.

In 1973 the center provided services to 1,027 boys and girls with a variety of problems. A four-month survey comparing the target group in the two precincts with the nontarget group in the same precincts found that the rate of felonies and status offenses for the target population was significantly lower in both precincts. In one of the precincts the arrest rate for misdemeanors in the target population was also lower than the arrest rate in the nontarget population.

For further information about the Philadelphia Neighborhood Youth Resources Center contact:

Project Director
Model Cities Neighborhood Youth Resources
Center of R. W. Brown Community Center
924 Columbia Avenue
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19122
Tel: (215) 978-0550

**PROSECUTOR MANAGEMENT INFORMATION
SYSTEM, DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA
(LEAA SUPPORTED)**

The caseload in many prosecutors' offices is massive. The Prosecutor Management Information System (PROMIS) is an LEAA-funded project designed to help prosecutors deal effectively with their caseloads.

PROMIS is an automated information management system that brings priority cases to the special attention of the prosecutor. It ranks pending cases according to the seriousness of the offense, the defendant's criminal record, the strength of the evidence against the defendant, and the length of time the case has been pending.

The system, which has been operating in the District of Columbia since 1971, also helps the prosecuting attorney spot scheduling impediments and analyze problems involved in screening or prosecuting a case. It allows large agencies employing a number of prosecutors to implement policy in a consistent manner.

During the first 19 months PROMIS was in operation the conviction rate for the cases singled out for special attention was 24 percent higher than the conviction rate for cases that were processed routinely. PROMIS is now being used in Los Angeles, California; Cobb County, Georgia; New Orleans Parish, Louisiana; and the Rhode Island Attorney General's Office.

For further information about the Prosecutor Management Information System contact:

PROMIS

Institute for Law and Social Research
1125 15th Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20005
Tel: (202) 872-9380

**PROVIDENCE EDUCATIONAL CENTER,
ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI
(LEAA SUPPORTED)**

The juvenile court in St. Louis has an effective alternative for dealing with juveniles who repeatedly commit crimes. The Providence Educational Center, a program for juvenile delinquents funded in 1972 by LEAA under its Impact City program, is two to four times more economical than other methods of dealing with repeat offenders, according to studies conducted by the Missouri Law Enforcement Assistance Council. It is also more effective than other methods in breaking the cycle of crime.

The Providence Education Center is a nonresidential school for 75 adjudicated delinquent boys between 12 and 16 years old. Operating on the assumption that many criminal careers begin with academic and social failure, the center concentrates on improving classroom performance and reversing negative attitudes so that the offender can either reenter high school or hold down a job.

Each youth participates in small classes in reading, arithmetic, English, science, and social studies designed to improve his educational skills. These classes contain no more than a dozen students and are supervised by two master teachers and one full-time social worker. Because learning difficulties are thought to be symptomatic of underlying emotional problems, each individual is provided with a comprehensive range of counseling services, carefully tailored to his particular needs.

The average center stay is nine months. Several months prior to an anticipated release, an after-care staff begins working with the student. This staff helps each student explore his options and determine outside goals. The student may elect to reenter high school or be placed in a work program or a vocational school. It is the responsibility of the after-care staff to maintain liaison with teachers, vocational supervisors, or employers until it is determined that the center graduate has made a successful transition to community life.

In the three years that have passed since its inception, the center has proved itself to be effective. A majority of those juveniles referred to the center were perpetrators of serious crimes. Only 22 percent of the boys who graduated from the program are known to have been institutionalized or enrolled in other offender programs. This compares favorably with a recidivism rate of 70 percent for youths released on conventional parole programs and with a 50 percent recidivism rate for youths assigned to conventional residential programs in St. Louis.

For further information about the Providence Educational Center contact:

Joseph D. Ryan, M.S.W.
Providence Inner City Corporation
2419 North Grand
St. Louis, Missouri 63106
Tel: (314) 628-5866

**THE PUBLIC DEFENDER SERVICE
OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA
(LIMITED LEAA FUNDING)**

The Supreme Court has ruled that anyone charged with a crime that could result in imprisonment has the constitutional right to legal counsel. In many cities the indigent defendant is represented by inexperienced, overworked attorneys. The Public Defender Service of the District of Columbia has overcome these obstacles to high-quality legal representation for the indigent defendant. This service provides comprehensive legal aid from arrest through release for those people who cannot afford to hire a lawyer.

Quality case preparation involves extensive investigation of the facts, thorough legal research, and careful preparation for trial. This is time consuming. The Public Defender Service reduces the amount of time an attorney must spend on a case by providing a supporting staff. The service employs investigators to interview witnesses, take statements, file subpoenas, and do all other fieldwork. Thus an attorney can assure that each client's case is adequately investigated without investing a large amount of his or her own time in the investigation.

The service has an Offender Rehabilitation Division that enters the case when the attorney is assigned. It conducts a background study on each defendant to place the defendant in a job, a training program, or therapy prior to the trial. This background material is either used by the attorney before the trial to negotiate a noncriminal settlement or presented to the judge at the sentencing stage. This report affords the attorney an opportunity to guide the defendant into an effective rehabilitation program.

The service has an LEAA-funded training program that provides six weeks of initial instruction for all staff attorneys. The training branch also develops and distributes inservice training materials, which include abstracts of every important new criminal case and a trial manual containing the most common problems and issues that arise in criminal cases. A central file of motions, memoranda, and briefs is maintained in the service's library. The center attorneys also participate in biweekly study groups designed to advance their skills as well as their knowledge of the law.

For further information about the D.C. Public Defender Service contact:

Secretary to the Director
Public Defender Service for the District of
Columbia
601 Indiana Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20004
Tel: (202) 628-1200

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48	Top: courtesy of the Library of Congress. Bottom: courtesy of the American Foundation, Philadelphia.
49	Top: courtesy of the Maine Criminal Justice Planning & Assistance Agency. Bottom: by Geo. Hayward, courtesy of the Library of Congress.
50	Top: by J. E. Stimson, courtesy of the Wyoming State Archives and Historical Department. Bottom: courtesy of the Oklahoma Historical Society.
51	Top: courtesy of the Maine Criminal Justice Planning and Assistance Agency. Bottom: courtesy of the Library of Congress.
52	Top, left: courtesy of the Library of Congress. Top, right: courtesy of the Montana Board of Crime Control Bottom: courtesy of the Library of Congress.
53	Top: courtesy of the Library of Congress. Bottom: by Russell Lee, courtesy of the Library of Congress.
54	Courtesy of the Library of Congress.
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56	Courtesy of the North Carolina Department of Natural and Economic Resources, Law and Order Division.
58	Courtesy of the American Foundation.
59	Courtesy of the Florida Department of Corrections.
61	Courtesy of the North Carolina Department of Natural and Economic Resources, Law and Order Division.
Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention	
62	Courtesy of the Library of Congress.
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65	The Bettmann Archive, Inc., New York City.
66	The Bettmann Archive, Inc., New York City.
67	All photos courtesy of the Library of Congress.
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69	Courtesy of the Maine Law Enforcement Planning and Assistance Agency.
70	Courtesy of the U.S. Department of Justice.
72	Courtesy of the Maine Law Enforcement Planning and Assistance Agency.
73	Courtesy of the District of Columbia Office of Criminal Justice Plans and Analysis.
75	Courtesy of the Minnesota Governor's Commission on Crime Prevention and Control.
76	Courtesy of the Puerto Rico Crime Commission.
77	Courtesy of the Puerto Rico Crime Commission.
Technology and the Criminal Justice System	
78	All photos courtesy of the St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department.
79	Top: courtesy of the Berkeley, Calif., Police Department. Middle: courtesy of the Los Angeles Police Department. Bottom: courtesy of the Kansas City, Mo., Police Department.
80	Top: courtesy of the Kansas City, Mo., Police Department. Middle and bottom: courtesy of the Alfred J. Young Collection, New York City.
81	Top, left and right: courtesy of the Kansas City, Mo., Police Department. Middle, left: courtesy of the St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department. Middle, right: courtesy of Spring 3100, the New York City Police Department magazine. Bottom, left: courtesy of the St. Louis Metropolitan Police Department.