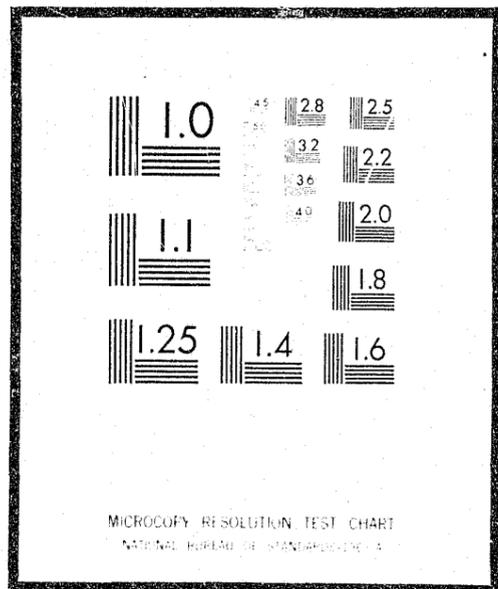


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International Conference on Doctoral-Level Education in Criminal Justice and Criminology



UNIVERSITY OF MARYLAND
Division of Behavioral and Social Sciences
Institute of Criminal Justice and Criminology
College Park, Maryland 20742

39527

International Conference
on
Doctoral-Level Education
in
Criminal Justice and Criminology

* PROCEEDINGS *

The Conference was convened by
THE INSTITUTE OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE
AND CRIMINOLOGY
UNIVERSITY OF MARYLAND
COLLEGE PARK, MARYLAND
July 7-10, 1976

Project Director - Peter P. Lejins
Project Coordinator - Mary Jane Wood

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ACQUISITIONS

PREFACE

This publication comprises the Proceedings of the International Conference on Doctoral-Level Education in Criminal Justice and Criminology, convened by the Institute of Criminal Justice and Criminology of the University of Maryland in July of 1976.

The Conference was funded under the Institute's National Criminal Justice Educational Development Consortium grant awarded the University of Maryland by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration of the United States Department of Justice in 1973. The purpose of the Consortium grant was the development or strengthening of doctoral-level programs in criminal justice in the United States in order to prepare planners, evaluators, researchers and teachers for the field. The seven universities had three years for the implementation of this objective. In the Fall of 1975 a Conference on Key Issues in Criminal Justice Doctoral Education was convened by the University of Omaha, Nebraska, one of the Consortium universities. This Conference brought together criminal justice educators from throughout the United States. Thereafter, it was felt that at the end of the Consortium project an international conference, bringing together the best thinking and experience on the subject on a world-wide scope would be an appropriate further step.

The Conference was attended by 28 criminal justice educators from 15 countries: twelve from the United States and sixteen of their counterparts from abroad. In addition to the United States, countries represented were Belgium, Canada, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Israel, Italy, the Ivory Coast, Japan, Lebanon, Mexico, Nigeria, Sweden, the United Kingdom, and Venezuela. A number of

observers also attended, among them the Chief of the Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Section of the United Nations.

The philosophies and policies in criminal justice education as well as curricula and programs in various parts of the world were described and discussed by the participants, pointing out the advantages and disadvantages of the various systems. A host of key issues related to doctoral education in this area were brought up. After four days of deliberations the participants agreed on a summary reflecting the major points brought out during the Conference. It is hoped that these **Proceedings** will serve as a vehicle for disseminating the ideas, problems and wide variety of practical solutions brought to light in the discussions.

The Institute of Criminal Justice and Criminology wishes to acknowledge its indebtedness to the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, especially to its Administrator, for making this Conference possible. Appreciation is also due the Administration of the University of Maryland, which gave enthusiastic support to this undertaking. Special recognition is due the Conference Coordinator and the entire staff of the Institute, as well as the faculty and students who shared in the burden of preparing and carrying out this event. The main credit, however, belongs to the participants, one and all, who gave unstintingly of themselves, their time and their energy to the animated discussions of the Conference.

Peter P. Lejins
Director

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OPENING SESSION

OPENING STATEMENT

Dr. Peter P. Lejins

I declare the Conference on Doctoral-Level Education in Criminal Justice and Criminology open. It is a pleasure to welcome all of you on behalf of the Institute of Criminal Justice and Criminology, and I am very happy that Dr. Gluckstern, Chancellor of the College Park campus of the University of Maryland, found it possible to come this morning to greet us. Dr. Gluckstern is a physicist, and thus, in the very beginning of the Conference on doctoral degree programs, we will have the refreshing impact of a representative of the physical sciences.

WELCOMING REMARKS

**Dr. Robert L. Gluckstern, Chancellor
The University of Maryland, College Park**

Thank you, Dr. Lejins. Mr. Velde, Chancellor Drazek, guests to the Conference: I am very happy to welcome you to this Conference, which I understand is for the exploration of doctoral-level education in criminal justice and criminology and for the contributions you can make toward helping to train the people who will be doing planning, research, evaluation, and teaching in the field of criminal justice and criminology. As Dr. Lejins knows, I have a special tie to criminal justice and criminology because that is my wife's professional field. She is presently very involved in this field, so I have been following the activities with a great deal of interest. I hope you enjoy the Conference and that you succeed in adding your contributions to those which are needed to have significant progress in this field. Thank you.

Dr. Lejins:

Thank you, Chancellor Gluckstern. Today, we are very happy also to have with us Chancellor Drazek, who is Chancellor of another unit of the University of Maryland, the University College, and since all of us are guests of the University College here (this is the University College Building, the Center of Adult Education) it is very nice that he has found it possible to come to say a few words to us. Dr. Drazek is an educator, among others, also in the area of criminal justice. The University, in its vast extension program, teaches in-service personnel in the field. Later on, when we discuss the structure of the program, you will probably have a chance to hear how this program is run, constituted, and organized. Our Institute closely cooperates in this enterprise. Dr. Drazek has always been very generous in his support for our particular program and was very helpful when we were establishing the Institute; for somewhat selfish reasons, if I may say so, because the University College, in accordance with the existing University standards, teaches only those courses which are taught on the campus. As long as there was no Institute of Criminal Justice and Criminology, criminal justice courses could not be taught in extension. Dr. Drazek, it is a special pleasure for me to invite you to say a few words.

WELCOMING REMARKS

**Dr. Stanley J. Drazek, Chancellor
The University College
University of Maryland**

Thank you very much. Dr. Lejins, Administrator Velde, Chancellor Gluckstern, Ladies and Gentlemen: It is indeed a pleasure for me to welcome the participants and observers attending this International Conference on Doctoral-Level Education in Criminal Justice and Criminology. It has been my pleasure to work with your host, Dr. Lejins, for almost three decades. The years roll by very rapidly.

Our University of Maryland University College, as Dr. Lejins pointed out, is the Adult Continuing Education arm for the University, and it offers courses throughout the State of Maryland and also in eighteen foreign countries. In making a quick check of the roster, I notice we have eight participants, or guests from foreign countries where we conduct overseas programs. Our College offers a variety of courses, including courses for law enforcement and correctional personnel. Dr. Lejins and his associates, his staff, aid us in staffing these courses.

We at the University College have worked very closely and cooperatively with Dr. Lejins and the Institute. In fact, before the Institute was founded, he and I went to West Coast institutions to see how they were progressing and, after bringing in consultants and having a number of conferences here, we finally had a pattern, a design, for the Institute. The Board of Regents approved the program as it was designed, and the Institute became a reality.

Since that time, under Dr. Lejin's leadership, many outstanding programs, workshops, seminars, institutes of various kinds, credited and non-credited, have been sponsored cooperatively by his Institute and by University College.

We hope that your stay in this Center will be pleasant and the educational exchange productive. I am pleased to join Dr. Gluckstern in welcoming you to the University of Maryland. Thank you.

Dr. Lejins:

Thank you, Dr. Drazek. And now I will introduce to you a person for whom the correct introduction is to say that he does not even need an introduction: that is, the Honorable Richard W. Velde, who is the Administrator of the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration of the Department of Justice. Mr. Velde has been associated with LEAA from its very beginnings, and, as far as I am concerned, in spite of the fact that there have been other Administrators before him, he has been the backbone, the continuing link, and the source of energy in back of most of the things which LEAA has done. For us here on the campus who have known him, and for the representatives of the Consortium universities, it is especially pleasing that he has found time from his incredibly busy schedule, regulating the distribution of vast amounts of money for improving the criminal justice system in this country, to come this morning to be with us. I would like to express our personal thanks to LEAA for his appearance and for the help which our university and the other Consortium universities have received through him from LEAA.

REMARKS

Mr. Richard W. Velde, Administrator The Law Enforcement Assistance Administration

Thank you Dr. Lejins and good morning ladies and gentlemen. I am honored to be able to participate and LEAA is pleased to be able to support this Conference. Like so many things which have been happening in the last week or two, we have here another gathering of founding fathers, this time in criminal justice education, not only in the United States, but around the world, and it is an extremely important event for us. We have been in business now for a decade, keeping track of, and in some cases attempting to encourage, new developments and progress in the field of criminal justice in the United States. And, we have seen a lot happen. One of the most exciting and encouraging developments of all is the establishment and the flourishing of criminal justice education in the United States. I have a few observations about that, but let me briefly recount, from our perspective, what is happening in criminal justice today and attempt to identify some of the implications for criminal justice.

First of all, I guess I do not need to tell you that crime is still with us, in fact, in many ways, it is flourishing. We have more of it, in more forms and more dimensions than ever before. And I guess that is some kind of claim. I am not sure where it leads us, but what we are facing is an increasing problem with increasing complexity and dimensions. I think the same can be said about criminal justice in the United States. It is increasing in its complexity and its dimensions. Today there are one million persons working in the criminal justice system in 46,000 criminal justice agencies. Currently these agencies are expending 15 billion dollars a year attempting to deal with the 10 million persons who become acquainted with criminal justice in one way or another. We see the development of a number of very significant trends which impact on the system and on those who provide the educational resources for it.

First, the development of a new profession, criminal justice planning, was unheard of a decade ago. While we had many individuals who had some expertise in the discipline of planning and while we had many individuals who knew something about criminal justice, very seldom, if ever, did you find the two skills together in the same person. Now we have courses in graduate education in criminal justice planning; we have planning agencies in every state and in many regional and local settings throughout the country; and, we have increasing sophistication in the methodology of criminal justice planning.

Closely related to the development of planning, we have an emerging and burgeoning field of criminal justice statistics. The Federal Criminal Justice Statistics Program supported by LEAA is now the fourth largest federal statistical program in the entire government, following only behind our agricultural, our labor and our educational manpower statistical programs. We are currently spending about thirty million dollars a year in developing long term statistical series such as our victimization survey, an attempt to measure the amount of crime actually occurring as opposed to that reported to the police. It is the largest single field survey in public opinion of any kind, anywhere, currently involving about one hundred and thirty thousand interviews

with individuals and sixty thousand households every six months. This is just one sample of the kind of statistical programs which are being built. Detailed surveys of organization employment and expenditures, Offender Based Transaction Statistics — an extremely sophisticated set up — are other examples. We are now in the third year of the publication of a sourcebook on criminal justice statistics and so on. But these developments would not have been possible without the conceptual work and the theoretical frameworks which have been developed at the educational institutions throughout the country and on whom we rely most heavily for their development.

So in the field of operations in criminal justice, again we find increasing complexity, increasing sophistication in dealing with our criminal justice problems. You look at any dimension, any aspect of criminal justice activity, whether it be juvenile delinquency prevention, or community based corrections, or virtually any activity in between and you find increasing sophistication in their management, in their operations, in their treatment modalities and sophistication of personnel dealing with them and so on. I could cite virtually innumerable examples of the kinds of programs which are being established today: family crisis intervention techniques for the police, new forms of treatment of offenders, either in the institutional setting or in the community setting, new techniques in sentencing and in parole and probation and so on. Today, criminal justice system operations require more and more sophisticated educational foundations.

In management we have seen a revolution in criminal justice managerial techniques and activities, the introduction of automation, of management information systems, of resource allocation, unheard of even five years ago in criminal justice, now widespread, very commonplace, and, again, increasingly sophisticated in their application.

Perhaps most important, however, are the contributions made by education in the field of criminal justice research and evaluation. In fact, criminal justice has pioneered in the development of evaluation methodology in the social sciences. I think that can be said rather safely without fear of contradiction. We have had an almost unique set of financial and educational resources to bring to bear on the very difficult questions as to whether or not the criminal justice programs work, succeed, fail, or whatever. We have learned a lot through the school of hard knocks. We have seen a lot of phonies, a lot of shysters, and a lot of charlatans in the business of evaluation. But I think that now we can say our know-how, our techniques, our methodology have progressed to the point where there is, in fact, a new discipline, a new profession of evaluation in criminal justice and it has been a leader in the social sciences. Of course, research programs in criminal justice are very small and very modest by comparison to the national investments in space, in defense, in the environment and energy, but, nevertheless, there is a major and increasing program of research. We rely almost exclusively on our institutions of higher education and on the criminal justice graduate programs to support, encourage and develop this activity.

In essence, from our perspective, we see the needs of criminal justice education mushrooming, and we see the requirements for better quality edu-

cation increasing every day. This means, of course, much greater emphasis on the graduate program, not only to train researchers and teachers, but to train managers and evaluators and planners. This is where the needs of the needs are. LEAA has been pleased to provide the funding support: I wish I could say the leadership and the know-how in the encouragement and development of the Educational Consortium. We have been content to sit on the sidelines, literally, and watch, again I refer to the founding fathers such as the gentleman on my right and others around this table, to see the trial and error, the experimentation, the development of successful programs. I wish I could say that all of our seven regional institutions had completed all of their objectives: some have exceeded and some have come close. I think that is perhaps really, in a microcosm, the story of the LEAA program. We have had our successes. We have had our failures. Hopefully this Conference again will teach us to gain the values of this experience, learn from our strengths and our weaknesses, our successes and our failures.

We also look on this as a unique opportunity not only to take stock of and assess the developments of criminal justice education in the United States, but to learn from those who have been working in this field internationally. In many respects, the field of criminal justice education in the United States is still in its infancy. Through the development of exchange programs, exchange of information and experience, we can certainly learn from the experience of those also represented here today.

I hope that this Conference, at least from LEAA's perspective, will be productive, not only to assess where we are and where we are going, but to lay the foundation for the future of criminal justice education in this country and to build the bridges of a cooperative program with educators around the world. That's what LEAA expects and hopes to achieve from this Conference. We look forward to working with you and sharing the experiences with you during this Conference. And, thanks again for allowing us to be here.

Dr. Lejins:

Thank you Mr. Velde. I am sure that nobody could give in as few minutes as concise a description of LEAA's goals, accomplishments and also, as Mr. Velde always points out, its failures. We will certainly try to see to it that this Conference is a success. I should say, Mr. Velde, that all of our foreign and American participants are here, so all goes well at this point in the Conference.

I would like to step aside for a moment from the agenda which you have before you and recognize Dr. Michael Pelczar, Vice-President of the University for Graduate Studies and Research. Dr. Pelczar was not sure whether he could make this meeting and, thus he is penalized for that by not even having a place card; but he found that he could come, and it is certainly very gratifying to have him with us. Dr. Pelczar.

REMARKS

Dr. Michael J. Pelczar Vice-President for Graduate Studies and Research University of Maryland

I am delighted to be here, and I welcome you wholeheartedly to this Conference on doctoral-level

education in criminal justice and criminology. The National Research Council, which is an agency of the National Academy of Sciences, is very much concerned with manpower studies, particularly at the doctoral-level. One of the albatrosses around graduate education's neck at the present time is the so-called phenomenon of Ph.D. surplus. It seems to me that here is a field which has tremendous opportunities for the development of the young talent that comes throughout system of higher education. I was impressed by Administrator Velde's remark about the need for talented persons in research and teaching in what we might call a practitioner area. This is one kind of relation that the graduate profession is pushing toward, the development of additional options at the level of the doctorate. Research has been traditionally a concept of doctoral education. Teaching, of course, is another significant part. But the practitioner aspect has not been emphasized in all fields as much as it might be in order to utilize the talents that are developed in the various disciplines, and from what I have heard already and from previous exposure to this field, it seems to me that the area of the practitioner is a very significant part of the entire operation. I am very much impressed with the fact that you were able to bring together persons, not only from the other institutions of the United States, but from around the world, to bring the thoughts to a common pool in terms of how the program might best evolve. I think this is, in itself, a very significant step in the development of a new doctoral-level program. I am delighted to be present.

I hope to sit in on several of your sessions, and I am sure that you will have a very successful and productive meeting. Thank you very much.

Dr. Lejins:

Thank you Dr. Pelczar. Next I would like to recognize another representative of the University of Maryland who is here to welcome us, and that is Dr. Nancy Anderson, on my right, who is the Assistant Provost of the Division of Behavioral and Social Sciences. We are in a state of change in the leadership of the Division of Behavioral and Social Sciences. I am saying this primarily for the benefit of those who have taken part in other conferences which we have had here in recent years and who were welcomed by Dr. Mary Berry, our former Provost. Dr. Berry was recently appointed Chancellor of the University of Colorado at Boulder. The Acting Provost, Dr. Dudley Dillard, could not be here this morning but will probably be seeing you in some other connections. Dr. Anderson is here to represent him. Dr. Anderson, would you like to say a few words?

REMARKS

Dr. Nancy A. Anderson Assistant Provost Division of Behavioral and Social Sciences University of Maryland

In addition to the welcomes that have been expressed so far, I would like to express ours from the Division. Dr. Lejins' program is truly one of the interdisciplinary programs of our Division, both at the doctoral-level and at the undergraduate-level. I am sure that I will be seeing some of you through-

out the week. I will extend my individual greetings then. We hope that you have a good educational experience as well as a pleasant visit to College Park.

Dr. Lejins:

Thank you, Dr. Anderson. I also see Dr. Rosen in the audience, who is an Assistant Provost of the Division.

The person perhaps most directly involved in the affairs of the Consortium is the Director of the Office of Education and Training of LEAA, Dr. Price Foster. Dr. Foster came to the central office of LEAA in Washington not so long ago, in the course of the last year. Ever since he appeared on the scene as the person directly responsible for educational programs, and those of the Consortium, I think all of us at the Consortium have enjoyed an era of opportunity for further development under extremely cooperative and, I would say, benevolent, leadership. I do not know of any case when I approached Price Foster with a request that would not receive the most serious, most friendly, and most supportive consideration.

REMARKS

**Dr. J. Price Foster, Director
Office of Education and Training
Law Enforcement Assistance Administration**

Dr. Lejins, it is a true pleasure to be here today and to have an opportunity to say a few words to a conference of this magnitude. This Conference marks a truly historic event in the field of education in criminal justice. What happens in the next three days here will undoubtedly be a part of the historical record that will contribute mightily to the direction, the focus and the structure of the field of crime-related studies for some years to come. I would like to take just a few minutes to talk about some concerns which we have at LEAA, some remarks about the field in general, and to try to give my feelings about what I would like to see happen at this Conference.

For the past fifteen years, crime-related studies in the United States have experienced a phenomenal growth. The growth has been most apparent in terms of the number of institutions at the two-year level. The number of Baccalaureate degrees that have cropped up in the last fifteen years is unprecedented and, of course, the graduate programs have also been growing.

There are many reasons for this phenomenal growth in the number of programs. Two of these reasons are: first: that there have been tremendous pressures from practitioners in the field for higher education to respond to their needs and to upgrade their personnel. Another related reason for the rapid emergence of these educational programs has been the increasing need for responsible research as to the nature of criminal justice, and how education should respond appropriate to this kind of increased demand for research resources.

Those responsible for doctoral-level education in criminology and criminal justice, the people in this room primarily, I feel, and I am sure that you share that feeling, have a tremendous responsibility with regard to both dimensions of the problem. This is

the challenge of a meaningful partnership between the criminal justice community and the academic community. This is one of the very few fields that has found its way into higher education primarily as a function of the response to pressure from the practitioner world. As you know, higher education tends to do its own thing, without being particularly responsive or concerned about the field of practice.

Since 1968 the number of institutions offering crime related degree programs has more than tripled. The result of this has been an increasing and overwhelming need for additional qualified faculty to serve in these programs. Recent data that I can point out to you now shows the tremendous magnitude of the problem. In 1973 in this country there were 839 programs at all degree levels in the United States. Of this number, 511 (60.9%) were two year schools. Another 239 (28.5%) were Baccalaureate programs; 74 (8.8%) were Master's programs; while 15, only 1.8%, were reported to have Ph.D. programs of one type or another. These 15 programs at the doctoral-level reported a total of nine graduates. That would be a manpower pool, in terms of people in the field, of nine graduate to serve almost a thousand schools. One result of this low productivity of graduates to meet faculty needs has been a tendency to employ persons who do not have academic credentials appropriate to the field or academic credentials that are on a par with other social and behavioral sciences. The crisis of qualified faculty is related to a serious concern about the quality of teaching and the quality of research being conducted by faculty in crime related programs.

The result of all of this has been that the academic credibility of crime related studies in higher education has, therefore, been a particular problem to this field as higher education seeks to respond to the needs of criminal justice.

The issue of providing a sufficient number of doctoral degree programs and a sufficient number of graduates at this degree level represents only one dimension of the problem, however, to which higher education is responsive. We are talking here about one dimension of a development which Mr. Velde mentioned, the phenomena of planning. Higher education has a tendency to produce graduates for the sake of having graduates. We are talking now, in the field, about manpower planning and the number of graduates that is responsive to the needs of the field, other than graduates because the school wants to produce graduates.

Another dimension of the problem, other than the number of schools and the number of doctoral candidates and graduates, discloses concerns about policies and organizational patterns most appropriate to the development of these programs in your agenda, I noticed that several of these issues are identified for discussion. Looking at all of these topics, it is quickly easy to see, difficult to escape, the fact that many basic issues in this field have yet to be resolved. Perhaps one of the most basic issues is that there is still a question remaining as to whether or not there is really a need for doctoral programs in criminal justice/criminology. Some evidence suggests that perhaps other social and behavioral science graduates would do as well. I look forward to hearing what we have to say about that in the next few days.

Before letting you get into your Conference, let me just take a minute or two to talk about the Consorti-

um, LEAA's role to date in trying to work with higher education.

LEAA, through the Educational Development Consortium Program, has attempted to assist the academic community in an effort to respond to the needs for doctoral education in criminal justice. Three years ago, LEAA provided funds for the establishment of the National Educational Consortium in Criminal Justice. This Consortium consists of seven universities in various parts of the United States. The schools involved are: Arizona State University, Eastern Kentucky University, Michigan State University, Northeastern University, Portland State University, the University of Nebraska at Omaha, and the University of Maryland here at College Park. The two basic objectives of this program are: first, to develop and strengthen doctoral degree programs in crime related studies and second, to build a framework of cooperation and to expand the exchange of knowledge among affiliated institutions. This Conference is part of that second objective.

During the three years of this program, we have, as Mr. Velde has said, had some smashing successes, and some that were not so successful in a way. The objective was to develop programs and put them in place. Two of the seven schools in this Consortium have taken good doctoral programs and turned them into great ones. Two schools have begun new programs. Two other schools are expected to implement programs in the next academic year. Since the creation of the Consortium, the member universities have begun a very intensive program of research directed toward basic objectives. One of these, to evaluate the need for graduate level education in crime-related studies, is a manpower study. It focuses on the identification of needs in the field, rather than going off in our own way and being in the same shape as some of the other social and behavioral sciences, for example history and political science. Secondly, the Consortium experience has a research objective of evaluating the need and effectiveness for a continuing criminal justice consortium of this type. Thirdly, and this Conference is focused primarily on the third issue, is to investigate the key issues in crime-related doctoral-level education. In pursuing these degree development and research objectives, members of the Consortium have worked very closely with other professional organizations which have an interest in crime-related graduate education. The Academy of Sciences in Criminal Justice is an example. Among the results of such collaboration is a rapid progress toward the development of guidelines for accreditation of crime-related degree programs in this field, and, recently, the establishment of the American Association of Doctoral Programs in Criminal Justice and Criminology.

This Association, which began its history in Dallas last March, also is composed of seven universities; three of these, the University of Maryland, Northeastern University, and Michigan State University, are also part of the Consortium, we are proud to say. The other members are: Florida State University, Sam Houston University, the State University of New York at Albany, and Rutgers University. As a kind of a side note, we are pleased to say that Dr. Peter Lejins, who needs no introduction here, has been elected the first President of the American Association of Doctoral Programs in Criminal Justice and Criminology.

This Conference in which we are involved in the next three days represents a most significant contribution to this field. We all know that it's an historic event. The Consortium schools will publish a five or six volume final report sometime later this fall. One part of that report will be a volume of key issues in criminal justice. This conference will be a companion to an earlier conference held in Omaha, Nebraska last October, on the same issues. I realize that we have an opportunity here to make some tremendous strides toward increasing the systematic contributions and the vital knowledge in this field. I am looking forward to meeting with you and talking with you in the next three days.

Dr. Lejins:

Thank you, Dr. Foster. I would now like to introduce a person at the head table who is going to be acting as vice-chairman of the Conference, a very able man to have. He is Dean Norman Rosenblatt of Northeastern University, who also happens to be, by the way, the vice-chairman of the Board of Directors of the Consortium.

I would like to recognize some additional people here in the audience. First of all, Professor Gerhard Mueller, who is the Chief of the Section on Crime Prevention and the Treatment of Offenders of the United Nations. His duties require him to be almost constantly on the go and he just arrived in time for this meeting. Two weeks ago in New York he conducted a United Nations meeting of the Committee on Crime Prevention and Control. Mr. Velde, from whom you just heard, represents the United States on that Committee and took a very active part in the meetings. Just as Chancellor Gluckstern pointed out this morning that his wife has professional interest in criminology, I should point out that we are very happy to have with us also Professor Mueller's wife, Dr. Freda Adler, an expert in female criminality. I would also like to mention the presence of Richard Wertz, the Executive Director of our Maryland SPA, the Maryland Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice, who recently completed his second term as chairman of the Conference of Directors of State Planning Agencies. I am pleased that he also found the time to come to this meeting and I hope that he will be able to attend more than this session of the Conference.

I would also like to recognize the presence of Chancellor Riddle, who is best known to us as the dynamic leader of John Jay College in New York, who took over the College after it ceased to be a police training academy and became a regular academic institution. Through the first years of the educational explosion in the United States, especially in the area of police, that College and Dr. Riddle were the leaders in the field. As all of us know he has now assumed the position of Chancellor of the University of Illinois, Chicago Circle. We are pleased to have him with us.

As two final points, I would like to say: First, a Resolutions Committee has been selected to present a set of draft resolutions for the Conference participants' consideration at the conclusion of the Proceedings. All of those approached have consented to do so.

Second, according to our agenda, I am to make a statement on the background and the purpose of this Conference. I will do so now.

PURPOSE AND BACKGROUND OF THE CONFERENCE

Peter P. Lejins*

TERMINOLOGICAL NOTE

The purpose of this Conference, as stated in its title, is to discuss doctoral-level education in the area of criminal justice and criminology. The title contains two concepts: the doctoral degree and the field of criminal justice and criminology. Before proceeding any further, and especially for the benefit of our foreign colleagues, it should be helpful to comment briefly on the meaning of these concepts as they are used in the United States and in the planning of this Conference.

In the United States the doctoral degree is the highest academic degree that can be earned in the course of study at a university. In a very general way, and omitting many important details, one can say that the doctoral degrees in this country fall into two major categories: the Doctor of Philosophy, usually referred to as the Ph.D., and the professional doctoral degrees. The Ph.D. is often described as a research degree. It is usually granted by the Graduate School of a university in an academic discipline which has a graduate program. The Ph.D. presupposes a broad theoretical background in the area of study, competence in research methodology, and a Ph.D. dissertation which is supposed to be a contribution to knowledge in the field. Examples of professional doctoral degrees are the Doctor of Medicine, M.D., Doctor of Education, Ed.D., etc. These professional doctoral degrees are supposed to prepare for the practice of a specific profession. Very often a university may offer both a Ph.D. and a professional doctoral degree in the same area of study, the first one usually intended for the person who plans to devote him/herself to research and teaching, and the other, for persons who plan to devote themselves to professional practice. Thus, e.g., one can obtain a degree of Doctor of Medicine or a Ph.D. in Medicine.

When we talk in the context of this Conference about doctoral education in the area of criminal justice and criminology, we are talking about the highest academic degree, either of a Ph.D. type or a professional degree, earned in the course of study at a university in a subject matter which deals with some aspect of criminal behavior, its prevention or control.

The second part of the title speaks of criminal justice and criminology. The term criminal justice came into use in the United States roughly ten years ago to denote any aspect of educational and operational activities related to the problem of crime. The term presently used in the United States is simply "criminal justice", without reference to criminology, since criminology is supposed to be included under this all-encompassing label. The two terms are used in the title of this Conference, however, because of the historically somewhat different overtones of the two designations. Criminal justice conveys more the impression of the agencies of crime control, the police, courts, penal and correctional

institutions, their structure, administration, management, etc., while the term criminology historically refers to the study of the causes of crime and the ways of removing these causes by means of prevention or correction. Thus the combined expression, "criminal justice and criminology" is often used to denote the entire area of operations and study. The title of the Institute which hosts this conference, as everybody probably noticed, is the Institute of Criminal Justice and Criminology. The recently established American Association of Doctoral Programs in Criminal Justice and Criminology also decided to use both terms in its designation. In planning this international conference, it was felt that for the benefit of our foreign colleagues, the combined title would be more meaningful.

THE NATIONAL CRIMINAL JUSTICE EDUCATIONAL CONSORTIUM

The immediate background of this Conference is the development and strengthening of doctoral programs in criminal justice by seven universities selected three years ago for the purpose of forming a consortium in order to prepare planners, evaluators, researchers and teachers for the field of criminal justice. The Law Enforcement Assistance Administration of the United States Department of Justice funded each of these universities for the above purpose in the amount of approximately \$650,000 for three years, providing additional funds for graduate fellowships, internships, some financial support for graduate students, etc. In addition, funds for a Consortium Coordinator's office were provided for the purposes of maintaining liaison between the Consortium members and facilitating joint projects, faculty exchange etc. The seven universities involved are: Arizona State University, Eastern Kentucky University, Michigan State University, Northeastern University, Portland State University, University of Maryland, and University of Nebraska at Omaha.

The three years of Consortium activities are almost over now and all seven universities involved have worked hard on the development and strengthening of their graduate programs. Curricula were carefully planned and revised, the faculties have been substantially enlarged; research, which is so essential for doctoral-level education, has been supported and developed; and capable students were carefully selected. The universities have done this not singlehandedly but in intensive consultation with each other. One of the means for these contacts was the nineteen Board of Directors meetings of the Consortium held so far. Experts from other than Consortium universities and from the entire field of criminal justice were frequently invited to the Consortium Board meetings to broaden the perspectives on the topics discussed. Thus these Consortium Board meetings became a unique series of nationwide seminars on graduate and especially doctoral

education for the field of criminal justice. With the help of the offices of the Consortium Coordinator, the need for doctoral-level personnel in the field of criminal justice was explored through a nation-wide survey. The content and organizational structure of the doctoral programs were continuously and extensively discussed. One of the major events in the Consortium's history was a three-day conference on doctoral-level education held in October of 1975 on the campus of one of the Consortium universities — the University of Nebraska at Omaha. To this conference the Directors of other than Consortium doctoral-level programs were also invited. Very substantial papers on many aspects of graduate education in criminal justice were presented. In addition to the seven developed or substantially improved graduate programs in criminal justice, the Consortium hopes to make an important contribution by the publication of a number of reports on its various experiences, findings and recommendations.

After three years of this intensive activity within the setting of the traditions and standards of American higher education and against the background of this country's criminal justice system, the next not only logical but also most promising step appeared to be to broaden the base and compare current developments in the United States with what other countries are doing in higher education in criminal justice. The University of Maryland had in its Consortium grant a certain sum earmarked as an "international component". It was decided to use this fund to convene this Conference to bring together the criminal justice educators from the United States with their counterparts from other countries in order to acquaint each other with extant educational programs, discuss the needs for personnel with advanced academic degrees and share their views on policies for further development. The fact that there is a great variety in organizational patterns for doctoral-level education throughout the world provides assurance that such a get-together is bound to stimulate new ideas and provide broader perspectives.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF A SCIENTIFIC DISCIPLINE OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE AND CRIMINOLOGY AND A SUPPORTIVE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

We live in a world of many occupations and professions, most of which have their own educational requirements and systems. There are physicians, lawyers, engineers, physicists, chemists, architects, botanists, zoologists, sociologists, psychologists, bricklayers, carpenters, plumbers, and so on, almost ad infinitum. Each one of these professional and occupational groups is in need of some preparatory education or training. Those professions which are based on large accumulations of knowledge and experience and need a broad educational background and a considerable amount of gradual and progressive training, have specific scientific disciplines to back them up, such as physics, mathematics, economics, political science, etc. This usually presupposes study at a university in the appropriate academic discipline, with ensuing further specializations. Perhaps the first issue which the planners of doctoral-level education in criminal justice must concern themselves with is the question whether

there should be a special integrated academic discipline of study and research that encompasses all matters related to the problem of crime. The alternative obviously would be to have the action personnel dealing with the crime problem educated in other disciplines and come to the action programs in crime control from a variety of different backgrounds.

The 19th century saw the emergence of a rational approach to human society, based on the study of that society, which is supposed to provide the necessary knowledge for conducting the affairs of the society in terms of rational end-means schemes and thus enable the society to eliminate the undesirable and to achieve desirable effects. This rational approach produced a number of empirical or positive social science disciplines such as psychology, anthropology, sociology, modern economics, modern political science, etc. These disciplines gradually established themselves as academic units within the university curricula and gradually produced large contingents of graduates identifying themselves with these individual disciplines. Some of these disciplines, e.g., sociology and psychology, are quite broad in scope and provide the educational background for a variety of professions and occupations. With time most of these disciplines developed specializations; e.g., psychology is nowadays divided into experimental psychology, clinical psychology, social psychology, etc.

After a number of basic social science disciplines became entrenched in the structure of the universities they produced a large number of graduates with a vested interest in enhancing their prestige, their position within the social power structure of the society, and the scope of functions to be performed by them, assuring jobs and incomes. As more and more specific areas of human activity and social problems began to be approached in terms of rational action, the need for specialized education and specialized personnel in these additional areas became apparent. Yet the already established disciplines were loath to yield the pursuit of parts of the body of knowledge so far under their direction and parts of the occupational opportunities to the newcomers. Thus the major problem of contemporary higher education arose: the conflict of interest between the traditional and well-established academic disciplines and study and research in "interdisciplinary problems" which do not fit into the frame of reference of a single discipline and gradually develop a body of specialized knowledge and experience which potentially is more important than the more general background provided by one single traditional department. There are innumerable examples of the situation just described in the universities today, all of which can be characterized as a conflict of interest between the basic social science disciplines and the interdisciplinary nature of most acute contemporary social problems, for the handling of which one should be preparing, it seems, specialized experts. Some such examples are the current quest for the study of urban problems; in the United States the quest for Afro-American studies; and, of course, the quest for studies in the area of crime and its control.

Although this is somewhat repetitive of what has just been stated, for the purpose of reinforcing the point, I would like to quote from "Introductory Re-

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marks" which I wrote some five years ago for the monograph prepared by Franco Ferracuti for the United Nations Social Defence Research Institute on **Coordination of Interdisciplinary Research in Criminology**.

"The paper deals with the conflicting tendencies of the discipline-oriented and problem-oriented approaches in contemporary social science, as this applies to the field of criminology. One could readily argue that the conflict ought not to be there; that from the point of view of the scientific method the problem is relatively superficial and should lend itself to a relatively simple solution. The situation is different, however, when it is seen from the point of view of the living community of social scientists, especially as there are grouped about institutions of higher learning. On one side, we see the building of rigidly compartmentalized disciplinary empires, which — on the content side — are developed as beautiful structures resting on the selection of a few basic premises and adhering to very specific empirical methodologies, and which — on the human side — consist of personnel produced by rigidly circumscribed educational systems, unified in professional associations and watchful above all over the prerogatives and advantages of the profession; on the other — the quest of the general public for answers and action on the pressing problems confronting it, which problems do not fit in their entirety into the scope of a single scientific discipline, obviously cannot be solved in terms of the interpretational models of any single discipline and clearly demand a broader, multidisciplinary approach." *

The discipline of criminology and the subsequent quest for the academic field of criminal justice developed much later than some of the other academic disciplines of social and behavioral science. One might speculate about the reasons for this. Perhaps the fact that the crime control system for centuries or perhaps even thousands of years was based on the punitive sanctions of a criminal-law system, the doctrine of freedom of the will, freedom on the part of the offender to make the right or wrong move with regard to criminal-law norms, made it more difficult to approach the whole field of criminal behavior from the point of view of causes and a means-ends scheme of rational modern social science. This is, of course, just a hypothesis, but there might be something to it. Anyhow, the first clear statement regarding the need for a special scientific discipline to study crime — criminology — did not come until just about 100 years ago. Regardless of what one thinks of some of the other theories of Lombroso, he must be given credit for having issued the call for the study of the causes of crime — criminology — as an organized and specialized scientific discipline.

When criminology appeared on the academic scene and attempted to establish a niche for itself

in the organizational structure of the universities, it was given an unfriendly greeting by the other, already established, social sciences. They were all willing to admit the need for the empirical study of crime, but all wanted to take the task on themselves, even if it was only one of the aspects of the total problem of criminality. The sociologists wanted to study it from the point of view of sociology in the department of sociology; the psychologists would not relinquish their basic identification with psychology and insisted on dealing with the problem of crime to the extent of their competence as psychologists; the same applies to psychiatry, economics, etc. In some cases the older social sciences were willing to recognize the new field to the extent of offering some courses in it (e.g., sociology in the United States), but in many cases the social science departments insisted that the generic study of human behavior was sufficient preparation for both practical and scientific work on the problem of crime. An excellent example is the policies of the Council on Social Work Education, implemented in the majority of schools of social work, with only a few exceptions. This policy was to stake the claim on staffing professional positions in the field of corrections, while at the same time insisting on offering no specialized instruction in criminology or corrections in the schools of social work; presumably only generic training in all types of social work is needed.

The result of all of these developments was that until very recently the field of criminology was dissected into many parts, handled by other social and behavioral disciplines which "colonized" criminology for employment opportunities and occasional research projects, but left the field divided, without effective leadership in the development of theory for the total phenomenon of crime and the use of this theory as an underpinning for the action programs of the operational agencies of crime control.

I have often cited the fact that while American departments of sociology housed the discipline of criminology for more than half a century, wrote textbooks, conducted research and taught innumerable students, they never established a real link with the operational agencies. Having intimate knowledge of the functioning of the American Correctional Association, I can testify to the continued disappointment of its members at the almost total absence of any academic sociologists specializing in criminology at the Annual Congresses of Correction. Sociologists, like the members of other social science disciplines, remained primarily sociologists and identified themselves with the American Sociological Association and its annual meetings.

All of the above discussion seems to indicate that the interdisciplinary field of criminal justice and criminology needs its own integrated academic program in order to advance research, education, and preparation of personnel for its own needs. What are needed are properly educated members of a profession who have a life-long identification and a stake in the development of crime prevention and control. Only such professionals would have a sense of responsibility and a vested interest, if you will, in satisfying the needs of the society with regard to the crime problem.

The policy directed toward the development of such an academic discipline and profession versus the handling of the problem by visiting researchers and professors of other disciplines is the real topic before this Conference. In spite of the seeming cogency of the above hypothetical perspective on the topic, I am the first one to recognize the main arguments pro and contra. The participants of the Conference should carefully discuss and evaluate these. The possibility of compromise solutions should also not be excluded.

THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN THE UNITED STATES

For the benefit of the foreign participants in this Conference, a very brief schematic description of the educational system of the United States might be appropriate here.

There is an elementary school, which is usually started at the age of six and comprises 8 years. It is followed by four years in a high school. These twelve years often are apportioned differently. One of the patterns is six years of elementary school, three years of junior high school, and three years of senior high school. Whatever the distribution, the sum total in most cases is 12 years.

The high school is followed by four years of college or university, at the end of which the student receives the Bachelor's degree. Thus, by and large, the Bachelor's degree is obtained after 16 years of study.

The foreign observer should also be made aware of the existence of the AA degree — Associate of Arts degree — in this country. This degree is granted after two years of college-level study, very often by the so-called junior colleges. This degree sometimes functions as a terminal degree, but very often the students who receive the AA degree then enter a four year university or college and receive a Bachelor's degree after two more years of study.

Studies beyond the Bachelor's degree are designated as graduate study, and the students as graduate students. The first graduate or advanced degree is the Master's degree, which is most frequently differentiated as Master of Arts (MA) and Master of Science (MS) degrees, although many variations exist. Generally the MA degree is granted to students in the humanities and social sciences, while the MS degree is more typical for the physical sciences, e.g., chemistry, engineering, etc., and the life sciences (zoology, botany etc.). The time required for obtaining a Master's degree is sometimes officially one year, sometimes two years, and in practice is usually at least two years. Thus when one meets a person with a Master's degree, one can generally assume that this person has had 18 years of education.

The doctoral degree, especially the Ph.D., usually requires at least three years beyond the Master's degree, inclusive of the doctoral dissertation. Thus when one meets the holder of a Ph.D. degree in the United States, one should assume that one is dealing with a person who has spent 21 years in the educational process and is at least 27 years old. There are, of course, exceptions, and one occasionally meet a child prodigy who has obtained a doctoral degree much faster. But these are excep-

tions. On the other hand, there are many cases in which the process of obtaining the Doctor's degree takes ten years or more after graduation from college; because the dissertation research required a longer time, or the person had to support him- or herself by working, which interfered with the progress of the studies. It should be noted that in some programs the obtaining of the Master's degree prior to the Doctor's degree is not required, and the student may proceed with the Ph.D. program immediately after having obtained the Bachelor's degree. This does not mean, however, that the time interval between the Bachelor's and the Doctor's degree is therefore necessarily shorter.

The doctoral degrees of a professional nature (not Ph.D. degrees) by and large are obtained in a manner similar to what has been described above. To use an example from the area of criminology, the School of Criminology of the University of California, Berkeley, offered a regular Bachelor's degree in Criminology, a Master's degree in Criminology, and finally a Doctorate in Criminology. The Schools of social work offer a Master's degree of social work (MSW) after two years of post-baccalaureate study, and a doctor of social work (DSW) after a number of additional years, usually about three.

For the foreign observer it should be especially stressed that in the United States the graduate professional schools such as law schools, medical schools, schools of social work, etc., are entered only after the student has obtained the Bachelor's degree. Thus graduation from a law school in the United States usually means eight years of university study or at least seven years in some of the telescoped programs. On the other hand, a United States participant should be made aware of the fact that the continental European, South American and many other educational systems developed under the continental European influence have their faculties of medicine or faculties of law entered by the students immediately upon graduation from high school.

It is felt that this amount of information about the educational system of the United States, although very limited, is indispensable at least as a starting point for the discussions of this Conference.

"In discussing preparation of personnel for the criminal justice field in the United States in the last decade, it is important to distinguish between education and training. While this distinction has always existed, it became more important with the expansion of resources for the preparation of criminal justice personnel. 'Education' refers to preparation of a general nature in an educational institution; even in the case of professional or specialized education, it means general preparation for a particular type of occupation or profession. Intermediate between general and specialized education is adaptive education, an additional educational program for a generally educated person who plans to prepare him/herself for a more specialized field, e.g., a psychologist who, after completing his psychological education, engages in some study of criminology in order to prepare him/herself for work in a correctional institution. 'Training', on the other hand, refers to preparation for a specific job or specific position after a person has become an employee of a particular agency, institution, or system. Training can be taken before entry on the job, in which case

*UNSDRI, Rome 1971, S.P. No. 1, pp. 9-10.

it is referred to as preservice training, or it can be taken while on the job, in which case it is called inservice training." *

THE RECENT 'EXPLOSION' OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

The American educator should be and probably is aware and our foreign colleagues should be made aware of the fact that this discussion of criminal justice education takes place at a time of unprecedented rapid expansion of such education in the United States. This is why the dramatic term "explosion" is used in the title of this section. Prior to 1960, degree-granting programs in criminology or in police science on the university level were practically non-existent, the one exception being the California School of Criminology at Berkeley, which was in operation since 1935. There were, of course, a number of curricula in criminology and in police science which functioned as "specializations" leading to a degree in the basic social science discipline (e.g., sociology or political science). When national concern about the crime problem in the United States reached its peak in a rapid crescendo by 1965, popular clamor for strengthening the criminal justice system was accompanied by realization of the need for the study of the problem and for the production of qualified — that is, educated — personnel. After the passage of the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act in 1968, which established the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration within the U.S. Department of Justice, unprecedented funds, reaching in a few years 900 million dollars a year, were made available to strengthen the system. A substantial portion of these funds was appropriated for research purposes in all phases of the criminal justice system, and very considerable amounts were assigned for direct support of educational programs and especially financial aid to students. Thus the strong trend toward development of educational pro-

grams on the university level in the field of criminal justice and criminology, which became apparent before the federal monies were made available, received the additional stimulus of federal financial support beginning with 1968. This resulted in an almost incredible increase in the number of university programs at all degree levels. The best known and tradition-bound universities did not hesitate to introduce such programs at much greater speed than is usual for the academic community, and many younger and more applied program institutions actually made the studies of law enforcement and criminology a major component of their curricula. The following table, reproduced from the International Association of Chief of Police 1975-76 Directory gives a picture of this development.

Directory	Associate	Bacca- laureate	Masters	Doctorate	Number of Institutions
1966-1967	156	39	14	4	184
1968-1969	199	44	13	5	234
1970-1971	257	55	21	7	292
1972-1973	505	211	41	9	515
1974-1975	729	376	121	19	664

It should be noted that the above statistics, as indicative as they are, probably do not reflect the full expansion of the educational opportunities for the field of criminal justice and criminology, because they list only the programs offering degrees in criminal justice, while many institutions intensified their offerings in this field without necessarily establishing a formal degree.

It is hoped that this statement of the purpose and background of the Conference will be of some help especially to our colleagues from abroad in setting the scene for our discussions.

DOCTORAL-LEVEL EDUCATION IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE AND CRIMINOLOGY

A report on the present situation in the Nordic countries of Europe
(Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden)

by

Alvar Nelson*

1. THE POSITION OF CRIMINAL SCIENCE IN THE NORDIC COUNTRIES

It is a tradition in the Nordic countries that the professors of Criminal Law take active part in legislative work. Their knowledge of the legal doctrine, of the administration of criminal justice by the courts and the administrative agencies and their contact with the international debate on criminal policy have given them a strong position in the parliamentary commissions and expert committees on criminal law reform. No doubt that the quality of the legislative work has improved by their technical advice. They have however — while acting as expert advisors — to some extent without any political mandate directed the criminal policy and in fact made political decisions. I am willing to give them full credit for their expert job. Legislation, doctrine and legal usage form a unity and a guaranty for stability and safeguards of the rights of the individual is given. At the same time the risks for stagnation have become evident particularly in the field of definitions of crime and of specific crimes.

In periods, there has been a gap between the chairs in Criminal Law and other chairs within the law faculties, notably in Constitutional Law and Administrative Law. Moreover, in Sweden Criminal Procedure is separated from Criminal Law and taught under the chair of (Civil and Criminal) Procedure. Thus the concentration of the work to Criminal Law has led to isolation, and important parts of the Criminal Justice system have been ignored. The interaction between criminal and social legislation has mainly been studied outside the Criminal Law. Prosecution remission and summary imposition of fines by the police or the prosecutor are topics in the outskirts of Procedure. Police work is mostly ignored.

The system of sanctions has been gradually transformed since the early part of the 19th century and the professors of Criminal Law have taken an active part in these reforms. Their contacts with the developments in central and southern Europe and Great Britain enabled them efficiently to support the demand for reforms raised by prison administrators, educators and politicians. In fact their contribution to the reforms mainly consisted in reshaping ideology to legislation. In the committee work an increasing demand for empirical data to support the proposals lead the committees to initiate rather crude investigations and to collect statistical material. Thus elements of criminology were added to Criminal Law and Criminal Policy.

After the end of the second world war a wider interest in Criminology was found in the Nordic

countries and many young research workers and junior university teachers went abroad in order to learn what was not taught at home. They had varied academic backgrounds from the faculties of Law, Medicine and Social Sciences. Their personal interests and the topics in vogue at the universities they visited gave a diversity that enabled Criminology to develop in different directions in the Nordic universities.

Criminology is now introduced as a subject at many Nordic universities and research institutes have been established at a few of them. This development started already in 1944 when a lectureship at Copenhagen University was given to Karl O. Christiansen, later transformed to a chair. Criminology is now taught at the Law faculties and within the Social Science faculties, sometimes as a part of Sociology.

In the last decade more interest has been spent on Criminal Policy as a part of social control. These aspects have been focused in Finland more than in the other countries. Finland has also given special attention to crime control from economic aspects. A new project in Sweden has started in collaboration between Economics and Law including an economic decision-making view of criminal behavior. While punitive and correctional measures have been carefully studied in all the Nordic countries less attention has been given to studies concentrated on the role of the police, prosecution and courts due to the already mentioned fact that these topics partly lie under other parts of the legal education.

2. REGULATIONS CONCERNING DOCTOR'S DEGREES IN THE UNIVERSITIES

Traditionally the doctor's degree was awarded by the faculty (in Norway by the academic collegium) and the whole faculty took responsibility for the judging of the dissertation presented to the public and publicly defended. When dissertations were presented in Criminal Justice and Criminology they were generally accepted in the faculty where the author had carried out his graduate studies. Thus the efforts of the author could lead him to a doctor's degree in Law if he was a lawyer, in Medicine if this was his original field of studies and Social Sciences if he had studied e.g., Sociology or Economics. There are however exceptions.

Once within the realm of a faculty the dissertation could pass over the boundaries of several chairs and even include material from fields outside the faculty. In Denmark and Norway the real control of the work was carried out long before the public act by a board including the specialists on the subject within or partly outside the faculty. This board re-

*Quoted, slightly adapted, from P. Lejins, *Criminal Justice in the United States 1970-1975, An Overview*, The American Correctional Association, 1976, pp. 32-33.

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ported to the faculty who granted permission to the author to defend his book. Such control is still in practice and the quality of the dissertation is high. Mostly they qualify the author for a chair if one is vacant.

Nowadays the sovereignty of the faculty is abolished and the judgment is passed by a smaller group of persons, in Sweden by the responsible professor and a few other academic teachers. The judgment, passed or not passed, is given after the public act and all the previous control lies on the professor during the postgraduate work. At the same time the period of postgraduate research is cut down to four years and the quality of the work, and not only the quantity, seems to have gone down even in the Law faculties. An accepted dissertation in Sweden does not even automatically give access to a lectureship.

Dissertations in the field of Criminal Justice and Criminology are rare in the Nordic countries, numbering in the last quarter of a century around 30 in all universities together. Let me without prejudice mention a few of them:

Aarhus:

Verner Goldschmidt: **Legal Behavior**. In Danish, no summary. Copenhagen 1957 228+203 p. (Dr. jr.)

Copenhagen:

Karl O. Christiansen. **Criminal Collaboration with the Germans**. In Danish, summary in English. Copenhagen 1955 348+60 p. (Dr.Jur.)

Hans Gammeltoft-Hansen. **Detention Before Trial**. In Danish, summary in English. Copenhagen 1976. 513 p. (Dr.Jur.)

Helsinki:

Paavo Uusitalo: **Prison Colonies**. In Finnish. Helsinki 1958. (Pol.Dr.)

Raimo Lahti, **Prosecution Remission**. In Finnish. Helsinki 1975. (Dr.Jur.)

Lund:

Göran Skogh: **Criminal Law and Economy**. In Swedish. Summary in English 138 p. (Fil. Dr.)

Ulla Bondeson: **The Inmate in the Prison Society**. In Swedish, summary in English. 632 p. (Fil.Dr.)

Oslo:

Vilhelm Aubert. **On the Social Function of Punishment**. In Norwegian. Oslo 1954 (Dr.Phil.)

Anders Bratholm. **Arrest and Detention Before Trial**. In Norwegian, summary in English. Oslo 1957 412 p. (Dr.Jur)

Thomas Mathiesen: **The Defences of the Weak**. In English. London 1965 (Dr.Phil.)

Kare Bodal: 1. **The Training School and the Results of Treatment**. Oslo 1965. 2. **From Training School to Youth Prison — Clients and Results**. Oslo 1969. In Norwegian. (Dr.Phil.)

Stockholm:

Knut Sveri. **Criminality and Age**. In Norwegian, summary in English. Stockholm 1960 242 p. (Dr.Jur.)

Gustav Jonsson. **Delinquent Boys, Their Parents and Grandparents**. Copenhagen 1967 (Med.Dr.)

Uppsala:

Ola Nyquist. **Juvenile Justice**. In English. Uppsala 1960 302 p. (Dr.Jur.)

John Takman. **The Gypsies in Sweden**. In English. Uddevalla 1976. 173 p. (Med.Dr.)

It should be added that the examination for *licentiatus juris* to some extent is equivalent to an American doctor's degree and that this degree has been given to several persons in Denmark and one or two in Sweden for works in Criminal Justice and Criminology. Similar trends are also found in Finland and Norway.

3. EDUCATION IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE AND CRIMINOLOGY

Teaching in Criminal Justice and Criminology takes place both on the graduate and the postgraduate level in the faculties of Law and Sciences.

In Denmark Hurwitz-Christiansen, **Criminology I-II** (in Danish) Copenhagen 1968-71 is the standard hand-book.

In Finland Anttila-Törnudd, **Criminology in the Perspective of Criminal Policy** (in Finnish and Swedish) Helsinki 1973 is the text-book.

Norway has a variety of publications in the field.

Sweden is still lacking a text- or hand-book but Elwin-Heckscher-Nelson, **The First Stone** (in Swedish) 4 ed. 1975 is widely used.

In Sweden Criminology is only taught in Stockholm on the graduate level and Stockholm is the only place where you can reach the doctorate in Criminology either in the faculty of Law or the faculty of Sciences.

Seminars on Criminal Policy are held regularly in Uppsala.

The regulations for research work for the doctorate in Finland and Sweden assume that regular teaching should be given at the doctoral-level. Already due to the very small number of students this cannot be practised. The teaching staff takes active part in the seminars and individual advice is given to a varying extent. Many of the research students are collaborating in the projects of the research institutes or the legislative bodies. Independent research projects are sponsored mainly by the State research foundations.

4. RESEARCH IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE AND CRIMINOLOGY

The rapid development of Criminology in the fifties lead to the establishment of institutes of Criminology in Aarhus, Copenhagen, Helsinki, Oslo and Stockholm. The Aarhus Institute had small resources and faded after the successful start of the Institute in Copenhagen, where Christiansen took care of Criminology and Waaben of Criminal Law and Criminal Policy. The Helsinki Institute merged into the State Research Institute for Legal Policy, still with Anttila as director. The Oslo Institute had a rapid development under Andenaes, and Christie and Bratholm have now taken over after Andenaes. The growth of the Stockholm Institute, headed by Sveri, has been slow.

All the research institutes have a staff composed of mainly younger assistants trained in many different academic subjects. The Helsinki institute is oriented towards political and social sciences. The staffs are also involved in teaching Criminal Law, Criminal Policy and Criminology and working on one of their own research projects, e.g., Greve in Copenhagen, Aromaa in Helsinki, Hauge in Oslo and Lenke in Stockholm. Members of the institutes take an active part in legislative work, besides that already mentioned, especially Törnudd in Helsinki.

Research in Criminology is not exclusively going on in the institutes now mentioned. The sociological departments in the different universities are very active in Criminal Science, so, e.g., Wolf in Copenhagen, Bondeson in Lund, Mathiesen in Oslo and Persson in Stockholm. Forensic psychiatry has a long tradition in the Nordic countries and is carried out in the clinics, e.g., by Westling in Helsinki and Tornqvist in Uppsala. Some of the national correctional administrations carry out their own research projects, e.g., in Sweden headed by Bishop. The Swedish ministry of Justice has its own Council for crime prevention which has its own research staff and also sponsors projects run by other researchers. Reports by parliamentary Commissions and expert committees often include scientific appendices prepared by experts in Criminal Justice and Criminology. Many of these experts work in or in contact with the institutes mentioned above, others are employed in the state administration, e.g., the statisticians. Graduate students often produce the background material, sometimes as a part of their examination papers.

5. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The traditional educational system in the Nordic universities is based on the fact that the school education covers also what in America is generally taught during the first academic year. Our freshmen are in general 19 years old when they enter the university and the studies for the first degree take

3-6 years of full-time education. The post-graduate studies are scheduled to last 4 years, but most of the students spend even more time before they reach the doctorate. On the doctoral-level the main parts of the teaching is transformed into pure individual guidance. Already the small number of research students in the field of Criminal Justice and Criminology indicates that education on the doctoral-level cannot be given in groups unless we give access to qualified persons outside the universities, e.g., doctors, attorneys, civil servants and people in private employment.

The Nordic Council for Criminology and other organizations, e.g., state foundations and administrative units, try to fill the gap by holding conferences and seminars where researchers in the field of Criminal Justice and Criminology come together and often meet judges, administrators, medical experts and politicians. Such meetings on a national or Nordic basis have proved themselves useful as a basis for promotion of mutual understanding, better knowledge of ongoing projects and a wider perspective on criminal science.

Being small countries with a total population of only 21 million inhabitants we feel that we cannot at the moment establish doctoral education in Criminal Justice and Criminology even on a Nordic basis. Moreover do we accept the present possibilities of awarding doctor degrees in different faculties in the universities believing that the degrees given correspond well to the academic background and research work of the candidates? We would, however, be pleased to have such education established abroad with the possibility for us to send promising students there for doctoral education, not only for a broad educational programme in Criminal Justice but especially for methodological training and participating in research. This may in the long run encourage us to take up such an educational program on a Nordic or national basis. I trust that our students on their return from abroad will be the first to promote such a development like our young criminologists did a generation ago.

DOCTORAL-LEVEL EDUCATION IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE AND CRIMINOLOGY IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

by

F. H. McClintock*

I have been asked to speak for some ten to fifteen minutes on the doctoral-level education in Criminal Justice and Criminology in the United Kingdom. It seems to be to be very difficult to deal in any systematic way with a subject so complex within such a short span of time. I think we have already found that one cannot deal with doctoral-level education without considering its role in relation to the higher educational system of the particular country and without considering the levels of conceptualization of questions of crime and criminal justice issues in each country. Certainly there was one experiment ten years ago when in July 1966 the National Conference of Research and Teaching in Criminology at Cambridge devoted a major part of the Conference to an examination of the development of and current issues in teaching criminology in the United Kingdom, and at which I gave a paper on postgraduate and doctoral education in criminology (Appendix I). On reading that paper last night, I find that in the United Kingdom many of the issues raised then remain valid today, even though there has been considerable expansion in higher education in criminology in the intervening years.

- 1) The issue between the **academic** versus the **practical** usefulness of the subject.
- 2) The need for provision of top and middle management range **administrators and professionals** on the one side and the need for **proven critical scholarly research workers and teachers** on the other side.
- 3) The nature of research experience at the doctoral-level — master/craft apprentice approval or education in research through involvement in project or field research.
- 4) The national requirement for academic leaders and research workers in criminology and criminal justice and the need for different kinds of professionals to have higher education in criminology and criminal justice subjects.

These issues remain largely unsolved and still currently discussed in the United Kingdom, which then leads on to the detailed discussions of course designs and content, as well as the issues of faculty or interfaculty responsibility for such courses (law, social science, medicine) and the content and standards of attainment of primary degree courses as essential or desirable for students wishing to specialize in the criminology/criminal justice area of higher education.

But, in the United Kingdom as elsewhere, the doctoral-level of education in criminal justice and criminology has been profoundly effected by the shift from the acceptance of crime as being an ob-

jective identity and criminal justice as being a social control system to be perfected or at least to be made more effective in relation to unquestioned goals, to a recognition of the problematic nature of the phenomenon of crime, and the problematic assumptions that sustain and support the containment of the criminal justice system. In the United Kingdom, the consensus between the academic community and the policy-makers and the senior administrators that prevailed in the field of crime and criminal justice through to the 1960's was breached, if not shattered, by the new criminologists, the critical or radical criminologists, the symbolic interactionists, during that decade. This has emphasized the political content of much of the content and many of the assumptions underlying academic programs in criminology; as well as leading to a questioning of the very existence of criminology and criminal justice as separate academic subjects.

Last Spring our Social Science Research Council, which has a considerable influence on postgraduate teaching and research in the United Kingdom, held a conference on the future of post-graduate work in Sociolegal Studies, and, in a paper, "The Experience of Criminology" (Appendix II), I argued that criminology and criminal justice were basically sociolegal subjects, and that there were many disadvantages from regarding them as fundamentally **interdisciplinary** in character. I suggest that the future of criminological and criminal justice studies from the academic perspective is in broadening them out and along into the wider context of sociology and of legal sociology. This is not, however, to suggest that such a viewpoint is widely held by many of my colleagues in the United Kingdom, but it does indicate an area of uncertainty and concern which may eventually influence the development of post-graduate work in these subjects in the United Kingdom.

The other main issue which has lead, in the United Kingdom, to a fundamental reconsideration of our teaching at the post-graduate and doctoral-level is that of methodology — the questioning of the nature of social sciences, the methods of knowing and understanding social reality which have obviously profoundly effected our approach to research and teaching at the post-graduate level. We can no longer restrict methodology to the provision of various skills and statistical techniques for research which used to be termed tools of the social sciences, but need to deal in our courses with philosophical and epistemological questions. In such courses, the **nature of knowing** has replaced the **Chi square** as the focus of concern. Again in the United Kingdom, these issues have by no means been resolved, and some will argue that the function of the

criminologist could be more properly defined as one of question raising rather than of question solving.

The real issue seems to me to be whether we can at the doctoral-level educate a person to be both a professional and an academic. In my Madrid paper in 1970, I put it in the following way:

"Criminologists in Great Britain are being consulted about projected changes in the criminal law and penal administration. This, in itself, may be regarded as a healthy development and a recognition of the practical relevance of modern criminology; but there is also the danger that in so far as the criminologist undertakes the role of a technologist in the social sphere he may neglect his more fundamental role of being an independent and informed critic of the basic issues of the social and penal processes in contemporary society . . . above all the academic criminologists will need to consider what they think their role should be. It may be that criminologists can assist in bringing about more effective control and yet also remain independent critics of the social and penal system but clearly these two roles are inevitably to some extent in conflict and they are difficult to fulfill by the same individual."*

Although this problem has not been solved, I would suggest, at least for the time being, that because of the powerful position of the agents of the state in relation to crime prevention, criminal justice, and crime control, it can be claimed that criminology has a special position in relation to both sociological and legal studies at the post-graduate level.

The United Kingdom consists of some 55 million people and has three criminal justice systems (England and Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland), which are autonomous in administration except for the role of the Privy Council and appeals to the House of Lords.

The university in the United Kingdom has a three or four year degree, an intermediate higher degree for one or two years, and a three year Ph.D. (D. Phil.). There is no Ph.D. as such in Criminology, but rather in Law, Social Science/Psychology, Administration, etc. Senior higher doctorates (M.D./LL.D./D.Sc. (Social Sciences)) are not honorary degrees, but assessments of scholarship.

Criminological Developments (Post-graduate level) in Law Faculties

The following universities have Law Faculties interested in criminal justice and criminology.

- 1) Cambridge — Institute of Criminology
- 2) Edinburgh — School of Criminology and Forensic Studies (Criminology Department associated with the Sociolegal Studies Department)
- 3) Sheffield — Center of Criminology (Criminology and Sociolegal Studies)
- 2) Edinburgh — School of Criminology and Forensic Studies (Criminology Department associated with the Sociolegal Studies Department)
- 5) Oxford — Penal Research Unit, Sociolegal Center
- 6) London — Law, Sociology, Psychiatry. Social Studies (Veele taught a course in Criminology at the post-graduate level). Sociology of deviance and social control taught at both undergraduate and post-graduate levels

Three universities have one-year interdisciplinary courses in the Faculty of Law.

- 1) Cambridge University — One year interdisciplinary course, average 20 students, with 4 or 5 Ph.D.'s in Criminological subjects.
- 2) Sheffield University — one year taught courses (criminology and penology) with 20 students on the average and 5 or 6 Ph.D.'s in criminological subjects.
- 3) Edinburgh University — one year taught courses on sociolegal basis with 10 students on the average; 8-10 Ph.D., M. Phil. or LL.M. in criminal justice and criminological subjects.

Expansion in government support is increasing in relation to two year courses. Personnel for the criminal justice area tend to have a further year of specialized professional training in Police Colleges, Prison Staff Colleges, and Social Service in-service courses for probation and parole personnel.

Perhaps the future will be to develop our criminal justice post-graduate studies on a broader basis which includes consideration of prevention programmes in relation to social justice issues and not just confining such consideration to the criminal justice system.

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*"Crime Problems in Great Britain Today" by N. H. Avison and F. H. McClintock in *Proceedings of VI International Congress on Criminology* (Madrid, 1970, mimeograph).

DOCTORAL-LEVEL EDUCATION IN CRIMINOLOGY: LEUVEN, BELGIUM

by

Lode Van Outrive*

Neither in Leuven nor in Belgium or the Netherlands do we have true doctoral-level teaching or education in criminology. To become a doctor in criminology, formally, you need:

- a degree of "licence in criminology"*** obtained with at least a "distinguished";
- a "promotor" — a professor who accepts the student as his *promovendus* and who agrees with the student's plan of study or research;
- a decision, or "fiat", from the faculty-council, who must accept the promotor and the project. During the next five years no one else is allowed to study the same subject;
- later on, an agreement of the faculty-council to hold a public defense of the doctoral-thesis; the faculty council selects a jury of 3 or 4 lecturers together with the promotor who judge the doctoral-thesis and notify the promotor whether or not the candidate is able to defend his thesis in public;
- a public review with a presentation by the *promovendus*, a debate with the jury, and also a period of time for the public to ask questions.
- the public proclamation that the candidate is awarded his doctorate, if the jury is satisfied with the public defense.

What happens in reality? There is indeed no real education program. The candidate should, of course, study on his own as much as he needs for his doctoral degree. His promotor can advise him but does not always do so. With very few exceptions only university-assistants (professors), researchers, and, most of all, those young people who think they will stay on in a university job, prepare for a doctoral degree. Even many university assistants or researchers, who are not sure that they will be able to stay on at the university, do not finish their doctoral degree. Of course, there are a few exceptions: very motivated people, some high officials. Other students, in general, do not see the utility in having a doctoral degree. They do not need it to get job promotions or to have a higher-level job, etc.

So, the doctoral thesis is primarily a research project, isolated or part of a broader institute-wide research plan. Whether or not it is a part of a broader research plan depends on the research function that the department has developed. Most of the time, however, the *promovendus* will personally pay at least a part of the research expenses. At the same time, of course, some types of research are quite impossible for a doctoral thesis.

In recent years, a teaching assistant may spend at least half of his labor time on his doctoral research. This so-called "own doctoral labor time" is bargained for with the unions. It is considered normal that they complete their doctoral thesis

doing the research for which they are contracted. (It has become a normal situation that a contractual research project should result in a doctoral thesis).

There are two important consequences of this situation:

1. Institute research planning must take into account the individual doctoral research intentions.
2. The teaching assistants in actuality do not devote all their time to education, so that the actual staff supply is less than formally stated. (So a staffing ratio of 1/14 for education does not give a real image of the situation.)

As a result, the guidance of the promotor can be intensive when he is actually present on his university job or when the doctoral research fits into the professor's and/or the department's planning. Otherwise, most of the *promovendi* are left to their own inspiration. The amount of time to finish a doctor's thesis depends on the willingness and effort of the *promovendus* to work hard, to focus his efforts, and to concentrate on his doctoral research. It depends also on his occupation with and devotion to education and his participation in other research programs. Of importance also is the degree of respect of the professor-promotor for the doctoral needs of his pupil.

Usually, a doctoral thesis is finished after 4-6 years. Once the manuscript is finished and approved by the promotor, he identifies himself with the doctoral product and defends his candidate against the other lecturers. There is almost always a "non-official" pre-defense. All of the people involved sit down together and discuss the thesis. Very often this discussion comes a little late because the jury is constituted too late in the process. After that, the *doctorandus* takes account of the remarks (or not), adapts his manuscript, bargains with the lecturers, and so on.

The public session of defense is pure window-dressing, a little exhibitionistic, a theatre-session, a kind of ritual and folkloristic game.

Should we develop doctoral-level educational programs in the sense of having more doctors? In my mind rather not. And here I will speak specifically to the Belgian situation. I should not speak for the Netherlands.

Academically prepared people are an integral part of the university staff, but we need, of course, other types of people in our universities, e.g., practitioners who never had the opportunity to achieve a doctoral degree who would be on short-term contracts. Whatever criteria of selection are used, however, all of the university staff must prove they have the

ability to communicate, both verbally and in writing. Selection must be more realistic and more intensive.

Belgian politicians and public and private management do not appreciate the doctoral degree, nor do they value university graduate degrees (I refer here to the enormous academic unemployment we have at this moment; criminologists, sociologists, psychologists, even pedagogists in all of the branches of the human sciences, are unemployed.) For me, this unemployment is an indicator that there is no interest in nor value of university graduate degrees. We should not, however, beg them to appreciate the doctoral degree.

We should avoid increasing the length of study in criminology. We do not want to add one or two years to the 2 or 4 years we have now. It would be better to concentrate our efforts on the development of recycling sessions open to ex-students and personnel of the criminal justice system or implicated in the system. These persons should have the opportunity in these recycling sessions to meet other scholars, professionals, officials and people other than criminologists, and to have collective open exchange. This is education just as much as standard post-graduate degree programs are.

It is said that to develop doctoral-level education requires a complete professionalization of criminology. Is it really necessary and indicated to continue this professionalization on a doctoral level? In my mind, even at the graduate level, we must from today on be more critical of the development and con-

ception of criminology. It should be a more realistic education rather than pure academic education and professionalization.

This realistic education should mean only that we have specific entrees to the whole problem of our actual and future society. We should not limit our horizon to the criminal justice system. We could enclose ourselves in our jails, in our courts, in our police systems forever. Most of all, we have to cooperate to change these systems.

It means that we must consider all methods and all implications of control in society and consider the dialectic tensions between them and the community or individual organization and development. We should always have in mind the dialectic between the two possibilities — to control (in) the society or to (re)-construct the society.

We must be aware of the history and function of criminology as it evolved to the present and be ready to reconsider the name or the term criminology. Perhaps we can think in terms of a "justice system" rather than a criminal justice system.

We must remain, or become, really interdisciplinary and fight against all piecemeal engineering and artificial splitting up of the human sciences. To my mind, criminology is a good place to develop all kinds of interdisciplinary encounters.

What I have described for graduate education would be even more true for post-graduate initiatives.

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**A student gets a degree of "licence" at about the age of 22 or 23 after 4 years of education or after 2 years if he already has another degree (in law, sociology, psychology, etc.)

DOCTORAL-LEVEL EDUCATION IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE AND CRIMINOLOGY IN THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY

by

Hans J. Kerner*

INTRODUCTION

I probably should begin with stating that there isn't any elaborate doctoral-level educational program in criminal justice and criminology within the University system of Western Germany. During the last few years, however, we have experienced several new developments in post-graduate education which are to be promoted and implemented in the near future. Therefore it might be worthwhile to describe the most relevant topics here.

It is impossible to get a valid impression of what is going on in Germany without at least being informed on some structural issues of the educational and the training areas regarding criminal justice and criminology. Germany should be considered as very much a decentralized state. Within the Federal Republic, such matters as education, law enforcement, police and court personnel recruiting and training, corrections and aftercare belong almost totally to the so-called "Lander", the single States of the Republic. That is to say the Lander have the competence to organize the field, to hire the relevant civil servants or officers a.s.f., to pass organizational and behavioral regulations. But the Lander do not have full competence to pass basic laws. Penal law, criminal procedural law, traffic law, etc., are mostly at the disposition of the Federal Government and Parliament. The same is true for laws pertaining to hiring standards, career lines, and professional prerequisites for civil servants, attorneys, prosecutors, and judges. Police laws, educational laws, health laws (even mental health) could be enacted by the Lander provided there has been some consultation with the federal authorities beforehand. The details are quite complicated. For the purpose of this presentation it might be sufficient to say that our federal authorities have most of the legislative power whereas state authorities have most of the executive power. This division of competences seems to be very helpful in terms of counterbalancing social and political influences and hindering misuse of the State's machinery, but, by the same token, it surely forms a strong inhibitor against the transformation of good new ideas and plans into practical programs. There are always too many agencies and people whose different interests hardly fit into one unique proposition.

Needless to say, within the Lander the different parts of the Criminal Justice field are controlled by different ministries. Although minor problems might be solved quickly one should not think of getting major programs through before mastering a lot of fences and, by doing so, wasting time and energy.

These are, of course, only selected causes for the comparatively slow development of imaginative new

criminal justice programs. Besides, the American way of rather pragmatic planning in order to meet societal demands has not been adopted to a relevant degree by either universities or agencies.

One could conclude therefore: The German system of criminal justice is at most a "non-system" when regarded in terms of interrelated policies of organizations and of the exchange of knowledge and experience between practitioners engaged in the various parts. Consequently, we cannot provide our interested students with integrated criminal justice and criminology education pertaining to all facets of that very complex field of human behavior and formal social control. Since the system exists only in the heads of theoreticians it will take much endeavor to get it working in reality.

TRADITIONAL CRIMINAL JUSTICE EDUCATION

The German situation in general parallels most of the other Western European countries. Upper level criminal justice education is scarcely offered at any university since this matter will normally be considered as a problem of training within the institutions after the students receive their first university degree. However, educational issues in criminal law, procedural law, and regulations of police conduct, as well as in laws pertaining to other kinds of deviant behavior (e.g., prostitution, alcoholism, mental illness) are traditionally taught to law students in a substantive manner since, unlike American law schools, German law facilities aim at producing dogmatically equipped "jurists" rather than practically oriented "lawyers", (i.e., attorney whose primary interest would lie in civil law, business law, etc.). Criminology so far has been a kind of hobby which some professors offer by way of seminars or additional courses. Particularly interested criminal law students might enroll in such courses hoping to introduce some topics during the first examination.

The 4-5 years of university education are followed formerly by 3½ years, now about 2 years, of in-service education, called "Referendariat." Students ("Referendare") have some limited possibility of strengthening criminal justice topics. They could apply for jobs within the police, the prison system, or the juvenile correctional area, but only for a few months. No one would get the permission to specialize from the beginning and to pursue this up to the second state examination since the official and legally sanctioned training/educational philosophy was that of having a "generalist" experienced in various fields of administering the law or, in other words, versatile enough to fulfill various agency defined purposes.

It was (and it is still at some places) during that stage of "Referendariat" that qualified graduate stu-

dents applied for the doctorate. One cannot begin writing the dissertation unless one has terminated the first 4 or 5 years of university education successfully (particular standards are required by dissertation regulations set up by faculty boards and approved by the Ministry of Education).

However, in all but a few cases the whole affair of becoming a doctor could be handled as a question of personal acquaintanceship and agreement between a single professor and a single applicant. They fix the theme, agree upon the work to be done and the quality to be reached, and only in the final stage, after the applicant's delivering his dissertation, do other faculty members become officially involved. The details will, I think, be of no interest to the participants of this conference. In accordance with this rather individualistic approach, the list of dissertations actually delivered reflects a colorful picture of various preferences and idiosyncrasies. Nevertheless, a few universities like Hamburg and Frankfurt introduced near-programs for a couple of years as one applicant after another was sent out to a different agency which must be explored. By this method we received fruitful information about most segments of the German criminal justice "system."

The quality of the average dissertation dealing with criminal justice and criminology issues rose distinctly in the seventies as compared with the sixties. One reason for this might be the decreasing number of applicants aiming at the doctoral degree primarily to strengthen their reputation and promote their careers. But in my opinion one should stress another point: the establishment of clearly defined criminological chairs at the universities which enabled scholars to do (and to demand) research instead of mere armchair paperwork.

Sociology, psychology, social work and pedagogics students neither had the opportunity, nor liked it to a degree worth mentioning, to enter post-graduate educational programs in criminal justice and criminology. Nevertheless since more and more regulations are now allowing those students to choose one of these topics (especially criminology) as an integral part of their diploma-examination, the situation is beginning to change remarkably.

Police personnel education and training occurred up to now totally outside of the universities. No policeman could ever earn an academic degree unless he had performed one kind of traditional higher education before, e.g., in law, sociology or forensic science. Only a few people got a doctoral degree in criminal justice or criminology by re-entering the university and writing a particular dissertation following the standards of the old disciplines. Nevertheless, federal and state governments have improved professionalization during the last few years. The most important event in this regard might be the establishment of the Polizei-Fuehrungsakademie (Police Executive Training Academy near Hilstrup in Westphalia). All police officers aiming at executive positions (be it within a city police department, a state bureau of investigation or our Federal Bureau of Investigation) must pass a rigorous program within this Training Academy lasting up to more than one year and pertaining to various issues like police law, criminalistics and evidence, and also to management, resource allocation, cost-benefit calculations, criminal justice

planning and criminology. Some of the best trainees might enter universities in order to receive additional education on the post-graduate level.

Social workers did not receive any university education up to the sixties. All education was offered by so-called Fachhochschulen (Professional High Schools). Now we do have the discipline of social-pedagogics at the universities. A few of them offer specialized courses in criminal justice, mainly referring to matters of probation, parole, and "Jugendgerichtshilfe" (Juvenile Court Assistance work). There are some post-graduate programs but no systematic educational program on the doctoral level.

Prison authorities were and are separated from the universities. It was very uncommon that any one of the directors, administrators or wardens had, or later earned, a particular academic degree related to criminology. Directors had to be lawyers, and "doctors" had to be physicians or psychiatrists, qualified in terms of the traditional disciplines. The agencies changed slightly their hiring policy since 1970 in that the first full time psychologists and sociologists were admitted for in-service. Most other structures remained unchanged. As opposed to the police, prison practitioners do not even have professional training instead of university education. There are only refresher courses for the lower and the middle ranks of personnel which are said to deal more with how to manage morning sport than with topics in criminal justice and criminology.

By far the worst situation is to be seen in the fields of planning, researching and evaluating criminal justice programs within and outside the agencies. Neither universities nor state authorities devoted much attention to these problems until now. We obviously do need planners, researchers, and evaluators but those few we actually have are often from disciplines which do not provide them on a regular basis with the particular criminological information needed and, on the other hand, those people educated in criminal justice matters normally do not receive courses in planning and evaluation. A few exceptions are breaking the rule: people trained at criminology institutes after earning a law and/or sociology degree who then enter agencies as advisors or as staff members.

NEW DEVELOPMENTS

I'd like to repeat: We do not have yet a separate and elaborate criminal justice and criminology program on the doctoral level in Western Germany. The changes dealt with in the following text will, at least as I can see, gain considerable influence on the authorities in direction of installing such programs. Post-graduate education is still basically a rather "individualistic" operation following the diploma or Staatexamen degree. Nevertheless, promising structural reorganization of the whole field of high level education has been inaugurated.

1. The first stage of development was the introduction of the so-called Wahlfachgruppen (selective or optional intensification programs) into the legal education curricula. Effective since the beginning of the seventies, students are offered some kind of specialization. After completing four semesters of basic legal education they have to decide what optional program of a total of eight they would like to choose.

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There is not always free choice in that some universities cannot afford the whole range of options. However, students might earn credits particularly counted for in the first state examination. Most of the Lander of the Federal Republic agreed to create as "optional program four" one that combines criminology, juvenile penal matters, and corrections with special regard to prison systems. Some of the Lander added forensic psychology and/or forensic psychiatry and/or juvenile welfare regulations. In any case, students are supposed to get some expertise in related criminal justice matters like forensic medicine, probation and parole, law of contraventions, administrative adjudication, etc., until their first examination. The precise determination is dependent upon what the university can provide.

In Trebinger, for instance, the program begins with a course in juvenile penal law and its administration, and a lecture dealing with corrections, sanctioning systems, history, structure and functions of prison. The following semester is devoted to introductory criminology (lecture plus working groups). The following two or three semesters are aimed at deepening theoretical knowledge on the one hand, and getting students familiar with research methodology on the other hand. Practical exercises, visits to institutions, preparing small projects and writing theoretical papers are interchanging components. During the final months the concept of "criminology as an applied science" is stressed to a considerable degree. Students obtain "living cases" stemming from the judiciary and have to work out small but precise criminological opinions.

After being examined, students may enter "near-programs" in criminal justice and criminology offered by a small number of universities. Such near-programs are characterized as temporary attempts in combining the research interests of professors or institutes with dissertational interests of graduate students in order to overcome unsatisfying conditions. Once a broad and complex research program is prepared and pretested it is divided, as far as possible, into sub-sections meaningful enough to guarantee both relevant contributions to the complex theme and qualified dissertations.

Actually we do have programs of this kind with the first students coming out of the new optional intensification education. I'd like to mention some of them only briefly: Police Efficiency; Prison Structure and Subcultural Effects; Prosecutor's Discretion; Criminal Trials and Sentencing Patterns.

2. The second stage of development was the slight or, in one case, complete reorganization of the curricula of some of our social science faculties. The faculty of sociology at Bielefeld (the first and hitherto unique purely sociological faculty we have) divided their education and research schedule into three distinctly separate "focal concerns", one of them being social problems and social work with particular reference to criminal justice and criminology. This division pertains also to doctoral education and, in fact, they have already produced several highly interesting programs (e.g., police practices in getting evidence, institution-client interactions in the field of handling deviance). The Hamburg faculty of social science performed an action research project at a state prison (organizational and functional analysis). Nuernberg is actively involved in a large program funded by the German Research

Foundation and aimed at basic structures of socialization and communication in normal life development as compared to spoiled careers of those labelled sick or deviant. We just received the first dissertations from those dealing with school systems, teacher's actions and preoccupations, and personality-forming of juvenile delinquents ("reaction type", conceptualization of the significant "world" etc.).

3. The third stage of development was reached when our federal and state governments and parliaments met together (if not to say scuffled together) in order to change the so-called Judges Law (Deutsches Richtergesetz) which is the basic regulation for all jurists intending to become either judges or prosecutors, attorneys and higher executives within the public service. They introduced a new section 5A by which the Lander were entitled to develop experimental models of so-called "Einphasige Juristenansbildung" (one-phased legal education). This term means that the traditional approach of breeding all kinds of lawyers by way of generalized education first (university) and evenly generalized training second (practical stages) with two sharply distinct state examinations might be replaced by a unified system. The main tools of that system can be described as (1) combining theory and practice and (2) integrating as far as possible legal education with social science education. The experiment's duration is limited: In 1982 our governments have to decide whether to proceed further in the traditional way or to change the German legal education system as a whole by adopting the regulations set down in the present section 5A.

Seven universities applied for the experiment and succeeded in bargaining with parliaments and state governments regarding curriculum regulations, additional chairs, more clerical people, qualified academic staff and material requirements. (Some other universities applied also but failed in getting their plans approved.)

The universities of Augsburg (Bavaria), Bielefeld (Northrhine-Westphalia), Konstanz (Baden-Wuerttemberg) and Trier (Rhineland-Pfalz) are following the so-called "Southern German Model". That is to say they begin with legal education. Social science education is to be added, rather than integrated, for the slightly advanced students. Full integration and specialization is mainly restricted to the last few semesters preceding the final examination.

The universities of Bremen (State), Hamburg (State) and Hannover (Lower Saxonia) developed the so-called "Northern German Model". This is characterized by beginning with social science education, then turning to sociolegal and dogmatical legal issues, and finishing with specialized courses referring to one field of law and society. One of those fields is called "Deviance and Social Control". It encompasses, as the Hamburg papers (taken as an example) show, all those matters traditionally dealt with under headings like Penal Law, Procedure, Corrections, Criminology, Probation or Sentencing, but now brought into a new order and integrated in a modern frame of sociolegal thinking.

Besides these differences the models share as common features (1) the appointment of social science scholars as full time professors within a law faculty, (2) the continuing interchange of practical

stages near institutions or within agencies — (partly normal jobs which are paid for, partly training courses) — and of university education after intermediate examination regularly from the third year on, (3) a rather strong and professionally oriented specialization during the last two and a half years. Since the second intermediate examination will be counted as equal to the traditional first state examination, students are eligible for doctoral education programs in the course of two and a half years. Those programs are only drafted in a rather rough manner at the moment. None of the universities engaged will reach the critical point before 1978 or 1979.

4. The last stage of development so far is represented by the Gesamthochschule Wuppertal (located, at Bielefeld, in Northrhine-Westphalia). The Wuppertal Model of education and training in criminal justice is very remarkable in that one of the

German Lander for the first time created a whole new faculty with a balanced number of social science and legal scholars which will have to concentrate nearly totally on the field of law and society. The model is called "Delinquenzprophylaxe, Straffaelingenpaedagogik, Rehabilitation" (Delinquency Prevention, Delinquency Pedagogics, Rehabilitation). Although it is still at the initial stages, doctoral-level education is planned. The faculty is further considering, so far as I am informed, establishing a post-graduate program for students coming from other universities after earning a degree in sociology, psychology pedagogics and law, and who are eager to obtain better job preparation. The details are to be found in Professor Haussling's presentation. A somewhat similar Tuebingen Model of doctoral-level education has been planned but could not be realized as yet due to financial reasons.

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DOCTORAL-LEVEL EDUCATION IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE AND CRIMINOLOGY

An Inter-disciplinary Model for Training in Criminal Justice. Guidelines for an "integrated course" in social science, with emphasis on crime prevention (Delinquenzprophylaxe) - delinquency pedagogics (Straffälligenpädagogik) - rehabilitation/social therapy (Rehabilitation/Sozialtherapie). [1]

by

Josef M. Häussling*

1. a) The integrated course in "social sciences" at the University of Wuppertal (Gesamthochschule) represents an interdisciplinary education model in which the following sciences cooperate: law and criminology, social education and criminological education, sociology, sociology of deviant behavior, social psychology and social psychiatry and, as additional courses, any socially relevant science matters taught at the University.
- b) This course of study takes four years, leading to a degree (diploma in social sciences) in one of three special fields, that is, in the area of crime prevention, probation work education, and rehabilitation. These three specializations can be selected only after completion of a basic course of study lasting two years and an intermediate examination. This basic program comprises general social sciences in order to demonstrate the whole range of human behavior and to teach methodological and scientific-theoretical foundations for the scientific direction of the whole course of studies.
- c) Two practical courses are required for the basic course and the main course. The "information practice" provides initial information about a certain area for the treatment of individual or social misbehavior. It is organized in such a way that the student has an opportunity to familiarize him/herself with the institutions, the authorities, range of education, etc. of the "case", according to their structure and function, and his report, which he has to present after this "information practice" is then prepared. During the main course the student has to complete his "research practice". This teaches him to apply scientific pedagogic and therapeutic knowledge to his "cases" and is concluded with a comprehensive "experience report". Furthermore, this "research practice" helps to analyze his future field of activity, thus keeping the practice-related, scientifically oriented main course in touch with his chosen profession.

The report from his "research practice" may also serve as the foundation for his thesis: this is a first experience of research on one of the behavioral problems and part of his degree examination. He is allowed to enter upon this kind of research leading to

a doctorate only after successfully passing the "diploma" (degree examination).

- d) The legal structure of the Federal Republic is decisive for the arrangement of this "integrated course in social sciences" insofar as:
 - (1) criminality is related to the laws governing evidence and penal law and that penal and criminological treatment must keep this interaction in mind.
 - (2) juvenile delinquency is treated under another law — the Juvenile Delinquency Penal Code (JGG) — and regarded as deviant behavior of juveniles. There is also the Juvenile Welfare Law (JWG), a uniform law governing the whole range of behavior of juveniles — normal as well as abnormal — being discussed, and the Juvenile Aid Law, which as a uniform Juvenile Law would open up new and decisive possibilities for the interdisciplinary training model in the course.

The present legal position sets limits for the treatment of abnormal behavior from a social-scientific, criminological point of view, i.e., the behavioral patterns drawn up by the law do not conform to the socio-scientific concerns on the whole discussion on behavior. On the other hand, it prescribes the professional activities of the graduate trained in this course, so that they can only work in certain institutions; thus, their future activities, tied to certain authorities and institutions, are a firm component of the "integrated course in social sciences". Naturally, the question of "social control" touches on this professional aspect.

- e) The aspects mentioned, therefore, determine the following "objective of study" for the students trained in the "integrated course in social sciences":

The aim of this course is the training of social scientists for practical work in society. The qualifications they obtain during their course should enable them to constantly test and improve scientific theories, bearing in mind their practical relevance and the possibility of developing their work with their clientele as well as keeping up with the necessary research. This applies particularly to research-orientated, but practical ability in

the fields of crime prevention, delinquency pedagogics, social therapy, rehabilitation and resocialization. The various disciplines contributing to their training — law, social psychology including social psychiatry, social pedagogics, delinquency pedagogics, sociology, the sociology of abnormal behavior — to provide the basic facts of crime research as an integrated part of the relevant science which are necessary basics for the whole range of delinquency.

The practical training of the students in this course should enable them:

- to play an effective part in planning and organizing social institutions and projects for the treatment of delinquents and all behavioral disturbances,
 - to advise social institutions with regard to possibilities of improvement and to initiate and carry out such improvements,
 - to cooperate in further education for social workers,
 - to advise educators and therapy workers in social institution projects and ambulant institutions and to help them in practice,
 - to give practical help and support to clients of social institutions, to promote their personal, social and professional development,
 - and finally, to help in developing and executing research projects.
- f) The structure of the course — basic and main studies — is designed to achieve this objective. Above all, basic knowledge of statistics, "science theory" and "theory of social sciences" in the basic course is required. In the main course there are three alternative choices:
 - (1) delinquency prevention, delinquency pedagogics, rehabilitation/social therapy,
 - (2) the legal element, state measures in disturbed social behavior, the element of "professional analysis", and
 - (3) an additional required subject which enriches the study of social sciences with relevant scientific aspects.

For detailed description of the program see Appendix III (reproduced in German)

The description of the curriculum presents detailed contents and function, so that the student gains a factual insight into the composition of the course.

2. a) Any inter-disciplinary training model for all professions within the field of criminal justice must be oriented according to three criteria:
 - (1) Behavior structure and criminality in society as a whole.
The model aims to provide this knowledge.
 - (2) Function of graduates in studying, controlling, and treating criminality.
i.e., research into future range of professional activities as part of the "model".
 - (3) Integration of the sciences supporting the training model into a relevant context of knowledge and action.

i.e., image of the unity of these interdisciplinary components.

The recognition of these three criteria and their realization in the "training model" is essential to prevent a mere collection of the individual sciences and a hit-and-miss summarization on the part of the student. It is absolutely essential for him to realize that scientifically based perceptions of abnormal behavior in the form of criminality and delinquency is the means to an end, i.e., to gain valuable facts for practical treatment of criminals and delinquents as well as for further scientific research.

- b) The above-mentioned social sciences, either individually or closely interrelated, must be used for the scientific and comprehensive preparation of the model in order to:
 - (1) gain comprehensive knowledge of criminality; i.e., a scientifically oriented society must be aware of this factor in a scientific manner in order to gain insight into the causes for and the consequences of criminality.
 - (2) to carry out treatment of offenders from a scientifically responsible basis of information.
i.e., Social sciences give the specific basis for humane treatment in this area.
 - (3) to make control of criminality and delinquency effective; i.e., to create a protective function for society based on scientific knowledge.

All positions covered by (1), (2), and (3) must be developed within the legal guarantees since only they can maintain socially relevant freedom of the individual and society as a whole; only then will it be possible for social sciences probing into human behavior to be a genuine aid to mankind.

- c) The decisive question is: where do the social sciences find their integration, where do they find their unity of action in the training model? The outlined syllabus has given emphasis to the following sciences:

for prevention—the sociology of abnormal behavior

for delinquency pedagogics—social pedagogics

for rehabilitation / social therapy—social psychology/social psychiatry.

However, the leading function of the above named social sciences will be integrated with other social sciences playing a part, so that in the interaction of analytical sciences and behavioral sciences every item of knowledge will serve as basis for decision making. It means that the knowledge of facts in the field of behavioral disturbance does not have any purpose in itself; it must serve as the basis for action.

The interaction of such behavioral sciences as social psychology and social therapy and such social sciences as sociology can lead to fruitful cooperation in crime research and practice.

[1] The Syllabus of the University of Wuppertal, the Federal Republic of Germany, approved for the Winter Semester 1973 by the Ministry for Science and Research.

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However, we must realize that even a social science cannot effectuate the uniformity, which is the nature of man, no matter how disturbed it shows itself in behavioral conflicts. This uniformity (homogeneity) is the actual integrating cement for the social sciences and is present in the individual concerned, and his social environment. This "course model" aims at discovering this

homogeneity by using the interaction between the various disciplines involved; it does not want to create it by artificial means. The graduate from this interdisciplinary "course in social sciences" is intended to see himself as such a discoverer of disturbed man in our society, no matter whether he works in research or in the practical field.

DOCTORAL-LEVEL EDUCATION IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE AND CRIMINOLOGY IN FRANCE

by

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1. The first dominant trait of the French Doctoral-Level Education system in Criminal Justice and Criminology is its **recent change**. The whole of the doctoral-level system has been changed during the last year throughout all of the State Universities of France.[1] A new structure has been established by the Ministry of Education, compulsory for all sorts of Doctoral-Level Studies, whatever the field may be: science, literature, law, etc. . . . (Arrêté ministériel du 16 Avril 1974: J.O. du 4 mars 1976, relatif au Doctorat d'Etat). The candidates to the Doctorat d'Etat must present to a jury either a dissertation or a set of works and researches. They cannot be allowed to apply for such a presentation without having degrees of the doctoral-level. The article of the arrêté ministériel specifies ". . . in the fields of law, political science, economics, and business studies . . ." candidates have to justify that they have a **diploma of higher studies** (diplôme d'études approfondies, D.E.A.) or a professional degree called a **diploma of highly specialized studies** (diplôme d'études supérieures spécialisées, D.E.S.S.) or degrees or titles acknowledged as equivalent under certain conditions specified in the above mentioned article. (See section 4 of the same article.)

It is through a **diploma of higher studies (D.E.A.) in Criminal Law and/or Criminology** that Doctoral-Level Education in Criminal Justice and Criminology is given by the French State Universities. Many students limit their curriculum to the D.E.A. They do not write a dissertation afterwards and they do not apply for a Ph.D. in Law (Criminal Law and Criminology).

2. The second trait of the French system is the **autonomy of the State Universities** in the planning of their D.E.A. According to the University Act of 1968 (loi n° 68-978 du 12 novembre 1968, d'orientation de l'enseignement supérieur) passed after the May and June 1968 crisis, universities have a right to establish, at their discretion, the programs of their course, under certain general conditions established by the Ministry of Education. This has led to a variety of D.E.A.'s in our fields. Here are some examples of D.E.A.'s:

- D.E.A. de Droit pénale et Science Criminelles (Lyon)
- D.E.A. de Sciences Criminelles et Criminologique (Grenoble)
- D.E.A. de Sciences Criminelles (Lille)
- D.E.A. de Science Pénale et Criminologique (Aix-en-Provence)

- D.E.A. de Criminologie et Pénologie (Bordeaux et Pau)
- D.E.A. de Science Criminelle (Montpellier)
- Two D.E.A. at the University of Paris [2]
 - *D.E.A. de Criminologie, Pénologie et Réadaptation sociale
 - *D.E.A. de théorie et pratique de droit pénal et de politique criminelle

Not all of the French State Universities deliver such D.E.A.'s. On the contrary, this happens only in the main universities with an important Law Department (those mentioned above, plus Toulouse, Nancy-Strasbourg, Rennes). In other universities, Criminal Law and/or Criminology may be part of another D.E.A., such as Civil Law in Law Departments, or Psychology or Sociology Science Departments.

3. Despite this diversity, some common trends can be observed.

The structure of the D.E.A. has always been divided into two parts according to state regulation. There must be, on the one hand, a group of theoretical courses (cours théoriques) and seminars which are required for all students of the same D.E.A., and on the other hand there must be optional seminars. Every student has to take two "cours théoriques" and required seminars and must choose three of the optional seminars.

A second similarity is to be found in the systems of examinations, the same (with some slight differences in proportion) combination of year long seminar control (contrôle continu) and final exams (examens de fin d'année).

The most important similarity lies in the programs of courses and seminars. With the exception of Paris, there is a combination of Criminal Law and Criminology in the programs, as can be seen in the Appendix to the present report (Appendix IV, in French). This combination is not the application of the concept of a criminal justice system encompassing the police, prosecution, courts, and punitive and correction measures as a whole. It is lacking in synthesis, called "Politique Criminelle" in France. It is more a juxtaposition of topics, which is deemed necessary to be studied by both theoreticians and practitioners. But, in this juxtaposition of topics, the universities consider that a certain combination of Criminal Law and Criminology has to be made.

Paris is different. The larger development of these two fields (Criminal Law, Criminology) has led to a specialization of the two D.E.A.'s. In this specializa-

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[1] State Universities are the only ones allowed to give Ph.D. diplomas. There are very few private universities. The Paris Universities (formerly Sorbonne) are State Universities.

[2] Université de Droit, d'Economie et de Science Sociales de Paris, formerly Faculté de Droit de Paris. The Institute of Criminology of Paris is part of this University.

tion, the synthetical concept has prevailed, and each D.E.A. includes an overall study of comparative criminal policy (Politique Criminelle Comparée) as can be seen in the Appendix to the present report. One of the D.E.A.'s is proposed for the more legally

oriented students, the other for the more sociologically oriented ones. A selection of candidates takes place. No more than 50 students can be accepted in each of the D.E.A.'s.

DOCTORAL LEVEL EDUCATION IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE ADMINISTRATION IN LEBANON

by

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Higher education in Criminal Justice administration is closely connected to the judicial system and the basic legal education in any given country. Hence a brief review of both systems will help locate it within the system by featuring its peculiarities.

THE JUDICIAL SYSTEM

In Lebanon, there are three levels of jurisdictions: the first instance court corresponding to the District Court system in the USA, the Appellate court and the Supreme Court. Criminal cases are prosecuted by a public prosecutor and investigated by an investigating judge.

Judges are appointed by the Government on the advice of the Supreme Council of the Magistracy, a body of high ranking judges whose attributions are the internal administration and supervision of the Judiciary. Generally the newly appointed judges take office as district judges, as assistants to the public prosecutor or as investigating judges.

Eligibility is subordinated to graduation in Law, a university degree known as "License in Law" which is roughly equivalent to an M.A. in Law. This degree is obtained after the completion of four years in Law at the University. Admission to the University requires a successful termination of the secondary studies by obtaining a college degree, namely the Baccalaureate.

To qualify for judgeship the candidate must take a pre-selection test, both in academic knowledge and personal merits. Once admitted he must follow a three-year training term, after which he becomes entitled to hold an office. Details are to come later in this paper.

THE LEGAL EDUCATION SYSTEM

Legal studies, as it has been said earlier, require a college degree, the Baccalaureate. Graduation goes over four stages, each one comprising a series of subject-matters to be dealt with during an academic year. Among others are criminal law, criminal procedure and criminology which are taught in the third and fourth year respectively.

After graduation, the student could choose his way in professional life either by joining the Bar Association, by applying for Counselship in private enterprise or by devoting himself to the magistracy.

Students who are willing to deepen their legal knowledge, who look for an academic career as law professors, should follow doctorate-level studies extending over a three-year period. They should choose two out of three curricula providing studies in private law, public law and economics. Generally private and public law are the jurist's best choice while economics and public law are of the economists' and diplomats' realm.

Private law includes the study of a variety of legal subjects like civil law (contracts), criminal law and procedure, commercial law, real estate law, etc. Public law is concerned with Government, International law, Political systems, Treaties. Economics encompasses the whole field of theory and practice in national and international economy, the monetary system, budgets, corporations.

The successful completion of two out of the three above mentioned branches entitle the student to apply for the preparation of a thesis whose successful presentation and discussion confers on him the Ph.D. degree, a key diploma for academic careers.

Actually, the French University in Beirut is contemplating the reformation of the doctoral studies sponsored by its Faculty of Law following the track of the French Universities. It contemplates three different orientations in the doctoral studies leading to: a specialized doctorate for professionals in the field of their activity, a doctorate of research and, a third one, the longest to be covered, for academic careers.

It does not belong to us, in this paper, to evaluate those trends and options which seem to be critical in some of their content. However, we could make specific observations if the seminar's proceedings permit an evaluative approach of the legal education at the Doctoral level.

DOCTORATE AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE

Criminal justice is considered here in its two main components: The Judge and the Lawyer. Unfortunately, the Doctorate diploma gives no special advantage to either. Both should avail themselves as polyvalent if they want to overcome the intricacies of their career. As a matter of fact, some specialize in given field whether by selecting their cases, if they are lawyers, or by showing reluctance to sit on other courts, if they are judges. However, this is not a general rule. Both lawyers and judges sometimes comply with requirements they cannot waive.

To qualify for judgeship, a candidate holding a Ph.D. in Law is exempted from the compulsory selective test that other applicants have to take. It results that, while Ph.D. holders benefit from an evident advantage in applying to the judicial career, the real impact of higher education on criminal justice administration would be rather dependent on the efficiency and interest brought by the judge to his office. Correlatively a judge, with a Ph.D. degree in Criminal Law, would have priority in choosing or holding an office related to his field of interest. However, this priority is sometime neglected when important causes dictate changes in attributions.

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CRIMINOLOGY AND BEHAVIORAL SCIENCES — AN AUXILIARY TO LEGAL EDUCATION

Legal studies are not sufficient by themselves to provide an adequate academic formation in the field of Criminal Justice administration. They should be supported and even penetrated by criminology and behavioral sciences. A realistic approach to the criminal problem could not be made only from the legal point of view since prevention and treatment are the main goals of criminal justice. One must know more about criminal behavior and the implications of the social, economic and cultural factors on the criminal's personality.

Special attention has been paid since 1958 to Criminology as a matter of teaching within the legal studies. However since no majoring is provided in Criminal Law and Criminology, interest in those two topics, which are compulsory for the student, remains subject to his own discretion. He may approach them with enthusiasm or with indifference, all depending on his own orientation.

The situation is quite different at the Faculty of Social Sciences. There, studies leading to an M.A. in Social Science make as a prerequisite the selection of topics in which the student is required to major. Among the great diversity of majors, Applied Criminology and Criminal Psycho-Sociology are important ones. According to our own estimate based on our teaching of those two topics at the said Faculty, 20% of the M.A. students choose Criminology or Criminal Psycho-Sociology as majors. It is to be remembered that Criminology is taught as a compulsory topic during the third year of graduation in Social Sciences.

A high diploma in Criminology, as a preparatory stage to Ph.D. in Social Science, was to be implemented this year at the Faculty. It was delayed because of the current state of war in Lebanon.

Students who attend the Social Science courses come from different disciplines. They major in psychology, sociology, pedagogy, law, etc. Their aim is either to specialize in one of those fields, or to add social science knowledge to their basic professional education, as a means for advancement in their career. Among them, some would seek social work assignments, social planning, auxiliaries to the juvenile courts. However such professional training is sponsored by professional schools, known as Social Work Schools or Institutes.

The number of students belonging to the legal career and attending the Social Science Faculty is hard to estimate. At the undergraduate stage, few have already made a final career choice. On the contrary, at the postgraduate level, most of the students are already engaged in one or another profession. Police officers, generally high ranking ones, are a good score in the enrollment. This means that their studies would have a direct impact on the profession though such studies are on a mere voluntary basis.

Criminology courses at the Faculty of Social Sciences include two major parts: the first is concerned with the theoretical approach, the second with the practical one, e.g., with social reactions as institutionalized in society.

The theoretical approach, sponsored during the last year of graduation, is concerned with the study of the historical development of criminology, re-

search and theory, the study of the bio-psychosociological factors of criminal behavior, etc.

At the M.A. level the courses focus on the social reaction against the criminal — past and present — the role of the police, the courts, the penal institutions and correctional practices, in a word, the whole criminal justice administration. The teaching stresses the public's responsibility in prevention and rehabilitation, the role of the private organizations and welfare institutions and the role of the University in expanding knowledge and professional training for coping with the crime problem — no less attention is paid to the role of the international organizations in promoting action for the prevention and the treatment of offenders.

The courses at the doctoral-level, which were to be implemented this academic year, but have been delayed because of the current events, will sponsor courses, seminars and research projects on the current issues in criminal behavior in connection with criminal justice administration. Personal analysis and research differentiate this teaching from the lower level.

DOCTORAL-LEVEL EDUCATION AND THE JUDICIAL CAREER

Bearing in mind the former features of the different levels of education in the field of Legal Studies and Social Science, we can more easily locate legal education leading to the administration of criminal justice.

As we have noticed earlier in this paper, neither graduation nor a Ph.D. in Law could lead directly to the fulfillment of a judicial office. A three-year studies and formative stage are to be completed after due selection of the candidates.

Therefore, and before going into a more detailed approach of the system, one should notice that this formative stage is matching the doctoral level since it requires a similar amount of time and substantive teaching, which is not less important.

THE INSTITUTE OF JUDICIAL STUDIES

The formative stage of the judicial career is sponsored by the Institute of Judicial Studies, a specialized institution created in 1963 and connected to the Ministry of Justice. The Institute is administered by a board made up of the teaching body who assist the President in carrying out his mandate. An Administrator cares for the organization of the study, the financial and the administrative management. The fulfillment of the curricula by the trainees leads to their appointment as judges. The Institute does not award an academic title or diploma unless the trainee is a foreigner. In this case, a full report is sent to his Government stating his performances and certifying that he successfully ended his studies and training in the Institute.

Selection of the Candidates

Judgeship being not only knowledge and wit but primarily integrity and personality, a pre-selection on the grounds of those qualities is made through an interview between the candidate and the members of the Supreme Council of the Magistracy. A hearing is held on many personal counts and it is the case in the United States when approval is

sought for the President's appointee in the Judiciary (Supreme Court) before a Senate Commission. If the candidate is cleared he has to take a selective examination on general culture, civil and criminal law, foreign languages (English or French). An oral presentation or discussion of a legal theme helps assess his knowledge and self-confidence.

Status of the Recruits

Once recruited, the candidate becomes a trainee judge. He participates in the court hearings, deliberations and sentencing. Research on specific legal issues are assigned to him by the sitting judge who uses them in the motivation of his sentences. After an initial period, the length of which depends on his response and adaptation, the trainee will be in charge of elaborating by himself some legal issues. He disposes of cases as if he was himself responsible.

On the personal ground the trainee is paid an allowance covering his expenses and usual spendings. He enjoys the same status of senior judges. This confers on him independence and immunity.

Curricula

The Institute's curricula covers three years of studies. The first year is scheduled to sponsor various studies, especially sentencing, interpreting law, jurisprudence, sociology of law, impact of law on the citizen's social, economic and moral life, statistics, expertise, accountancy.

The second year is concerned with more specific topics: some issues on civil and commercial law, practical issues on criminal law and criminology. In fact criminal law and criminology are taught in narrow connection with penal justice administration. While some theoretical approach to the basic theory of incrimination and sentencing is sought, emphasis is put on how the judge has to deal with the criminal law issues in connection with the offender's personal situation and needs for treatment and rehabilitation. Therefore penology and corrections are integrated into the teaching. Forensics are also taught in theory and practice.

The third year is concerned with some issues in real estate law, private international law, administrative law, current problems in justice administration, judicial psychology.

Field Work

Besides the trainee's attendance at the court hearings he has to fulfill field work requirements in several areas such as industrial and commercial management, banking, prison administration, institutional treatment for young offenders, social assistance, police work on detection and prevention.

The aim of this field work is to put the trainee face to face with the citizen's life and current problems. It is thought that no one could accurately handle a case if he does not acquaint himself with the peculiarities of the subject matter thereof.

Research Work

Moreover, the trainee has to complete a research project during each semester. Generally the subject is chosen within the framework of the field work. However research in legal literature is not

excluded as it serves as a theoretical background. It includes documentation, analysis of previous writings, commenting on issues and legal opinions.

The resulting paper is orally presented before a jury composed of the professor who supervised the research, the President of the Institute, and the judge to whom the trainee is attached.

Examinations

Written examinations will sanction the trainee's study and qualify him for appointment either as assistant to the public prosecutor, as investigating judge or as a judge sitting in the district court or presiding over the county court.

ASSESSMENT AND COMMENTARY

According to the results of its performance since 1963 this system is deemed as fully satisfactory for the following reasons:

1. It has ensured a selective choice of judges on the grounds of their personality and knowledge — two basic and fundamental conditions for the fulfillment of such a delicate and important office. It should be said that between 50 and 60% of the actual judiciary is made up of judges who have been appointed after the completion of their studies and training at the Institute. It is also known in the whole mideastern region that the quality and accuracy of the legal issues as stated by the Lebanese Courts are outstanding.

2. It has developed a sensible identification of the judge with his profession in the sense that he lives his profession rather than merely fulfilling it. He feels that his office has not only a legal function but, as a social institution, it has to play a positive and guiding role in the community.

3. Criminal justice administration, while handicapped by the less evolved institutions and agencies connected to it, like the police, the prisons, takes a new turn by being less impersonal, less routine, more individualized. Being permeable to the changes in conceptions and practices, criminal judges bring their contribution to the reformation of the penal system. Their contribution is effective rather than obstructive, contrary to what usually is the case in some systems where the judiciary is still made up of appointees stemming from the old governmental infrastructure.

4. Three Arab States have benefited from the Institute's performance, namely Tunisia, Libya and Jordan. More than twenty judges who followed the three-year training program actually fulfill key offices in their countries.

5. Research studies performed at the Institute have enriched the Institute's legal library and served as an incentive, a stimulus for further research. Research is no longer feared as inaccessible due to a lack of technicians.

Therefore it is hoped that the Institute will play a greater role in the future. Even a wider regional vocation is contemplated.

It is significant to note that thirty-two new appointees have been qualified to take office by October 1975 while twenty-nine were to complete this July 1976 their second year's examinations and thirty to be selected for the coming session.

Among the former figures, five judges from Jordan have already taken office in their country, four are in the second year and an unknown number are to join the coming session; no less than six it is believed.

ASSESSMENT FROM THE ACADEMIC POINT OF VIEW

From the academic point of view, we could put the academic teaching at the Institute on the level of the Doctorate for the following reasons:

1. Qualifying for admission to the Institute requires the same academic degree as to the Doctorate studies. Moreover a pre-selection on the ground of personal merits added to a selection on the ground of legal knowledge is to precede the admission. While it is sufficient for the Doctoral studies to take a registration on the ground of the diploma held.
2. Studying at the Institute requires a continuous attendance to the courses, field work and court training while the Doctorate studies do not so require.
3. At each semester the student has to submit a research paper which is not the case for the Doctorate.
4. A three-year term is required for both studies.

However: the studies at the Institute differ from the Doctorate's in the following ways:

1. The Institute does not confer any title at the completion of the studies. This is a gap to be, in our opinion, adequately filled by the creation of a diploma equivalent to the Doctorate. It could be a Doctorate in Justice Administration since it is the sanction of a long period of studies in the field. The French reform of the doctoral studies is oriented toward such a Doctorate only after one year of research and studies in the professional field. That is the DESS (Diplome d'Etudes Supérieures Spéciales).

The main objection which has been made against the Institute's proposed diploma is that the Institute is a professional and not an academic institution. Therefore it is not a complement to the University. Moreover, admission is restricted to a category of graduates, while the University is open to all candidates. While this objection stands on the theoretical and logical ground, practically it deprives the student from a title he could rely upon once he leaves the magistracy, for a teaching career for instance.

2. The restriction of the Institute to judgeship candidates excludes the other legal officers, namely the lawyers, the police officers and the correctional personnel from studying criminal justice administration.

However, this exclusion should not prevent diversifying the studies as to serve the former persons who are involved in criminal justice administration. Criminal justice is indeed an integrated system whose elements should acquire a homogeneous training. The question remains plain as to what institution should qualify for sponsoring such training and studies — the University or the professional Institutes?

3. Is the creation at the University of an academic discipline on a Doctoral-level in Justice Administration to fill the gap? Is such a diploma viable?

To answer this question one should take into consideration the national academic and professional structure in the field of Justice Administration. Add to that a not less important consideration, that the student's motivation of following such a discipline is a decisive element. It is well known that the student who qualifies for such advanced studies seeks high-level employment as judge, lawyer, counselor or professor. Therefore, in a country where restrictions and selection do exist in admissions to judgeship, where the Doctorate does not confer any privilege other than to be dispensed of taking an admission examination at the Institute of Judicial Studies, one could feel the low level of interest in such a Doctoral-level discipline.

However, such a depressing situation should not prevent us from imagining new formulas to give criminal justice administration the incentive it needs and deserves. It seems to us that, as a beginning, criminal justice administration should be integrated as an autonomous matter into the normal curricula of graduation at the Faculty of Law, with the expectation of giving it full development once the Doctorate in legal education is restructured.

Also integrating criminal justice administration into the Faculty of Social Sciences curricula is not to be overlooked. We are already strengthening this discipline at the M.A. level as it was formerly said, and it is going to be a major topic at the Doctoral level. However, in the social sciences' field such integration will be of a limited value for justice practitioners, since it is sponsored for social science graduates and post-graduates. This integration could have a high profile if the law graduates were allowed to major in this field for qualifying for a doctoral diploma. It is not yet the case.

DOCTORAL-LEVEL EDUCATION IN THE IVORY COAST

by

Marcel Ette Bogui*

A. FOREWORD

My first words, as you may well imagine, are to express my deep appreciation for the opportunity given me to find myself here in your beautiful establishment. I wish to thank Professor Lejins for his kind invitation as well as the administrative staff of the Institute of Criminal Justice and Criminology.

My second words are to ask your forgiveness for my English since it is the first time that I try to give a talk in this language. This is quite a handicap topped by the fact that this is my first visit to the United States.

In order to understand where the teaching of criminology stands, it is necessary to recall — even briefly — the process of teaching law since it is tied to the criminological training of magistrates.

Law is taught in law schools where one may choose between several options: judicial, commercial, administrative law, etc. . . . To enter law school, one must be a high school graduate. After four years of studies, law students who have successfully passed the final examinations are granted the title of Bachelors of Law. The Bachelor Degree in law is adequate to enter directly in most governmental or civilian agencies.

Exhaustive law studies lead to a Master Degree in law or to a Ph.D. in law. The Master Degree in law requires from one to two years of studies after the Bachelor Degree in law, and the Ph.D. in law requires at least three years of studies after the Master Degree in law.

The recruitment of magistrates is made directly from the Bachelor's in Law provided they agree to a training period of one or two years. The Master's Degree in Law and the Ph.D. degree in Law are beneficial but not necessary for accessing to the functions of magistrates.

Criminology is an independent academic field, the purpose of which is to expand the professional knowledge of magistrates and other personnel involved in the process of penal justice, as well as to familiarize them with problems of criminal nature.

Although criminological knowledge is not presently beneficial, the teaching of criminology that we offer plays a more and more important part in promoting and improving the efficiency of the judicial system when faced with delinquency.

After these preliminary comments, I would like to tell you how the teaching of criminology is done in the Ivory Coast and to point out some of its problems.

B. THE INSTITUTE OF ABIDJAN

1. Introduction

The Institute of Criminology of Abidjan in the Ivory Coast is the only school of its kind in all

French speaking West African countries which count about 30 million inhabitants. Since English speaking West African countries do not have such Institutes, the Institute of Criminology of Abidjan is the only school for this large section of Africa which counts over 120 million inhabitants.

This is why the creation of similar schools is more urgent than ever. We insistingly request the creation of such schools from the United Nations.

2. History of the creation

In 1966, an international course on criminology was offered in Abidjan. This was the first such course held in Black Africa under the sponsorship of several international organizations and the Ivorian Government out of fifteen others. The participants in this course — of which many were governmental delegates — expressed, in a resolution that ended the session, the wish to see the emergence of an Institute of Criminology for research and teaching on a regional basis.

They simultaneously requested that Mr. Boni, President of the Supreme Court of Ivory Coast and Ivorian organizer of the course, take the necessary steps for the creation of an Institute of Criminology. In 1970, a presidential decree announced the birth of the Institute of Criminology of Abidjan. As you see, it is a very young institute.

3. The problems

Soon, the Institute was confronted with many problems coming from three main sources:

a) Material difficulties — the lack of premises for reception rooms, schoolrooms and offices was dealt with without much ado.

b) When the Institute emerged, no qualified teachers were available. We had to call on the Services of Canadian professors and professional magistrates to teach some courses.

c) Simultaneously, Ivorian students working on their Master's Degrees in different subjects were sent to the Center of Comparative Criminology of Montreal to be initiated to criminological research and teaching. These measures were not completely successful in training an efficient teaching body. Indeed, Canadian professors changed teaching positions too often; however, their services were invaluable. On the other hand, the instructional training for Ivorian students was too short to expect any spectacular results.

From these experiences, I conclude that the creation of an Institute of Criminology of good standing must be preceded by the setting up of physical structures and by the hiring of qualified teachers.

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4. Governmental and Administrative Difficulties

The decree stating the creation of the Institute only stipulates that it must:

- a) provide additional training to some categories of governmental and civilian employees involved in the prevention of crime and the treatment of delinquents;
- b) engage in research;
- c) bring out publications in the concerned fields.

The wording of this decree excludes the training of an independent body of specialists in criminology. The governmental authorities feared that a new body of governmental employees might not find work. They simply did not realize what services such specialists could render.

Also, our two year study program towards an officially recognized diploma does not provide for higher pay. Our Administration considers this diploma as equivalent to an instructional training program which does not provide for higher pay.

These facts resulted in a reduction in enrollment. This unfair situation — which we are trying to correct — may be very hard on the future of the Institute.

5. Academic difficulties

They are as serious as the preceding ones. To understand our educational system, it is necessary to recall that — even after the country gained its independence — this system is mainly a replica of the French system which is still seen as a model. However, criminology in the French system is not taught as an independent subject but is an appendix of law. This explains why some academic authorities who are still riveted to traditional teaching methods are not ready to accept such an independent course of study.

The main opposition comes from Law Schools which assess that the teaching of criminology, as an entity course, is inopportune.

In order to conquer the apprehensions and reticence of these traditionalistic academic authorities headed by the Dean of the Law School, we submitted to the last board meeting of the University a series of proposals about the restructuring of the Institute.

(First proposal) — We went so far as to propose the dissolution of the Institute body providing that the diverse courses we taught be completely integrated in the teaching of law, either at the Bachelor level or at the Law level — all this to prove that we care more for the teaching of criminology than for our positions amidst the Institute.

(Second proposal) — Its purpose is to make the study of criminology compulsory at the Master Degree level (i.e., after the Bachelor Degree) for all students working towards a judicial career. This course would replace the professional training program of the future magistrates.

(Third proposal) — Students holding a Bachelor Degree or a Master Degree in sociology, psychology or social sciences, who would choose to become

specialists in criminology subordinated to the administration of justice or the prevention of crimes and treatments of delinquents, would be waived (partially or totally) of the main subjects of their curriculum.

(Fourth proposal) — The teaching of criminology would be completely independent and would include several levels: Bachelor Degree, Master Degree and Ph.D. This proposal implies that the functions of a specialist in criminology be defined.

6. Present Educational Organization

Students are recruited from high school graduates and from some categories of governmental and civilian employees belonging to justice, gendarme and police departments and the social services. Those who do not belong to these categories and are not high school graduates can only be admitted after successfully passing a competitive examination.

The period of study is two years. Courses are given in the afternoon after 5:30 p.m. The various courses cover the principal aspects of criminology general and clinical criminology, general penal law, psychology, sociology, etc.

7. Our Position regarding the Ph.D. in Criminology

This degree is not requested from future law practitioners; therefore, their curricula would not include it. It would only be requested to apply for a teaching or research position.

More important is the necessity to make the study of criminology compulsory by integrating it to the study of law since the law diplomas are the only ones required for the recruitment of supervisors (high and middle levels) subordinated to the administration of justice, prevention of crimes and treatment of delinquents.

I even wonder if it would not be wise to accept — and to accelerate — this evolution, even if it means the disappearance of our independent entities of research and education.

In this context, the Institutes would become training centers for researchers and professors who could fill different teaching positions in the schools of law which would then be called School of Law and Criminology. The Ph.D. would therefore have all its meaning.

8. Paradoxal Situation of Criminology

Criminology is required to produce results other sciences are not requested to do. It is required to give evidence on its usefulness, on its stand as an autonomous science. This means that its efficiency is doubted.

This challenge has to be faced. How? As a first stage, seminars have been organized with the contribution of the Canadian teachers of the International Center of Comparative Criminology — Montreal — directed by Professor Szabo. These seminars were concerned with items like: Development and Criminality, Modern and Tribal Penal Justice, Apparent and Hidden Criminality. The public opinion has been sensitized to the criminal problem.

Actually researches and surveys are conducted toward obtaining concrete and useful results.

That is our strategy for giving criminology its chances to stand as a science.

9. Plea for Institutes of Criminology

Is the teaching of criminology inopportune in our countries? It was said, "yes".

The socio-economic changes that affect our countries bring mainly a disorganization of community structures: clan, tribe, ethnic groups which represent the control gear of social behavior. These changes bring with them a reevaluation of essential traditions. Rural exodus — of which we often speak — reveals that some of its consequences are changing. In traditional societies, offense or crime was considered as a break in the regulation involving behavior of individuals between each other, or between themselves and invisible forces, according to African cosmogony. Therefore, the old criminal behavior deriving from customs is now accompanied by a new criminal behavior belonging to modern penal law — this law being the only one officially recognized. In fact, individuals are still submitted to these two forms of penal justice. Confusion appears, for example, when one realizes that what was considered a criminal act, according to the traditional penal system, is not considered as such,

according to the modern penal system — and vice-versa.

Also, conflict exists in these two systems. The former tends to reparation, the latter to treatment. The reason for the former still resides deeply in magico-religious beliefs which provide a dissuasive power extremely effective against pain. It is worthy to note that the prison which was an institution in the traditional judicial system has become the sole possible alternative to protect society against criminals.

Other reasons that we cannot discuss here, for they would lead us too far from this topic, compel us to look for a judicial system better adapted to the minds of our populations. This necessary adaptation must be based on adequate studies of the social, psychological and economic context in which the African divergent behavior occurs. These studies must be entrusted to research teams especially trained to this end; otherwise, any politique of crime prevention and treatment of delinquents would be inoperative. This role could be devolved upon doctors in criminology — whose institutes of criminology would also provide training programs.

The problems of our countries in developing their economies should not make us forget how serious the problems of criminality are and how urgent it is to find their solutions. After all, an anti-crime politique protects and favors effective economic development.

DOCTORAL-LEVEL EDUCATION FOR CRIMINAL JUSTICE PERSONNEL IN NIGERIA

by

A.A. Adeyemi*

Even though this paper is dealing with the doctoral-level education, it is desirable to indicate the general educational and training structure in Nigeria in order to enable us to see the doctoral-level education there in its proper perspective.

Our system in Nigeria distinguishes between education and training; and the universities' curricula, until quite recently, reflected this distinction. Their curricula were basically structured for providing academic or intellectual education, and whatever element of training that appeared in them were mainly secondary to the basic requirement of education in the sense of intellectual development. Thus, for the professions, excepting Medicine and Engineering, where the total education/training is provided in the universities (including their hospitals in the case of medicine), a graduate in a field like Law or Accountancy, has to leave the University and go into the professional institution, like the Nigerian Law School or the Institute of Chartered Accountants to acquire professional training for a specific period (in the case of Law, one year) at the end of which he sits for a set of examinations set by that institution in collaboration with the governing council of the profession. This professional training has nothing to do with the universities.

Much the same separation was adopted by the criminal justice services or agencies. Whatever the educational level and orientation of a recruit, he is sent into a service school or college for specific service training before he is put on the job. The Police Force and Prisons Service have well established staff colleges for this purpose; and the latter has a large number of university personnel in the various fields of Sociology, Psychology, Business Administration, Law, Political Science and Criminology come into their college to teach courses for six months to officers-in-training. These university personnel set and mark examination papers for them in their respective courses quite apart from the purely service courses taught and examined by personnel drawn from the Prison Service itself. The Police have been more reluctant in inviting the university staff to teach in their college.

Within the last decade-and-a-half, however, the Universities have been shedding their purely academic stance as a result of considerable public and government pressure. They were requested to respond more relevantly to the specialized training demands of the country. To this end, curricula were remodelled to accommodate new specializations within existing fields like Economics, Business Administration, Engineering and Law. Also, new courses were introduced like Environmental Design (with a faculty of its own), Survey (at present under tutelage in the Faculty of Engineering) and Criminol-

ogy (at present under the tutelage of and nurtured by the Faculty of Law), etc.

Even with these changes in curricula orientation, the universities were and still are performing basically educational duties particularly at the undergraduate level. This is because, in many instances, further professional training will be required by the graduate in the non-university professional institutions which, by the way, have no power to confer degrees even though the candidate may train there for some three years, as is the case with the Accountants. However, the universities have, on arrangement with the professional bodies, agreed to introduce specialized professional postgraduate training which will be recognized by the particular professional bodies either as a substitute for their own examinations or as a reduction in the amount of professional examinations the candidate will thereafter be required to write. It is towards this end that the University of Lagos set as its third goal in the 1975-80 National Development Plan the following: "to expand facilities for postgraduate teaching, particularly at the Master's level and with a definite bias towards professional training."

It becomes relevant at this stage to explain our degree structure. We still largely follow the British system of university education with some sprinkling of American dilutions. For the Professions and the Services, a graduate is considered ripe enough for employment after his duly undergoing the necessary post or non-university training for the profession or the service. However, further university training is available at various levels:

- (i) short courses of the Certificate type may be provided;
- (ii) regular special diplomas may be provided;
- (iii) Masters degree courses may be provided.

With our educational system, all formal teaching and formal written examinations end at the Master's level, unlike the American system where courses are specifically run and examinations are conducted at the doctoral-level. This is why the University of Lagos' above-stated third goal specifically particularized the Master's level of postgraduate education as the level for specialist professional training in the University. Indeed this is true for all the other Nigerian universities.

At the doctoral-level, however, we do not hold formal classes or conduct formal examinations normally, except where an intellectually good student is admitted but needs some remedial courses to strengthen his resources for the field in which he proposes to work. Otherwise, doctoral seminars are the only classes held. At these, the students are expected to present papers containing the results

of researches in the specific areas of their respective topics or in the general area of which their respective research topics form a part. Besides these seminars, which are also attended by interested staff members, a doctorate candidate in criminology is also required to attend all the LL.M. seminars in criminological foundations and/or sentencing and treatment of offenders, as well as those on comparative criminal law and procedure, unless he has himself passed through any of these courses at the master's level. Thereafter, the basic requirement for the doctorate is for a thesis which will have to satisfy the examiners that the candidate has, in the case of a Ph.D., contributed to knowledge on the ground that

- (i) he has put forward new materials that no other person has put across before; or
- (ii) he has re-examined existing materials in such a way that his presentation has shed new light on them.

There is, of course, the higher doctorate like the LL.D., the M.D. or the D.Sc., which are awarded only to candidates who, by their published researches, have been found to have made significant and profound contribution to the field of knowledge in which they have been working.

This description of our system will seem to show a distinction from the American system where the universities have always served almost exclusively as the training institutions for high level manpower. In addition, the course structure and orientation is such that a person's training is not regarded as complete until he takes a doctorate degree. For us, a doctorate (usually the Ph.D., or more rarely, the LL.D., etc.) is only an academic degree. At present, therefore, it is not a specific requirement for employment into our criminal justice agencies. But its potentialities cannot be ignored.

At present, in Nigeria, courses in criminology and criminal justice are being taught as part of the other major disciplines like law, sociology, psychology and psychiatry at both the undergraduate and postgraduate levels. The degree of specialization at undergraduate level stops at choice of courses in criminology and criminal justice areas, *inter alia*, as well as writing up a project in one of the areas. A greater degree of specialization is provided at the Master's level. But the constraints of the parasitic existence of criminology are still such that we cannot really run the courses in the way in which we shall want them run. Even this constraint affects our power to admit candidates to the Ph.D. course. A recent example was the case of an applicant who graduated in Sociology in a Department of Economics and, therefore, holds a B.Sc.Econs. degree. The candidate took an M.Sc. Sociology, having written on a criminological topic in a sociology department. Finally, the candidate applied for admission to the Ph.D. course in our Faculty of Law to write on a criminological topic. In practice, since there are no legal examinations requirements, there can be no problem at all with this candidate. However, his application was rejected on the ground that the Faculty would find itself granting a law degree to a non-lawyer. Yet criminology is a full-fledged subject in our undergraduate programme and a recognized field of subjects in our post-

graduate programme! In fact, it is now possible to take an LL.M. degree with only criminology and criminal justice subjects. The above clearly demonstrates the need for criminology and criminal justice to have their own separate and autonomous existence, even where their unit is still located within a Faculty. This point of view has been accepted in principle in the University of Lagos. The Law Faculty is now beginning to effect its implementation.

Even though our undergraduate and postgraduate programmes are barely three years old, curiously enough, our doctorate programme is much older. This is because there is no need for any classes and, consequently staffing, for the doctorate programme. All that is required for it are good facilities, including a good library, and supervision by a committee. There is considerable flexibility in constituting such a committee in that staff members of other faculties can be made members of the supervising committee. Hence, our doctorate programme was in operation ahead of the undergraduate and master's programmes, both of which require more faculty staff to handle them.

We may now examine the content of doctoral education in criminal justice and criminology in Nigeria.

In as much as the approval for our criminology programmes was obtained only after we could justify them on the ground of their utility in manpower development, which the then Second National Development Plan of 1970-74 accorded "the highest order of priorities", along side the agriculture, industry, and transportation, we are duty bound to run programmes, even at doctoral level, that will conform to this national demand. We are therefore interested in programmes that will have relevance for producing high level manpower for our criminal justice system.

Accordingly, we have been encouraging our doctoral candidates (without dictating to them) to choose topics in the area of criminal justice. Right now, in the University of Lagos Law Faculty, we have two such students currently engaged in doctoral research in the field of criminal justice.

We are, in fact, interested in programmes and topics which will have bearing on the rationalization of the criminalization policy of Nigeria, crime prevention methods (police and public), the trial system (in particular the impact of its procedure on the offender) and, of course, the well known field of "corrections". We note that the impact of the trial system has been universally neglected. Yet, it should be obvious that it is capable of generating a stimulus or set of stimuli which can definitely affect the nature and the direction of the offender's response to the post-trial stimuli to which the offender is exposed at the "correctional" stage.

However, this is not to say that we can ignore the production of scholars for the universities, whether in the general theoretical field of criminology or in the field of criminal justice.

We may, at this stage, point out that we use the term "criminology" in a very wide sense to include all aspects of criminal justice.

Finally, we recognize that criminal justice administration is at one and the same time both general

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by

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and special. It is general in that it is part of the larger area of public administration. However, today, there is a marked and consciously activated tendency towards specialization, and this tendency, and the need for it, provide the basis for the special nature of the problems of the system of administration of criminal justice. The problems which the system faces today are increasingly complex and special and, as such, require a high degree of knowledge, skill, competence and, even, an orientation of a special nature in the personnel working within the system if those problems are to be successfully tackled. Like in any other field of public administration, efficiency (which is the end result of such specialist training) is very essential.

In a way, whilst the undergraduate level provides, *inter alia*, courses in Administrative Law, we believe that it may well be desirable to introduce a basic course in the General Principles of Public Administration and Management. The broad specializations are provided at the masters level in the field of criminal justice and/or criminology, with a definite

bias towards the area of specialization. Whilst the Ph.D. level should concentrate on the specialized area in which the candidate is mostly or most likely to be employed in the criminal justice system. Topics should be chosen with such definite aims in the background. However, as a University committed to the production of scholars we definitely have to carry on the production of specialists in the general areas of substantive criminology, as well as such areas as research planning and evaluation for the criminal justice personnel. This way, the personnel, whether researcher, planner, evaluator or administrator will fully understand the administrative problems, whilst at the same time specialised enough for competence and efficiency. Beyond this, however, we cannot go.

The alternative may well be to develop purely professional institutions like the Nigerian Law School and the Institute of Chartered Accountants, etc. to cater specifically for postgraduate professional education. But this may well be outside the purview of this conference — and consequently of this paper.

I. INTRODUCTION

The academic teaching of Criminology in Italy is traditionally called "Criminal Anthropology". This discipline, which was introduced into Italian Universities (Medical Faculty) by Cesare Lombroso, its founder, has changed and enlarged its content in relation to other disciplines, beyond its starting trend which was predominantly medical.

This fact was acknowledged at an international and authoritative level (UNESCO) by Carrol and Pinatel, who noted that the program of courses of Criminal Anthropology, carried out by Italian Universities, shows how "all the biological, psychological, and penological aspects of criminology are taught as part of criminal anthropology or biology. This latter expression covers, in fact, a general teaching of criminology. There is, however, a specifically biological orientation to the whole subject".

A course of Criminal Anthropology was introduced as an elective into the Medical and Juridical Faculties by government decree in 1938 (R.D. September 9, 1938 n. 1652). Some universities have introduced a course of "Criminal Sociology" (Napoli), a course of "Criminology" (Roma, Bari, Pisa, Bologna, Siena, Messina, Milano, Palermo) into the Juridical Faculties, and a course of "Juvenile Criminology" into the Medical Faculty of Genoa.

The course of Criminal Anthropology has changed appellation ("Criminological Medicine and Forensic Psychiatry") only at the Medical Faculty of the University of Rome.

At present this course is named in the Statute of the Medical Faculties of 18 Universities, where it is carried out by 11 professors (Roma, Milano, Genova, Sassari, Cagliari, Modena, Napoli, Bari, Messina) and 9 lecturers (Torino, Padova, Trieste, Pavia, Parma, Siena, Pisa, Catania, Palermo).

The activities of these teachers are carried out in autonomous Institutes at the Medical Faculties of 7 Universities (Roma, Genova, Torino, Pavia, Modena, Napoli, Bari).

The data here related refer to courses which are chosen as elective by students in their plans of studies leading to the granting of a degree, that is to the granting of the title of "doctor" (especially in Medicine, Law, Political Sciences, Pedagogy, Humanities).

In Italian Universities there is no course leading to the granting of a title of "doctor" in Criminology. There are, on the contrary, some post-graduate training courses, which have been established on the creative initiative of two great pioneers of Criminology: Enrico Ferri and Benigno Di Tullio.

1) Enrico Ferri founded a "School of Juridical and Criminal Practice" at the University of Rome in 1911. This school has often changed its appellation and organization although it still carries out intense

educational activity at a high level, under its present appellation of "School of Specialization in Criminal Law and Criminology" (Delogu). The educational purpose of the School is to study criminological subjects with an interdisciplinary orientation and specifically in relation to legal aspects.

2) More recently Benigno Di Tullio founded a "School of Specialization in Clinical Criminology" in 1967. The educational purpose of the School was to study criminological subjects with an interdisciplinary orientation and specifically in relation to clinical aspects as we can see from its Statute. Afterwards this Statute was changed (1972) to develop the clinical and psychiatric orientation of the School, as we can see from its new appellation ("School of Specialization in Clinical Criminology and Forensic Psychiatry").

The University of Genoa carried out Benigno Di Tullio's original initiative in 1969 with the foundation of the "School of Specialization in Clinical Criminology" (Canepa, 1970), within the Criminal Anthropology Institute, which was founded by D.P.R. July 21, 1969 n. 615 (Official gazette n. 239 September 20, 1969).

Considering that the purpose of this International meeting is to probe into the organization of criminological education at the doctoral level and with an interdisciplinary approach, I see the opportunity of briefly relating the activities of two of these Schools, with reference to the Italian University system;

- 1) The School of Specialization in Criminal Law and Criminology of the University of Rome;
- 2) The School of Specialization in Clinical Criminology of the University of Genoa.

Both Schools have a criminological educational purpose as regards the interdisciplinary orientation: The first probing into a juridical penal direction, the second into a clinical direction.

II. THE SCHOOL OF SPECIALIZATION IN CRIMINAL LAW AND CRIMINOLOGY AT THE UNIVERSITY OF ROME

The School carries out its activities within the Institute of Criminal Law, which is its official seat. Its Director is Prof. Tullio Delogu. Students holding a degree in Law or in Political Sciences from any Italian or foreign University can enroll for the ordinary diploma course. The Board of the School may authorize the admission of graduates from Medical Schools or from any other Faculty of any Italian or foreign University, whose academic record, at the judgment of the Board, is considered adequate. In such cases the student, in order to be admitted, must pass an internal examination in Criminal Law and Criminal Procedure.

The courses which will be offered in the regular biennial program of post-graduate training are com-

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pulsory or elective according to the following curriculum:

First year

--Juridical studies

- 1) General principles of Criminal Law
- 2) General principles of Criminal Procedure
- 3) Constitutional Criminal Law
- 4) Penology
- 5) One course to be chosen from ten of the elective juridical disciplines

--Criminological studies

- 1) General Criminology
- 2) Criminal psychopathology
- 3) Forensic Psychology
- 4) Methodology of Criminal Statistics
- 5) Criminalistics

Second year

--Juridical studies

- 1) Criminal law in relation to Specific Crimes
- 2) Criminal Procedure in relation to Specific Crimes
- 3) Law and Procedure with Juvenile Offenders
- 4) Police and the Law
- 5) Sociology of Criminal Law
- 6) One course to be chosen from ten of the elective juridical disciplines.

--Criminological studies

- 1) Criminology and Criminal Law
- 2) Criminology and the Prevention and Control of Crime
- 3) Theories and Practices in Penology
- 4) Forensic Medicine
- 5) One course to be chosen from seven of the elective criminological disciplines.

At the end of each academic year the student must pass all the examinations concerning the required studies. The examination leading to the granting of the "Diploma of Specialization in Criminal Law and Criminology", consists of presentation and discussion of an original written dissertation on one of the subject areas of the course of studies.

Other details will be found in the Statute of the School, enclosed herewith (Appendix V).

The director of the School has kindly given some data from which we can see that from 1965 to 1976 sixty students have received the diploma. Many of them come from foreign nations, especially South America. During the last seven academic years the number of the students enrolled (Italian or foreign) has been as follows:

1969-70 n.38 (21+17), 1970-71 n.71 (41+30), 1971-72 n.101 (83+18), 1972-73 n.103 (73+30), 1973-74 n.66 (35+31), 1974-75 n.77 (46+31), 1975-76 n.75 (56+19).

These data reveal that foreign nations (especially South America) attach great importance to the diploma of the School. Generally the students holding this diploma can teach in the Universities.

III. THE SCHOOL OF SPECIALIZATION IN CLINICAL CRIMINOLOGY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF GENOA

The Director of the School is Professor Giacomo Canepa and the Institute of Criminal Anthropology is its official seat. Students holding a degree in Medicine, Law, Political Sciences, Pedagogical and Social Sciences, can enroll for the ordinary diploma course. The admission to the school is restricted to thirty students (fixed number). The admission of foreign students is not limited, according to the Statute of the University. The student, in order to be admitted, must pass an internal examination.

The courses which are offered in the regular triennial program, according to the educational purpose of the School, are the following:

First year

- 1) General Criminology (1)
- 2) General Principles of Sociology
- 3) General Principles of Psychology and Statistics
- 4) General Principles of Psychopathology
- 5) General Principles of Clinical Psychiatry

Second year

- 1) General Criminology (II)
- 2) Methodology of Criminological Research
- 3) Social Services and Criminology
- 4) Juvenile Delinquency
- 5) Diagnostics in relation to Crime (I)

Third year

- 1) Diagnostics in relation to Crime (II)
- 2) Techniques of Treatment
- 3) Principles and Techniques of Correctional Treatment
- 4) General principles of Forensic Medicine and Forensic Psychiatry
- 5) Techniques of Prevention.

The classes may be supplemented by conferences and lectures, seminars, examinations and practical exercises at institutes qualified in criminology. At the end of each academic year the student must pass all the examinations concerning the required studies to be admitted to the following course. The diploma examination consists of the presentation and discussion of an original written dissertation. The student passing all the examinations receives a diploma of "Specialist in Clinical Criminology". Other details will be found in the School regulations, enclosed herewith (Appendix VI, reproduced in Italian).

During the last four academic years 28 students have received the specialization diploma. Experience teaches that the specialists in Clinical Criminology carry out some practical activities according to their basic education (degree):

- 1) activities carried out by criminologists with medical education: experts in psychology and psychiatry at the law courts, advisors in medico-psycho-pedagogy, physicians at prisons and at institutes for the prevention and treatment in psychiatry;

- 2) activities carried out by criminologists with juridical, sociological and pedagogical education: honorary judges at the Juvenile Court and in services of probation; government officials in police, courts, prisons; technicians at institutes for treatment of juvenile offenders.

It is necessary to point out that the School of Specialization carries out its activities within the Institute of Criminal Anthropology, which also offers educational courses for non-graduate, that is:

- 1) Courses of Criminal Anthropology (for the Medical Faculty)
- 2) Courses of Juvenile Criminology (for the Medical Faculty)
- 3) Courses of Criminal Anthropology (for the Law Faculty)

According to law, these courses can also be attended by students of other Faculties; consequently a number of students in Political sciences, Pedagogy, Humanities include these criminological courses in their plans of study, or they attend the Institute in order to prepare their graduation thesis (in Medicine, Law, Political sciences and so on) on a criminological subject.

Here are the number of examinations which have been held during the last four academic years: n.493 (1971-72), n.791 (1972-73), n.910 (1973-73), n.1015 (1974-75).

Here are the number of graduation thesis for the same period: n.24 (1971-72), n.4 (1972-73), n.10 (1973-74), n.17 (1974-75).

CONCLUSIONS

The present situation of post-graduate education in Criminology that I examined in 1964 with a report to the XIV International Course on Criminology in Lyon (Canepa, 1965, 1967) and in 1969 with a report to the Congress of the Italian Society of Criminology in Naples (Canepa, 1970), shows that there has been undoubtedly an improvement during the last year in Italy.

Nevertheless the situation is not yet satisfying, and has already found the censure I previously expressed.

The advanced study of criminology, at a post-doctoral level of specialization, is carried out only in Rome and in Genoa.

With regard to this, we must remark:

- 1) The present organization does not allow the University to face the increasing social demand relating to the development of new forms of professional activity in criminology.

This is to be seen, for instance, in the areas of general pedagogy, of juvenile inadaptation and antisociality, of the juvenile court, of the activity of prevention and repression carried out by police, of the service of psychiatric relief, of the judicial service in the penal area, and of the treatment service in prison.

- 2) The augmentation of social demand for the criminological qualification of such activities de-

velops in a pressing and spontaneous manner, even if high political authorities sometimes try to ignore it, or not to consider it according to its true importance.

To understand and satisfy this demand, it would be enough to consider some legislative suggestions, but no necessary attention is paid to this possibility. I will remind the reader, for instance, that criminological qualification is required by Law in order for appointment as honorary judges ("private members") at the Juvenile Court, and to be admitted to the competitive examinations for physicians in psychiatric hospitals; the indication of criminological subjects is required for the competitive examinations to become a managing career physician in penal institutions, for the competitive examinations to become a medical officer in Police, for the courses of the School for Carabinieri Officers, and for the courses of the School for Police Officers.

It seems, lastly, that a recent Law requires the criminological qualification for the experts who, in the Prisons section, carry out the activities of study and treatment. (Law n.354, July 26, 1975; Official Gazette n.212, August 9, 1975).

These legislative indications are, nevertheless, limited enough with regard to the exigence of a real criminological qualification of the personnel of the services who work, directly and indirectly, in contact with the problems of delinquency.

3) Moreover, the exigence of including Criminology among the compulsory courses leading to the holding of a degree in medicine (Di Tullio) has been shown since, for example, the family doctor has many occasions to know individual situations of inadaptation leading to antisociality by working in contact with families (Canepa, 1970).

4) The present organization of the Schools of criminological specialization may be considered satisfying as regards their educational programs. We cannot say the same thing for its practical accomplishment, considering the necessity of enlarging the number of such schools and of providing them with suitable financial contributions, with structures, with means and with teachers. It seems, also, that teachers carry out their educational activity almost gratis, the wages being very small, according to the modest budget of such schools, which are supported only by annual taxes paid by enrolled students (this rule is applied in all the schools of Specialization of Italian Universities).

5) We must hope, in the present state, for the development of the Schools of criminological specialization, following the example of the Schools working in Rome (criminological and legal trend) and Genoa (criminological and clinical trend).

In view of future reforms, we hope that Faculties and Schools of Criminology will be opened as happened in Italy with regard to psychological education.

Enrico Ferri, a leader of the "positive Italian school", to whom Radzinowicz acknowledged the high merit of founding the first "modern school of Criminology" in Europe, called Criminology "a synthetic science", based on "criminal anthropology

and criminal sociology." Today we will say: an interdisciplinary science based on clinical criminology and sociological criminology.

On such bases, integrated by the necessary juridical education, would work the future **Faculties of Criminology**, which would offer a biennial pro-paedeutical course (including compulsory juridical sociological and clinical studies) and a second biennial course of specialistic education, according to the three directions mentioned.

Such Faculties, as I already said (1965), will have to prepare future graduates in Criminology, with juridical, sociological and clinical education; that is, juridical criminologists, sociological criminologists and clinical criminologists, who will work in judicial, social and clinical services of the criminological area.

As far as other Faculties interested in the criminological problem (Law, Social sciences, Medicine),

they ought to include in their programs not general criminology, but rather particular criminological disciplines, such as clinical criminology (criminal anthropology) and sociological criminology, at two different levels:

- 1) an undergraduate, during the courses leading to the holding of a degree in Law, Social sciences, Medicine;
- 2) a post-graduate level, as a School of Specialization in sociological criminology (for graduates in Law and Social sciences) and School of Specialization in clinical criminology (for graduates in Medicine).

This hope, as regard to medicine, I expressed in 1965. Since 1967 it is a reality, after Benigno Di Tullio founded the first School of Specialization in Clinical Criminology in Rome, followed in 1969 by the School of Genoa.

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DOCTORAL-LEVEL POLICE EDUCATION IN CRIMINOLOGY IN ITALY

by

Franco Ferracuti*

It has been a pleasure and an honor to accept Professor Lejins invitation, since, as it has always been the case, he has combined warm hospitality with discussion of an important and timely topic in our field. Professor Canepa's presentation relieves me from the task of discussing doctoral education in criminology in Italy and I decided, after consultation with Professor Lejins, to talk briefly about doctoral-level education in criminology in the Italian Police Academies.

There are two reasons for selecting such a topic:

a) The modern conceptualizations of the criminal justice system considered as a unity, flowing from police work to courts, to prison, to after-care, in a global perspective, bypassing and overcoming traditional separations between different sections of the system.

b) Italy has an unusual system of police academies, organized along military lines but kept at university level, and, as much as possible, as part of the national university system. The reason for this arrangement and its advantages and disadvantages will be briefly discussed. At the officer's level the teaching of criminology takes place at the doctoral-level (although this roughly corresponds to an M.A. in American terms) and must meet certain standards, determined by the existing credit transferability from the Academy to the National university system.

Every foreigner visiting Italy is baffled by the various types of policemen he meets. Italy has been called "the country with 5 police systems". In reality, apart from municipal police forces, not relevant to our discussion, and from special corps, there are three major types of police forces: the Pubblica Sicurezza (P.S.), the Carabinieri, and the Finanza. Having had the honor of being a professor in the Carabinieri Officers Academy for 20 years, I will try to outline the characteristics of the system.

Briefly, P.S. and Carabinieri have similar functions, and overlap to a great extent. The P.S. is a civilian body, militarized, and under the supervision of the Ministry of Interior. The Carabinieri are a military body, under the same Ministry but institutionally under the aegis of the Ministry of Defense, as part of the army. In general, they are military police with civilian functions. The Guardia di Finanza are a special military body under the supervision and at the service of the Ministry of Finance. They deal with fiscal and valutary crimes, currency, regulatory violations and drugs (these fields, however, can be covered also in part by the other two police forces).

This trifurcation of authority and functions has deep historical roots and causes, with inevitably some amount of duplication and overlapping. By and large, however, it has functioned well and not

much of the deep gap between police and public that is evident in many countries exists in Italy.

The P.S. officers, the Finanza officers, and the Carabinieri officers, all attend academies, based in Rome, which are permanent, self-contained institutions. Most of the Carabinieri officers on the other hand, prior to attending their Academy, go through the Army Military Academy in Modena, the Italian equivalent of West Point.

In the case of the Finanza officers, no systematic teaching of criminology takes place. In the academic year which just ended, two two-hour periods have been devoted, for the first time, to criminology. This will be expanded to five two-hour periods next year, with a view to move slowly toward a regular course.

The P.S. Academy has held annual criminology courses since the academic year 1967-68, after several ad hoc brief courses. The title of the course is "Criminal Anthropology" as is the case in the Carabinieri Academy. This name is due to historical reasons, and the subject matter corresponds to a general course in criminology (the textbooks used last year, for example, were a general treatise by Di Tullio, the Italian translation of Radzinowicz's *Ideology and Crime*, and sections from Mannheim's *Comparative Criminology*.) The course lasts 70 hours, and approximately 65 officers attend it each year. It should be noted that P.S. officers are normally already graduated, generally in law.

The Carabinieri Academy functions in tandem with the Army Military Academy in Modena. Officers undergo a total of four years training, two in Modena and two in Rome. Standard criminal anthropology courses are given in Modena at the second year level. Some officers, however, enter the corp without going through the Modena Academy, from the general army pool, or from non-commissioned officers who have won a special competition. The Carabinieri Academy, based in Rome, initiated its course in 1956. Originally, two different courses were given: forensic and criminal psychology and criminal anthropology. In 1962 the former was suppressed and fused, in part, with criminal anthropology. A final program was established in 1966. Generally the courses in criminology are given to second year officers in the Modena Academy and, to officers who do not go through Modena, in Rome. Normally, courses last approximately 60 hours, and end with an examination (oral and/or written). The textbooks are the same as those of the University of Rome. Subject matter includes general introduction to criminology, and a number of special topics (e.g., drug dependence and crime, consumer fraud, art theft, violent offenses, etc.). A special once a year lecture is given to lieutenant colonels in the course of refresher training prior to promotion to colonel. This year's lecture was on "social dangerousness".

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The stated purpose of the course (as defined in the Academy statute) is to improve the education of the officer and to give him all the theoretical and practical notions which he may need in the course of fulfilling his functions. Normally, the response of the officers to the teaching of criminology is enthusiastic. Subjects such as criminal law, criminal procedure, forensic medicine, etc. are also taught but criminology remains a popular and lively discussed topic.

One special feature of the Finanza and Carabinieri academies is that, since 1966, through an agreement between the Ministry of Defense, the Ministry of Finance and the Ministry of Education, credit for courses taken in the academies are transferable to the Italian University system (meaning practically to any university in Italy, since with one exception they are all state universities). It is required that the courses in the academies be given by university personnel and that the programs match those which are offered in the universities. This agreement has been sanctioned into a law in June 1962, reconfirmed in 1964 and, recently, after our University reform, in 1974 and 1975. A total of 18 courses are included in this law, and the specific programs are described in the law itself. They range from criminal anthropology to forensic medicine, to political geography, to several legal subject.

Essentially, the law establishing the transferability of credit from military academies to university has many advantages: (1) it establishes a university standard for personnel and for content in the academy teaching; (2) it motivates the officers to seek a higher degree, at the doctoral-level, after they enter the service, since a large number of the required courses for a doctorate in law are in Political Science and already included in the academy curriculum; (3) it bridges the gap between academia and police, forcing both sides to a dialogue which would be difficult otherwise.

Essentially, the system has worked well, and expansion to other areas (engineering and mathematics) is under consideration. The Carabinieri academy publishes a bimonthly journal (*Rassegna dell'Arma dei Carabinieri*), which is kept at the level of a scientific journal, and which frequently includes articles on deviance and on standard criminological topics.

Some general considerations are in order at this point based on the Italian Police Academies' experi-

ence, aimed at the general problem to which this conference is addressed:

1) to bridge the gap between academia and services is a difficult problem. The services can be brought to academia, through special courses, *ad hoc* programs, etc., but the reverse is also possible, and it has worked in our case.

2) In a global view of the criminal justice system, the different sections of the system must be unified, at least as far as training in the basic sciences is concerned. This would mean, for example, coordination of the teaching of criminology in the police, in the correctional services (at the level of prison wardens and of chief administrators) and in the magistrature. Currently, a few lectures are included, in Italy, in the special courses given to correctional personnel and to magistrates after they enter the service. This should be expanded and harmonized, with common and complementary curricula and textbooks. The police functions include prevention and after-care, and these must be considered in cooperation with other sections of the criminal justice system.

3) In the current status of our discipline, new theories and new approaches cannot be ignored. They must be considered and translated, if viable, into operational practical terms, at the practitioner level. This requires bridging the academic-service gap. If this is not done, the gap may degenerate into open conflict and opposition. Traditionally, academia deals with theories and pure research. The quasi-clinical nature of the field, the case by case work in our discipline requires a translation from theory to practice. This should be done by practitioners and academics together, and not left to one of the two sides only. It is a difficult task, calling for balanced, objective information from a general body of scientifically valid knowledge to meaningful, practical and realistic decisions at the policy level and at the individual case level.

4) Given the changing nature of our discipline and the constant acquisition of new fields, a coordinated system of in-service training and of refresher courses must be established. This is essential to avoid a separation between practice and research. Since research and teaching so often are carried out by the same persons, the teaching experience, to persons in the field, will enrich the researcher's experience and force him to test his theories against the harsh realities of field work in our subject matter.

DOCTORAL-LEVEL EDUCATION IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE AND CRIMINOLOGY IN VENEZUELA

by

Francisco Canestri*

PREFACE

It is a great pleasure for me to participate in this Conference which deals with a subject both of worldwide interest and of special interest for Latin America.

Education in criminology has been a constant worry to all persons involved in the field, and that is why it has been the main subject in many international events. It is evident, as I say in my paper on criminology education in Venezuela[1], that "teaching criminology is a very wide and complex subject. There is very little specialized bibliography and, with the exception of some papers exclusively dealing with it, one is constrained to look for casual remarks on our discipline in the works of well-known authors.

The serious contrast between the importance of this problem and the scant bibliography is a very grave obstacle to education. We are risking that it may be resolved as many other problems have ended, "filed unsolved". We wish to deeply thank the organizers of this Conference for dedicating it to this topic and thus rousing our enthusiasm.

There is another element which we have detected in our researches[2] in criminological education. It is the impossibility of following the recommendations given at different international meetings regarding the organizational needs.

A brief historical review shows that Criminology from its early start with the works of Lombroso (1876), Ferri (1881) and Garófalo (1885), has been constantly preoccupied with this subject: recommendations for the organization of teaching criminology at different levels were made at the International Penitentiary Congress in St. Petersburg (1890); similar requests were also made at the Congress of the International Union of Penal Law held in Linz (Austria) in 1895; the IX International Penitentiary Congress (London), 1925; the III International Penal

Congress; the I International Congress of Criminology . . .

This international movement reached its culmination with two events dealing with criminology education which must be taken into consideration: First, the Conference of Specialized Institutions and International non-Governmental Organizations Interested in Crime Prevention and the Treatment of Delinquents"[3] held in Geneva under the auspices of the United Nations. In their conclusions the conference pointed out: a) that the universities should organize criminology education and criminological subjects in accordance with their own traditions, possibilities and needs; b) that this education should be compulsory for all persons aiming at professional magistracy and para-judicial functions.

Second, a paper published by UNESCO, dedicated to criminology in the "Education in the Social Sciences" series examined[4] a world-survey on this subject. Answers from ten countries were obtained on the organization of criminology education, encountered difficulties, their solutions, and improvement projects. The results of this survey, made in collaboration with eminent criminologists[5], are of great interest, especially because they all agreed on an organizational need at different levels, which makes the inevitability of an adequate criminal policy evident. We have summed them up as follows:[6]

- a) Most countries realize the need to change the administration of justice.
- b) All persons dealing with the administration of criminal justice — police, magistrates, prison and prevention officers, counsels, public attorneys, etc. — are well aware of the need to review their methods. They know by experience that when they try to put "new ideas" into practice they always meet with a lack of precedents and even with inhibiting attitudes. Many have tried, with poor results, to carry on in an em-

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[2] CANESTRI, F., op. cit. See also "La enseñanza de la Criminología en América Latina", Revista Internacional de Estudios Criminológicos; "Problèmes posés à l'heure actuelle par l'enseignement de la criminologie dans certain pays de Amérique Latine et particulièrement au Venezuela", Cahiers de Defense Sociale, 1973, No. 1, page 65; "La investigación criminológica en América Latina, tendencias principales. Revista Neuronio, Oscar Freire Institute (Brasil), Vol. XXXIV, No. 1-2, 1973, p. 101; "La investigación Criminológica", criminological chapter, Inst. de Invest. de Crim., Zulia University, Maracaibo, Venezuela, No. 1 1973, p. 87.

[3] O.N.U., Actas de las Conferencias de las Instituciones Especializadas, Geneve, 17.12.1952.

[4] UNESCO, "Les Sciences Sociales dans l'enseignement superieur: Criminologia". (Pour le compte de la Société Internationale de Criminologie). Paris, 1956.

[5] ROLAND GRASSBERGER (Austria); PAUL CORNIL and R. GROSEMANS (Belgium); LEONIDIO RIVERO (Brasil); THORSTEN SELLIN (U.S.A.); JEAN PINATEL (France); CARLO ERVA (Italy); HERMAN MANNHEIM (England); OLOF KLINEBERG (Sweden); SULHI DONMEZER (Turkey); D. V. DIMITRIJEVIC (Yugoslavy).

[6] CANESTRI, F., op. cit.

pirical way. Good will is not enough. To channel the efforts and to achieve the pursued goals it is necessary to have a scientific organization of criminology education.

- c) Criminology education is indispensable in an age when criminal and penitentiary reforms require the cooperation of new professionals such as psychologists, sociologists, social workers, teachers, probation officers, etc. This para-judicial staff, as well as the judiciary, must have a common basis of criminological education in order not to scatter their activities or to focus them only on one speciality.
- d) The continuous evolution of legal conceptions, penitentiary institutions and staffs, both in preventive and repressive measures, leads to the question of a criminal law "renewal". Criminological data is necessary for the elaboration of legal norms. Consequently, the jurists have an imperative need for up-to-date information on the advances in criminology.
- e) It is also convenient to take into consideration that criminology education is basic in teaching scientific research in addition to its professional educational ends. Criminology education unifies, coordinates and stimulates scientific criminological research.

This preface allows me to state in the first section, the way we meet this problem in Latin America, specifically in Venezuela and, in the second section, outline what we consider a useful sketch for criminology education at different levels, but especially at the doctoral level.

I — CRIMINOLOGY EDUCATION IN LATIN AMERICA, ESPECIALLY IN VENEZUELA

A — From the End of the 19th Century To the Middle of the 20th Century

In the preface I briefly touched upon the historical development of worldwide concepts on criminological education. What I stated there is basic to understanding what has taken place in Latin America where, in a general way, we follow the movements and scientific trends of other countries.

A glance at the Latin American yield on Social and Human Sciences during the last few years shows a decisive European influence. The positivist philosophy, through criminal law, played a decisive role in our criminological conceptions. The works of Lombroso, Ferri and Garófalo were translated and printed many times, and until recently were quoted in books, articles and papers published in different Latin American countries, not as historical quotations but as if they still were actual schools of thought.

The outline sketches of two evolutionary trends emerge, based on this general idea, and both are influenced by a traditional and cultural universal element characteristic of Latin American countries, where medicine and law are status enhancing careers.

- a) First we found Criminology in Law Faculties, where it was included in the first part of Criminal Law and Forensic Medicine teaching programs, comprising 5 to 10% of the total studies. Consequently, it was only mentioned incidentally as an auxiliary of Criminal Law.
- b) The other discipline in which criminology evolved was in the Medical faculties where criminology education was included in Forensic Medicine or Forensic Psychology programs.

These two apparently contradictory positions merged into a single "clinically oriented" hybrid which jurists tried to apply in the practical professional field at court summations, by physicians and psychiatrists in the penitentiary field and by legal-forensic experts. And so evolved a movement called by some authors "criminological Latin American", which can be felt in some forensic and penitentiary activities, varying in each country according to their legal order.

Our most important Latin American criminologists, as important as the Europeans (the Argentinian José Ingenieros, for example, who published in 1901 his "Criminología"), only followed the European clinical movement from theoretical aspects, and in particular the Italian criminal anthropology school.

We find this situation until the 1950's. Up to then there was no attempt to organize some sort of criminological education within the universities. We can even assert that our discipline was relegated to police or prison staff teaching institutes.

A brief analysis of the bibliography used between 1945 and 1955 proved this assertion well enough: it consisted of markedly biologically or anthropologically oriented German[8] and Italian[9] translations. Works published by Latin American authors or by resident Europeans, show this biological-anthropological orientation also, and a seeming struggle between physicians (who believed themselves to be more progressive) and jurists (considered more repressive and conservative).

A large number of criminological books were published during these years, some with pedagogic ends, such as those of Israel Drapkin[10] from Chile, and José Rafael Mendoza[11] from Venezuela: others supporting the legal reform movement like Professor Manuel López-Rey[12], Jiménez de Asúa[13]; others with a more specific scientific divulgation end as "Criminology" by the Chilean Huáscar Cajías[14]; Julio Morales Coello[15] from Cuba or Luis Carlos Pérez from Columbia[16].

[8] Among the German translations: EXNER, FRANZ, "Biología Criminal," Editorial Bosch, Barcelona, Spain, 1957, 471 pages.

[9] Among the Italian translations: DI TULLIO, BENIGNO, "Tratado de Antropología Criminal", I.P.A.C., Buenos Aires, Argentina, 1950.

[10] DRAPKIN, ISRAEL, "Manual de Criminología," edited by the Eccuele Técnica de Investigaciones, 1949, 264 pages.

[11] MENDOZA, JOSE RAFAEL, "Curso de Criminología", 1st. edition, Gráficas Marsiegen, Madrid, 1956, 432 pages.

[12] LOPEZ-REY, MANUEL, "Manual, Introducción a la Criminología", Edit. El Ateneo, Buenos Aires, Argentina, 1944, 2 vol.

These books, although full of knowledge and describing the European criminological activities in the clinical and legal fields, had practically no reference to a possibility of an analysis of the Latin American situation.

B — Post-War Period Up to 1960

The European criminological movement, interrupted by the Second World War, gathered new strength with its end. The II International[17] Criminology Congress held in Paris in 1950, the First[18] and Second[19] International Courses in Criminology, also held in Paris, and sponsored by the International Society of Criminology, were especially determinant for Latin America because of their world influence.

Their influence is undeniable. Many Latin American professors who attended these events went back with criminological interests leading to the evolution of this discipline in their countries.

C — The 1960's

This very important movement that took place during the 1950's, characterizes the Latin American criminological movement, in the sense that it changed criminology from its auxiliary position in relation to Criminal Law to an independent science with a multidisciplinary character.

The progress of other social and human sciences is also important, especially sociology and psychology, which created new university careers (economics, sociology, psychology and its specialities), breaking the traditional structural pattern which limited social studies to law and political science faculties. Such a great development made the jurists fear they would be absorbed by these new disciplines, specifically criminology, supposedly giving birth to Jiménez de Asúa's famous phrase: "Criminology will swallow Criminal Law".

The polemic prestige of criminology led, in 1955, to specialization trips by professors and students. When they returned to their countries they established criminology education, created university research institutes, etc.

Criminological activities during these years dealt mainly with the state and context of criminological education[20], and it is important that criminology

[13] JIMENEZ DE ASUA, LIUS, "Estudios de Derecho Penal y Criminología", Omega Editores, Buenos Aires, Argentina, 1961, 414 pages.

[14] CAJIAS, HUASCAR, "Criminología", Editorial Juventud, La Paz, Bolivia, 19-5, 430 pages.

[15] MORALES COELLO, JULIO, "Criminología", printed by the La Habana University, Cuba, 1948, 282 pages.

[16] PEREZ, LUIS CARLOS, "Criminología-la nueva concepción natural del delito", Univ. Nac. de Columbia, 1959, 415 pages.

[17] Actes du II Congrès International de Criminologie. (Paris-Sorbonne, Sept. 1950), 5 vol. P.U.F.

[18] Premier Cours International de Criminologie, l'Examen Medico-Psychologique et Social des Delinquants, Ministère de la Justice, Paris 1952, 684 pages.

[19] Deuxieme Cours International de Criminologie, Le Probleme de l'Etat Dangereux, Minister de la Justice, Paris 1953, 632 pages.

[20] CANESTRI, F., op. cit.

[21] "Los Rostros de la Violencia", XXIII Course of Criminology, Vol. 1, Maracaibo, 1974, 336 pages.

began at this time to be considered, within the universities, as a scientific, autonomous and multidisciplinary science, capable of integrating a study program in the traditional careers as law, medicine, or the new ones as psychology or sociology.

D — Our Age

We consider the XIX International Course in Criminology, held in Mendoza, Argentina, in 1969, to be of vital importance; not forgetting other efforts like those of the International Center of Criminology in Montreal, especially Dr. Deniz Szabo's personal work. Research, teaching and other problems referring specifically to Latin America were first studied at Mendoza.

I cannot avoid mentioning, because I lived through the experience, the surprise caused by these statements and their vehement rejection as time passed. Both reactions helped only to strengthen our position. It was then that criminology was understood and accepted as an independent and multidisciplinary science, with accordingly organized teaching, taking into consideration the social reality of our developing and underdeveloped countries.

We also believe that it was at this time when world criminologists began to pay attention to Latin America which has become, due to its conditions, a veritable psychosocial laboratory, with relevant criminological incidences reversing the previous situation that, in the past, had called our attention towards them.

Finally, we believe also that it was at this time when what is known today as the Latin American criminological movement was born, as was evident during the I International Congress of the Criminological Studies Interamerican Association and the Annual Meeting of the American Society of Criminology, held in Caracas in 1972, organized by Juan Manuel Mayorca. This finally led to the XXIII International Course of Criminology in Maracaibo, Venezuela, organized by Lolita Aniyar de Castro[21], when our orientation was definitely set forth and our thoughts were consolidated. This was manifest during the XXV Course of Criminology held in Guayaquil, Ecuador, in 1975, dedicated to subjects of interest to Latin America.

II — CRIMINOLOGY EDUCATION IN VENEZUELA

A — Historical Situation of the Problem

Until the 1960's, conditions in Venezuela were the same as in other Latin American countries. Excepting isolated ideas of persons who can be considered pioneers in our discipline, no criminological movement was even outlined.

After the dictatorship's fall in 1958, our democratic governments began to work to change the image of the administration of justice, up to then characterized by political repression. The Ministry of Justice and the Central University granted scholarships for specialization courses in Europe. These measures contributed to creating what we can call today our country's first generation of criminologists.

Upon their return they exerted a definite influence in developing the Venezuelan criminological movement, today considered of great importance in Latin American criminology. This group of specialized persons directed their first efforts to organize education and research, the results being two Penal and Criminological Research Institutes (Caracas at the Central University and Valencia, at the Carabobo University), a Criminological Investigation Center (Maracaibo, Zulia University) and a project to create a Criminological Institute at Los Andes University in Mérida.

The start of Seminars and Monographic courses in Criminology at the different faculties and schools (law, sociology, social work, journalism, etc.), the first organized criminology education, were immediate consequences of this criminological movement and resulted in our present criminology courses.

It is important to stress the great support lent by official channels: Police, Prevention and Prison Boards, especially when their directors were persons specialized in criminology.

Criminology education then already had such an importance that it was one of the main subjects at the "Primeras Jornadas Venezolanas de Criminología", held in Valencia in 1974.

At the doctoral level we can also point to important efforts that have led to the organization of Doctoral and Specialization Courses at the Central University, Catholic University and Zulia University. Up to now, however, these have lacked continuity and permanency.

B — Actual State

We can conclude, from the aforesaid, that the evolution of criminological education in our country, at the pre-graduate level, is carried out through teaching programs and courses in different specialties: law, social work, sociology, etc. Monographic courses and seminars are used in other cases as independent subjects or as complementary to the teaching programs in criminology. This situation is also reflected in official police and prison staff schools and academies where there is also teaching in criminology.

[22] MILUTINOVIC, MILAN, "Les grands tendances de la criminologie contemporaine, Rapport General, VII Congress Internationale de Criminologie-Belgrade, 1973

Summing up, at this level criminology is independently taught, with its own programs and as a compulsory or an optional subject, depending on the university, school or faculty. At the pre-graduate level, criminology education has been organized, especially through institutes at the universities, with a tendency to autonomy; at the post-graduate level we have not obtained the same results, in spite of all the efforts made. Excepting the first post-graduate criminology course at the Criminological Research Center in Maracaibo, all other post-graduate or doctoral level courses are on criminal law and criminology. Consequently, criminology has not yet become wholly autonomous.

We believe we can conclude by pointing out the need to consider a possible organization of criminology education at the doctoral level, taking into account the aforesaid on the evolution of criminology education at other levels.

The last part of this paper is based on these considerations, and I make this exposition in the hope that a possible scheme for the development of a criminology doctorate may result from this discussion.

III — CONSIDERATIONS ON CRIMINOLOGY EDUCATION AT POST-GRADUATE AND DOCTORAL LEVELS, ORIENTED TOWARDS CRIMINAL JUSTICE ADMINISTRATION

The organization of criminology education at these levels must be the result of the conjugation of the theoretical conceptions on this science and its practical needs, according to each country, traditions, possibilities, etc.

A — Theoretical Conceptions

The conclusions of the last International Congress in Criminology, held in Belgrade in 1973, showed the emergence of three main trends in today's criminological theories: "the passage à l'acte" or clinical trend, the interactionist or social action trend and the organizational or justice administration trend, which correspond to the studies of the offender, delinquency and crime at different levels of the criminological phenomenon in its individual, legal and social realities.

The most important result of this Congress, in our opinion, and as Professor Milan Milutinovic[22] points out in his magistral general report, is the understanding that these apparently contradictory positions are, in reality, complementary. In other words, in order to be able to assert that one has a criminological conception from any of these three view-points, a global conception of individual legal and social problems is necessary.

This position leads to scientific problems that go beyond technical investigation and into the methodological and epistemological levels, a risky field, where the boundaries between science and ideology blend. Simultaneously, some practical results were presented at the Congress, which show the interrelationship needed between the various

trends presented: in treatment and re-socialization methods; those supporting social reaction, showed results in sterotipia and stigmatization leading to a new formulation of criminalization and de-criminalization processes; and those favoring the organization trend, showed results on evaluation of the different systems of justice administration.

As we can see, all these results are intimately linked to the administration of justice systems, and especially to their needs for renewal and improvement.

B — Practical Conception

Willingly putting aside the existent antagonism between the clinical trend or "passage à l'acte", and in the initially termed interactionist perspective (today known as the social reaction trend) and dedicating ourselves to the organizational trend, we must admit that some of these contributions can be used as a base and as a direction for an analysis of the necessary education of persons planning to work on justice administration at the pre-graduate level.

We owe to the organizational trend[23] an integral dynamic view of the administration of justice system, as an entity inter-related to society as a whole, as well as the actual concept of criminal policy. This has been achieved through evaluative research[24] based on social science methodological improvements, especially on the multidisciplinary fields.

We can delimit a specific area corresponding to the legal reality, structurally based on a criminal procedural law in our countries, a police and penitentiary system which, taken as a whole, are subsystems of a larger system, which is the system for the administration of criminal justice.

This conception, under elaboration in Venezuela during the past ten years[25], has led us to make the following chart (see appendix VII), where we have pointed out the sciences intervening in the the following chart (see Appendix VII), where we delinquent phenomenon as a whole. The different areas and preventive or repressive functions undertaken by the government when planning a criminal policy can be deduced from this chart.

This project must be visualized within an individual and social environment closely related to an age and a country in particular in order to establish its interaction and globalization.

With the aid of this chart we have obtained a general view over both the criminal phenomenon, the administration of justice and those sciences dedicated to their study, and the result is our Amplification Course in Criminology, aimed at professionals (lawyers, psychologists, physicians, teachers, sociologists, social workers, etc.) and persons working in criminal justice administration (prevention, police and prison boards, Ministry of Justice, judges,, attorneys, prosecutors).

In this project we now present, we have possibly established the basis for an actual specialization course, based on the higher knowledge acquired (even though rather elemental), and in a global view of the criminal problem and administration of justice, and would like to hear your valuable comments.

Due to the interdisciplinary aspect of the problem and the heterogeneity of the persons involved, we consider that this third level (doctoral level) must be planned as essentially oriented towards research, pointing out priority areas, as those included in the program under the heading "Complementary Areas".

[23] SZABO, DENIS, "Evaluation des Systems de Politique Criminelle, 7 Congress Internationale de Criminologie, Sept. 1973, Rapport de la III Section, 34 p.

[24] As an example we can quote the results of huge researches as "National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals", U.S.A., 1973. Rapport du Comité Canadiense de la Reforme Pénal et Correctionnelle, Ottawa, Canada, 1969. La Société face au crime, Comisión d'enquêtee sur l'Administration de Justice au Quebec, Canada, 1969.

[25] CANESTRI, F., "Hacia una política criminal en Venezuela, Revista Policia Científica, No. 20, June 1968, Pages 5 to 8.

SPECIALIZED PENAL AND CRIMINOLOGICAL EDUCATION IN MEXICO

by

Gustavo Malo Camacho*

Specialized training in criminology, criminalistics and criminal sciences is currently provided at the postgraduate level in the following institutions in Mexico:

a) Instituto Nacional de Ciencias Penales (The National Institute of Penal Sciences). Special attention will be given to this Institute.

b) División de Estudios Superiores de la Facultad de Derecho de la Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México (Graduate Division of the School of Law of the National Autonomous University of Mexico). Doctorate and Master's programs in Penal Law.

c) Instituto Técnico de la Procuraduría del Distrito Federal (The Technical Institute of the Attorney-General's Office of the Federal District). Specialization in Criminology and Criminalistics.

d) Various other academic institutions located in different States in Mexico. Particularly outstanding for the interest it has shown in this field is the State of Veracruz.

In Mexico, in general, to obtain the professional graduate degree called "Licenciatura", it is necessary to study 18 years: 6 years of elementary school; 3 years of high school; 3 years of preparatory; and 5 years of University; plus the necessary time to write and defend a thesis in a final exam. Studies beyond this degree will permit obtaining a "Master degree", officially within one more year, and a "Doctorate degree" which means two years of studies with the obligation of sustaining 2 doctoral dissertations after 2 theses.

Understanding the educational system in specialized criminology at the graduate level in Mexico requires brief reference to the characteristics forming its foundations.

Mexico is a country whose juridical structure consists of a Federation composed of thirty-two internally free and sovereign States. Each State, within its own jurisdiction, observes its own laws in civil and criminal matters, in addition to the laws of the Federation and the Federal District. Penitentiaries, pre-trial detention institutions and those dealing with administrative arrest for violation of the law also fall within the jurisdiction of the States, with the exception of those under federal jurisdiction.

The Political Constitution of the United Mexican States of 1917 bases prison operations and responsibility for prisoners essentially on Articles 18, 19 and 22. The provisions regulating the penal system and procedure are found principally in Articles 13 to 23 of the Constitution.

A fundamental document in this field has been the Law on Minimum Norms for the Social Readaptation of Sentenced Persons, promulgated in 1971.

Its contents mark the beginning of a new stage in the attention given to the country's criminological and penitentiary problems in which interest has been developed in the areas of legislation, architecture, teaching and research.

a) Legislation: reforms of penal law and of the Law on Penal Procedures guided by the principles of eliminating prison sentences; reforms of the organic law designed to improve and strengthen a swift and expeditious system for the administration of justice; new prison laws; new laws concerning the Federal and Federal District Public Prosecutors; new legislation for the legal disposition of minors based on principles of guardianship and protection in recognition of their particular condition; and new provisions for improved attention to drug addicts.

b) Material accomplishments: Construction of new general and specialized prisons based on modern principles (45); new court buildings; and new institutions for research and teaching in the field of criminology.

c) Teaching: In undergraduate training programs for police and prison staff. At the graduate level there are specialized education programs in penal sciences, criminology and criminalistics.

d) Scientific criminological research.

In relation to this outline, I would like to mention again the new National Institute of Penal Sciences.

Under the General Law on State Ministries and Departments, it is the task of the Ministry of the Interior to establish the country's criminological policy and guide the States in implementing this policy (Article 2, Section XXV). In this regard, after a preparation program guided by Doctor Garcia Ramirez, which lasted approximately two years, the President of Mexico recently inaugurated the National Institute of Penal Sciences (June 25, 1976). The Center has worked in the field of criminological research for several months, resulting in the publications you have received. Soon operations of a teaching institution for the training of criminologists at the graduate level will be initiated.

The fundamental importance of this new academic institution is its criminological orientation, since the approach of the University to its graduate program is eminently juridical. This institution will train researchers and teachers in the field of criminal justice. The educational system is based on credits obtained for the study of certain courses, some related to each other and others of an independent nature. The length of the curricula is generally four semesters for the doctorate level.

As a complement to the study program described, syntheses of each of the subjects composing it are being prepared as well as study manuals for each subject in order to serve as basic bibliographies.

The curricula is as follows:

First Semester

- General Criminology
- Penal Law (General)
- Judicial Psychology
- Criminological Methodology
- Legal Medicine

Second Semester

- Criminological Sociology
- Criminal Law (Special)
- Criminal Psychology
- Criminological Biology
- Penology

Third Semester

- Criminal Procedural Law
- Criminological Psychopathology
- Criminalistics
- Police Law
- Penal Executive Law

Fourth Semester

- Legal Psychiatry
- Clinical Criminology
- Minor Criminality
- Criminological Policy
- Principles of Criminological Administration

The subject matter of each of these subjects is in accordance with its title. In the papers that have been given to you, you will find a brief reference to the topics that each one includes.

Organic structure:

The organic structure of the National Institute for Penal Sciences (Article 9, Decree) is as follows:

Governing Board: composed of representatives of the Ministry of the Interior, the Ministry of Public Education, the Federal Attorney General's Office, the Attorney General's Office of the Federal District, the National Autonomous University of Mexico, the Metropolitan University and the Mexican Academy of Penal Sciences.

Academic Council: Composed of the Director, Assistant Director and Directors for each subject-area. Among other functions, it is the task of the Council to propose teachers and researchers as well as to prepare the internal regulations.

The center is set up as an autonomous agency providing services with its own means.

The goals of the institution are: research in the areas of criminology, penal sciences and criminalistics, teaching in these same areas, and constituting a center for documentation and information. The material will be composed of information obtained from exchanges with Mexican and foreign universities and criminological institutes. In the future it will function as a data bank.

General information:

Address: Magisterio Nacional No. 113, Colonia Tlalpan, Mexico 22, D.F.

Research area: 13 cubicles

Teaching area: Three classrooms with a capacity of 45 persons each, providing space for 135 students.

An auditorium with a capacity of 216 persons, including facilities for simultaneous interpretation and an area for the secretariat.

A reading room for 40 persons.

Library.

Information center with photocopying and mimeographing facilities.

Rooms for associations related to penal sciences: Mexican Academy of Penal Sciences, Society of Criminology, Society of Criminalistics, etc.

Gardens.

Finally, I just want to add that the Decree that created the Institute has been given to you (appendix VII), and some of the publications we have had in the field of criminology; also, I invite you to have an exchange of publications in the future.

*University of Mexico, Mexico City, Mexico.

RESEARCH AND EDUCATION ON THE DOCTORAL LEVEL IN CRIMINOLOGY IN ISRAEL

by

S. Giora Shoham*

First of all let me say at the outset that in Israel we still regard criminology as a science. We are well aware that in many countries the so-called new criminology has caused some ripples, especially among radically oriented youth. We think that this "new criminology", is, alas, not new and hardly criminology. The idea that society is kept together by the conflicting interests of groups has been forcefully elucidated by Simmel, Coser and Vold. And the idea that the international brotherhood of prisoners is one of the dialectical vectors towards progress, whatever that means, is one of those value laden slogans that has to be proved if it pretends to be scientific. If the new criminologists present ideologies in the guise of science, this is untenable to us. The idea that science should be totally subjugated to value structures is equally unacceptable. Whenever science loses its freedom it ends up in a dead alley. Of course, science should serve society but its enquiries should not be restricted by any dogmas. One may have assumptions but hypotheses and measurements cannot be hampered by any goals, however commendable they may be. Action research is many times very appropriate in given situations, yet the research must be monitored, measured and followed up in order to ascertain its efficacy. Another guiding line to the study and research in criminology and related disciplines is that we should aim at a more interdisciplinary approach than has been the current trend until now. Most researchers in crime, deviance and its prevention were mostly undisciplinarily. This is largely due to the fact that the researcher is very much enmeshed in his original discipline so that his way of thinking, his use of concepts and his measurement tools are mostly within the domain of one discipline. The new trend, however, is to regard the whole human being as our unit of study and analysis so that we have to analyze crime and deviance not as behaviour which is disconnected from the entire human personality and studied by multidisciplinary eclecticism, but as part and parcel of human behaviour as a social animal to be studied through a unified body of knowledge, synchronizing the normative and behavioural disciplines into an interdisciplinary frame of reference.

The ultimate goal in this context is to try and synchronize the various levels of analysis relating to crime and deviance, i.e., biopsychological, sociopsychological, social and interactional, into a continuous and homogeneous model of analysis.

As for the actual study and research in criminology on the doctoral level, this is conducted as a thesis oriented programme and constitutes the third level of university education after the B.A. and Master levels have been successfully implemented. Being multidisciplinary in nature the doctoral can-

didate in criminology is required to supplement his studies because, unfortunately, instruction in criminology in Israel has not reached the necessary level of interdisciplinary integration. A lawyer, for instance, would have, therefore, to take initial courses in the behavioural sciences and sociology whereas a social psychologist would have to take some courses in law in order to be eligible for doing research in criminology. It also depends on the specific subject one chooses. If a student would venture into the relationship between the XYY chromosome syndrome in crime or deviance, and chose to write a thesis on it he would certainly need to have supplementary courses in biology and genetics before launching his actual research project.

As for the main areas of actual and potential research which the Israeli social scene provides to the aspiring doctoral candidate in criminology, they may be divided into three levels. The first level relates to the fluctuation of crime and deviance rates as related to the social structure and the cultural system. The second level relates to the socio-psychological processes determining the transition of an individual from law abidance and conformity to deeper involvement with the deviant and criminal group. The third level is concerned with the explanation of crime and deviance on the personality level.

On the social level Israel has been and continues to be a prime arena for the study of culture conflict in relation to crime and deviance. Indeed, in a country where more than 80 different ethnic groups have been identified, culture conflict may be highly relevant to the genesis of crime, delinquency and social deviance. As the flow of Jewish immigration to Israel has been continuous from the end of the last century to this present day, culture conflict may be studied in its external affect on crime and deviance, i.e., the clashes between norms both legal and non-legal of the country of origin, of the immigrants and the prevailing laws and social norms in Israel. The focus of culture conflict as a process of generating primary deviance and crime, may be linked to the second generation native born of immigrant parentage or those who came very young to the country. By their wish to discard, so to speak, the norms of their parents and to become "Israelized" as quickly as possible, a certain area of "low normative pressure" is created with a resultant inflow of street culture which has some ingrained patterns of criminogenic and deviant behaviour. These processes are deemed to stabilize with the third generation, native born of immigrant parentage, but the experience in Israel seems to be different. This brings us to the second major topic for the study of crime and deviance on the social level, which are the

effects of value disintegration or anomie on the rate and nature of criminal and deviant behaviour. As we are witnessing in Israel a rather marked process of value disintegration as well as some retreat from the idealistic pioneering and utopic goals of the Zionist founding fathers, the overall effect on normative disintegration might be discernable and investigated. It is indeed quite likely that the anomic disintegration of some value systems within the Israeli normative structure could be linked to the fact that the third generation local born of immigrant parentage still experience the effect of culture conflict which prevents the stabilization of the crime and deviance curve. This relates not only to such disenchanting effects on the Jewish American immigrants who do not seem to find the idealistic fervour they expected to find in Israel, or the Russian immigrant to whom Israeli Jews are not Jewish enough. But also to the anomic processes which hamper the efficacy of social and legal institutions.

If, for instance, anomic trends set into the court system and police force, and as a result they become less efficient in providing legal redress or protection against crime and violence, the alternative illegal structures of organized crime and protection rackets might gain more and more power because they could be more efficient in extorting for a consideration a debt from a reluctant debtor and organized crime would flourish in direct proportion to the inability of the police force to detect more crimes and secure more arrests. Indeed, these anomic trends are also quite discernible in the Israeli kibbutz system, which has been one of the very few successful ventures of human communal life. Some studies have been conducted to measure indices of social change within the kibbutz and some processes of personal anomie among kibbutz members as conceptualized by Merton, Seeman and others.

This brings us to another potent anomic pressure which is the constant wars and political tension that Israel encounters with its neighbours. It is indeed true that external pressures may serve as a eunomic and cohesive influence on a society, yet after a point these extreme pressures are believed to initiate anomic defects. Investigations are therefore being carried out concerning the overall effect of the constant wars in Israel on the rate of crime and deviance.

Finally, the Israeli Arab population which numbers over a quarter of a million people, is facing both culture conflict and anomic pressures. These are related to the exposure and contact with Jewish culture and to the process of rapid modernization which involves secularization, disorganization of traditional social structures and changing norms. Some studies have been undertaken to measure the rate of criminality and deviance of rural and urban Arabs in Israel as related both to culture conflict and to anomie.

The second level of analysis relates to the deepening of crime and deviance, i.e., the process of recidivism and the hardening of the profile of the criminal.

We are indeed witnessing a deepening of crime in Israel with a qualitative change in the phenomena of crime as far as the profile of the individual criminal is concerned. The profile of the Israeli habitual and professional criminal has become more harsh and more severe; he is also becoming more sophisticated in his *modus operandi* and we are witnessing more violence in his behaviour. The hypotheses which may be relevant here are also related to the efficacy of the various treatment institutions and services. If indeed treatment is failing in Israel, as everywhere else, to rehabilitate the criminal and offender, a proper topic for research could be, how and when do we revert to deterrence. And would it be more efficient than treatment in many cases; or what sanctions would have a larger or smaller preventive effect? We are conducting at this stage an investigation into the whole treatment structure of prisons, institutions, probation and parole services in order to evaluate what is meant by treatment and whether the personnel and clients of the services think that treatment works or it does not, and if it does not what should be done about it.

The whole process of stigma comes under this heading and here again the heterogeneity of culture makes for a vast system of labelling and counter labelling. The derogatory labels and the stigma which is attached to the deviant and criminal is supposed to augment the positive feedback cycle, which further separates the first offender from the legitimate society and sends him to be involved deeper with the criminal and deviant group. The effect of stigma on the genesis of primary deviance and crime is also investigated especially in conjunction with some immigrant and ethnic groups which are more vulnerable to derogatory tagging and labelling than others.

Finally a whole area of fruitful research is being initiated in the rather neglected area of the explanation of crime and deviance on the personality level. This level of analysis has perennially been the realm of the psychiatrists who regarded crime and deviance as disease entities, or mental aberrations. Once we define deviance on the personality level as a dynamic of human behaviour which relates to the interaction between an individual and the norms of society we can also investigate how these processes manifest themselves within the personality structure. These, of course, should be related to accepted methods of investigation by psychologists, clinicians, personality theorists and anthropologists. Then such methods as depth interviews, case studies, as well as laboratory observations or participant observations could be utilized to glean some insight into some personality core characteristics and peripheral personality traits as related to, for instance, suicide and homosexuality. If the symbolic interactionists are right in regarding mental aberrations and even schizophrenia as a breakdown in human communication, a comparison in depth between mental illness, delinquency and crime becomes a prime target of study on the personality level.

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DOCTORAL-LEVEL EDUCATION IN CRIMINAL JUSTICE AND CRIMINOLOGY IN JAPAN

by

Ryuichi Hirano*

To put it bluntly, Japanese graduate school education in the field of criminal justice and criminology at the doctoral level is poor. In my brief presentation here, I will try to explain: What is the present situation in Japan? What are the reasons for the present state? What are the demerits of present day education in this area in Japan?

However, before going into the problems at the doctor level, I would like to give a brief description of the education in criminology, including criminal justice, on two other levels, i.e., undergraduate education and training provided by government institutes. At the graduate level I will also touch briefly on the work done in the Masters program.

First, let us turn to the undergraduate level. Basic university education in Japan is a four-year course leading to a bachelors degree. In the first part of this four-year program, that is, the freshman and half of the sophomore years, all students are enrolled in courses in general education. In the second part, that is, the latter part of the sophomore year and the junior and senior years, students receive their specialized education in fields such as: law and political science, sociology, psychology, etc. This specialized education is provided by the respective departments and sections within a department. Criminology has traditionally been a subject taught in the department of law and political science. Many law departments have set up chairs for criminology. Looking at the substance of most of the lectures, we may say that it is of a legal-sociological nature. The empirical research on criminals had been conducted almost exclusively by psychiatrists, though no medical school has offered courses on psychiatric criminology.

After the war, with the introduction of juvenile courts, a new probation system, classification centers, etc., many psychologists began working in the correctional field. But here again, classes dealing with criminology are almost non-existent in the psychology departments and sections of universities throughout Japan. The situation is not any better in the field of sociology, perhaps it is even worse. Here again, we find very few sociology departments which offer classes in criminology. What is even more deplorable is the fact that there is only a handful of professors of sociology who have done any substantial research in the field of criminology.

Before finally turning to a description and assessment of criminology education at the graduate school level, let us have a brief look at some of the governmental institutes involved in this field. Here we find, contrary to the situation at the undergraduate level, a fairly well developed pre- or in-service training. Law students, who have passed a highly competitive examination, are training in the

Training Institute of the Supreme Court for two years, before they become eligible to work as assistant judges, prosecutors or practicing lawyers. Also almost all court probation officers are trained, after serving several years as probation officers, for a year in the Training Institute of the Supreme Court. In addition to the Supreme Court, the Ministry of Justice established an institute, i.e., the Training Institute for Prison Officers and the National Police Agency established the Police School. Especially in the Training Institute of the Supreme Court, well organized classes in criminology and other related disciplines are provided for. It might be interesting to point out at this stage that most of the research done in criminology is conducted by psychologists and sociologists working as probation or prison officers, or by members of the Research Institute of the Ministry of Justice and the National Police Agency.

Now, coming to the education in the field of criminology at the doctoral or post graduate level, we find a situation somewhat between the two aforementioned. Basically the graduate school in Japan is a five-year course. The first two years are the masters course. Students who have received a masters degree are permitted to go on to the doctoral program. Theoretically, the doctoral degree may be obtained after three years, but the fact is that they usually receive their doctoral degrees five to ten years after they entered the doctoral program. Most doctors are expected to become university professors. As to the level of the education in criminology at this level, as pointed out at the beginning of this presentation, there is only one word to describe it properly, that is, poor. There is not even one school of criminology or institute attached to any of the many Japanese universities. Doctoral candidates planning to specialize in criminology would encounter great difficulties getting a job at the university. The reasons are obvious, that is, the number of university jobs as professors of criminology is more than scarce.

There are few sociologists or psychologists who have received a doctoral degree by writing a thesis on criminology. Only a few law students have written doctoral dissertations on problems related to the administration of criminal justice, such as, for example, prosecutorial discretion and delays in courts, etc.

Perhaps the masters program which has as its object not only scholarly but also practical knowledge would be the proper place to give criminological education to those who would like to work in the correctional field. But the fact is that the initiative has been taken away by the type of in-service or on-the-job training mentioned earlier.

What then are the drawbacks of the present system?

As it can easily be imagined, and in fact actually be seen, the knowledge of correctional officers is inclined to be too clinical and practice-oriented. They often lack the desired broader, especially sociological and theoretical background which should be a 'must' for work in this field. Perhaps by its nature, the in-service training is oriented mainly to solving the problems the trainees face in their day-to-day work. Their knowledge is not sufficiently critical, either, as they are educated to follow the established lines of treating criminals.

The present system is also detrimental to the development of criminology itself, because they are the main-stay of criminological research. Here we find the main reason why sociological criminology is undeveloped in Japan. Especially in a country like Japan, which has much to learn from the criminology in foreign countries, there is a need for a place where this knowledge from abroad can be digested and adapted to the situation in the home country. I believe that this role should be played by the university. But unfortunately, as things stand today, such a place is missing. As a result, criminological knowledge is not sufficiently integrated in Japan and subsequently has not been able to become an influential power promoting the reform of criminal justice in Japan.

Despite this rather sad state of affairs of criminology in Japan, it should be noted that there is, at least for the time being, no strong demand to develop and strengthen the education in criminology at the post-graduate level. One of the reasons may be that, with the actual decrease in the crime rate in Japan, which we can observe at present, the interest in crime prevention among the people is also slackening. Crime is not considered to be a great social problem. Another reason perhaps can be found in a distrust in criminology, especially in "theories" of criminology. Finally, there is an ideological problem. In a country where the government used to be more or less authoritarian, independence of the university from the government is emphasized. The university is considered to be a center of criticism aimed at the government. On the other hand, criminology is deemed in some quarters to be a science meant for governmental use.

If the university became the center of education and research in the field of criminology, it is feared by the authorities that education and training in this field might turn out to be too theoretical and critical, something which would not be considered useful and desirable for students in this area, since most of them by the very nature of the field, do become government officials.

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CRIMINOLOGY, JUSTICE AND SOCIETY. THE ROLE OF SCIENCE IN SOCIAL POLICY: A CANADIAN EXAMPLE

by

Denis Szabo*

THE CHALLENGE OF CRIME, OLD AND NEW

The increase in anti-social activities, either in the form of classical crime (robbery with or without violence, fraud, homicide, etc.) or in its new form (drugs, running away from home, violent contestations of the legitimacy of public order, etc.), strikes contemporary societies without discrimination. The choice victims, however, seem to be, without any possible doubt, the parliamentary democracies.

ACADEMIC CRIMINOLOGY AND APPLIED CRIMINOLOGY

For a long time jurists and specialists in the behavioural sciences have looked for the causes of crime and their remedies by studying and working on the individual and social causes of delinquency. What may be called "classical" criminology (from the end of the XIXth century to today's authors whose work reached maturity around the middle of this century) was characterized by its efforts to develop the psycho-genetic or socio-genetic theories of delinquent behaviour. As a remedy, "clinical" or "correctional" criminology (an etymological difference between the continental-European and the Anglo-American usage of the terms) strove to reform the application of punishment, particularly within the penal institution. In fact, prison remained the place above all others to which delinquents of all categories were relegated. We can characterize teaching and criminological research of this initial hundred years (1860-1960) as being oriented towards the study of the etiology of delinquent behaviour and the reform of the penal institution as well as aiming towards the training, on a complementary basis, of specialists working mainly in the penal field; complementary training in point of fact, since the principal discipline was either law, medicine, or more recently psychology and the social sciences.

During the second half of our century, chiefly in searching for the cause and remedies for the new forms of delinquency, some criminologists have put more and more emphasis on the imperfection and malfunction of the system of the administration of justice. The latter represents all the institutions created by law and tradition to ensure the maintenance of order, the equitable solution of conflicts among people, the protection of rights and the carrying out of responsibilities. It deals essentially with organizations such as the police, courts, penitentiaries, community services for the prevention of delinquency, etc. It is increasingly apparent that the imperfections and the dysfunctional character of the components of the administration of justice constitute a major cause for the menace that crime imposes on the life and the socio-economic

and political institutions of contemporary liberal democracies.

This diagnosis gave birth to a new concept of research and of criminological training: to clinical criminology and to correctional "reform" was added the study of the functions of the instruments of justice, their evaluation (including that of their economic dimensions by using "cost/benefit" analysis), and research on the attitudes and opinions of the ordinary man relevant to present laws. In fact, laws express the customs of a community undergoing swift and considerable changes due to successive technological revolutions: are we still protecting values dear to the majority of citizens? Do we repress behaviour which, under the influence of new conditions, has become prejudicial to collective interests? Many questions, seemingly of capital importance, present themselves in the search for the legitimacy of the actions of public authorities vigorously disputed by certain minorities whose number is on the increase in our contemporary societies.

CRIMINOLOGY AND SOCIAL DEFENSE

The sociology of law has been traditionally interested in these problems, and the contemporary movement of social defense has directed these preoccupations of academic research towards more precise objectives of social and constitutional policy. Thus, a certain amalgamation is taking place among these various traditions born at the cross-roads of medico-psycho-social sciences (classical criminology), on the one hand, and of penal law, political and administrative sciences and legal sociology (social defense movement), on the other hand. This amalgamation of interests makes of the criminology of the last third of the XXth century a political and social science whose objectives of applied research aim not only towards discovering new and efficient methods of treatment for adult and juvenile criminals, but also towards drawing up an instrument for planning and adjusting the whole apparatus of social protection to the changing needs of a society in rapid evolution.

This awareness which took place simultaneously in various intellectual circles in the world, was emphasized at the XVIIth International Course in Criminology which was held in Montreal under the auspices of the International Society of Criminology. The Proceedings entitled "Criminology in Action" bear witness to the coming together of opinions from both sides of the Atlantic. Thus we witness the consolidation of the concerns of traditional scientific criminology with those of social defense movements. Criminology becomes an applied science called upon to contribute to a social

policy aimed at a more rational modernization and management of the administration of justice.

This is a three-dimensional discipline: the criminal and his rehabilitation (psychological and clinical criminology); crime conducive societies and policies of social defense (sociological criminology and policies of economic and social improvement); the system of criminal justice and its rational administration (operational research, and administration and planning of justice).

It was originally in this context that the Master's (1960), the Doctoral (1964) and the Bachelor's (1967) programmes in criminology were created at the University of Montreal, whose Department (changed to the status of School of Criminology in 1972) teaches these courses.

CRIMINOLOGY AT THE UNIVERSITY OF MONTREAL

Because the teaching of criminology at the University of Montreal started in this intellectual climate, it might be interesting to outline, briefly, the strategy followed in the implementation, academic as well as social, of this new discipline.

We will examine in succession the two fields in which this activity was developed: first in teaching and research, and then in relation to the government and the public.

I. Teaching and Research

1. Teaching

As soon as the new discipline is introduced in the usually conservative milieu of higher teaching, objections are raised on all sides. These objections range from disputing the existence of the discipline itself (define the object, the methods and techniques peculiar to your "science") to questioning the use of the establishment of such a programme at the University. Should the orientation be too theoretical, this programme would be incorporated within the fundamental human sciences which were always concerned with the study of deviant behaviour, whether abnormal or "criminal". Bearing witness to this are the courses in psychology of delinquency, criminal sociology, juvenile delinquency and the sociology of deviant behaviour, etc. offered by the departments of psychology, of sociology and sometimes of psychiatry or political science. If it is the practical aspect which is emphasized, the link is immediately established, either with the schools of social service or of "psycho-éducateurs" which have special courses for training probation officers, and educators of institutionalized juvenile delinquents. The Law Faculty often has resources not to be overlooked for adding courses to its programme on penal law.

Nor must we underestimate the objections inspired by certain options regarding the priorities to be accorded to the solution of social problems. In the opinion of many people, justice comes after education, health and welfare, to mention but very broad sectors. For what university can presume to have done enough in each of its disciplines to become interested in a new and apparently less important one?

We have, in fact, to reply to four series of questions: does criminology as an autonomous

discipline exist and can it become the subject of a specific programme? Should the answer be in the affirmative, would the criminologist thus trained have his own niche on the labour market? Is criminological research different from other research on crime and delinquency, on legal institutions etc., undertaken by existing faculties and departments? Would public opinion, the supreme judge in establishing priorities in social policy, accept reforms or changes in the administration of justice?

The answer to these objections voiced by the usual organs of university institutions (faculty boards' special study committees, planning commissions, etc.) was prompted by a series of considerations whose pros and cons are briefly outlined here.

Criminology is an applied discipline drawing on various basic sciences with the object of seeking the causes for criminal behaviour in order to arrive at more efficient means of curbing it. Thus, professors of "criminology" will be people trained in medicine, law or the social sciences who have specialized in the study of various types of criminality, though always from the viewpoint of how to apply it within the context of the administration of justice. Students of criminology will be students who graduated in other disciplines and who wish to specialize for their Master's; they may also be practitioners with a university background wishing to improve their knowledge. These practitioners come from police forces, penal and legal institutions etc.

In short, criminology is multi-disciplinary, like medicine, urbanism or industrial relations; it is applied in the field of treatment of criminals and of crime prevention, which has come to be called "the field of social defense", in the same way as medicine is applied to preserve and improve personal and public health, urbanism to the planning of cities and metropolitan regions, and industrial relations to better labour conditions.

The original students came from various backgrounds, with practitioners making up a good potential for leadership in a sector which, in fact, is very much lacking in this element. This very theoretically oriented two-year programme dealt with groups of 30 to 50 students. Dealing with small classes, the professors were able to elaborate on unpublished teaching texts and to delve into quasi-unknown sectors of applied criminology.

2. Research

Soon it was apparent that the arrangement of a doctoral programme founded on more thorough research was indispensable if we wanted to prepare our own human resources for higher learning and demonstrate the role of applied human sciences in a more efficient social defense formula. This programme was put into effect in 1964 and efforts were made to prepare research projects in order to ensure the funds necessary to full-time studies by candidates in the doctoral programme. The Ministries of Social Affairs, Health and Justice, as well as the Canada Council were funding research in the field of social sciences; some large private organizations, like the breweries, also gave funds for research projects. These agreed to subsidize our programme and the Ford Foundation gave us a grant to make up for the insufficient number of bursaries destined for candidates to the doctoral programme.

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All in all, from 1960 to 1971, more than \$1,600,000.00 were spent within the framework of our research projects associated with the expansion of our doctoral programme.

These projects have contributed greatly to the creation of the image of the criminologist: it is that of a researcher concerned with solving social problems which are becoming increasingly more acute. He can therefore be looked upon with consideration by the academic community (research) as well as by those interested in the fact of the social relevance of the university in the modern world (application).

3. Over-Specialization and Specialization

It seems, however, that criminological over-specialization was a partial and insufficient answer to the theoretical analysis of the need in the field of social defense for specialized professional workers. In fact, as these research studies have shown by helping to clarify the need for action and assistance, we had to turn to the university for specialists to accomplish the tasks thus defined. For example, the professionalization of the police requires recruiting agents at a higher level of proficiency, and the openings for positions in corrections, probation and parole, etc., are multiplying. The question is: who is to ensure the training of people at these new intermediate and professional levels? Law faculties, schools of social service, departments of psychology and sociology train practitioners and research workers for careers relatively well-specified for a market far from being saturated. Thus, in 1967, the department of criminology started its three-year baccalaureate programme for the professional training of students specializing in the field of crime prevention and the treatment of criminals. New sectors, mostly in the field of prevention, opened up; criminology in the schools, whose objective is youth who are in conflict with the school authorities or with the juvenile law; guidance counsellors in clubs for leisure-time activities where marginal characters, deviants, drug addicts, etc., gather. The applied orientation of training and research in the department was ratified when it obtained the status of School, thus becoming the "School of Criminology" in February 1972.

4. Professors and Students

At present nearly three hundred students attend courses scaled over six years of studies, including graduate and post-graduate programmes. Seventeen full-time and twelve part-time professors ensure the teaching load. Internships are much encouraged in the third year and a close collaboration is maintained with institutions and organizations of social defense.

II. Relations with the government and the public

1. Manpower Needs

The first problem that comes to mind concerning relations with the government is that of the labour market; the same is true when it comes to the reaction of the public: is the "criminologist" listed as a professional by the civil service commission? Was any need expressed by senior officials responsible for the administration of justice for any number or type of "criminologists"? If expressed,

would these needs be classified as priorities by the planning office, the Treasury Board or other qualified government organizations?

This is obviously a major obstacle for those who want to develop criminology as a profession or as an applied science. In fact, criminology is the product of prospective thinking, that is, an option concerning the probability of a certain type of evolution, of change in a specific sector of public administration; an evolution made possible by some favourable change in public thinking. This option, of course, is not shared by all and there are very legitimate doubts as to the future evolution of these needs. The same observation holds true when it comes to the "desirability" of this evolution and the trend of public thinking gravitating in such a direction, should the occasion arise.

It was by not under-estimating these difficulties that we conceived the strategy of contacts and actions to undertake. This strategy aimed at two objectives. The first was to give civil servants or professional workers, already at work, concrete and practical tools to improve their work. We are essentially concerned with personnel in treatment and in the administration of penitentiaries, in probation services, on parole boards and police forces, and with educators of maladjusted youths. The second objective was to widen the gap thus created by pointing out the necessity of raising the requirements for professional training of personnel in other categories. The creation of new types of specialists made necessary by the growth of new forms of delinquency, was brought up later on.

Government services ended by assisting in these endeavors, having recognized the advantages to be reaped in the race towards the effectiveness and the "professionalization" which characterizes services in post-industrialized societies. In fact, the "sciences" sector requires tremendous improvement; the higher level of the schooling of the population should benefit all services, including those which were previously at a disadvantage, as was the case with the administration of justice. To facilitate matters, bursaries were arranged for students preparing for careers in criminology, and fieldwork was organized with the active assistance of public services.

And this is where public opinion plays its role. For without an evolution of thought favourable to reforms in the field of justice, politicians — fearful and conservative by definition — would hesitate to approve such action on the part of the administration. Not only was it necessary to generate a change of ideas and of moral values in communities particularly conservative in English Canada as well as in French Canada (even more so in the latter's case), but one had to try to have some reward for reform, that is, to make it possible for a politician to reap some credit, should he declare himself in favour of reform.

2. Societies of Criminology

These trends in thinking came into being thanks to semi-scientific, semi-socially oriented societies called "Societies of Criminology", which brought together judges, lawyers, doctors, police and penitentiary administrators as well as personnel from these services, and citizens concerned with social

problems. All controversies which had aroused public opinion: organized crime, prostitution, armed robbery, architecture of penitentiaries, etc. were discussed publicly and in depth by these societies. An attitude of tolerance, comprehension, indeed of mutual respect, was generated among the various professions, factions, and groups of thought, as regards some basic themes which were on everyone's mind: making the penal system more humane, protecting society more effectively without infringing on the civic rights of individuals and, essentially, recognizing the fact that legal, police, penitentiary and preventive functions are inter-dependent and complementary.

A new, duly incorporated, professional association has grouped together all the graduates in criminology. Established to protect the common interests of its members, this association plays a role, by no means small, in the acceptance of criminology on the labour market.

3. Government Commissions of Enquiry

Thanks to power-play politics in a parliamentary democracy, some political parties came to include reforms in the field of social defense in their platforms; this resulted, among other things, in the creation of a Commission of Enquiry into the Administration of Criminal Justice in Quebec, on the provincial level, and in a Canadian Committee on Corrections in Ottawa, on the federal.

Professors of criminology acted as researchers and as scientific consultants in the two organizations entrusted with the preparation of a series of reforms for the entire system under their respective jurisdictions. The chairmen of these commissions and committee played a very important part in defining blueprints for reforms. These proposed reforms triggered productive public discussions which greatly contributed to the evolution of principles favorable to change. The conclusions and recommendations of these commissions of enquiry

comprise a complete programme of reforms for use by the government in the coming decades. They insist upon major contributions from universities, i.e., the field of training and research.

CONCLUSIONS

What conclusions are we to draw from this Canadian venture carried out in Montreal? Can this knowledge be extrapolated or exchanged? What does it owe to exceptional circumstances, to chance, to the action of people and groups peculiar to the milieu?

It is obvious that the unique historical experience is always the result of special men or groups encountering a specific situation. From their confrontation, from their action, emerges a reality which becomes part of the history of a country or an institution. The experience I have analyzed, obviously falls into this category.

However, the same challenges could produce identical reactions; and the same social forces could cause similar phenomena. The error, by some sociological determinism, was to think that these ties were necessary; even if they are only probable, this is sufficient to set up a "science" called "historical forecasting".

With regard to the rest of Canada, the University of Ottawa and some universities in Toronto and Alberta have already followed our example.

We would like to submit the Canadian experience for testing by comparative methods: The International Centre for Comparative Criminology, in collaboration with the International Society for Criminology, has the task of promoting similar ventures all over the world, after adapting them to the special requirements of specific socio-cultural contexts. This ongoing experiment has been in progress for two years. Eight years from now, the time will come to make the first assessment.

MID-POINT SUMMARY OF THE CONFERENCE

by

M. El Augi*

Criminal Justice Administration is an integrated system; integration of the various disciplines into one system aiming at the prevention of crime and the treatment of the offender. However, the crime approach is a multidisciplinary one. Behavior is the outcome of a dynamic process where the biological, psychological and social factors interact. It is the reflection of the human personality.

To be sanctioned by the State, deviant behavior needs incrimination and penalization. Law is the qualifier. Courts are the agency which apply it. Corrections is the institution which carries out the sentence. Readaptation and reintegration are the humane and social processes following. One can imagine what an integrated system means when we give this adjective to criminal justice. Criminal justice is the system whose goal is to cope with the crime problem in society.

However, it seems that criminal justice has not been so considered, neither from within the system nor from the outside of it. It seems that agencies, which have immediate responsibility, have been operating quite separately, each one performing its specific role, sometimes, let us put it bluntly, obstructing the other agencies' aims and goals. As an example, no later than yesterday a conflict between the courts (justice) and the police in Washington was evidenced. Following a police operation against thieves and traders of stolen goods, with the police department putting its whole might in a wide operation of search and arrest, it seems, from the TV reports, that some of the suspects were easily freed by the judge. This aroused police anger. This is not only a Washington case or a U.S. case, but it exemplifies a worldwide situation of criminal justice agencies in open or disguised conflict.

Therefore, how does one elicit collaboration within the system which is supposed to be an integrated body operating towards the achievement of the same goal? Is the professional and academic education in the field of criminal justice administration and criminal behavior contributing to this integration? Among the diversity of the academic disciplines, do we find a common ground which unites more than it separates?

Let me borrow from medical terminology some of its etymology which will help me in the analysis of the education system in criminal justice and criminology: morphology and physiology.

MORPHOLOGY OF THE SYSTEM

Diversity seems to be the common feature of education in criminal justice — wherever it exists as a distinct entity — and in criminology.

The roots of this diversity are as numerous as the geographical, cultural and social components of

each country. University traditions and structures play a dominant role. However, two main features which characterize the education system are evident:

1. An unstructured approach to the criminal studies.
2. A structured approach.

1. The Unstructured Approach

The prevailing image is that criminology and criminal justice courses are somewhat spread over several academic branches. Generally they comprise only one of the subject matters assigned to students. They are found, for example, in academic departments (Sociology and Psychology), professional schools (law, medicine and social work), police academies, and so on. In such disciplines the student interested in majoring in criminology and criminal justice is practically compelled to take other courses to complete his course of study, and, despite his deep involvement in criminology as a major concern, he will not hold a diploma relating to this concern. He will be recognized, e.g., as an M.A. graduate in Sociology, Psychology, Social Science or Law. Even at the doctoral level, apart from his research work which reflects his major interest, his diploma rarely mentions his criminological studies.

The rationale — if any — or the justification for such scattering of the criminal justice and criminology subject matter over these different academic branches is multiple: traditional teaching, close relationship between the topics of interest to the disciplines and criminal behavior, the criminal justice organization itself, the introduction of criminology as a modern and new approach to an older problem. But one justification, whether made explicit or remaining implicit because of a continuous search for identity, is not to be neglected: studies at the universities are not a mere intellectual exercise, they are a means toward the fulfillment of professional requirements leading to employment in the labor market. Therefore one must wonder and ask others: Does criminology or does criminal justice administration exist as a profession having specific means of action?

Whenever this question has been answered positively — positively does not necessarily mean realistically — structured studies have been or are being implemented in the academic field. However, many would justify the current scattered state of criminology and criminal justice teaching over different areas by stating the criminology or criminal justice administration is not a profession. This would pose a not less important question: Why doctoral level education in criminology and criminal justice since no profession requires such a diploma?

Another morphological aspect is that research, in many fields, is taking the first step — as a pioneer — toward implementing specific studies in criminology and criminal justice administration: Research aiming not only at satisfying human curiosity and need for knowledge but also — and perhaps mainly — to get policy-makers, politicians, scholars, persons holding key positions in government and the judiciary, aware of the new impetus they have to give to the institutions they are administering. Unfortunately, not infrequently, the questioning of such institutions has merely led to the dissolution of the academic agencies who dared to engage in such a critical enterprise. Such a negative attitude is the price paid for the lack of an integrated approach to crime and criminal justice at the academic and professional levels.

2. The Structured Approach

On the other hand, in some countries, whether following a Cartesian line or the old classical tradition to put everything and everyone where it logically has to be, or feeling the need for integration of criminological studies and criminal justice administration, have proceeded to build up a structured educational system in criminal justice and criminology.

This approach materialized in some countries by the restructuring of an already structured higher education system in the field of criminal law, emphasizing the study in criminal behavior and criminal justice. This initiative took place in some countries within the classical framework of the Faculty of Law or the Faculty of Social Sciences. In other countries, it gave birth to specialized institutions, schools and academies: Institutes of Criminology, Schools of Medico-Criminological Studies, Institutes of Judicial Studies, Academies of Police, and the like. In those institutions different levels of education are sponsored, scaled from mere certificates of attendance to higher degrees in the field of specialization.

The main issue still remains as to what are the best ways and means of bringing scientific

knowledge and research findings to the people who are primarily and essentially involved in criminal justice administration. Is the institutes' action and output going to influence the current state or the future development of our society? How deep and effective is the impact of the studies sponsored at these institutes on our daily life?

This question leads me to the second aspect of my summary, the physiology of the system.

PHYSIOLOGY OF THE SYSTEM

Physiology, as I understand it, is concerned with the functioning of the system: internally and externally.

As to the internal function, it seems to me that this aspect of the question should be left aside because it raises issues of a local and particular aspect, not to be approached in the framework of my presentation: budgetary arrangements, financing, staffing.

As to the external function of the system, certain issues remain to be debated based on the remarks made by the distinguished participants, particularly:

1. To what extent is the actual educational system in criminal justice influencing both the current problems of crime, criminal behavior and criminal justice?
2. What is the impact of integrated studies of criminal justice and criminology on the academic and practical field?
3. How do you bring together academics, researchers, policymakers and practitioners?
4. Higher education in criminal justice, for what? Is higher education in criminal justice and criminology a system within a non-system? Should it be an interdisciplinary system or an autonomous one?
5. Should it be within the University or outside of it?

*Justice, Supreme Court; Professor, Lebanese University, Palace of Justice, Beirut, Lebanon.

SUMMARIES OF PRESENTATIONS BY UNITED STATES' PARTICIPANTS

DR. DONALD H. RIDDLE, CHANCELLOR The University of Illinois at Chicago Chicago, Illinois

Dr. Riddle is the newly appointed Chancellor at the University of Illinois at Chicago after having spent many years as the President of John Jay College of Criminal Justice. His remarks reflect his experience in criminal justice education and observations during this Conference, rather than being a description of a specific program.

Dr. Riddle stated that he is encouraged by finding that there are more similarities than differences among the various nations represented at the Conference. Many of the differences are reflections of the historical origins of the programs, such as the emphasis on forensic medicine in Italy and the traditional reliance in the United States on universities for all kinds of formal instruction. The similarities, however, are significant. The roots of criminology are reflected in the international common body of knowledge and the similarity of issues facing the representative nations, e.g., what constitutes the proper emphasis on research, or whether a program should be located within or without the academic mainstream.

The major difference which surfaced during the discussion lies in the structure of graduate work in the United States and most of the other countries represented. The graduate programs in the United States are more formally structured, more closely tied to coursework, while most of the other countries have more individualized graduate education. This, Dr. Riddle surmised, is a part of the tradition of reading for a degree which is common in much of Europe.

Whether the university should be academically or professionally oriented and the role of the government vis-à-vis the university are puzzling issues, Dr. Riddle felt. The premises on which the discussion was based during the Conference are no longer relevant, in his opinion, since universities sacrificed their virtue the first time they accepted government money; since then the haggling, to use George Bernard Shaw's phrase, has been over the price. Independence is essential to the university and is in the interest of society; government funding does not necessarily destroy that independence, as the British system of ladling out funds to private universities has shown. There is no incursion on the independence of the university, regardless of whether the initiative for undertaking a certain program comes from the government, groups in society, or the university itself—provided the programs do not distort the basic educational function of the institution and provided that the content is not dictated from outside the university.

There are a number of serious deficiencies, however, in the curricula of the various programs presented. The most serious is the lack of a systemic approach to criminal justice study and education. Rather than viewing the system holistically, the impression is of a disjointed approach with a series of institutions transferring people from one institution to another. A second failing is the almost total absence of comparative work. This is particularly

striking and notable, given the existence of the International Society of Criminology and the great deal of exchange among its representatives.

Three other areas lack full exploration in the curricula presented. First, there is little attention given to social control other than the criminal law, which is only one of the forms of such control. Second, there is an over-emphasis on criminal activity as individual deviance and an accompanying under-emphasis on criminal activity as a social behavior. Third, little attention is given to the historical development of criminal justice institutions and to society's response to criminal behavior.

Dr. Riddle was most discouraged, however, by the fallen hope that a representative of one of the foreign countries would have seen the problems confronting the United States and might have solved them. Since this was not the case, Dr. Riddle urged that all the participants face the problems together in the hopes of working toward joint solutions.

DR. EUGENE H. CZAJKOSKI, DEAN School of Criminology Florida State University Tallahassee, Florida

Established as a distinct entity in 1955, within the School of Social Welfare, the Criminology program at Florida State boasts twenty-one years of continuous operation. Because of the affiliation with the School of Social Welfare, the program, which was initially known as the Department of Criminology and Corrections, was mainly concerned with offender treatment.

Dean Czajkoski pointed out, however, that there were three difficulties inherent in this association. First, while the program met with immediate student popularity and demand, the productivity formulae used by the University allocated resources generated by the Department of Criminology and Corrections to the School of Social Welfare, rather than to the Department itself. Second, this affiliation presented difficulties in gaining academic respectability with the arts and sciences component of the University. Third, the uniqueness of the program created difficulties in making curriculum adaptations which were outside the understanding of the social work faculty.

In 1971, due to relentless student demand, the Department became a School of Criminology separate from the School of Social Welfare. This move elevated Dr. Czajkoski to the status of Dean, gave the Criminology program a stronger voice in the faculty councils, and allowed the program to obtain more of the resources it generated.

Dean Czajkoski stated that the School of Criminology has developed into a fairly complex operation. In addition to the 1000 undergraduate majors, there are 75 Master's candidates in five different types of degree programs, including a Master's in Criminal Justice System Planning primarily designed to provide in-service training for criminal justice systems planners. The program also has 25 Ph.D. candidates. In 1975, the School of Criminology granted 334 Bachelor's degrees, 38 Master's degrees, and 4 doctoral degrees.

During the first eight of the thirteen years of the doctoral program in Criminology, the degree was offered cooperatively with the Department of Sociology. In 1971, coinciding with the assumption of school status, the joint degree in Sociology and Criminology was replaced by a Ph.D. exclusively in Criminology.

According to Dr. Czajkoski, the Ph.D. program at the School of Criminology of Florida State University is rather traditional by American standards. The student must have completed a thesis-type Master's degree before embarking on the doctoral program. There is a coursework requirement, a comprehensive examination, and a dissertation defense.

The multidisciplinary faculty, composed of sociologists, lawyers, psychologists, economists and political scientists, present a program with a constantly changing content. The program has emphasized the offender based approaches, the sociolegal phase, conflict perspective, critical criminology, and the new criminology, and appears to be moving toward classical notions again. Dean Czajkoski mentioned that he was unable to tell, however, if his School of Criminology was ahead of or behind the other programs discussed during the Conference. Current research is being adapted to the justice model, which evolved in a pattern of social change in a much larger arena than academic criminology. Thus, the School is now involved in deterrence research, incapacitation, crime prevention through environmental design, genetics, and even brain physics.

In conclusion, Dean Czajkoski stated that in academic research it is often too easy for scientists to disguise their ideological convictions, which is especially dangerous in criminology. In order to combat this, a means should be introduced to focus on humanist concerns and ethical analysis, an area which is too often neglected in the universities.

DR. DONALD NEWMAN, PROFESSOR School of Criminal Justice State University of New York at Albany Albany, New York

The School of Criminal Justice of the State University of New York at Albany was opened in 1968 as the first school of its kind in the State of New York. It is a graduate program only, awarding about thirty Master's degrees each year and seventeen doctoral degrees over the last eight years.

Dr. Newman noted that, prior to the admission of the first doctoral students in 1968, the faculty of the School of Criminal Justice spent a year in planning, in order to define the depth and breadth of the program. It was at this time that the faculty moved to resist pressures "to be all things to all people." The demands upon the small faculty were almost unbelievable. They were expected to train police and probation officers, increase salaries, conduct basic research, and, in short, improve mankind.

Structural decisions from the first planning year established the School of Criminal Justice as a school with a graduate program only because seventy-four other campuses in the State university system could initiate and produce baccalaureate degrees. It was initiated as a school for two reasons.

First of all, the faculty wanted to avoid the implications of detachment from the university mainstream, supported by grant money alone, which would have been the case had they elected to call themselves a center. Second, they wanted to avoid an intervening dean, as well as sharing the budget, the program, the glory, or the disgrace. This move assured the autonomy of the school.

There are no part-time faculty or joint appointments; the program is internally interdisciplinary, with only full-time students admitted after meeting the very high admission requirements of the School and the University. Dr. Newman noted that when the program began, the School of Criminal Justice shook the University's Central Administration by refusing to allow part-time students, the only component of the State university to do so. That position has softened somewhat, with no more than ten percent part-time students in any given year.

In order to attain a separate identity from criminology programs developed in sociology and psychology departments, the faculty elected to be called a School of Criminal Justice rather than a School of Criminology or of Criminal Justice and Criminology. This is a posture that has been maintained.

Dr. Newman remarked on the durability of the curriculum developed during the planning year, given the personalities of the high-powered faculty which Professor Richard Myren brought together. Although some changes in the curriculum have been made, the group has worked well together to continuously upgrade the program.

Two things surprise Dr. Newman about the students who come to the School of Criminal Justice. First of all, the students initially came from a wide variety of fields, such as history, English, chemistry, and biology. While there were a few from criminology, there were more who had never had a criminology or statistics course. This situation has been changing with the proliferation of community colleges and undergraduate institutions offering degrees in criminal justice. The second surprise is the large number of women entering the program, belying the image of criminal justice — courts, police, corrections — as a man's domain.

The State Universities of New York, especially the graduate faculty, have a three-pronged mission that has carried over into the School of Criminal Justice at Albany: teaching, research, and community service. While it was thought by many in the State that the School of Criminal Justice should be heavily involved in the community service function, this had to be carefully controlled given the size and complexity of the crime problem and the criminal justice system in New York. The attitude of the faculty at Albany was that there was potential for neglecting the first two components of the tripartite mission of the graduate faculty if they did not adopt at least informal policies in this regard. Therefore the School of Criminal Justice runs institutes and conferences during times when they are not in session, but only if there is a corresponding research component in which the students can get involved with data and perform some type of analysis. This emphasis on research, however, necessitates creating suitable research settings, including establishing relationships with the on-line criminal justice agencies or with the sources of data in the community. Yet the University must maintain its inde-

pendence in spite of these relationships. Dr. Newman stated that this was difficult, and that it would continue to be a difficult task for all in the field.

Dr. Newman also cautioned that, in studying issues in criminal justice, especially operational issues, a research program must realize that the world beyond the walls of the university is not necessarily a rational one. Criminal justice is made up of many issues and problems that have symbolic significance to which operational research is often irrelevant.

Lastly, Dr. Newman warned that programs of criminal justice higher education cannot be static. As shifts in ideological values occur on the outside, the program must remain dynamic and flow with the times, while maintaining academic integrity. This is a tough issue which must be confronted continuously in higher education, especially in the field of criminal justice.

DR. DON GOTTFREDSON, DEAN
School of Criminal Justice
Rutgers University
Newark, New Jersey

The School of Criminal Justice of Rutgers University was established in principle by the State Legislature of New Jersey in 1968 as an independent school within the University system. Dr. Gottfredson noted that this was within a year of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice and immediately following nationwide urban riots, which touched Newark. This series of events, according to Dean Gottfredson, undoubtedly prodded the legislature to establish the School.

Following the guidelines in the legislative act, the mission of the School is threefold: education of teachers, scholars, and policy makers in the field of criminal justice; basic and applied research; and public service. Dean Gottfredson stressed that these three goals are mutually supportive and interlocking essentials to the building of a high quality program. The School elected to have only a graduate program and to develop the educational component of the School's mission first, expanding the subject areas for study into five categories: the nature of delinquency and crime; research methods on criminal justice; the law and criminal justice; criminal justice system management; and program development. The interdisciplinary faculty of eight will begin their newly approved Ph.D. program with four candidates in the fall of this year.

In order to fulfill the public service mandate from the legislature, Dean Gottfredson and the School have been carrying out research in cooperation with various criminal justice agencies. Dean Gottfredson stressed collaborative research as an avenue toward both insuring the utility of the program for the graduate students and for providing the skills needed by the field.

DR. RICHARD MYREN, DIRECTOR
Center for the Administration of Justice
The American University
Washington, D.C.

Having only recently assumed his position as Director of the Center for the Administration of Jus-

tice at The American University, Dr. Myren limited his remarks to two areas: a brief discussion of the plan he hopes to implement at American University and his general views on criminal justice education.

Using his 25 years previous educational experience in large public universities, like SUNY at Albany, where he was Dean of the School of Criminal Justice, Dr. Myren outlined the program currently at American University, a small private institution, and gave his views for its expansion.

Currently American University has no doctoral program, although it does have an undergraduate program of 1100 students majoring in criminal justice and a Master's program with 230 students. About 1/3 of the students attend part-time, and the present faculty consists of nine full-time professors and 55 part-time professors.

As Dean of the program at Albany, Dr. Myren developed a very strong research-oriented doctoral program. While he recognizes that the planned doctoral program at American University may only be a tenth of the size of Albany, he feels that there is a great potential to be developed.

Dr. Myren stressed that, after 25 years of thinking about higher education in criminal justice, he has concluded that the traditional areas of police, courts, and corrections cannot be treated in isolation but must be viewed in a systems context. The view must be holistic. However, higher education has previously omitted two components of the criminal justice system, the legislative and planning agencies, both of which have a great impact on the operations of the criminal justice system. In conjunction with this systemic approach, the operations of the criminal justice system must also be viewed in relation to the social, political, and economic system, since these intersect.

Dr. Myren's second point dealt with the isolation of a separately structured, separately administered school of criminal justice from the University as a whole. He strongly emphasized that it would not be enough to have a multi-disciplinary program, but rather that criminal justice higher education must have an integrated and interdisciplinary orientation. Joint teaching, joint research, and joint publication with people from various disciplines combining talents can produce this integrated interdisciplinary focus. There is a danger, according to Dr. Myren, that criminal justice education could become parasitic, taking research by sociologists and/or psychologists who are using crime as a vehicle for their research, but not contributing anything to those disciplines. Professors in criminal justice must not be dead wood but must be in the forefront of integrated interdisciplinary research on social problems.

DR. MERLYN MOORE, PROFESSOR
Institute of Contemporary Corrections
and the Behavioral Sciences
Sam Houston State University
Huntsville, Texas

The Institute of Contemporary Corrections and the Behavioral Sciences, under the directorship of Dr. George Killinger, was developed in 1965 by the Texas State Legislature, and was designated as the primary program to offer educational preparation in criminal justice and criminology for the entire

State. As such, the Institute has a separate line in its budget from the legislature, as well as the traditional formula budgeting.

In addition, Dr. Moore stated that the Institute is largely self-contained and totally inter-disciplinary. It is one of the most reputable schools at Sam Houston with 29 full-time faculty from both law and the social and behavioral sciences, including sociology, psychology, and political science. Dr. Moore himself is distinctive as the only faculty member with a Ph.D. in criminal justice.

Nearly one-fourth of the undergraduates at Sam Houston are working toward their baccalaureate in one of three criminal justice areas of concentration: police science and administration, corrections and criminology, or social rehabilitation and social services. Four hundred students in the Master's program also concentrate their studies in one of the three previously mentioned areas.

There are currently 42 students in the Ph.D. program in which the student selects an emphasis in either theory, research, or administration. The theory area of concentration is designed to prepare the student for university teaching and rehabilitative work by exposing him or her to major sociological and psychological theories relating to the dynamics of human behavior. In addition, stress is placed on empirical testing. The research concentration prepares the student for university teaching as well as university research or research positions in criminal justice agencies, including planning and systems management. The administrative concentration acquaints the student with the fundamentals of public administration and administrative peculiarities of the criminal justice system.

Each candidate in the Ph.D. program is responsible for meeting the following requirements:

- 1) 90 semester hours beyond the baccalaureate, with at least 20 formal classroom hours beyond the Master's degree. This excludes all practicums, internships, and reading courses.
- 2) 30 hours of coursework as a full-time resident student with at least 24 of the hours consecutive.
- 3) An overall B average.
- 4) A courseload of between 12 and 15 hours during a regular semester term.
- 5) Either two semesters of supervised college teaching above the Master's or the completion of either supervised field administration or supervised research. (This includes teaching by 9 doctoral fellows.)
- 6) Demonstrated competence in research methodology.
- 7) Either reading proficiency in one foreign language or one computer language.
- 8) The passing of both written and oral comprehensives.
- 9) A dissertation.

DR. NORMAN ROSENBLATT, DEAN
College of Criminal Justice
Northeastern University
Boston, Massachusetts

Northeastern is a large urban university supported solely by donations from outside the institu-

tion and by student tuition. As one of the largest private universities in the United States, Northeastern needs students and the programs to attract students. It has succeeded in doing so, according to Dean Rosenblatt, as demonstrated by an enrollment of 35,000 to 40,000 students.

The College of Criminal Justice has significantly contributed to the growth of the University. Organized in 1967, the first class of 50 has swelled to an enrollment of 2000 full-time undergraduate majors at the present time. A distinctive feature of the Baccalaureate program in Criminal Justice at Northeastern is that all 2000 students are on work-study in a cooperative education system. Half of the student's upper division time at the University is spent working in a criminal justice agency, for which they are paid. In order to locate positions for these students, the College instituted a Job Development Department.

The College also offers a Master of Science Program in Criminal Justice, and is one of the first institutions to offer a Forensic Chemistry degree at the Baccalaureate, Master's, and Ph.D. levels. This latter degree program, established in 1974, was generated by cooperation between Northeastern's large Chemistry Department and the College of Criminal Justice. The Institute of Forensic Sciences was able to initiate its Master of Science program, which currently has 20 students, and its Ph.D. program, with 4 students, because of the Educational Development Consortium grant from the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration.

Dean Rosenblatt stated that the Forensic Chemistry program has completed meaningful research, with more research underway, and this research has caused the question of ethics, in particular, to be confronted on a daily basis. Since the Institute is often requested to pursue research in crowd control devices, explosives, and more effective bullets, for example, it was necessary to establish a procedure in which the ethical side of the proposed research could be explored. The procedure established is that, before research can be initiated, a representative body of the Institute of Forensic Sciences must review and consent to the project. In addition, the Dean, in this case Dr. Rosenblatt, is given the right, in certain instances (those instances wherein the University resources and/or University time are involved), to veto the proposals that come before him. The general guideline for research, however, is that the product be without harmful effects to the society.

Research is not the only area in which ethical considerations must be faced. Dr. Rosenblatt feels that any student who is qualified for the program ought to be accepted. He recognizes, however, that law enforcement agencies, regardless of academic performance, may refuse to employ those students who may at one time have been clients of the criminal justice system, whether for political or other reasons. In this instance the student is counseled on the employment outlook.

While research within the College and the Institute can be monitored and controlled, this is not the case when a student graduates. The possible applications by students of their knowledge of explosives and drugs is the third nagging ethical problem. Dr. Rosenblatt and his faculty grapple continuously with these ethical issues, issues that face

all aspects of criminal justice education and which should be explored.

DR. JAMES W. FOX, DIRECTOR
Criminal Justice Coordinating Center
College of Law Enforcement
Eastern Kentucky University
Richmond, Kentucky

The objective of the design of the doctoral program at Eastern Kentucky University's Criminal Justice Coordinating Center is to provide highly competent professionals who are able to make decisions which are appropriately responsive to the total criminal justice system, the needs of society, and the practical expectations of individual specialties. Dr. Fox explained that, in order to accomplish this, students are expected to achieve familiarity in each of the five following areas presently offered: 1) criminal justice education, 2) law enforcement administration, 3) criminology, 4) corrections, and 5) juvenile delinquency. The student must demonstrate competence in his specialty and in research methodology as a preparation for the rigorous thought processes implicit in criminal justice decision making. For this reason, a thesis is required of all Master's candidates, of which there are 103 at the present time.

Dr. Fox explained that, since only two institutions in the Commonwealth of Kentucky are allowed by the state to offer doctoral degrees, Eastern Kentucky established joint degree programs with the University of Kentucky, Michigan State University, and the University of Maryland. Each student must meet the admission standards of both Eastern Kentucky and the cooperating institution, as well as a score of at least 1000 on the Graduate Record Examination, a 3.5 Grade Point Average for graduate work, and a 3.0 GPA for undergraduate work. Applications are submitted to both institutions and are processed simultaneously. In addition to the applications, the student is expected to submit a statement outlining his vocational and educational objectives as well as a statement as to how the student expects these goals to be met by participation in a joint doctoral program.

While at Eastern Kentucky University, the student works as a graduate assistant and is advised by the Director of the Criminal Justice Coordinating Center, who is the Eastern Kentucky representative on the cooperative committees for joint doctorates.

During the second year, the student is required to take residence at the cooperating institution and has an advisor appointed by the appropriate committee at that institution. The course load and curriculum for the second year is determined by the cooperating institution and, at this time, the student prepares his dissertation. The actual research for the dissertation is expected to take place in the third year and is supervised by the student's graduate (dissertation) committee. The doctoral degree itself is conferred by the cooperating institution.

As a direct result of a major Law Enforcement Assistance Administration grant as part of the National Criminal Justice Educational Consortium effort, Dr. Fox explained, there are two joint doctorate programs in full operation at Eastern Kentucky. A third, with Michigan State University, is awaiting final approval of the necessary committees,

although there is one student enrolled in the program. The University of Maryland has two students presently enrolled, and two interested applicants. The University of Kentucky College of Education program has four students presently enrolled and six applying as of August, 1976. Thus, there are seven students in the joint doctorate program, six of whom receive financial aid from LEAA.

Dr. Fox explained that the study of criminal justice at the graduate level, especially for the doctoral degree, is an applied social science educational endeavor, the purpose of which is to prepare personnel for college teaching, research, and decision making positions in law enforcement, corrections, judicial management, and criminal justice planning. Therefore, professional education in criminal justice must be integrated with social science and other disciplines.

In order to contrast this approach with other approaches, Dr. Fox pointed out that applied social science is included and taught by faculty members of the College of Law Enforcement who have an advanced degree in one of the cognate disciplines. By not allowing these courses to be taken outside of the College of Law Enforcement, integration of applied social science and professional training is encouraged.

The role of liberal arts in this schema is as an intellectual foundation, providing depth and breadth for the educational experience, upon which the application of the cognate disciplines is built. In this fashion the liberal arts play the role of a means for enrichment of the intellectual experience of the student and the foundation upon which professional programs are built — the role they have had throughout the history of higher education.

DR. PETER P. LEJINS, DIRECTOR
Institute of Criminal Justice and Criminology
University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

Dr. Lejins explained that the Institute of Criminal Justice and Criminology of the University of Maryland is predicated on the assumption that there is a need for a unified educational approach to the body of knowledge developed around the problem of crime. This program is currently being offered by faculty comprising 13 full-time positions to 650 full-time undergraduate majors, nearly 60 Master's Degree students and approximately 20 Ph.D. candidates.

The current doctoral program in criminal justice began in 1946 as a specialization in criminology in the Department of Sociology. In the 1960's this program was elevated to the status of a Division with its own director and its own budget, but remained part of the Sociology Department. In 1969, the Institute of Criminal Justice and Criminology was established as an autonomous academic body within the College of Arts and Sciences with an undergraduate law enforcement curriculum. It was not until 1972 that the undergraduate criminology program was transferred from the Sociology Department to the Institute. In January 1973, the Master's Degree program was also transferred from Sociology. In the Spring semester of 1974 the Ph.D. program, broadened to encompass the entire field

of criminal justice, was likewise transferred to the Institute.

Those entering the graduate program of the Institute are required to have a background in criminal justice and criminology. While an undergraduate degree in that field is not required, the student may be asked to make-up any deficiencies in criminal justice and criminology found by the Admissions Committee.

There are three blocks of knowledge which are expected to be mastered by the doctoral-level student. One is the body of knowledge related to the field of criminal justice itself. It is postulated that even if these students will some day be dealing with only a segment of the criminal justice system, they should be familiar with the whole field. This may be compared with the teaching of law schools which is not limited to criminal law or torts, but gives the future lawyer an orientation to the total field of law. Dr. Lejins pointed out that the Institute attempts to present the students with a variety of views and interpretations of the criminal justice system.

Secondly, the Institute subscribes to the belief that its graduates should have a broader background than just the field of criminal justice and criminology. They should be social scientists who specialize in that field. Therefore on all levels, the B.A., M.A. and Ph.D., the student is expected to acquire proficiency in some social science discipline such as sociology, psychology, political science, etc. On the Ph.D. level this means course work and a comprehensive examination in a social science discipline of the student's selection.

Thirdly, the student must master the tools of research, both to be able to do research himself, and to interpret the research findings of others. This implies courses and a comprehensive examination in statistics, research methods, and computer science.

Thus the doctoral students of the Institute are required to prepare themselves in four areas for comprehensive examinations: (1) in general theory and basic information of the entire field of criminal justice and criminology; (2) in a special topic within that area, selected by the student; (3) in a social science discipline likewise selected by the student, with a representative of that social science department serving as the chairman of the examining committee; (4) in statistics and research methodology, which subjects are also taught in the social science departments in the Division of Behavioral and Social Sciences to which the Institute now belongs.

After completion of the course work and the comprehensive examinations, the candidate for the doctoral degree prepares a doctoral dissertation under the supervision of his advisor and a dissertation committee. The dissertation must deal with a topic from the area of criminal justice and criminology and represent a genuine contribution to scientific knowledge as the result of independent research.

Dr. Lejins urged the participants of the Conference to seriously examine the holistic approach to the field of criminal justice represented by the Institute and a number of other programs in the United States. This educational policy is paralleled by the perception of operational criminal justice agencies as a coordinated system. Currently millions of dollars are being spent on the education of students in terms of this educational model who will, as Dean Myren and Professor Newman indicated, soon appear as the carriers of this type of academic and scientific ideology in the field of criminal justice. These students, will be the ones to staff the academic institutions and the professional agencies in the years to come. Now is the time to analyze and evaluate this conception of the criminal justice field and of this educational program.

CONFERENCE SUMMARY

Peter P. Lejins

This Conference Summary is the summary which I presented at the last working session of the Conference as supplemented by a number of issues suggested for inclusion by the participants in the subsequent discussion period. That this be done this way was the unanimous wish of the participants, who, likewise unanimously, voted to consider the Summary, so supplemented, the official Conference statement and chose not to adopt any resolutions.

Conference summaries perform different functions depending on the size and organization of the conference, the nature of the topic, the objectives set, etc. In a conference which divides into sectional meetings or workshops, the summary serves to bring together the various facets of the subject matter discussed and is indispensable both to inform the participants and to report the results to the outside. In the case at hand, the participants met in twelve plenary sessions. Thus each one was a party to the entire proceedings and probably has a summary of his own in mind. It would be presumptuous for the Chairman to substitute his own summary for the summary of each participant. Therefore the purpose of a summary by the Chairman in this case is to formulate and catalogue the topics discussed and thus have available a record of what transpired for the participants, for colleagues elsewhere, and for the general public.

In the Closing Session of the Conference, the participants unanimously went on record as endorsing the need for continued liaison among criminal justice educators, continued interchange through joint research projects, faculty and student exchange programs, and general resource and information sharing.

The agenda of the Conference consisted of descriptions of doctoral-level programs by the foreign participants in their respective countries, followed by similar descriptions by the American participants of the programs of the universities from which they came. As various issues came up, these were discussed by the entire group, and in the end several sessions were devoted to the discussion of some general topics regarding doctoral-level education. The discussion was quite freewheeling, often returning to topics previously discussed. This Summary attempts to organize the materials presented as a series of topics, which follow.

1. The subject of this conference is doctoral-level education in criminal justice. As was explained in the invitational letters and also in the statement on the Background and Purpose of the Conference, this subject was selected because the Consortium grant, from which this Conference was funded, was awarded to develop or strengthen doctoral-level education in criminal justice. Moreover, other levels of criminal justice education, the junior college Associate of Arts degree, the Bachelor's degree, and the Master's degree in this field have previously been studied in the United States. It is the doctoral program that needed to be looked at in the perspective of an international conference.

In the presentations and discussions of this Conference, the participants occasionally digressed from the chosen topic of doctoral studies to describe and analyze the total program in criminal justice, or whatever their particular terminology was, at their respective institutions of higher learning, including undergraduate and Master's level studies. This is quite understandable and in many cases useful for two reasons. First, the doctoral program in any field does not usually stand alone. It is a continuation of the preceding studies and can be fully understood both in terms of its theory and its practical setting only within the structure of the total program in this particular field. Professor Van Outrive especially emphasized this point in his comments on the Conference Summary, stating that one should always keep in mind that doctoral education is only one of a number of types of education, that its purpose has to be kept clear at all times, and that all available resources should be utilized.

Secondly, since perhaps the major issue of the Conference is the need and desirability to develop a unified body of knowledge and study of matters related to crime and crime control, nay, perhaps even a unified discipline under some single title such as "criminal justice", the discussion of this issue is not limited to doctoral studies but relates to studies at any level. If indeed the need and desirability of such unified study is the central topic, then naturally, it is not important to limit the discussion of the topic to only one level, namely the doctoral level.

2. Let us, then, look at what transpired in these four days with regard to the just-mentioned central theme: the existence, feasibility and desirability of developing a unified body of knowledge or rather an integrated system of theories, data and experience—all pertaining to the general topic of the phenomenon of crime and its prevention and control—under one label and as one academic unit, gradually leading to the development of a scientific discipline similar, perhaps, to economics or political science. By and large, the representatives of United States and Canadian programs subscribed to this plan in general, including doctoral education. Here also belongs the position taken by Professor Shlomo Shoham of Tel Aviv University. It would perhaps be fair to say that a number of the representatives of other countries, while not necessarily committing themselves to the above concept, did not explicitly criticize it either and seemed to be cautiously evaluating it. At least one representative from Europe, Dr. Häussling, representing the Wuppertal program in the Federal Republic of Germany, described his program very much in terms of a unified concept of criminal justice, with an interdisciplinary input from a number of currently quite independent specializations.

It must, however, be fully acknowledged that a number of the representatives of continental European universities and programs were very skeptical with regard to the concept of criminal justice as an umbrella concept for academic and operational

activities in the field of crime interpretation, control and prevention. Their programs clearly were not that, and they were in favor of their present programs. Here one might mention especially Professor Léauté, Director of the Institute of Criminology at the University of Paris; Professor of Criminal Law Alvar Nelson of the University of Uppsala; and Professor Frederick H. McClintock, Director of the Department of Criminology of the University of Edinburgh. Professor Léauté raised the important issue of whether there is danger of losing the depth reached by specific disciplines studying certain aspects of the crime problem if one strives for breadth of coverage of the entire field in one unified program. Thus the discussion of the advantages of the holistic as against the atomistic approach evolved. Professor Shlomo Shoham drew the simile of the criminal justice generalist as the conductor of an orchestra: The conductor need not be an expert on each individual instrument. He needs only the ability to supervise, direct and blend his musicians' individual talents on the basis of his general knowledge of music and the orchestra, which he manages as a unified system. While specializing in one particular aspect, the individual performers must, however, be aware of the total production and their special role within it. That is what the concept of a criminal justice system, whether educational or operational, contributes. A program in criminal justice education, and especially a doctoral program in criminal justice — or a unified program under whatever label — is presumably the best answer to this need.

3. In the course of the discussion between the supporters of the holistic and the atomistic approach, I made a comment which was, I believe, received favorably by all participants. I indicated that in terms of a sampling of the criminal justice or criminology experts represented at this Conference, there is an obvious disparity. The countries whose criminal justice education programs were committed to the atomistic approach are naturally represented here by educators who espouse the atomistic approach. In the United States — and this applies probably also to Canada — both the holistic and atomistic approaches are practiced in criminal justice education. As a matter of fact, the holistic approach is an innovation which appeared on the scene less than 10 years ago and caught on like wildfire. The tradition of the past, however, was the separate-discipline approach, with the exception, perhaps, of the School of Criminology of the University of California, Berkeley, which especially in the more recent years, practiced the holistic approach, offering specializations in etiology of criminal behavior, corrections, police science, and criminalistics under the general title of a degree in criminology. In selecting the representatives of United States educational systems for this Conference, schools with the holistic approach were quite obviously favored. We do not here have among us any dyed-in-the-wool sociological criminologists from sociology departments, police scientists, or administrators specializing in criminal justice who ply their own trade only and do not care about anything beyond their own specialties. Thus, as I said, the sample of United States educators is clearly biased. We could easily find among our colleagues in this country many who would wholeheartedly support the single-discipline,

in-depth, but somewhat isolationist approach of some of our foreign colleagues, demonstrated at this Conference. It should be kept in mind, however, that this bias is intentional and very readily admitted. The very purpose of this Conference was to expose the recently emerged holistic plan for criminal justice education of the United States to discussion by an international group.

4. Another interesting issue which emerged during the Conference concerned the specific scientific disciplines which underpin the field of criminology and criminal justice. In the United States, with very developed social sciences, criminology and criminal justice are generally viewed as the results of the application of the principles and methods of modern social science to the problem of crime. Thus, as is obvious also from this summary, whenever we think about the background disciplines for a student of crime, we immediately refer to sociology, psychology, political science, etc. In many continental European countries and in South America, on the other hand, one finds that the parent disciplines for criminological studies are medicine, psychology, and psychiatry. Thus, for instance, Professor Canepa's program in clinical criminology is located in the Faculty of Medicine of the University of Genoa. Although this program does have a certain interdisciplinary character, it is primarily a physician's study of crime. Also Dr. Ferracuti is a physician, and his program is likewise in the Faculty of Medicine. Professor Canepa tells us that there are all together some twelve universities in Italy that offer programs in clinical criminology, very similar to his own. This, then, would be a perfect example of the difference in the background of the scientific discipline as represented by the sociological criminologists of the United States and the clinical criminologists of Italy. Another type of background for criminal justice studies is that of legal training. While the law schools in the United States have only in recent years developed some interest in criminology and such studies as law and society, on the continent of Europe, in South America and in many other countries, the faculties of law are the ones to house programs in criminology and all other aspects of the criminal justice field within their structure.

An interesting proposal was made by Dr. McClintock, who discussed in some detail the socio-legal approach as a frame of reference for educational and research programs in what is here referred to as criminal justice.

The difference in the disciplinary background underpinning studies in the field of criminal justice is, of course, reflected also on the doctoral-level. This is an important topic which could be pursued in depth in a special conference devoted solely to it.

5. Another important topic was brought up by Professor Léauté. In discussing the contribution of various scientific disciplines and the study of criminal justice, he raised the question of the point at which specialization in criminal justice should begin. The same point was alluded to in the remarks of other participants. While the United States criminal justice education model clearly postulates a sequence of Bachelor, Master's and Ph.D. degrees, all in criminal justice, Professor Léauté and Professor Adeyemi questioned whether specialization in criminal justice should begin at the very base of the edu-

ational pyramid. One may contemplate the base of that pyramid as being in one of the basic disciplines, and the specialization in criminology and criminal justice beginning perhaps only with graduate education. Perhaps the base of the pyramid could be interdisciplinary in terms of the basic disciplines.

6. In terms of organization of the curriculum, the Conference envisaged the following two patterns: one represented by the curriculum of Sam Houston University as described by Professor Moore, which includes not only the total spectrum of courses and seminars in the criminal justice field, but also the related subject matter from the fields of sociology, psychology, anthropology, political science, and administration, as well as statistics, methodology, computer science, etc. Faculty members in such a program number as many as 30-40. On the other hand, another curricular pattern in the United States limits the course work of the criminal-justice academic unit to the specific criminal justice subject matter. In that case, even if a wide spectrum of criminal justice courses is taught, the faculty can be much smaller, because the students take their social and behavioral science background courses such as sociology, psychology, and political science in the respective university departments and also pick up the tool courses — statistics, methodology and computer science — in the social science departments, or, in some universities, in special departments of statistics or computer science. This second pattern is exemplified by the programs of Michigan State University, the University of Maryland and several others. Whichever of the two patterns — or combinations thereof — is used by a specific university in the United States, it became clear in the course of our presentations and discussions that graduate students, and especially the doctoral students, receive instructions in three rather distinct areas: (1) in criminal justice and criminology; (2) in some social science or combination of social science disciplines selected by the student; and (3) in the tool courses—methodology, statistics and computer science. In other words, the doctoral-level experts for teaching, research, and operations in the field of criminal justice are produced as the result of the above three-faceted integrated background.

7. A major topic that was addressed in this Conference and kept coming up in connection with many other topics is the relationship of the doctoral degree in the field of criminal justice or in some part of that field to the operational field or the practical aspects of crime control. To what extent are persons with doctoral degrees needed by the operational agencies? Three possibilities with regard to this relationship crystallized in the course of the discussion. First, there is an academic doctorate in criminal justice, a Ph.D. — which is a research degree — which stands in its own right without any immediate direct connection to the operational field. Individuals with that degree may be perceived as producing knowledge that is useful or perhaps even basic to the operational agencies, but they would not necessarily themselves be involved in working in these operational agencies. Such persons would be researchers, evaluators and professors. If I interpret correctly Professor Nelson's remarks, one of their main qualities would be detach-

ment, complete independence from the practical interests of the operational agencies and from politics, and hence the capability of being radically innovative and critical of the status quo.

Into this context belong perhaps also Professor Newman's appeal for attention to the issue of ethics, particularly ethics in research. Control of the research and teaching activities of an academic person and freedom of choice are ethical issues which must be carefully watched at all times.

The second plan is to have the doctoral degree of generally the same type as described above, but used by the top executive, planning and research personnel within the operational agencies. This plan is based on the assumption that the broad and scientific background of doctoral-level education is very useful for those responsible for guiding the operational programs. This plan envisages basically one and the same doctoral degree for academia and for the operational field. This conception probably envisages a lesser detachment of the academicians than Professor Nelson described in his remarks.

The third plan is to have two separate doctoral degrees; one, an academic research degree, the other a professional degree. This could perhaps be illustrated by the existence, at least in the United States, at some Universities of a Ph.D. in Education and a Doctor of Education degree, as I mentioned in my statement on the Background and Purpose of this Conference.

In order to understand the function of the doctoral degree in criminal justice in modern society, as was forcefully brought out by Professor Szabo, one must know the total educational system of the respective country: both the academic education and the preparation of professional personnel for public employment, or perhaps one might say, for civil service. According to Professor Szabo, the difference witnessed in this Conference in the points of view on doctoral education depends to a large extent on the difference in the educational systems in the countries of the participants. Professor Szabo cited as examples the elaborate educational programs for the preparation of civil servants in Italy, France and Austria, which make a civil servant educationally quite a different functionary from a civil servant in the United States. The meaning of an academic doctoral degree for the operational agencies is quite different for the North American continent, the United States and Canada, as compared with Europe. This makes the issue of doctoral education, when viewed internationally, a very complex problem, which must, however, be understood.

An interesting sidelight on this issue came out of an exchange between Dean Myren and Professor McClintock. Dean Myren remarked that at the present time in the United States the operational system of criminal justice with all its ramifications could probably absorb five thousand new Ph.D.'s. Professor McClintock replied that he sees at the present time about six positions for additional personnel with doctoral degrees in Britain. While these remarks were probably made to convey impressionistic images of the situations existing in the respective countries and not accurate survey results, they nevertheless illustrate well the point made by Dr. Szabo.

This issue of doctoral-level education for academia and for the operational agencies in criminal justice

pointed up the importance of purely factual information with regard to the educational and training systems, both academic and "civil service", in the various countries. For an international discussion such as this Conference, this information can be provided in written descriptions or may be given by the participants in the give and take of the discussion. If such information is lacking, such a point as raised by Dr. Szabo in all probability might be missed by the United States participants unless, because of special happenstance, they were familiar with the specific educational systems for career civil servants developed in many continental European and other countries. Upon completion of the first academic degree, usually in law, economics, or political science, the young person entering public service in one of the ministries of his country, especially the ministries of justice or the interior, is given an opportunity to avail him or herself of an elaborate inservice educational system, which is a precondition for professional advancement. This amounts to an elaborate course of study, tutorial or in small groups, under the guidance of senior civil servants. In part this is carefully supervised performance on the job and in part it is study quite similar to academic study in a university, except with a more applied emphasis. After a certain specified period of time, usually several years, the young civil servant is expected to take professional examinations, as the result of which he is promoted to a higher grade in service and given a coveted professional title. In some civil service systems there are several such examinations, and a hierarchy of titles, certifying the professional competence of the civil servant. The result is a remarkable professional competence of such civil servants both with regard to the theoretical aspects of their specialization and the effective capability in handling practical issues. In international conferences one is often exposed to a mixed group of participants made up of academicians and of civil servants. One often has to give credit to the civil servants for being as well prepared as the most respected academicians in their field. Our colleagues coming from countries with such systems of preparation of career civil servants for their operational agencies would, of course, have a different perspective on the role of doctoral-level education as provided by the universities, than the representatives of those countries who are not aware of such an educational resource for the operational field.

8. At one point in the discussion there was a flare-up of intensive interest in forensic studies and the advanced educational programs, including doctoral programs, in this area. For the purposes of this summary, three issues received special attention on the part of the participants.

One of these issues was the relative weakness of forensic educational programs in the United States. A number of the participants from this country felt that forensic studies in U.S. universities have recently suffered a considerable decline. Some of the programs on which the country used to depend for top-level educators and experts have disappeared, as for instance, the Criminalistics Program of the School of Criminology at Berkeley. Mention was made of the training programs in the operational agencies and their laboratories. Dr. Foster of LEAA

mentioned the efforts of his agency to establish a consortium of universities in forensic science, but the plans never materialized. Dean Rosenblatt of Northeastern University, one of the National Criminal Justice Educational Consortium universities, described the development of a Ph.D. degree in forensic science in cooperation with the Department of Chemistry. Some of the foreign participants, for instance Professors Canepa and Ferracuti, described ample educational opportunities in some aspects of the forensic sciences in Italy.

A second issue which received a considerable amount of attention was the atomistic nature of forensics. There are chemical forensics, medical forensics, fingerprinting, etc. It was pointed out that it is more appropriate to day to speak of the forensic sciences rather than of a forensic science.

It was interesting to note, however, that Professor Canepa very cogently argued for recognition of the interrelationship between the various types of forensic expertise. His example was that a dead body which was found with some white powder near it. The expertise of a chemist is needed to establish that the powder is heroin. But after that, a physician must establish whether the person died from an overdose of this narcotic. At the same time one must realize that the findings of the chemist and of the physician must be presented in court in a way acceptable from the point of view of criminal procedure. Thus a chemist or a physician does not suffice. There must be trained forensic experts at the same time. Thus the various types of forensic expertise cannot stand alone, but must know how to relate to each other and have a common background of legal training.

The Conference participants voiced some caution in view of the fact that the forensic sciences were not strongly represented at this Conference, but urged attention to the development of this field and the role of an international interchange of experience.

The last major item which should be included in this Summary is the feeling repeatedly expressed by the Conference participants of the need for continued contact and international cooperation and exchange of ideas concerning the entire matter of education in the area designated here as criminal justice, inclusive of course more particularly, of doctoral-level education. The desirability of student and faculty exchanges, joint research projects, joint meetings, and the maintenance of organizations which would include representatives from the various countries was mentioned in connection with practically every issue brought up for discussion. If the Conference were to adopt any resolution, I am sure that a resolution favoring continued international cooperation would be the one that would gain unanimous support. As far as the United States are concerned, a major organizational step was taken last Spring with the establishment of the American Association of Doctoral Programs in Criminal Justice and Criminology. Eight universities have so far joined this Association, and there are several more that are in the process of developing such programs. Representatives of all eight member universities were invited to this Conference, and I am sure that the Association stands ready to support continued international cooperation.

APPENDIX I

UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE — INSTITUTE OF CRIMINOLOGY

National Conference on Research and Teaching in Criminology

Cambridge, June 1966

Post-Graduate Teaching : Research Degrees in Criminology

F. H. McClintock

1. Although criminology is still a relatively young academic discipline, the scope of its university teaching at the undergraduate level is already considerable and the problems of training competent research workers and teachers in this subject are extremely varied and complex. Criminology, along with other social sciences, has problems that have certain similarities with those of a growing industry or, perhaps more accurately, with those of the rapidly changing under-developed countries which have recently achieved independence. Criminology, it seems to me, is trying to become academically respectable, while at the same time trying to justify its usefulness to the community as an applied subject. It claims to influence, or to be allowed to influence, our criminal law and penal system as well as central and local social policy and practice. The aspirations of criminology — or should one say criminologists? — are clearly important matters for consideration and cannot be kept very far in the background even when considering only that aspect of the subject which is directly connected with research degrees.

2. My own research and teaching experience is primarily restricted to Cambridge University where I have been for the past seventeen years. Although, naturally, I have tried to follow the developments that have been taking place elsewhere, I cannot, of course, speak with detailed knowledge and authority about them. It is not without significance, as it seems to me, when looking at the Cambridge scene, that, apart from the Wolfson Chair of Criminology, all the senior posts (as well as all the junior posts) in the Institute of Criminology are primarily research posts and not teaching posts. There are, as yet, no lectureships or assistant lectureships in Cambridge for the purpose of teaching criminology. Teaching is, therefore, carried out by people whose primary interests are in research and who are actively engaged in current research. The present position is directly connected with the early policy for the development of criminology in Cambridge and, although this emphasis on research has several disadvantages in the teaching sphere, it is my impression that the advantages are far more numerous and important. A developing subject needs to place research before teaching; and in an applied subject, such as criminology, exposition needs to be constantly replenished from direct experience and fresh knowledge.

3. The next point, which I think should be stressed in relation to the developments at Cambridge, is that while the Post-Graduate Diploma Course in Criminology has now been well established, and while teaching at the undergraduate level will soon be in its fourth year, the fostering of a group of graduate

students studying for research degrees in criminology has, so far, not been given a high priority. In the early stages of research the emphasis has been placed more upon giving criminological training to junior research staff, selected and appointed from various disciplines, rather than upon promoting a group of research students specialising in criminology. However, a start has been made; and today there are four research students working for Ph.D. degrees in the Institute of Criminology. The smallness of the number of research students necessarily reflects, in part, the scale of priorities which has had to be established in relation to the various commitments undertaken by a comparatively small staff. They also reflect, I think, a rigour in selection which is not unconnected with the special need for maintaining extremely high standards in a new subject which is being established in an ancient university. The Cambridge Ph.D. degree in scientific subjects clearly has an international standing which those concerned with university policy naturally wish to be maintained in any new subjects now being developed. Be this as it may, an unsuccessful applicant said two years ago that he thought the policy of the Institute of Criminology could be summed up by the phrase: "many apply, but few are chosen!"

4. The relative importance of research studies at the Institute can perhaps be gathered from the following summary course of criminology within the university, and the number of candidates taking each course:

(i) Undergraduate law students studying criminology and penology as one out of five papers taken in Part II of the Law Tripos (between 80 and 100 students each year).

(ii) One-year Post-graduate Diploma Course in criminology (between 14 and 18 students each year).

(iii) Graduate law students studying the history of criminal law and penology as one of four papers for the one-year Post-Graduate Course leading to the LL.B. degree (between 6 and 12 students each year).

(iv) Graduate students, from different disciplines, studying for research degrees (Ph.D. or M.Litt.) in criminology (4 or 5 students registered at any one time for a research degree).

5. **Formal arrangements for research degrees.**

In Cambridge the majority of students who wish to study for a research degree apply as candidates for the Ph.D. This degree usually involves full-time study for at least three years but, not infrequently, candidates do not present their dissertation until they are in their fourth year. The M.Litt. degree is not normally selected by research students in the first instance and has, unfortunately, gained the

reputation of being a 'failed' Ph.D. as it is within the powers of examiners to award this degree to candidates who have not achieved the standards required for a doctorate. A candidate for a research degree must be accepted by the Board of Research Studies who are advised by the Degree Committee of the Faculty concerned who, in their turn, are advised by the Head of the Department within which the student would like to undertake his research. If the candidate is accepted the Board of Research Studies then appoints a senior member of the Department or Faculty concerned as his Research Supervisor. The supervisor has to report regularly to the Board of Research Studies on the progress of the student and, in consultation with the Head of the Department, to raise with them any difficulties that are encountered. It is, perhaps, of some interest to mention that, although criminology in Cambridge is taught in an inter-disciplinary Institute, the Degree Committee which advises the Board of Research Studies, is that of the Law Faculty. Such an arrangement could lead to difficulties in cases such as those of graduates in psychiatry or psychology who apply to do research in a specialised area of criminology. So far this has not proved a difficulty, since the Director of the Institute is a member of the Degree Committee, and he can always, of course, seek the advice or opinion of senior members of his staff.

6. **Aims of candidates who apply to study for research degrees.**

The majority of candidates who formally apply to study for a research degree in criminology or who informally approach senior members of the staff as to the possibility of making such an application, clearly have in mind an academic career either in teaching or in research, or in both. A few have in mind the prospect of going into research outside the academic sphere as, for instance, in some government research unit, while others regard research work as providing useful or interesting experience before going on to professional work or administrative posts. Naturally, in criminology as in other subjects, there is also the occasional application from the degree collector or the Dostoevskian type of perpetual student.

We find that few research students intend to make a specialised career in criminology. Most of them apply to study criminology because it overlaps with their interests in the basic discipline of their first degree (e.g., law, sociology, psychology, history, or medicine). On completing a research degree the intention is to return to their basic discipline, and to apply the specialised knowledge, gained while studying for a research degree in criminology, to teaching and research. Occasionally research in criminology is regarded as an escape route from one discipline to another. This is particularly so for law students when they have found their legal studies restricted in scope and too rigid or too professional in content. This kind of student sees the Ph.D. degree as a path to academic openings in social administration or social studies. Another aim, among students from some of the new universities whose first degrees have been of an inter-disciplinary nature, is to become more specialised in one aspect of their original inter-disciplinary courses. For the majority of students who consider the possibility of a research degree in criminology, the question of

career aims and prospects is clearly of paramount importance.

As regards the kind of proposals put forward for research in criminology, we have found that students fall into three fairly distinct categories: (a) those who give precise and detailed plans for a research project; (b) those who merely have an idea that they would like to do research in some rather vaguely defined area of study, and (c) those who wish to do research under some particular person and who would like to be advised by that person as to what lines of research would be most appropriate in their particular case.

Students in the first category are often over ambitious in their research design, but they can usually be persuaded to modify their proposals to fit the resources available to them for a research degree. Students in the second and third categories can usually be persuaded to make fairly clear cut proposals after one or two short discussions. One is obviously in a much better position to give some advice and help to prospective research students if they have been studying in the Post-Graduate Diploma Course in Criminology, or in the Post-Graduate LL.B. Course, or for a first degree here in Cambridge than if their formal application comes from outside. But the practice has grown among some universities of making informal inquiries to members of the staff of the Institute as to the possibility and desirability of their student applying to study for a research degree in criminology in Cambridge.

7. In most of the basic disciplines the research degree can be seen as a natural sequence to a good first degree. With criminology the position is frequently quite different. Firstly, criminology rarely forms a major part of a first-degree course, and, secondly, at the post-graduate level criminology has to be regarded as an inter-disciplinary subject. Students coming to research in criminology from law usually lack the basic knowledge of sociology and psychology and have little idea of the scope of methodological problems in the social sciences. On the other hand, students coming to criminological research from the social sciences often have a dangerously imprecise knowledge of the substantive criminal law and, not infrequently, quite strange notions as to the way in which the law is enforced in practice. Ideally, of course, the Diploma Course is designed to deal with these problems: "to impart a sound knowledge of criminology in its various aspects; to form an aptitude for teaching and research of a high academic standard; and to train a critical mind towards basic problems and the administration of justice." However, it is perhaps asking students to undertake a rather long course if, after three years for a first degree, they then have to take the one-year Post-Graduate Diploma Course before going on to a three-year course for a Ph.D. degree in criminology. This means a minimum of seven years before they are able to earn a regular income and, with the size of present post-graduate grants, such a long period of study can be too heavy a financial sacrifice to prospective research students. Some of our students from the Post-Graduate Diploma Course have, in fact, left Cambridge in order to take research and teaching posts elsewhere, so as to be able to take advantage of a longer, but

only part-time, Ph.D. course provided by other universities and thus obtain a reasonable income at an earlier age. There are three other possibilities of shortening the present seven-year full-time study under the Cambridge system.

(i) To encourage students to work for a Ph.D. degree immediately after the completion of a first degree and to allow them to attend those parts of the Post-Graduate Course which were directly relevant to their research and which they had not already covered in their first degree. This was tried out with one post-graduate student who has recently obtained his doctorate within the three-year period and it was considered by him to be a highly successful arrangement. However, if many research students were given this kind of facility on the Post-Graduate Course, the close unity derived from common experiences on that course would be rapidly lost.

(ii) To enable students who have shown their potentialities for research during the Post-Graduate Diploma Course to count that year towards a research degree. It might have to be stipulated, however, that a candidate would not be awarded the Diploma in Criminology if, by the end of the year, he had been accepted as a research student; on the ground that one should not be allowed to obtain two qualifications out of the same year's work. Unless, however, students obtain some practical research experience of research during the Diploma Course, it is, I think, unlikely that they would be able to reach the required standard for a Ph.D. degree in only two years.

(iii) Recently the University of Cambridge has made alternative regulations whereby a member of the staff of a University Department may apply for a Ph.D. degree by an alternative method, namely, by submitting published work. Thus, students from the Post-Graduate Course taken on as junior members of the research staff with specially assigned projects would have a considerable chance of obtaining a doctorate under these new regulations.

However, there still remains at Cambridge an acute problem of trying to maintain high standards for research degrees in criminology and yet, at the same time, easing the financial strain for graduate students wishing to carry out independent research.

8. Financial provision for research degrees.

Most research students receive a grant from their local authority or from the Department of Education. A few students today still finance their research out of private financial resources or from parental support, but the number of such students in the university is now dwindling away. Most proposals for research have to be carefully examined in terms of likely financial expenditure as, at the most, supplementary grants can only be obtained for minimum essential travelling and computer costs. A research student who obtains a college research fellowship or prize fellowship on the strength of the first part of his dissertation is, of course, in a secure position for several years. The open competition for such fellowships is, however, extremely severe: one of our present Ph.D. candidates was last year fortunate enough to be elected to a research fellowship. On two occasions the Home Office has made grants to finance and support research which is being carried out as part of a programme for a higher degree, but

developments along these lines are obviously limited to the kind of research which is likely to be of some direct practical value to the government.

This Institute of Criminology does not possess any separate funds for financing research undertaken in connection with a post-graduate degree.

9. The choice of research topics.

As far as the basic requirements of the university are concerned it is clear that the choice of research topics has to be such to enable the candidate to demonstrate his efficiency in carrying out a substantial piece of research, and to prove his ability to make an original contribution within his chosen field of study. Proper advice during the early stages of a research degree is obviously very important. Weaknesses at that stage will most certainly come to light if the candidate decides to compete in one of the annual events, under the Cambridge collegiate system, for a research fellowship. As a college elector one is occasionally disappointed by the narrowness in the scope of the work presented by a man who obviously has considerable talent. Sometimes — and this is particularly so in applied scientific subjects — it would seem that the topic had been suggested because there was a gap in the research programme of a department, rather than because the subject was of intrinsic importance.

The choice of research topics in criminology presents other problems as well. Above all there is the question of access to required data. Can it be fairly readily obtained, or is it restricted in terms of confidentiality? Does it involve interviewing either the persons concerned in the administration of justice, or the offenders themselves, their relations or their victims? The practical implications of these problems have to be worked out by the supervisor. His assessment as to the suitability of a candidate for undertaking research has to take account not only of the intellectual ability of the student, but also of his social maturity and ability to deal with difficult and sometimes unanticipated situations. The supervisor has also to decide how many of the arrangements and how much of the responsibility for access to records and contact with various agents he may be called upon to undertake and how much may be left to the initiative of the research student. Lastly, and by no means of least importance, the supervisor has to assess the extent to which a research topic will involve senior officials in a considerable amount of extra work and whether or not the probable value of the research is of sufficient importance to justify putting them to this inconvenience.

The present arrangements leave the choice of subject for a dissertation almost entirely to the student. There is, of course, the art of persuasion which can be exercised to a greater or lesser extent by the research supervisor or head of the department, but if the student is not able to get accepted at one university — because of the nature of the subject in which he wishes to do research — he can try his luck elsewhere. This type of laissez-faire liberalism for the research student has much to recommend it. The questions which, perhaps, need some discussion are whether those universities engaged in teaching criminology should have an agreed policy among themselves for higher degrees in this

inter-disciplinary range and how this should be planned. Such questions, of course, always raise the issue of autonomy and academic freedom. I have some doubts, however, whether the present system is the most effective for building up a group of well-trained young criminologists at the doctorate level. Is it wrong to ask these questions? How many criminologists do we need in this country at the doctorate level for teaching and research in the universities, in government units and elsewhere? What kind of subjects could they most profitably select for dissertations? Where should the facilities for these research studies be developed? There is obviously scope for a planner: I myself have a number of misgivings about leaving these matters to be settled by "the hidden hand of nature".

10. Relationship between research student and supervisor

In many ways the relationship between the research student and supervisor in criminology or, for that matter, in any of the arts or social sciences, still has many similarities to that of the apprentice and the craftsman of the middle ages. The research student learns, stage by stage, how to undertake on his own a piece of research work; sometimes he is under fairly close supervision and with regular advice at each step, but eventually, if he is to produce a dissertation of the right standard, he becomes independent. He makes his own original contribution. This is a method of higher education which has very great merits indeed, although one should not fail to mention that there are a few outstanding scholars in the academic world who are not too enthusiastic about the Ph.D. degree. There are even those who think that it may restrict originality and cramp the genuinely creative research worker. Be this as it may, the critics of the doctorate do at least force us to remember that the relationship between the research student and his supervisor is a two-way process and, as has recently been said by Kapitza of the great Rutherford, he can be shocked by his

research student; Rutherford, "in fact, enjoyed being shocked by their originality and bold experimental innovations". A good supervisor must feel the spirit of adventure at the boundaries of knowledge; he must delight in the process of discovery; he must advise, but never control the work of his students. The bad research supervisor is, in my opinion, the person who is either too conservative in thought, or who is too busy in other activities to share and foster the spirit of adventure which is so vital in the development of good research. To have to work under a bad supervisor must indeed be, in an academic sense, "a fate worse than death". With the demand for more post-graduate work in criminology at the doctorate level, there is now a real danger that research students will not get the quality of supervision that is required. Perhaps in this era of expansion in higher education we should not try to develop too rapidly.

The merits of the present arrangements for research degrees are undeniable in terms of promoting originality and independence; they do, however, possess one important drawback, namely, the research student is offered no chance of experience in group research. There is little doubt that in the future much criminological research, along with sociological research in general, is likely to be undertaken by small groups of workers rather than by the lone independent researcher. Such developments have already taken place in the natural sciences in this country and in the social sciences in America.

My final questions then would be: should not some kinds of criminological work for doctoral dissertations involve group research? If so, what kind of topics would be most appropriately dealt with in this way? How could such research be organised so as to allow one to evaluate the originality of the different participants for the purpose of awarding higher degrees? Would this be the best way of tracking down answers to questions relating to crime prevention, law enforcement and the treatment of offenders in the society of today?

APPENDIX II

SEMINAR ON RESEARCH IN SOCIAL SCIENCES AND LAW

(Northamptonshire, 21-22 February, 1975)

THE EXPERIENCE OF CRIMINOLOGY*

by

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S.1. Criminology — an interdisciplinary subject?

Today many would strongly support the claim of the academic discipline of criminology to be centrally located within the framework of sociolegal studies.(1) Indeed, as far back as 1945, in an influential article from Cambridge, Radzinowicz and Turner, while advocating the need for an interdisciplinary approach to the subject — termed by them 'criminal science' — plainly recognized that criminology had its roots in the legal system: "A crime is an offence committed by an individual in society; this self-evident statement must be our point of departure."(2) But, although earlier schools of criminologists had accepted that the criminal conduct of the offender was the starting point of their studies, their main focus of attention in discussion and in research was, until comparatively recently, upon the aetiology of crime and the effectiveness of preventive and correctional programmes applied by the State.(3) Social mores, the criminal law, and the processes of criminal justice, tended to be passed over as unquestionably established and therefore with no problems to require research.(4)

Within the context of such developments, much discussion has taken place as to whether criminology should be properly regarded as interdisciplinary, multi-disciplinary or cross-disciplinary. It is noteworthy that in July 1966, T.H. Marshall, who was chairman of a section of the second National Conference on Criminology at Cambridge on the subject of "Teaching Criminology" opened the discussion with the provocative suggestion that perhaps criminology might even be described as "non-disciplinary". He went on to argue that an objective study of such a complex phenomenon as that of crime, and of the processes of criminal justice, clearly merited academic attention, but did not necessarily constitute a subject in the ordinary sense in which that term is applied in the Universities. He suggested that criminology could act primarily as a "focus of interest" drawing upon (as well as contributing to) a number of different academic disciplines.(5) But while the status of criminology in the academic world has remained far from clear it has been generally accepted that the subject embraces various aspects of a number of disciplines; those most frequently cited include biology, medicine, genetics, psychiatry, psychology, social anthropology, political science, economics, sociology, philosophy and law. The extent of its coverage, and the enormous amount of related research activities, has had both advantages and disadvantages, but

with a continuing lack of definition as regards its theoretical boundaries, coupled with the expansion of all the above mentioned disciplines, the latter probably outweigh the former.

S.2. The scope and objectives of criminology

Given the large range of disciplines upon which criminology draws, it is not surprising to find a considerable variation in the definition of its scope. The consequences of this are apparent from a cursory examination of the contents of University courses set out under the rubric of "criminology". It would not be possible within the limits of this paper to deal in any systematic way with the history of the development of criminology as a subject in Great Britain.(6) But it is useful to consider briefly the three definitions of criminology that have probably had the greatest influence on the current British situation; namely those of Cressey, Mannheim and Radzinowicz.(7) Each has had an influence on the way in which students have pursued their study, and consequently upon the kind of research that has been conceived and carried out.(8)

The definition of aims and scope of criminology given by Cressey is based upon that formulated by Edwin H. Sutherland in 1924.(9) The definition given in the 1970 edition of their textbook is as follows:

"Criminology is the body of knowledge regarding delinquency and crime as a social phenomenon. It includes within its scope the processes of making laws, of breaking laws, and of reacting towards the breaking of laws. These processes are three aspects of a somewhat unified sequence of interactions. Certain acts which are regarded as undesirable are defined by the political society as crimes. In spite of this definition some people persist in the behaviour and thus commit crimes; the political society reacts by punishment, treatment or prevention. This sequence of interaction is the subject matter of criminology.

"Criminology consists of three divisions, as follows: (a) the sociology of law, which is an attempt at systematic analysis of the conditions under which criminal laws develop . . . (b) criminal aetiology, which is an attempt at scientific analysis of the causes of crime; and (c) penology, which

is concerned with control of crime . . .

"The objective of criminology is the development of a body of general and verified principles and of other types of knowledge regarding this process of law, crime and reaction to crime. This knowledge will contribute to the development of other sciences, and through these other social sciences it will contribute to an understanding of social behaviour. In addition, criminology is concerned with the immediate application of knowledge to programs of crime control."(10)

It is worth pointing out that while Cressey emphasises the importance of the sociology of law as an integral part of criminology, his textbook has no more than a very short chapter on this aspect of the subject. While penology, i.e., the control of crime, of crime, is extensively dealt with by Cressey in a sociological context, he does not seem to consider it as an integral part of the sociology of criminal justice. Cressey's position as regards the practical implications of criminology should be noted.

Mannheim's two-volume textbook on criminology was not published until 1965, some ten years after his retirement from London University, but it is based upon the courses of lectures he gave at the LSE from the early nineteen-forties onwards, and had therefore a considerable influence:

"Criminology, in the narrower sense . . . means the study of crime. In its wider sense it also includes penology, the study of punishment and of similar methods of dealing with crime, and of the problems of preventing crime by non-punitive measures . . . We can define crime in legal terms as human behaviour which is punishable by the criminal law. The study of such behaviour can assume three basic forms: 1. The Descriptive approach, 2. The Causal approach and 3. The Normative approach."(11)

Mannheim gives considerably more attention than Cressey to the relationships between criminal law, criminal justice and criminology; but he regards penology as outside the scope of his textbook, so the socio-legal aspects of law-enforcement and the penal system are not further discussed. However, Mannheim was deeply concerned with penal reform and with criminal law reform, and regarded these as forming a legitimate part of the work of the criminologist as can be seen from several of his other writings.(12)

Radzinowicz has not written a textbook on criminology — although nobody has had a greater influence on its development in Great Britain; he has, however, referred to its subject matter in a number of different publications, although at the same time, in his usual forthright style, denying the need for a precise definition:

"I do not deny the need to consider the content of criminology, but I deprecate these elaborate subdivisions and the rather naïve belief that clear-cut definitions can be achieved and can serve a useful purpose in advancing criminological knowledge. There is something abstract

and schematic about this whole intellectual exercise.

"It is not a definition that is needed but a workmanlike description of functions. Criminology, in its narrow sense, is concerned with the study of the phenomenon of crime and of the factors or circumstances — individual and environmental — which may have had an influence on, or be associated with, criminal behaviour and the state of crime in general. But this does not, and should not, exhaust the whole subject matter of criminology. There remains the vitally important problem of combating crime. The systematic study of all the measures to be taken in the spheres of prevention (direct and indirect), of legislation, of the enforcement of the criminal law, of punishments and other methods of treatment, constitutes an indisputable and integral part of criminology. To rob it of this practical function is to divorce criminology from reality and render it sterile. Its individual entity lies in the peculiar purpose that brought it into existence: namely the study of crime, its conditioning, its prevention and its treatment."(13)

Again, within this "workmanlike description" there is a recognition of the socio-legal component of criminology although such a component does not seem to be related to a sociological approach to the study of law but rather to the practical implications of the subject.

S.3. Some limitations of traditional criminology

Quite clearly each of these three statements contain strong elements of a "positivist" approach, which, in a sociological context, has determined to a substantial extent the nature of the research carried out and the methodological approach to it. If this remark unequivocally expresses a belief that there are certain shortcomings in the kind of research thus produced, there is no implication that such work should be summarily dismissed by using "positivist" as a derogatory epithet in the tradition of those younger scholars who march under the banner of the New Criminology.(14) Furthermore, it may very well be that the British development in criminology owes as much to the emphasis on "individualism" of classical political economy as it does to French positivism. But quite separate from the application of the "natural scientific approach", in much of British criminology, an emphasis has also been placed upon the practical application of criminological findings by those responsible for law and social control. The statement by Radzinowicz exemplifies this most clearly, although it is also of substantial importance to each of the other two scholars quoted. One can adduce the fact, which is not merely a coincidence, that the majority of essays published in honour of Herman Mannheim were of a penological or applied criminological nature!(15) and that the recent *Festschrift* for Sir Leon Radzinowicz is edited and published under the title *Crime, Criminology and Public Policy*.(16) This is not to deny the authors of this tradition a wider perspective than that of the immediately practical. Radzinowicz's

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History of the English Criminal Law and Administration (17) is a monumental refutation of any such imputation, and in his small study on **The Need for Criminology** he describes his theme with a Churchillian grandeur:

"Problems of crime and the administration of criminal justice have an intrinsic social and moral significance. They are not exclusively penal problems, for they have a political and constitutional relevance, closely touching the rights of the citizen, the welfare of the community, the authority of the State. What is done about them is an index of the conscience of society and the degree of civilization."(18)

Nor should it be concluded that this criminological tradition is unaware of the somewhat limited role of criminological research in penal policy. To quote Radzinowicz, again:

". . . the connection between criminological research and penal reform should not be too dogmatically insisted upon. Treatment by probation, the borstal system, the juvenile courts, and several other innovations, were not devised on the strength of fresh and precise criminological knowledge. They can be shown to have evolved, on the whole, under the influence of growing social consciousness, of religious movements and philanthropic stimulus, from some temporary measure, or just from straightforward common-sense, supported by experience."(19)

In the above-mentioned **Festschrift**, Roger Hood, in a similar tradition, expresses this in admirable detail in his essay entitled: 'Criminology and penal change: a case study of the nature and impact of some recent advice to governments'.(20)

Nevertheless, there are dangers ahead for the current developments of socio-legal studies if the impressive contribution of four decades of British criminology leads to uncritical emulation. With hindsight, it has to be recognized that underlying much of British criminology since the Second World War there has been a spontaneous consensus between the policymakers, the administrators and practitioners, and the academic scholars. It is understandable how wartime conditions generated such a consensus and how it continued to survive long after it ceased to be a reality. Its effect on criminology should not be underestimated. It has resulted in the absence of interest in fundamental sociological theory; either of social deviance or social control. It has tended to lead to histories of progress towards criminal and social justice, rather than to sociologically grounded perspectives of history in studies of criminal justice. Finally, its effect on research has been in the direction of producing criminological studies for the criminal justice system, rather than of the criminal justice system. Many will agree with Carson when he points out the danger that, in the current climate, the sociology of law may become prematurely harnessed to the demands of immediate legal applicability and not be effectively guided by significant theoretical concern; but perhaps he is somewhat exaggerating and oversimplifying the position when he asserts that:

"The plight from which British criminology is still extricating itself could all too easily become the fate of the sociology of law."(21)

Perhaps in this context the lesson to be learnt from the experience of criminology is the need to distinguish clearly between a sociology of law and sociological studies for the legal system.

S.4. The Universities and other bodies concerned with criminology

Because of the liability of governments, and their public accountability, for action taken with respect to crime, law-enforcement, criminal justice and the correctional system, teaching and research in criminology have not remained the exclusive concern of the Universities. It is well known that the Home Office has a Criminological Research Unit as well as a Police Research Unit.(22) Also, the Council of Europe,(23) the United Nations(24) and the World Health Organization(25) have during the last two decades initiated research into crime problems and the treatment of offenders. Furthermore, a substantial amount of criminological research in Great Britain has been financed by the Government under the special provisions of the Criminal Justice Act, 1948.(26) As regards the teaching of criminology fairly strong links have been forged between the Universities and those concerned with professional and practical aspects of criminal justice. It is interesting to note that at the 1966 National Conference papers were given on the role of criminology in the training of probation officers, prison staff, police and magistrates as well as on the special role of the Cambridge Senior Course in Criminology.(27) Since then teaching of criminology in these spheres has increased and Cambridge has also introduced the Cropwood Fellowship and Conference scheme to strengthen further the connections between the academic work of criminologists and the practice of those engaged in the administration of criminal justice and the treatment of offenders.(28) All these developments have tended to emphasise to academic criminologists the immediate practical issues of criminal justice, perhaps to some extent to the detriment of what Carson refers to as significant theoretical concerns.

The state of the teaching of criminology in Universities was surveyed, on a world-wide basis, in a UNESCO Report published in 1957.(29) The United Kingdom report prepared by Mannheim makes interesting reading in the light of the rapid developments which have subsequently taken place in many Universities. In this regard, three significant developments have taken place; first, the strengthening and progress of criminology as a subject for research and teaching within law faculties; secondly the development of courses of social deviance in faculties of social studies (both in the Universities and in the Polytechnics); and thirdly, the establishment of the biennial National Conferences on Criminology at Cambridge, and the later formation of an opposition group designated 'National Deviancy Symposium'.(30) These advances have tended to polarize the more practical tradition of orthodox criminology and the more theoretical discussions of the sociologists. The establishment of criminology in the law faculties of Cambridge, Sheffield and Edinburgh has been particularly firm, while

at London, Oxford and Birmingham, the footing remains in a more or less steady state.(31) Many other Universities have, however, established undergraduate courses in criminology for students of law and of social administration and appointed specialist lecturers in the subject.

The controversies between the sociologists of deviance and the criminologists during the last decade have engendered much conflict and a few useful polemical publications.(32) At some stages these conflicts fell to the level of personal vituperations and the tendency was towards political polarization between revolutionary and conservative commitment. But this is now mainly a part of the social history of British criminology. The positive outcome of this period of dispute has been (1) to bring back into criminology the thinking and writings of the main stream of sociologists, (2) to introduce a much more sophisticated approach to methodological questions and research design, and (3) to make all concerned more critically aware of the implications of accepting social problems as research topics in the terms in which they are defined by the policymaker, administrator or practitioner.(33)

Today, academic criminology concentrates its interest on crime problems and criminal justice. Its primary roots are in legal scholarship and sociology, but it also draws upon various other disciplines in so far as it maintains a commitment to assist in solving immediate practical problems within a society.(34)

The position of criminology is however a complex one. Crime problems are viewed much less as resulting from individual factors as from a social interactive process which requires a consideration of the sociological theory of institutions, including that of the criminal law.(35) The definition of a psychopath and the categories of persons labelled mentally abnormal are seen as an integral part of the social process itself. Furthermore, it has been strongly suggested that the function of the criminologist could be more properly defined as one of question raising rather than of question solving.(36) To continue these two tasks is not easy but, as we have mentioned in another context, may not be impossible:

"Criminologists in Great Britain are being consulted about projected changes in the criminal law and penal administration. This, in itself, may be regarded as a healthy development and a recognition of the practical relevance of modern criminology; but there is also the danger that in so far as the criminologist undertakes the role of a technologist in the social sphere he may neglect his more fundamental role of being an independent and informed critic of the basic issues of the social and penal processes in contemporary society . . . above all the academic criminologists will need to consider what they think their role should be. It may be that criminologists can assist in bringing about more effective control and yet also remain independent critics of the social and penal system but clearly these two roles are inevitably to some extent in conflict and they are difficult to fulfill by the same individual."(37)

Because of the powerful position of the agents of the State in relation to crime prevention, criminal justice and crime control, it can be claimed that criminology has a special position in relation to both sociology and legal studies.

S.5. Criminology and socio-legal studies

While the criminologists and sociologists have been engaged in the limelight, in a long-drawn out dispute about crime and social deviance, there has been, more or less behind the scenes, the gradual development in the Universities of socio-legal studies. This has led to collaborative exercises, between lawyers and sociologists, in both teaching and research in spheres outside those traditionally covered by criminology. Following the growing strength of such studies some serious consideration has been given to the question as to whether or not criminology should exist as a subject separate from socio-legal studies. Thus, while some sociologists attempted to absorb much of traditional criminology into the social theory of deviance, some lawyers have retaliated with their own in-roads into the same territory by properly linking the study of criminal justice processes with other socio-legal issues. The Social Science Research Council has perhaps to some extent contributed to this latter development by appointing a Committee to foster the developments of socio-legal studies under terms of reference which explicitly exclude criminology.

Undoubtedly, the relatively early arrival of criminology into the Universities — supported primarily from outside sources — has had a substantial influence on the thinking behind the development of socio-legal studies. This question cannot, of course, be considered in detail here. But the way in which criminology and socio-legal studies co-exist in a number of British Universities is worth noting. In Cambridge, with its well-organized interdisciplinary Institute of Criminology established as a department within the Faculty of Law, there has been little support for expanding collaboration with sociologists in other legal spheres. Criminology is regarded as the exception: pure law as the rule. At Oxford there have been substantial developments in socio-legal studies separate from the continuing small group of criminologists who work mainly on penological subjects. In Birmingham, the Institute of Judicial Administration of the Faculty of Law brings together socio-legal studies and criminology. In London, criminology is found distributed separately with sociology, law and psychiatry while socio-legal studies are independent. In Edinburgh, criminology and socio-legal studies are located in different departments within the Faculty of Law, but they exist in amicable accord and pursue matters of common interest through the Socio-Legal Committee and the Development Committee of the School of Criminology and Forensic Studies. In Sheffield, the staff of criminologists and those concerned with socio-legal studies are developing in close partnership within the Faculty of Law.

It may be that this wide variety of associations inevitably results from the autonomy of the Universities. It may also partly reflect a transitory stage of development in the relationship between the two subjects. Perhaps now is the right moment to consider the arrangements which would be appropriate in the best interest of those who teach and study the

subjects, and law faculties generally. Undoubtedly criminology and socio-legal studies have a great deal in common to link them academically, although as set out above there are good reasons for suggesting that criminology should keep its own identity.

S.6. Criminological research and socio-legal problems

It is not proposed to review even the main literature in criminology in this short paper. Such a task would be a formidable one and is really a major research project in its own right. This can to some extent be illustrated by referring to the Institute of Criminology Library at Cambridge, which I assisted in building up during the period 1960 onwards. It now has almost 25,000 holdings and is running at a growth rate of approximately 1,800 additions each year. The recent bibliography of English-language articles and books on research into Violence contains by itself more than three thousand items.(38) As mentioned in Section 4 above, there has been in recent years a number of significant developments in criminological research: changes in aims, changes in emphasis and in methods applied. The movement is fairly wide-spread, especially now through the stimulus and encouragement being given by international organizations; however, the main areas of activity are Great Britain and the Continent of Europe, and North America.

It is difficult to describe the complexities of these developments; but briefly, there are three aspects that should be singled out: (1) the nature of the research to be undertaken in relation to the wider question of knowledge about society — for the criminologist, specifically into the phenomenon of crime and the criminal justice process; (2) a change in the main criminological focus from concern with the individual characteristics of the offender — seen as a person who is different from others because he has been involved in undesirable behaviour — to a concern with the social definition of crime and the processes of criminal justice within the socio-legal system; and (3) a concentration of research interest on the social behaviour which has resulted in the label of offender, as seen from the perspective of those involved rather than from the point of view of those responsible for social control.

The first aspect relates to all spheres of social science research: all are familiar with the issues even if not entirely clear about their implications. In this context Donald MacRae's recent statement is worthy of consideration: "... in Britain the Social Science Research Council, doubtless without deliberate intent, is biased in favour of radical quantitative empiricism — a kind of positivism in which the techniques are sophisticated and the intellectual element absent."(39)

The second aspect indicates a closer convergence of research interest and activity between the criminologists and those engaged in socio-legal studies. The study of the legislative process in relation to criminal law, policing, juvenile justice, the criminal justice processes, and the rights retained and lost of the incarcerated in relation to executive power and the working of the correctional system, are all areas of research in criminology today and are equally important to the development of socio-legal studies. In this connection it should

be remembered that the historical and comparative perspectives have come more to the forefront of attention, especially with the growing recognition of the naive social functionalism on which until recently so much of criminological research was based.(40)

The third aspect of criminological development has many facets, but of particular importance in this context is the way in which research topics are defined in relation to issues and problems of public policy. Also the approach emphasises not just what the system does for people, but also what the system does to people. Clearly, this is an area of common concern to those studying civil law processes as well as to those studying criminal justice.

In the light of recent developments in criminological research one might judge that the following topics in Great Britain are likely to be main growth points: (1) from the earlier state studies of the social phenomenon of crime to studies of delinquents and their victims as interactive processes, and further studies of social deviance in relation to the criminal law process; (2) within law-enforcement, the development of sociological studies of policing, in relation to organization, training, and police assessment of, and attitudes to, crime problems; (3) from formal and factual studies of processes of criminal justice, to studies based upon the point of view of the accused and the effects of the trial process in relation to the period after sentence; (4) the problems of sentencing in a pluralistic society in relation to the question of correctional processes versus control and containment; (5) more sophisticated studies of public attitudes and opinion in relation to crime and criminal justice, and (6) from static studies of the characteristics of offenders, or persistent offenders, to those which place greater emphasis on the social life style of the individual in relation to dynamic socio-psychological processes.

There is little doubt that criminological research will necessarily continue to be involved with issues of practical concern and public policy but in the future it is also anticipated that it will devote more attention to fundamental issues relating to social theory. Such a strategy in the long run may very well lead to a body of knowledge that has greater relevance to those concerned with policy issues.

This paper has drawn attention to some of the issues confronting criminological research which have direct relevance for socio-legal research. It has also made clear that the organizational framework within which these research activities occur need further serious consideration. Accordingly in addition to giving consideration to the relationship between these two subjects — or spheres of concern — the Social Science and Law Committee might with advantage sponsor a project to survey the criminological research of the last two decades in order to ascertain its relevance, both as regards achievement and defect, for the development of socio-legal studies.



NOTES AND REFERENCES

(1) This statement, of course, implies that criminology can justify its claim to independent academic existence, a claim which has been denied by a number of younger sociologists.

(2) See "The meaning and scope of criminal science", by L. Radzinowicz and J.W.C. Turner, in *The Modern Approach to Criminal Law* (1945), pp. 12-26.

(3) See *Pioneers in Criminology* (1969) ed. by Herman Mannheim. This applied less to Cambridge where initial developments in criminology were associated with research into the social administration of criminal justice. See *The Journal of Criminal Science* (Vols. I and II) and the earlier volume in the series *English Studies in Criminal Science*, ed. by L. Radzinowicz and J.W.C. Turner.

(4) See the criticism of traditional criminology in the Introduction to *Images of Deviance* (1971), ed. by S. Cohen.

(5) "Proceedings of the Second National Conference on Research and Teaching in Criminology, Cambridge, 1966".

(6) Such a history has still to be written, but in a wider context a number of the issues are discussed in *Ideology and Crime: a study of crime in its social and historical context* (1965), by L. Radzinowicz.

(7) Donald R. Cressey has edited a text book which was written primarily for American students; it was, however, for many years also the favoured textbook for British students.

(8) Each scholar has been responsible besides for directly promoting a substantial volume of criminological research.

(9) There is little variation in the definition given here from that contained in the last edition edited by Sutherland in 1939.

(10) *Criminology* (8th edition, 1970) by the late Edwin H. Sutherland and Donald R. Cressey, p. 3.

(11) *Comparative Criminology* (1965) by Hermann Mannheim, vol. 1, p. 3.

(12) See especially *The Dilemma of Penal Reform* (1939) and *Criminal Justice and Social Reconstruction* (1946).

(13) *In Search of Criminology* (1961) by Leon Radzinowicz, p. 168.

(14) *The New Criminology* (1973) by Ian Taylor, Paul Walton and Jock Young.

(15) *Criminology in Transition: Essays in honour of Hermann Mannheim* (1965), ed. by T. Grygier, H. Jones and J. C. Spencer.

(16) *Crime, Criminology and Public Policy: Essays in honour of Sir Leon Radzinowicz* (1974) ed. by Roger Hood.

(17) *A History of English Criminal Law* (1948-56, 4 vols.) by L. Radzinowicz.

(18) *The Need for Criminology* (1965) by L. Radzinowicz.

(19) *In Search of Criminology* (1961) by L. Radzinowicz, pp. 178-9.

(20) *Crime, Criminology and Public Policy* (1974), pp. 375-417.

(21) "The Sociology of Crime and the Emergence of Criminal Law" by W. G. Carson, in *Deviance and Social Control* (1974) ed. by Paul Rock and Mary McIntosh.

(22) For an account of the origins and work of the Home Office Research Unit see "The Foundation of the Home Office Research Unit" by T. S. Lodge (its first Director) in *Crime, Criminology and Public Policy* (1974), pp. 11-24. See also the series of Home Office Research Studies, published by HMSO.

(23) See the publication of the European Committee on Crime Problems, especially the twelve volumes of *Collected Studies in Criminological Research*. Also, "The Foundation of co-operation in European criminological research" by Inkeri Anttila, in *Crime, Criminology and Public Policy* (1974) pp. 25-32.

(24) The main work of the United Nations in criminology and crime prevention is reported in the *International Review of Criminal Policy*.

(25) WHO has taken the initiative in promoting discussion and sponsoring research in a large number of spheres, including mental health issues and crime; drugs; alcoholism and crime; mental health issues relating to juvenile and adolescent offenders.

(26) The research supported under the provisions of the Criminal Justice Act is expected to have a direct bearing on issues relating to criminal justice. This provision is sometimes interpreted very broadly; see for example the Reports of the Cambridge Study of Delinquency Development by D. J. West et al, which have been financed from this source.

(27) "The place of criminology in the professional training of probation and after-care officers" by May Irving; "The place of criminology in the training of prison staff" by N. A. Jepson; "The place of criminology in the training of the police" by P. J. Stead; "The place of criminology in the training of magistrates" by A. M. F. Webb; and "The Cambridge Senior Course in Criminology" by R. L. Morrison. All in Proceedings of the Second National Conference on Research and Teaching in Criminology (mimeograph, Cambridge 1966).

(28) Funds provided by the Cadbury Trust to facilitate short periods of study leave spent in the University for those engaged in police work, criminal justice administration or the treatment of offenders. The small round-table conferences are designed to bring together the practitioners and academic criminologists to discuss subjects that have an immediate practical importance, e.g., "Psychopathic Offenders", "The residential treatment of disturbed and delinquent boys", "The security industry in the United Kingdom", "The English parole system".

(29) *The University teaching of social sciences: criminology* (UNESCO, 1957).

(30) See *Images of Deviance* (1971) ed. by S. Cohen.

(31) Courses in the sociology of deviance were established in a number of social science faculties in the universities and in the polytechnics frequently in opposition to courses in criminology.

(32) A large number of mimeographed papers have been put out by the National Deviancy Symposium. Some of these have been brought together in *Images of Deviance* (1971) ed. by S. Cohen, and *Politics and Deviance* (1973) ed. by Ian Taylor and Laurie Taylor.

(33) Important in this respect are *Deviance and Social Control* (1974) ed. by Paul Rock and Mary McIntosh, and *Deviant Behaviour* (1974) by Paul Rock.

(34) There is, of course, also the theoretical question of the relationship between social psychology and the theory of social deviance. See *Deviance and Society* (1971) by Laurie Taylor, and *Discovering Sociology* (1973) by John Rex, ch. 19, "Sociological Theory and Deviance Theory".

(35) See "A case study in the social origins of Criminal Law" by W G Carson in *Crime, Criminology and Public Policy* (1974), pp. 107-138, and *Social Deviance* (1974) by Paul Rock.

(36) "Scandinavian Criminology facing the 1970s" by Nils Christie, in *Scandinavian Studies in Criminology*, Vol. 3, 1971, pp. 121-140.

(37) "Crime problems in Great Britain today" by N. H. Avison and F. H. McClintock in *Proceedings of VI International Congress on Criminology* (Madrid, 1970, mimeograph).

(38) See *Research on Violence* (1974). Bibliographical Series No. 6, Institute of Criminology, University of Cambridge.

(39) "Black on Black and White" by Donald MacRae, in *The Times Literary Supplement*, February 14, 1975, p. 162.

(40) See *Deviance, Crime and Socio-Legal Control* (1973) by Roland Robertson and Laurie Taylor.

APPENDIX III

(Addendum to the paper of Josef M. Häussling)

STUDIENVERLAUFSPLAN

Der Studienverlaufsplan ergibt sich aus den beiliegenden Tabellen getrennt für Grund- und Hauptstudium. Die Nummerierung der Studienelemente entspricht nach Fächern geordnet der Zeitlichen Folge im Verlauf des Studiums. Dieser Verlaufsplan hat für den Studenten empfehlenden Charakter, insbesondere bleibt die Möglichkeit, das Studium gemäss persönlichen Neigungen und Interessen zu organisieren, unberührt.

- GRUNDSTUDIUM - (Basic Studies)

Wissenschaftstheorie und Methodenlehre der Sozialwissenschaften

- SE 1 Wissenschaftstheorie (2 SWS)
SE 2 Methodenlehre (4 SWS)

Statistik für Sozialwissenschaften

- SE 3 Statistik (4 SWS)

Allgemeine Soziologie

- SE 4 Einführung in die Soziologie (3 SWS)
SE 5 Soziologische Theorien (5 SWS)
SE 6 Anwendungsbereiche der Soziologie (4 SWS)

Soziologie abweichenden Verhaltens

- SE 7 Soziale Probleme (4 SWS)
SE 8 Institutionen sozialer Kontrolle (4 SWS)
SE 9 Soziologische Theorien abweich. Verhaltens (4 SWS)
SE 14 Orientierungskurs für das Hauptstudium (2 SWS)

Sozialpsychologie

- SE 10 Allgemeine Grundlagen der Psychologie (4 SWS)
SE 11 Sozialpsychologie (8 SWS)
SE 14 Orientierungskurs für das Hauptstudium (2 SWS)

Sozialpädagogik

- SE 12 Allgemeine Erziehungswissenschaftliche und sozialpädagogische Grundlagen (4 SWS)
SE 13 Pädagogische Handlungsfelder (2 SWS)
SE 14 Orientierungskurs für das Hauptstudium (2 SWS)

Rechtswissenschaft

- SE 15 Grundbegriffe des Privatrechts (2 SWS)
SE 16 Grundbegriffe von Straf- und Jugendstrafrecht und dem Recht der Ordnungswidrigkeiten (2 SWS)
SE 17 Organisation und Formen öffentlicher und privater Verwaltung sowie Grundbegriffe des Verwaltungshandelns (2 SWS)

- SE 18 Verfassung, Gesamtrechtsordnung und Verwirklichung des sozialen Rechtsstaates (2 SWS)

Erkundungspraktikum

- SE 19 Vor- und Nachbereitung des Praktikums sowie wissenschaftliche Exkursionen (6 SWS)

Wahlpflichtfach

- SE 35 Wahlpflichtfach (8 SWS)

- HAUPTSTUDIUM - (Main Studies)

Soziologie abweichenden Verhaltens

- SE 20 Anwendungsbereiche der Soziologie abweichenden Verhaltens (4 SWS)
SE 21 Spezialgebiete der Soziologie abweichenden Verhaltens und sozialer Kontrolle (4 SWS)

Sozialpädagogik

- SE 22 Historisch bestimmte gesellschaftliche Funktionen pädagogischer Praxis (3 SWS)
SE 23 Pädagogisches Handeln (5 SWS)

Sozialpsychologie

- SE 24 Theoretische Vertiefung: soziale Interaktion (4 SWS)
SE 25 Verfahrensweisen und Techniken psychologischer Behandlungsstrategien (4 SWS)

Rechtswissenschaft

- SE 26 Familien- und Vormundschaftsrecht; Arbeitsrecht; Recht der sozialen Sicherung und Planung (4 SWS)
SE 27 Staatliche Einwirkungsmöglichkeiten bei Sozialisationsstörungen (4 SWS)
SE 28 Spezielle Probleme der Rechts- und Sozialphilosophie (2 SWS)

Studienschwerpunkte

- SE 29 Delinquenzprophylaxe
SE 30 Straffälligenpädagogik
SE 31 Rehabilitation und Sozialtherapie (10 SWS)

Forschung und Praktikum

- SE 32 Forschungsprobleme der Soz.wiss.schaften (6 SWS)
SE 33 Vor- u. Nachbereitung d.Forschungspraktikums (4 SWS)
SE 34 Berufsfeldanalyse (2 SWS)

Wahlpflichtfach

- SE 35 Wahlpflichtfach (10 SWS)

Der auf 80 SWS verbleibende Rest von 14 SWS soll "dem Studenten Gelegenheit zur selbständigen Vorbereitung und Vertiefung des Stoffes und zur Teilnahme an zusätzlichen Lehrveranstaltungen nach eigener Wahl" (HRG § 11 Abs. 2 S.4) geben.

SE = Studienelement (seminars)
SWS = Semesterwochenstunden (9 weekly periods per semester)

APPENDIX IV

(Addendum to the paper of Jacques Léauté)

Université de Droit, d'Economie et de Sciences Sociales de Paris

D.E.A. DE CRIMINOLOGIE, PENOLOGIE ET READAPTATION SOCIALE

Responsable: Professeur LEAUTE.

Ce D.E.A. peut être ouvert aux étudiants titulaires de la licence en Droit.

L'autorisation d'inscription sera accordée après examen du dossier déposé par l'étudiant.

Organisation des Enseignements

1—L'étudiant suit obligatoirement les cours théoriques suivants et les séminaires qui sont rattachés:

- * Cours (1 h annuelle)
- Sociologie criminelle (2 h. semestrielles)
M. LEAUTE
- Sociologie juridique
M. CARBONNIER
- * Séminaires (2 h annuelles)
- Méthodologie de sciences criminelles (1 sem.)
M. LEAUTE
- Sociologie criminelle (1 sem.)
M. LEAUTE
- Sociologie juridique
M. CARBONNIER

2—En outre, l'étudiant suit un séminaire annuel ou deux séminaires semestriels à choisir parmi les enseignements suivants:

- Informatique juridique (1 sem.) [1]
M. CATALA
- Philosophie pénale (1 sem.)
Mlle BONGERT
- Politiques criminelles comparées et pénologie comparée (2 sem.)
M. LEVASSEUR
- Traitement pénitentiaire (1 sem.)
M. LEVASSEUR

* Les séminaires à option pour lesquels au moins huit étudiants ne se seront pas fait inscrire ne seront pas ouverts.

Controle Des Connaissances

I Admissibilité:

Enseignement théo. ou désigné en premier par l'étudiant	Epreuve écrite	Contrôle continu sur le séminaire ou sur le groupe des deux séminaires correspondants
	50% de la note	50% de la note

II Admission:

a) Enseignement théorique désigné en second par l'étudiant	Exposé-discussion	Contrôle continu sur le séminaire ou sur le groupe des deux séminaires correspondants
	60% de la note	40% de la note

b) Le séminaire annuel ou un des deux séminaires semestriels désigné par l'étudiant

Epreuve orale	Côntrole continu
60% de la note	40% de la note

c) Eventuellement, le second séminaire semestriel désigné par l'étudiant

Epreuve orale	Côntrole continu
60% de la note	40% de la note

Université de Droit, d'Economie et de Sciences Sociales de Paris

D.E.A. DE THEORIE ET PRATIQUE DU DROIT PENAL ET DE POLITIQUE CRIMINELLE

Responsable: Professor SOYER

Ce D.E.A. peut être ouvert aux étudiants titulaires de la licence en Droit.

L'autorisation d'inscription sera accordée après examen du dossier déposé par l'étudiant.

Organisation Des Enseignements

1—L'étudiant suit deux cours théoriques à choisir parmi les enseignements suivants et les séminaires qui leur sont rattachés.

- * Cours (1 h annuelle)
- Droit pénal général
M. DECOCQ
- Droit Pénal spécial
M. LOMBOIS
- Politiques criminelles comparées
M. LEVASSEUR
- * Séminaires (2 h annuelles)
- Droit pénal général et appliqué
M. DECOCQ
- Droit pénal spécial appliqué
Mme RASSAT - Mlle MAYER
- Politiques criminelles comparées et pénologie comparée
M. LEVASSEUR

2—En outre, l'étudiant suit un séminaire annuel ou deux séminaires semestriels à choisir parmi les enseignements suivants:

- Droits de l'Homme (1 sem.)
M. ROBERT
- Droit pénal des affaires (1 sem.)
Mme DELMAS
- Droit pénal international (1 sem.)
M. PLAWSKI

[1] Il est précisé que ce séminaire constitue un enseignement d'initiation qui ne suppose pas de connaissances mathématiques ou information particulières.

- Histoire du droit pénal et de la procédure pénale (1 sem.)
Mlle PIVETEAU
- Informatique juridique (1 sem.) [1]
M. CATALA
- Libertés publiques (1 sem.)
M. ROBERT
- Philosophie pénal (1 sem.)
Mlle BONGERT
- Procédure pénale (2 sem.)
Mme MAYER-JACK

* Les séminaires à option pour lesquels au moins huit étudiants ne se seront pas fait inscrire ne seront pas ouverts.

Contrôle Des Connaissances

I Admissibilité

Enseignement théorique désigné en premier par l'étudiant	Epreuve écrite	Contrôle continu sur le séminaire correspondant 50% de la note
	50% de la note	

II Admission

a) Enseignement théorique désigné en second par l'étudiant	Exposé-discussion	Contrôle continu sur le séminaire correspondant 40% de la note
b) Le séminaire annuel ou un des deux séminaires semestriels désigné par l'étudiant	Epreuve orale	Contrôle continu 40% de la note
c) Eventuellement le second séminaire semestriel désigné par l'étudiant	Epreuve orale	Contrôle continu 40% de la note

Université d'Aix en Provence D.E.A. De Science Penale et Criminologie

1—Deux cours théoriques obligatoires à choisir parmi:

- Criminologie théorique
- Droit pénal général
- Procédure pénale

Trois séminaires obligatoires:

- Méthodes de la criminologie
- Science pénitentiaire
- Droit pénal spécial

[1] Il est précisé que séminaire constitue un enseignement d'initiation qui ne suppose pas de connaissances mathématiques ou informatiques particulières.

- 2—Deux séminaires à choisir parmi:
- Droit pénal des affaires
 - Histoire de la répression pénale
 - d'autres séminaires à prendre dan d'autres D.E.A.

Universités de Bordeaux et Pau D.E.A. de Criminologie et Penologie

1—Deux cours théoriques obligatoires:

- Crise pénitentiaire
 - Delinquance juvenile et adult
- Deux séminaires sur ces sujets

2—Deux séminaires à choisir parmi:

- Histoire du Droit pénal
- Criminalité des étrangers
- Environnement et criminalité

Université de Grenoble D.E.A. de Science Criminelle et Criminologie

1—Deux cours théoriques:

- Droit pénal général et spécial
 - Rapport entre droit civil, droit administratif et droit pénal
- Deux séminaires sur ces sujets

2—Deux séminaires au choix:

- Science criminologique
- Science pénitentiaire
- Histoire du droit pénal
- Pathologie
- Médecine légale et criminalistique
- Procédure policière
- Droit pénal pratique

Université de Lyon D.E.A. de Droit Pénal et Science Criminologique

1—Deux cours théoriques:

- Théorie du droit criminel
 - Criminologie
- et deux séminaires à choisir parmi:

- Droit pénal des affaires
- Procédure pénale
- Sociologie criminelle

Université de Montpellier D.E.A. de Sciences Criminelles

1—Deux cours théoriques à choisir entre:

- a) Droit pénal général/
Droit pénal spécial
 - b) Procédure pénale
 - c) Criminologie
- et deux séminaires sur ces sujets

2—Deux séminaires au choix sur:

- a) Criminologie
- b) Pénologie
- c) Police scientifique

APPENDIX V

POST-GRADUATE SCHOOL IN CRIMINAL LAW AND CRIMINOLOGY (Rome University Statutes)

Director: Prof. Tullio Delogu

(First Addendum to the paper of Giacomo Canepa)

Art. 185.—The educational purpose of the School is to study in depth the theories of criminal law, criminal procedure and criminological disciplines as well as their application; its scientific purpose is the systematic research related to these disciplines.

To this aim, the School:

- a) offers a biennial course of studies leading to a diploma which is restricted to regularly enrolled students;
- b) offers seminars on specific subjects or groups of subjects not limited to regularly enrolled students;
- c) offers in-service training courses for magistrates and civil servants;
- d) directs and carries out scientific research on its own or for other agencies.

The School carries out its activities within the Institute of Criminal Law, which is its official seat, and is connected, whenever this is necessary, with the Italian Section of the Association Internationale de Droit Penal; with the International Society of Criminology; with the Correctional Studies Section of the Ministry of Justice; and with the post-graduate School in Clinical Criminology, all based in Rome; and with any other Italian or foreign agency whose cooperation may be considered desirable.

Art. 186.—The rules under Art. 177, Title XVI of the Statutes of the University of Rome, concerning the general dispositions on post-graduate Schools, are applicable to the direction of the School and its faculty.

Art. 187.—The courses which will be offered in the regular biennial program of post-graduate training are compulsory or elective according to the following curriculum:

First year

Section 1: Juridical Studies

1. a) General Principles of Criminal Law
b) Seminars on the Criminal Law in Practice
2. a) Criminal Procedure
b) Seminars on Case Material
3. Constitutional Criminal Law
4. Penology
5. One course to be chosen from the elective juridical section

Section 2: Criminological Studies

1. General Criminology
2. Criminal Psychopathology
3. Forensic Psychology
4. Methodology of Criminal Statistics
5. Criminalistics

6. One course to be chosen from the elective criminological section

Second year

Section 1: Juridical Studies

1. a) Criminal Law in Relation to Specific Crimes
b) Seminars on the Criminal Law in Practice
2. a) Criminal Procedure
b) Seminars on Case Material
3. Law and Procedure with Juvenile Offenders
4. Police and the Law
5. Sociology of Criminal Law
6. One course to be chosen from the elective juridical section

Section 2: Criminological Studies

1. Criminology and the Criminal Law
2. Criminology and the Prevention and Control of Crime
3. Theories and Practices in Penology
4. Forensic Medicine
5. One course to be chosen from the elective criminological section

The courses from which the students may choose are the following:

Section 1: Juridical Studies

1. Fiscal Criminal Law
2. Industrial and Commercial Criminal Law
3. Military Criminal Law and Procedure
4. Maritime and Aerial Criminal Law and Procedure
5. Foreign and Comparative Criminal Law
6. International Criminal Law
6. International Criminal Law
7. Roman Criminal Law
8. Canonic Criminal Law
9. History of Criminal Law
10. Philosophy of Criminal Law

Section 2: Criminological Studies

1. Criminal Anthropology
2. Criminal Sociology
3. Criminal Psychology
4. Clinical Criminology
5. Techniques of Criminological Research
6. Principles and Techniques of Correctional Treatment
7. Historical Criminology

The classes may be supplemented by conferences and lectures given by Italian or foreign specialists,

and may be quarterly, biannual or annual. At the end of each academic year, in the process of coordinating the teaching programmes for the next year, the Board of the School will establish the hours of teaching to be assigned to each course.

When applying for admission to the School each year, the student must indicate to the administrative office of the School which electives he intends to include in his yearly study plan. Once this choice has been made, it is binding. The Director of the School, in consultation with the School Board, may suspend those electives in a given year for which not enough students have opted.

Art. 188.—The ordinary diploma course includes two years of study and leads to the granting of a Diploma of Specialization in Criminal Law and Criminology.

Students holding a degree in law or in political sciences or in social sciences of any Italian or foreign university can enroll for the ordinary diploma course. On the recommendation of the Director, the Board of the School may authorize the admission of graduates from medical Schools or from any other faculty of any Italian or foreign university, whose academic record, at the judgement of the Board, is considered adequate. In such cases, the student, in order to be admitted, must pass an internal examination in criminal law and criminal procedure.

Art. 189.—Examinations are held each year for individual courses and only those students who have obtained a certification of regular attendance from the Director of the School will be eligible.

The examinations of the second year of the School may be undertaken only after having passed all the examinations of the required first year juridical or criminological studies.

Art. 190.—The specialization diploma examination consists of the presentation and discussion of an original written dissertation on one of the subject areas of the course of study; a topic for the dissertation, agreed upon with a professor, must be submitted for approval to the Director of the School within the prescribed period of time.

Art. 191.—The marks for examination range from 0-30 (minimum of 18 for passing) and for dissertation from 0-70 (minimum of 42 for passing). The Board of the School, following the recommendation of the Director, may assess a dissertation, which has obtained the highest mark cum laude, as meriting publication.

Art. 192.—The School adheres closely to the calendar of the Faculty of Law of the University of Rome.

The examinations and discussions of dissertation take place during all three sessions: summer, autumn and winter.

Art. 193.—Details of subject matter, enrollment, attendance and examination procedure, concerning the special seminars and courses mentioned in Art. 185, will be made known from time to time.

APPENDIX VI

Università degli Studi di Genova

SCUOLA DI SPECIALIZZAZIONE IN CRIMINOLOGIA CLINICA

Direttore: Prof. Giacomo Canepa

(Second Addendum to the Paper of Giacomo Canepa)

Con D.P.R. del 21 luglio 1969, n. 615, pubblicato sulla Gazzetta Ufficiale del 20 settembre 1969 (n. 239), è stata istituita la Scuola di Specializzazione in Criminologia Clinica presso l'Università di Genova.

Scopo della Scuola è di conferire una particolare qualificazione e preparazione in Criminologia Clinica a coloro che operano nel campo medico-assistenziale e giudiziario, amministrativo-penitenziario, psicopedagogico, giuridico-sociale e forense, impegnati in attività finalizzate alla prevenzione del comportamento delittuoso, nonché alla osservazione ed al trattamento dei soggetti antisociali, nel settore dei minorenni e degli adulti.

La Scuola ha sede presso l'Istituto di Antropologia Criminale dell'Università di Genova (Via De Toni, 12, tel. 510-612, 515-313).

Norme per l'iscrizione

Alla Scuola sono ammessi i laureati in medicina e chirurgia, in giurisprudenza, in scienze politiche, in pedagogia in sociologia.

Il numero complessivo degli iscritti non può essere superiore a trenta per l'intero corso degli studi.

Il corso è di durata triennale. Il Consiglio della Scuola, su proposta del Direttore e con approvazione della Facoltà, può concedere un abbreviamento del corso degli studi di specializzazione ammettendo direttamente al secondo anno quegli aspiranti che, oltre alle condizioni prescritte per l'ammissione normale, diano prova della loro preparazione tecnica e culturale (ad esempio, per avere già conseguito titoli di specializzazione in discipline affini alla criminologia clinica), ovvero documentino una specifica attività, chiaramente qualificata, in settori strettamente affini a quello della criminologia clinica.

Coloro che siano eventualmente ammessi ad usufruire delle suddette agevolazioni sono tenuti egualmente a sostenere i colloqui di idoneità, per l'iscrizione all'anno successivo, anche nelle materie trattate negli anni da cui sono stati dispensati.

La domanda di iscrizione, indirizzata al Magnifico Rettore con i prescritti allegati e redatta sull'apposito modulo bollato fornito dalla Segreteria dell'Università, deve essere vistata dal direttore della Scuola in presenza dell'interessato.

Ulteriori dettagli sulle norme di immatricolazione potranno essere richiesti presso gli uffici di Segreteria dell'Università di Genova (Via Balbi 4).

Piano degli studi

Le lezioni impartite nella Scuola sono distribuite nei tre anni di corso secondo il seguente progetto, in cui sono fornite indicazioni sintetiche sul contenuto dei diversi insegnamenti:

PRIMO ANNO:

- **Criminologia Generale (1°)**: cenni storici, definizione della criminologia e delle sue branche, criteri di classificazione. Campi di applicazione nel settore della ricerca fondamentale ed applicata. Finalità e compiti operativi della criminologia. Fondamenti giuridici (studio del delitto), fondamenti sociologici (studio della criminalità) e fondamenti biopsicologica (studio del delinquente).
- **Elementi di Sociologia** ("Scienze della persona umana"): teorie del comportamento deviante.
- **Elementi di Psicologia e di Statistica** ("Psicologia e criminologia clinica"): definizione e metodi della psicologia. La conoscenza del mondo e il processo di apprendimento. Memoria, pensiero, intelligenza. Motivazione del comportamento. Emozioni e sentimenti. Definizione e teoria della personalità. Metodi statistici per la ricerca in psicologia.
- **Elementi di Psicopatologia Generale** ("Psicopatologia clinica e criminologia clinica"): sviluppo storico e tendenze attuali della psichiatria. Cenni di anatomia e fisiologia del sistema nervoso. Il comportamento umano come oggetto di osservazione psichiatrica. Semeiotica e psicopatologia delle fusioni psichiche.
- **Elementi di Psichiatria Clinica** ("Malattie mentali e criminologia clinica"): etiopatogenesi delle malattie mentali. Nevrosi, psiconevrosi, personalità psicopatiche. Psicosi esogene. Psicosi endogene. Cenni di terapia delle malattie mentali.

SECONDO ANNO:

- **Criminologia Generale (2°)**: teorie criminologiche, aspetti sociologici e clinici. Orientamenti e indirizzi nello studio della personalità antisociale. Aspetti morfologici, tipologici, psicodinamici, fenomenologici. Orientamento integrale e teoria della personalità criminale.
- **Metodologia della Ricerca in Criminologia** ("Semeiotica criminologica"): Metodi della ricerca clinica e sociologica. Statistiche della criminalità. Ricerca fondamentale e applicata. Metodi di predizione.
- **Il Servizio Sociale in Criminologia** ("Esame sociale del criminale"): Organizzazione, finalità e metodi del servizio sociale. Attività di prevenzione e di assistenza svolta dal servizio sociale.
- **Diagnostica Criminologica (1°)** ("Esame medico e psicologico del criminale"): Esame della personalità del delinquente. Applicazione dei reattivi mentali in criminologia clinica (come strumenti di diagnosi, di prognosi, di terapia e di ricerca). Valore e limiti delle applicazioni giudiziarie dei reattivi mentali.
- **Delinquenza Minorile** ("Criminogenesi - Criminodinamica"): cenni sulle caratteristiche psicologiche dell'età "minorile". Cause del comportamento antisociale minorile. Legislazione speciale

e trattamento giuridico dell'antisocialità e della delinquenza minorile. Metodi di osservazione e trattamento. Predizione e prevenzione del comportamento antisociale minorile.

TERZO ANNO:

- **Diagnostica Criminologica (2°)**: "Genesi e dinamica dei singoli comportamenti antisociali e criminali".
- **Metodi di Trattamento** ("Terapia criminologica - "Il trattamento individualizzato"): concetto criminologico di trattamento. Il trattamento tradizionale: funzione della pena, ambiente penitenziario, prospettive critiche. Forme di trattamento (medicochirurgico, pedagogico, ergoterapico, psicofarmacologico, psicoterapico). Edilizia penitenziaria e trattamento. Classificazione dei delinquenti e trattamento. Trattamento e recidivismo. Trattamento in libertà. Cenni sul "probation". Garanzie giurisdizionali e aspetti tecnici del trattamento. Il trattamento "codificato".
- **Techniche di Rieducazione** ("Trattamento delle varie forme di capacità a delinquere e di pericolosità criminale"): la strategia del trattamento in funzione della diagnosi e dell'evoluzione del caso. Strumenti di intervento dell'educatore specializzato. La psicoterapia nell'ambito della rieducazione.
- **Elementi di Medicina Legale e di Psichiatria Forense** ("Giustizia penale e criminologia clinica"): la perizia medico-legale. Oggetto metodo e finalità della perizia psichiatrica. La perizia in tema di circonvenzione di incapace. Interdizione e inabilitazione. Capacità a testare e capacità al matrimonio.
- **Metodi di Prevenzione** ("Profilassi criminale e criminologia clinica"): Cenni sulle istituzioni operanti nel settore del disadattamento minorile, dell'orientamento scolastico e professionale, dell'assistenza psichiatrica. Assistenza ai dimessi dalle Carceri. Attività della polizia. Programma di prevenzione.

Norme per gli esami

Gli insegnamenti indicati nel piano di studi saranno integrati da conferenze, seminari, visite di studio ed esercitazioni pratiche presso istituzioni qualificate in campo criminologico, cui gli iscritti parteciperanno a gruppi, secondo turni di internato opportunamente predisposti.

Alla fine di ogni anno di corso saranno tenuti esami di profitto, per gruppi di materie, consistenti in un colloquio, che gli iscritti parteciperanno a gruppi, secondo turni di internato opportunamente predisposti.

Alla fine di ogni anno di corso saranno tenuti gli esami di profitto, per gruppi di materie, consistenti, in un colloquio, che gli iscritti dovranno sostenere di fronte ad una Commissione proposta dal Direttore della Scuola, ed approvata dal Preside, per stabilire la loro idoneità o meno per la iscrizione al successivo anno di corso.

L'esame di diploma consiste in una discussione sopra dissertazione originale scritta, nonché in prove teoriche e pratiche stabilite dalla Commissione giudicatrice.

A coloro che hanno superato l'esame di diploma viene rilasciato il diploma di "specialista in criminologia clinica".

Norme per l'ammissione

Le immatricolazioni alla Scuola sono limitate alla disponibilità dei posti pretabiliti e gli aspiranti verranno scelti in seguito ad esami d'ammissione che avranno luogo nel periodo compreso tra il 1° ed il 15 Dicembre.

Per essere ammessi agli esami suddetti, occorre presentare dal 2 Agosto al 5 Novembre e per gravi e giustificati motivi fino al 30 Novembre quanto segue:

- A) Domanda in carta bollata da L. 500. = diretta al Magnifico Rettore con le generalità complete, residenza della famiglia.
- B) certificato di laurea in bollo con i voti dei singoli esami
- C) scheda (da ritirarsi in segreteria delle scuole di specializzazione — Piazza dell'Annunziata, 6.)
- D) due foto di cui una autenticata in bollo con tutti i dati anagrafici
- E) eventuali titoli (certificati di specializzazione, stati di servizio, ecc. redatti in bollo).

Gli aspiranti avranno l'obbligo di accertarsi presso l'Istituto della data degli esami di ammissione.

Gli aspiranti ammessi allo Scuola, dovranno entro il termine di dieci, giorni, presentare:

- a) originale, del titolo di scuola media superiore
- b) ricevuta comprovante il versamento dell'1° rata
- c) dichiarazione rilasciata dal Comune di residenza relativa al reddito accertato per l'imposta di Famiglia, ovvero un certificato dell'Ufficio Distrettuale delle imposte, al quale è stata presentata la dichiarazione unica dei redditi, da cui risulti se il reddito complessivo annuo della famiglia dello studente superi o meno i tre milioni di lire.

I candidati ammessi che non avranno regolarizzato, entro i termini stabiliti, la completa documentazione sopra richiesta, saranno ritenuti rinunciare a tutti gli effetti, senza possibilità di ricorsi.

Alla domanda d'iscrizione agli anni di corso successivi al primo, da presentarsi dal 2 agosto al 5 Novembre e per gravi e giustificati motivi e nei limiti dei posti disponibili, previo pagamento della mora per ritardata presentazione, fino al 30 Novembre, debbono essere allegati i seguenti documenti:

- a) Libretto personale di iscrizione
- b) quietanza di pagamento della 1° rata
- c) quietanza pagamento del supplemento reddito (per chi supera il reddito annuo di tre milioni).

Coloro che non avranno presentato la domanda di iscrizione agli anni successivi al primo, entro il termine stabilito, potranno ottenere la ricognizione agli studi in qualità di fuori corso.

Tutti i versamenti debbono essere effettuati sugli apposti moduli di c/c postale da richiedersi alla Segreteria della Scuole di specializzazione. - Piazza dell'Annunziata 6.

Per nessun motivo si possono accettare domande di iscrizione alle Scuole mancanti dei documenti richiesti.

APPENDIX VII

PROJECT

Extension Course In Criminology
(Addendum to the paper of Francisco Canestri)

Introduction

Normally, we consider three possible alternatives to the teaching of Criminology, according to the depth of the level we wish to come up to; these are:

1. Extension Courses
2. Specialization Courses
3. Ph.D. Courses

Since beginning at the first level seems right and logical to us, the planning of a course of this nature should consider the following points:

- A. Those alternatives are not exclusive; on the contrary, they are complementary; all of which oblige us to consider the other two, even though our project has been limited to the "Extension Courses".
- B. In the planning we considered the non-existence of previous courses on the subject, since the Cathedra of Criminology has been newly created.
- C. Also, account was taken of the circumstances caused by the very nature of the subject, which demands a total comprehension, a special kind of thinking and a certain Methodology, oriented towards the concrete realities of the Social Sciences and of Man, which requires a special formation.

On the other hand, besides the former points which could be considered as very particular to the teaching of Criminology in our school, there are other facts, which also were considered in our planning. They are:

- D. Autonomy
- E. Multidisciplinarity
- F. Concurrence of practical and theoretical aspects
- G. Adaptation to the country's realities
- H. Degrees or levels of difficulty

Because of the combination of other facts which have been studied in other reports, especially D, F, and G the necessity of conceiving our "Extension Course" in three main areas, with defined objectives, appears clearly:

- I. Fundamental Area
- II. Instrumental Area
- III. Complementary Area

According to this structure, we present our project for discussion, elaborating its details.

1. PROGRAMMATIC AREAS

I. Fundamental Area

- A. The main objective is to provide the basic theoretical knowledge about Criminology as a science, its historical evolution and to give a view of its actual situation.

- B. The contents, being the essential part of the course, should be divided into two levels which cover: A global view of the criminological sciences and the criminal sciences and its cross-relations; a second level oriented towards the specialized criminologies.
- C. It must be developed in such a way that the first level coincides with the first semester and at the same time, gets related with the Instrumental Area.
- D. Placing: levels and semesters must coincide.
- E. Duration: 2 semesters with 60% of the time of the first semester and 50% of the second semester.

II. Instrumental Area

- A. The main objective is to provide the necessary tools to focus on Criminology as a Man's Science in its social and individual aspects.
- B. The contents must be oriented toward the exposition of the great methodological, individual, and social currents, which have had some influence in the development of criminological thought.
- C. The development must begin in the elementary levels, since most of the attendants to the course have a lack of knowledge about criminological sciences.
- D. The placing must be mainly in the first semester, concurrently with the introduction of the course.
- E. The duration must be at least 40% of the total time of the first semester.

III. Complementary Area

- A. The fundamental objective is to study actual and interesting subjects related to the general themes, trying to conduct the selection and preparation of monographic work papers.
- B. The contents must be oriented towards the exposition of exact and concrete problems, in the legal, law enforcement, penitentiary or preventive fields, considered in a multidisciplinary approach.
- C. The development must be done in the second semester, with the end result being the use of the knowledge obtained from the Instrumental and Fundamental Areas for the possible performance of a concrete investigation.
- D. Placing must be in the second semester, with a schedule which should extend along the total extent of the course, to provide the students with more time.
- E. The outline must be directly related to the Instrumental Area, and independent of the Fundamental one.

2. SUBJECTS OF THE AREAS

We will talk about the three different areas, in a rather tentative form. The remarked points are the ones which we consider as essential and should never be considered as a taxative, rigid, appointment.

I. Fundamental Area

This area should be considered as divided into two stages, corresponding to one of the semesters: **Stage One:** Dedicated to the provision of a global view of the Criminal and Criminological Sciences, covering the following:

1. Criminology and Man's Sciences.

There would be some kind of introduction to Criminology and Man's Sciences, giving some definitions of the Human Sciences and Social Sciences and a very general idea about the Man's Sciences used in Criminology (Biology, Psychiatry, Psychology, Psychoanalysis, Sociology). The main idea would be focused on pointing out the actual crisis of Man's Sciences, over all on their epistemology. In this part there must be a special emphasis on the integration between the concepts, hypothesis and theories, indicating the most significant ones for Criminology.

Finally, there must be determined the idea of the Criminological Team, in the fields of the Criminological Team, in the fields of Investigation, Observation, Treatment of Criminals and Crime Prevention. Nevertheless, one could wonder, in the course of the exposition, if there is a construction of a Criminological Object.

In the Fundamental Area, there should be some emphasis on the basis of Criminological Thought (Biological, Psychological, Psychiatric, Psychoanalytical, Sociological and Penological sources), and on the concepts of Criminal Policy, trying to settle each stage of the development of Criminology on its specific historical context. In such a way, while the conceptual evolution of Criminology is analyzed, its history is presented.

2. Notions on General Criminology

The Criminal Law as a discipline which defines the criminological object and the development of the concept of criminal individual. For the students who have knowledge about Special Law, General Law, Criminal Prosecuting and so on, there will be an emphasis in the selection of the basic concepts related to Criminology.

General Criminology and co-ordination of the interdisciplinary investigations in criminology, basic notions, sources, concepts and methods. Concept of criminality. General characteristics, facts, particular types. Criminality from a differential point of view.

3. Introduction to Criminal Sciences and Criminal Law

1. Criminal Philosophy; free will and determinism; freedom and determinism.

2. Reason as origin of Morality and Law. Natural Law and Judicial Relativism.
3. Guilt from the point of view of Psychology, Morals and Law.
4. Responsibility according to Criminology.
5. Complexity of the concepts of Penalty.
6. Notions on Criminal Ethnography. History of the Criminal Law Comparative Criminal Law.
7. Judicial Sociology. Penal Dogmatism and Penal Anthropology.

4. Prime Theoretical Currents

- A. Anthro-Biological approach in Criminology. Its beginning and development in Europe at the end of the XIX Century. Its new apogee on the second decade of the XX Century. Basic concepts: inherent criminal, atavism, epilepsy, biological inheritance and physical typology. Classifications: Systems of Criminological Biotypology. Studies on Criminological Genetics: studies on Genealogy, the twins, cytogenetics, the chromosomes.

Role of Brain Damage.

Brain and endocrine dysfunctions. Biochemical and alimentary factors.

- B. Psychological Criminology.

Psychological approach in Criminology. Its beginnings and development in the XX Century.

Basic Concepts.

The intelligence, learning, attitudes, affectivity. Criminal Personality. Characteristics. Notions on Psycho-criminogenesis and of criminal psycho-dynamics. Psychological Classifications of Criminals. Psychology of the Prison. Psychology and crime prevention.

- C. Psychiatric and Psychoanalytical Criminology.

The Psychological and Psychiatric approaches of Criminology. Its beginning and development in the XX Century.

Basic Concepts.

The childhood, the unconscious. Psychoanalytical explanation of deviance, starting from the components of the personality (conscious, sub-conscious and unconscious) and the development of the normal personality.

- D. Sociological approach in Criminology.

Antecedents. Its beginnings and development in the XIX and XX Centuries. Sociological definitions of crime. Concept of deviation and its criminological inferences. Sociological variables in connection with the criminal individual: age, sex, profession, social status, ethnic group, religion, etc. Sociological variables, in connection with the social milieu of the criminal individual: family, habitat, school, education, work, recreation, etc.

Intents of Theorization.

Prime sociological paradigms: the cultural transmission paradigm.

Basic concepts: cultural conflict, sub-cultural, differential association. The paradigm of mean/goal. Basic concepts: anomie, differential opportunity.

The paradigm of the interactionism. Basic concepts: labelling, stigmatization, primary and secondary deviation, stereotypography. Sociology of prison. Sociology and crime prevention.

E. The Anti-Criminology and Clinical Criminology.

Its beginning and development since the 60's. Influence of anti-Psychiatry on Criminology and the questioning of the concept of deviance.

The materialist paradigm in Criminology. Intents for an epistemological rupture.

II. Instrumental Area

A. General

1. What is the methodology of the investigation? definition, concepts of precision, reliability and validity.
2. Design of the investigation: descriptives, casuals, explicative. Main objectives and problems.
3. The experimental method: the quasi-experimental method and ex post facto (retrospective).
4. Techniques and instruments: Study of documental sources; systematic observation; test; socio-metric studies; surveys; statistics.

B. Methods and Techniques of Analysis in Criminology.

1. Biological and Medical Examinations: complementary examinations. Electroencephalography. Types of bio-psychological evolutions. Bio-psychological diagnosis: correlations between the criminal act and the personality. Experiments.
2. The Psychological Test: The test. Psychological Diagnosis. Study of cases. Control groups. Experiments.
3. The Sociological examination of the individual case. The social survey. The sociological diagnosis. Follow up studies. Analysis of the differential rates of criminals. Multifactorial analysis. Studies ex post facto. Predictive tables.
4. A new methodological approach: The historical materialism.

III. Complementary Area

Oriented towards fundamental problems, outlining a possible specialization, selection of themes for study, preparation of monographs, etc. as the ones which follow:

1. Sciences for the Treatment:

A. Penology:

Reactions originated by the crime in society.

Moral Reactions: vengeance and retribution.

Utilitary Reactions: individual prevention (elimination, intimidation, correction, treatment), general prevention, (exemplary character of the punishment).

Scientific study of the moral and utilitary reactions.

Development of the contemporary penological doctrines.

Examination of the modern systems in Penology.

The problem of the prison's future.

B. Psychiatric Criminology

Mental illnesses. Definition and classification.

Psychosis, neurosis, oligophrenia, disturbances of the character, alcoholism, addictions, sexual anomalies.

Psychiatric studies of the main infringements.

The Psychiatric examination and the Psychiatric report.

Psychiatric diagnosis in Criminology. Responsibility and dangerous state.

Psychiatric disorders in Criminology.

Penitentiary Psychiatry.

C. Clinical Criminology:

Definition and objectives.

Differentiation between Clinical Criminology and Medical Criminology.

Integration of the specialized Criminologies at the level of the observation, treatment and prevention.

The social, and medical-psychological examination.

Diagnosis of the dangerous state. Social prediction.

Treatment Program.

2. Forensic Medicine

A. General notions on the organization and history of Forensic Medicine.

B. Personal injuries, personal identification. Forensic Hematology. Toxicology.

C. Medical deontology, basic forensic problems in the Criminal Law. Relations between Forensic Medicine and Criminology.

D. Forensic study of the main violations of Law.

NOTE: It is fundamental that these points are exposed in a practical way, along with tutoring and visits to police laboratories.

3. Scientific Police

A. General problems of judicial identification. The laboratories and the scientific tests.

B. Equipments and techniques.

C. Photography.

D. Specialized studies: firearms, ammunitions, documents, writings.

E. Identification: forensic anthropology, fingerprints.

F. Relations between the scientific police and Criminology.

G. Criminalistic study of the main violations of law.

4. Basic notions on criminal statistics. Concept of probability. Statistical index. Lecture of statistics. Criminal statistics in Venezuela. Problems.

5. Youth Crime:

Sciences of Childhood: General notions on Pediatrics, Children's Psychology, Children's Neuropsychiatry, Family and Adolescence Sociology.

Legislation for the Pubescents in danger: Historical Evolution. Child (youngster) responsibility.

Organization of the juvenile jurisdictions.

Competency rules. Procedural rules.

Measures. Attachment of the sentences.

Probation. Juvenile Institutions.

Legislation for the pubescents in danger.

Youth Criminology: The Youth Crime Problem.

Manifestations of youth crime. Statistics.

Forms. Gangs. "Pavitos" (youngsters in Venezuelan familiar way of talking). Collective violence. Young adults.

Youth crimes etiology. Biological, psychological, familiar geographical, ecological, economic, and cultural factors.

Diagnosis and Prediction. Age limits. Recurrence.

Technical and pedagogical problems of treatment. Treatment in an open milieu, treatment inside an institution.

Specialized Pedagogy. Semi-freedom. Post-cure.

Youth Crime Prevention. Prevention Programs.

Mass's Therapeutics. Club and prevention teams. Evaluative and active investigations.

Youth crime and society. Prevention in the family, the school and the community.

APPENDIX VIII

(Addendum to the paper of Gustavo Malo Camacho)

Executive Power Ministry of the Interior (Gobernacion)

DECREE establishing the National Institute of Penal Sciences

A seal in the margin bearing the National Shield
and the words "United Mexican States -
Office of the President".

WHEREAS the Government of the Republic has sponsored the amendment and enactment of various penal and correctional measures in order to institute a new policy in this field based on scientific principles, aimed at more efficient social protection and effective readaptation of adult criminals and juvenile offenders;

WHEREAS in order to facilitate the application of modern juridical instruments enacted during recent years which have encouraged the introduction of a new body of prison and reformatory law throughout the country, the Federal Government has been promoting the establishment of modern social readaptation centers and the training of personnel equipped to work at the various levels and specialties in this field;

WHEREAS the efficacious development of new Mexican policy in this area calls for the training of human resources of the highest level in order to support and carry out the preventive and treatment programs successfully;

WHEREAS it is essential for the development of such policy on a modern and efficient basis to have scientific research available that adequately clarifies the causes, manifestations, and treatment of anti-social behavior in our milieu;

WHEREAS it is necessary for the promotion of a policy guided by penal and criminological advances on a national scale to set up and put into operation a system of compilation and dissemination of information through liaison with administrative agencies, academic organizations, and specialists in Mexico and abroad, has deemed it advisable to issue the following

DECREE

Establishing the National Institute of Penal Sciences

ARTICLE 1. The National Institute of Penal Sciences is hereby established as a decentralized agency with independent legal status and funding, to have its headquarters in Mexico City.

ARTICLE 2. The Institute's purpose is to train research workers, teachers, and specialists in the penal sciences, carry out scientific research in these subjects, provide and disseminate knowledge in their field and others that are conducive to the study, development, and application of penal disciplines.

ARTICLE 3. The Institute, in order to achieve its objectives, shall:

I. Establish a master's and doctor's degree, as well as training, specialized, and advanced courses;

II. Create a permanent scientific-research section;

III. Organize and operate an Information and Data Center;

IV. Provide the advisory services needed by public and private individuals and institutions and participate in an advisory capacity, when applicable, in the study, preparation, and application of public measures within its special area;

V. Maintain exchange, advisory, and promotional relations with similar and cooperating national, foreign, and international organizations;

VI. Grant fellowships for study in Mexico or abroad and receive foreign fellows as research workers, teachers, and students; and

VII. Carry on other activities consistent with its character and conducive to the performance of its functions.

ARTICLE 4. The administrative organs of the Institute shall be the Board of Directors, Academic Council, Director General, Assistant Director, and Coordinators of the juridical, criminological, and criminalistic areas;

ARTICLE 5. The Board of Governors shall be made up of representatives of the Ministries of the Interior (Gobernación) and Public Education, of the Attorney General's Office of the Republic, the Attorney General's Office of the Federal District, the National Union of Universities and Institutions of Higher Education of the National Autonomous University of Mexico, the Metropolitan Autonomous University, and the Mexican Academy of Penal Sciences, under the chairmanship of the first-mentioned of these. The individual members of the Governing Board shall remain in office until replaced by whoever is authorized to make the appointments.

ARTICLE 6. The powers of the Board of Directors shall be:

I. To appoint the Director General and Assistant Director of the Institute, taking into consideration the slates proposed by the Academic Council;

II. To issue the academic and administrative by-laws of the Institute, taking into consideration the drafts submitted to it for the purpose by the Academic Council and the Director General;

III. To take final action on appeals presented by teachers and research workers against decisions of the Academic Council, and

IV. Others vested in it under the bylaws issued under this Decree.

ARTICLE 7. The Academic Council shall be made up of the Director General, Assistant Director, Co-

ordinator of the juridical, criminological, and criminalistic areas, a teacher and a research worker, representing the respective bodies, and a student representative. The representative members of the Council shall be elected every two years by the members of the group or sector they represent who shall also elect alternates.

ARTICLE 8. The powers of the Academic Council shall be:

I. To consider and decide on academic projects and programs presented by its members;

II. To prepare draft bylaws for the consideration and approval, as the case may be, by the Board of Directors;

III. To consider and approve study plans and programs;

IV. To make appointments of teachers and research workers;

V. To make a semiannual review of the curriculums of the teachers and research workers and decide upon their tenure or promotion in accordance with the bylaws;

VI. To make final decisions on the number of students to be enrolled each year in the Institute in accordance with faculty availability and requirements, as well as with applications presented in each academic period;

VII. To constitute the Honor and Justice Committee to hear cases of serious violations of the bylaws for the organization and operation of the Institute on behalf of the professors, researchers, students and auxiliary personnel.

VIII. Others provided in the bylaws.

ARTICLE 9. Requirements for the post of Director General or Assistant Director of the Institute are:

I. To be Mexican by birth with full civil and political rights;

II. To hold an academic degree higher than licenciado; and

III. To have achieved distinction in the penal field, teaching, research, or scientific dissemination;

A person holding higher than a bachelor's degree may be appointed Assistant Director provided he fully meets the requirements set forth in paragraph III.

The Coordinators of the juridical, criminological, and criminalistic areas shall meet the same requirements as those for the Assistant Director.

The officers referred to in this Article shall be, by preference, research workers or teachers at the Institute. The respective bylaws shall set forth their teaching and research tasks.

ARTICLE 10. The powers of the Director General of the Institute shall be:

I. To preside over the Academic Council with voice and deciding vote;

II. To represent and administrate the Institute;

III. To submit projects and programs to the Academic Council and the Governing Board in accordance with the powers of those organs;

IV. To make judgements in cases of revision of academic curriculums of teachers and research workers, as well as in cases of competitions or competitive examinations for academic appointments;

V. To appoint the administrative staff of the Institute;

VI. To operate the Information and Data Center, the Laboratory, the Criminology Museum, and, in general, all the technical and administrative sections of the Institute, to maintain relations between the Institute and other national, foreign or international individuals and organizations, and to decide on academic and administrative matters with the pertinent staff members;

VII. To execute the approved programs of activities; and

VIII. Others provided for in the bylaws and which are a natural concomitant of his powers.

ARTICLE 11. Under the direct and immediate authority of the Director General, the Assistant Director shall have the following powers:

I. To replace the Director General during temporary absences that do not exceed three months in duration;

II. To assist the Director General as executive officer in academic and administrative tasks;

III. To attend the meetings of the Academic Council with voice and vote;

IV. To directly oversee the fulfillment of teaching and research programs;

V. Others provided for in the bylaws or which are a natural concomitant of his powers.

ARTICLE 12. The Coordinators shall be responsible, under the direct and immediate supervision of the Director General, for the effective progress of teaching and research activities within their respective areas. For this purpose, they shall coordinate the work and programs of teachers and research workers within their respective branches.

ARTICLE 13. The terms of the Director General and Assistant Director shall be for five years and they may not be re-appointed. The Area Coordinators shall have the same term and may be re-appointed for one additional term. If the Director General must be absent from his duties continuously for longer than three months, the Governing Board shall appoint an acting Director. If his absence is for more than one year, a new Director General shall be appointed.

ARTICLE 14. Requirements for being a teacher or research worker in the Institute in the various categories set forth in the bylaws, shall be:

I. To hold higher than a bachelor's degree;

II. To be appointed by the Academic Council in competitive examination or competition;

III. To have specialized and be outstandingly distinguished in the respective teaching or research field.

Foreign professionals who fulfill the same requirements may be invited to be regular teachers or research workers, as visitors, in which case a special contract between them and the Institute shall be signed setting forth the purpose of the research or teaching and the length of time for which they are contracted.

ARTICLE 15. The academic bylaws shall determine the rights and duties of the teachers and research workers in the various categories.

ARTICLE 16. Working relations between the Institute and its workers shall be regulated by the Federal Law on Government Workers in accordance with Article 123, Section B. Executive positions shall be: Director General, Assistant Director, Area Coordinators, Section Heads, Research Workers, and Teachers. Appointment in these categories, tenure, and regular evaluation of academic status shall be regulated by the bylaws prepared for that purpose by the Governing Board.

ARTICLE 17. The Institute staff will be covered under the Law on Social Security and Services for Government Workers.

ARTICLE 18. The Institute shall be assisted by the various governmental entities, official and decentralized, that function in the penal field — prison, criminological, and criminalistic — in order to duly carry out its teaching and research objectives in the field, as well as in the gathering of data and materials.

TRANSITORY ARTICLES

ARTICLE 1. This Decree shall enter into force on the day subsequent to its publication in the federal *Diario Oficial*.

ARTICLE 2. For the first and only time, the Head of the Executive Branch shall directly appoint the Director General, Assistant Director, and Area Coordinators, through the Ministry of the Interior (Gobernación), in accordance with the personal and professional requirements set forth in this Decree. The Academic Council having been thereby established, the Director General shall present such proposals to it on the appointment of teachers and research workers immediately necessary for putting the Institute into operation. The appointment of these teachers and research workers shall likewise be made in accordance with the personal and professional requirements set forth in this Decree.

Issued at the seat of the Federal Executive Branch in the City of Mexico, Federal District, on the twenty-first day of June, one thousand nine hundred and seventy-six. The Constitutional President of the United Mexican States, Luis Echeverría Álvarez — signature —, The Minister of the Interior, Mario Moya Palencia — signature —, The Minister of Public Education, Victor Bravo Ahuja — signature.

APPENDIX IX

Conference Participants

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Office of Criminal Justice, Education and Training
Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
U.S. Department of Justice
Washington, D.C. 20531

Observers

Friedrich Berckhauer
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Gerhard O.W. Mueller, Chief
Crime Prevention and
Criminal Justice Section
The United Nations
New York, New York 10017

An invitation to take part as observers has been extended to the Vice President for Graduate Studies and Research of the University of Maryland, the Dean of the Graduate School, the Acting Provost of the Division of Behavioral and Social Sciences, the Chairmen of the Departments of Anthropology, Government and Politics, Psychology and Sociology, as well as the Graduate Faculty and Ph.D. candidates of the Institute of Criminal Justice and Criminology of the University of Maryland.

University of Maryland Conference Staff

Mary Jane Wood - Coordinator
Elaine Maney - Secretary
James R. Brantley - Recorder
Kathleen Brophy - Recorder

David Celeste - Recorder
Catherine Conly - Recorder
Stuart Kaufman - Recorder

APPENDIX X

PROGRAM

All sessions will meet in Room 1105 of the Center of Adult Education

Wednesday - July 7, 1976

9:00-10:30

Opening Session

Peter P. Lejins, Director
Institute of Criminal Justice and Criminology

Welcoming Remarks

Robert L. Gluckstern, Chancellor
University of Maryland, College Park
Stanley J. Drazek, Chancellor
University College, University of Maryland
The Honorable Richard W. Velde, Administrator
Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
J. Price Foster, Director
Office of Criminal Justice Education and Training
Law Enforcement Assistance Administration

Background and Purpose of the Conference

Peter P. Lejins

Introduction of the Participants

Election of Resolutions Committee

10:30-11:00

Coffee Break

Sessions 1-5

Description and analysis of doctoral degree programs in the area of criminal justice and criminology in the countries represented at this Conference. Each session consists of 3 presentations of 10-15 minutes each and a question period.

11:00-12:30

Session 1

Alvar Nelson
Sweden and Scandinavia
Frederick H. McClintock
Great Britain
Lode Van Outrive
Belgium

Question Period

12:30- 2:00

Lunch

2:00- 3:30

Session 2

Hans-Jurgen Kerner
Federal Republic of Germany
Josef M. Häussling
Federal Republic of Germany
Jacques Léauté
France

Question Period

3:30- 4:00

Coffee Break

Wednesday - July 7, 1976 (continued)

4:00- 5:30 **Session 3**
Mustafa El-Augi
Lebanon and Arabic countries
Marcel Ette Bogui
Ivory Coast
A. A. Adeyemi
Nigeria

Question Period

5:30 **Dinner**

7:15 Departure from the Center of Adult Education for 8:00 p.m. reception at the invitation of Dr. and Mrs. Peter P. Lejins at the Cosmos Club, Washington, D.C. Transportation will be available.

Thursday - July 8, 1976

9:00-10:30 **Session 4**
Giacomo Canepa
Italy
Franco Ferracuti
Italy
Francisco Canestri
Venezuela and South America
Gustavo Malo Camacho
Mexico

Question Period

10:50-11:00 **Coffee Break**

11:00-12:30 **Session 5**
S. Giora Shoham
Israel
Ryuichi Hirano
Japan
Denis Szabo
Canada

Question Period

12:30- 2:00 **Lunch**

2:00- 3:30 **Session 6**
Statements describing doctoral programs in the United States.

3:30- 4:00 **Coffee Break**

4:00- 5:30 **Session 7**
Statements describing doctoral programs in the United States.

5:30 **Dinner**

8:00 Reception at the invitation of the Division of Behavioral and Social Sciences at the Student Union, Room 0118. Walk over escorted by staff unless it rains, in which case cars will be provided.

Friday - July 9, 1976

9:00-10:30 **Session 8**
Conference Mid-Point Summary
Mustafa El-Augi

10:30-11:00 **Coffee Break**

Sessions 9-11
These sessions are to be devoted to a general discussion by all participants of the policies and organizational patterns for doctoral programs in criminal justice and criminology.
Examples of key issues which might be discussed:
Doctoral degrees in related disciplines versus a doctoral degree in criminal justice and criminology.
Academic and research doctoral degrees (Ph.D.) versus professional doctoral degrees (needs of the operational agencies).
The role of the social science disciplines as a background for a doctoral degree in criminal justice and criminology.
The role of methodologies (research methods, statistics, computer science) in a doctoral degree program.
Relationship of the doctoral degree to the Master's degree in criminal justice and criminology.
Location of the doctoral program in criminal justice and criminology within the university structure.

11:00-12:30 **Session 9**

12:30- 2:00 **Lunch**

2:00- 3:30 **Session 10**

3:30- 4:00 **Coffee Break**

4:00- 5:30 **Session 11**

5:30 **Dinner**

Saturday - July 10, 1976

9:00-10:00 **Session 12**
Summary of the Conference
Peter P. Lejins

10:00-10:30 Discussion

10:30-11:00 **Coffee Break**

11:00-12:00 **Closing Session**
Resolutions

END