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CRIMINOLOGY

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collaboration of MARVIN E. WOLFGANG) and GREGORY ZILBOORG,
DRAGOLJUB DIMITRIJEVIĆ

On behalf of

THE INTERNATIONAL SOCIETY OF CRIMINOLOGY

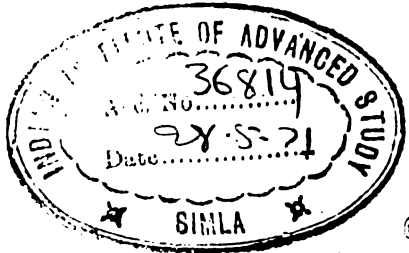


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THE General Conference of Unesco, conscious of the essential role which social science teaching is called upon to play in training citizens, and of the contribution which this teaching can make to the advancement of international understanding, has at various sessions decided to authorize the Director-General 'to undertake surveys on methods of instruction in the social sciences'.

In pursuance of the first resolution adopted on this subject by the General Conference at its Fifth Session in May-June 1950, a general survey on the teaching of the social sciences was undertaken. It covered seven disciplines: sociology, social psychology and cultural anthropology, international relations, law, political science, and economics. The international associations of specialists in these disciplines were asked to make the survey in co-operation with Unesco, each in the field of its own competence, in eight countries designated for the purpose.

On the basis of the national reports, seven general reports were prepared for publication in the present series Teaching in the Social Sciences.

In 1952 an international meeting of experts, in the light of information collected and presented by the general rapporteurs, considered certain problems which required a solution if the development of social science teaching at university level was to be encouraged.

In 1953-54 three regional symposia studied in detail questions of organization and method raised by social science teaching in Asia, Central America and the West Indies, and the Middle East.

The encouraging results shown during this period 1950-54 decided the General Conference, at its Eighth Session in November-December 1954, to pursue this activity by authorizing the Director-General 'in co-operation with Member States, to encourage and facilitate the development and improvement of the teaching of the social sciences and the use, at all levels of teaching, of knowledge acquired from the social sciences'.

In the framework of this resolution, the general survey on social science teaching was, from 1955, extended to statistics, criminology, demography and the administrative sciences.

Four international non-governmental organizations, each in the field of its competence, were requested to conduct the survey in co-operation with Unesco. Four general reports, therefore, have been or will be prepared for publication in the series Teaching in the Social Sciences. The present report deals with the teaching of criminology.

Prepared under contract by the International Society of Criminology, it includes a general report and the summaries of a series of national reports made in ten countries. The summaries follow a uniform pattern: historical background, present situation, prospects, and suggestions.

Unesco expresses its gratitude to the International Society of Criminology, which sponsored and conducted the survey on the teaching of criminology, and especially wishes to thank the distinguished scientists who took part in the survey and collaborated on this book, in particular the General Rapporteur, Mr. Denis Carroll and Mr. Jean Pinatel, respectively President and Secretary-General of the International Society of Criminology, as well as the National Rapporteurs: Messrs. Roland Grassberger (Austria), Paul Cornil and R. Grosemans (Belgium), Leonidio Ribeiro (Brazil), Jean Pinatel (France), Carlo Erra (Italy), Olof Kinberg (Sweden), Sulhi Dönmezer (Turkey), Hermann Mannheim (United Kingdom), Thorsten Sellin, Marvin E. Wolfgang and Gregory Zilboorg (United States of America), and Dragoljub Dimitrijević (Yugoslavia).

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GENERAL SURVEY

REPORT ON THE TEACHING OF CRIMINOLOGY

by

DENIS CARROLL¹ and JEAN PINATEL²

INTRODUCTION

The International Society of Criminology was asked by Unesco to contribute to a comparative study of the teaching of criminology, by carrying out a survey in 10 countries. A rapporteur was appointed for each of these countries, and Messrs. Denis Carroll (United Kingdom) and Jean Pinatel (France) were asked to draw up the present general report.

It is based on the 10 national reports and on the work of a symposium organized by the International Society of Criminology at Bedford College, London, on 11 September 1955, during the Third International Congress of Criminology.

The following is the list of the countries selected for study in agreement with Unesco, and of the rapporteurs appointed for each of them:

Austria: Roland Grassberger, Professor at the University and Director of the Institute of Criminology, Vienna.

Belgium: Paul Cornil, Secretary-General of the Ministry of Justice and Professor at the Université Libre de Bruxelles (with the collaboration of R. Grosemans, Judge of the Brussels Court).

Brazil: Leonidio Ribeiro, Professor at the University of Rio de Janeiro.

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1. Mr. Denis Carroll is a consultant psychiatrist in London. In 1949 Vice-President, and since 1950 President of the International Society of Criminology, he was General Rapporteur at the Second International Congress of Criminology (Paris, 1950); member of the Executive Committee and General Rapporteur of the European Cycle of Brussels (1951); Co-Director of the Fourth International Course of Criminology (London, 1954), and President of the Third International Congress of Criminology (London, 1955). Author of numerous reports and articles on the psychological, psycho-analytical and psychiatric approach in criminology.
 2. Mr. Jean Pinatel is Inspector-General of Administration and Professor at the Institute of Criminology of the University of Paris. Secretary-General of the International Society of Criminology (1950), he was a member of the Executive Committee and General Rapporteur of the European Cycle of Brussels (1951), and Director of the Second International Course of Criminology (Paris, 1953). Author of several works on penology and criminology, the main one being a *Traité élémentaire de science pénitentiaire et de défense sociale* (Elementary Treatise on Penitentiary Science and Social Defence) (Paris, Sirey 1950).

France: Jean Pinatel (see biographical footnote, page 11).

Italy: Carlo Erra, Counsellor at the Court of Appeal, Rome.

Sweden: Olof Kinberg, Professor at the University and Director of the Institute of Criminology, Stockholm.

Turkey: S. Sulhi Dönmezer, Professor at the University and Director of the Institute of Criminology, Istanbul.

United Kingdom: Hermann Mannheim, Professor at the University of London.

United States of America: Thorsten Sellin, Professor at the University of Philadelphia (with the collaboration of Marvin E. Wolfgang), and Gregory Zilboorg, Professor of Psychiatry at New York.

Yugoslavia: D. V. Dimitrijević, Professor at the University of Sarajevo. With the exception of Mr. Olof Kinberg, these specialists from different parts of the world were all present at the London symposium, in which certain members of the Scientific Commission and the Board of Directors and certain national delegates of the International Society of Criminology¹ also took part. Mrs. Myrdal, then Director of Unesco's Department of Social Sciences, and Mr. Lopez-Ray, chief of the Social Defence section of the United Nations, were also present.

The work of the symposium showed that the survey could rightly have been extended to other countries, in particular to Canada, Chile, the Netherlands and Switzerland, where interesting experiments in the teaching of criminology deserve study. It was essential, however, to limit the field of investigation, and the present general report will therefore confine itself to finding a common denominator in the observations and ideas contained in the individual reports of the 10 countries selected for study with Unesco's agreement.

We, the two authors of this general report, needless to say take full responsibility for the opinions expressed in the following analyses. We have naturally attempted to reflect the general opinion of the experts at the London symposium, who were in agreement on very many important points.

NEED FOR THE TEACHING OF CRIMINOLOGY

The need for teaching criminology was unanimously affirmed by those present at the symposium.

Criminology as a scientific discipline already has a long history behind it. Since the work of Cesare Lombroso (1876), Enrico Ferri (1881) and Raffaele Garofalo (1885), it has evolved during a number of International

1. Present: Messrs. Drapkin (Chile), Frey (Switzerland), Father Mailloux (Canada), Messrs. Romeu (Spain), Sieverts (Germany), Stanciu (France), di Tullio (Italy), and Van Bemmelen (the Netherlands).

Congresses on Criminal Anthropology (Rome 1885, Paris 1889, Brussels 1892, Geneva 1896, Amsterdam 1901, Turin 1906, Cologne 1911), whose work was continued by the International Congresses of Criminology (Rome 1938, Paris 1950, London 1955). The tendency of every science is to extend, and therefore to organize, its teaching.

At the First International Congress on Criminal Anthropology, Tarde, supported by Enrico Ferri, proposed that students should be admitted to the criminal law course only provided that they first became members of a prisoners' welfare society and made weekly visits, either individually or as a group, to prisons. In 1890, the International Penitentiary Congress of St. Petersburg hoped 'that a chair in penitentiary science would be founded in the Universities'. A similar desire was expressed in 1895 at the Congress of the International Union of Penal Law held at Linz (Austria).

Later, the same idea was frequently brought forward. In London in 1925, the Ninth International Penitentiary Congress affirmed that 'the teaching of law should be completed by the teaching of criminology'. The Third International Congress of Penal Law, the First International Congress of Criminology, and the Twelfth Penal and Penitentiary Congress, subsequently expressed similar hopes. Finally, on 17 December 1952, the Conference of Specialized Agencies and International Non-Governmental Organizations interested in crime prevention and the treatment of delinquents, meeting in Geneva under the auspices of the United Nations, recommended:

1. That universities organize the teaching of criminology and related subjects according to local traditions, possibilities and competencies.
 2. That this instruction be made compulsory for those intending to take up the Bar or Bench as a profession or to engage in other occupations connected with law enforcement.
 3. That such instruction make as much use of clinical work as possible.
- Thus the need for teaching criminology has been asserted not only by criminologists themselves, but by all those who co-operate in crime prevention and the treatment of delinquents. In most of the countries of the world, public opinion today is demanding the transformation of the judicial and penal system. The police, the Bench and penitentiary officers everywhere are realizing that their methods must be renovated. Yet, when these authorities wish to put their good intentions into practice, in all countries they encounter a great poverty—sometimes even a total lack—of precedents and guiding standards. The most resolute among them have therefore been led to undertake their difficult task in an empirical manner—and proof accumulates daily that good intentions alone will not advance them much. It is therefore their hope that the scientific teaching of criminology will be established, so that their efforts may be guided in the right direction.

This teaching is, from their point of view, all the more indispensable

in that penal and penitentiary reforms have now created, alongside the traditional aids to penal services, such as medico-legal experts and psychiatrists, a new type of assistance—that of psychologists, social workers and educators.¹ As a result, the judicial personnel and the ‘parajudicial’ personnel are drawn from different backgrounds, and cohesion between them is difficult. To prevent the dispersion of their efforts, to prevent each of them from limiting himself to his own point of view, it is obvious that some common basic instruction must be given to them.²

The evolution of concepts, institutions and personnel in the matter of crime prevention and the treatment of delinquents also raises the problem of the renovation of criminal law and penal procedure. Criminological aspects must therefore be taken into consideration when legal rules are formulated, and the pure jurist must be made conversant with the progress of criminology.

Finally, quite apart from the needs involved in the professional training of judges and their assistants and in the education of jurists, the teaching of criminology is indispensable in order to give life to scientific research in this domain. The latter cannot be carried out successfully unless the partial results obtained by isolated research workers are, through an unceasing effort of systematic classification, gathered into a real body of knowledge, where, thanks to thorough systematization, they can be placed in their true perspective and take on their real meaning. The task of instruction here is to separate what is known from what is only guessed, to abolish watertight compartments wherever they exist, to draw attention to urgent questions, and to spread a knowledge of the progress of research undertaken in various countries by various specialists. In a word, teaching should at once unify, co-ordinate and stimulate scientific research.

THE PURPOSE OF THE TEACHING OF CRIMINOLOGY

The agreement reached as to the need for teaching criminology would have been illusory if there had not been equal agreement as to its purpose and as to the definition of criminology.

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1. The date at which services making use of these new aids were organized varies considerably from country to country.
 2. There is an ever-increasing demand for better and more intensive training in general criminology and in the special disciplines relating to it. This demand emanates chiefly from people who work in the penal and crime-prevention fields, from those who study behaviour from the clinical standpoint, and from research workers in general. In some countries, moreover, official quarters—the probation service in Great Britain, for instance—are calling for fuller university training. To a certain degree, notably in the United Kingdom and in the United States, these demands are receiving increasing attention from educational institutions.

This problem of definition was set forth in the survey outline submitted to the various rapporteurs. It was also discussed in a general introductory note prepared by one of us and distributed at the London symposium. Finally, it was precisely stated during the symposium in a speech by Mr. Benigno di Tullio, professor at the University of Rome and Honorary President of the International Society of Criminology.

The concept which the great majority of participants accepted is backed by the authority of Enrico Ferri, for whom criminology is a 'synthetic science' based on criminal anthropology¹ and criminal sociology.

This synthetic science aims, today as yesterday, at reducing crime; and, working on the theoretical level to reach this practical goal, it proposes a complete study of crime and the criminal, crime being envisaged not as a judicial abstraction, but as a human act, a natural and social fact. The method used by criminology is the method of observation and experiment, carried out in the atmosphere of a veritable social clinic.

Yet obviously, in accepting this concept—criminology as a unitary and autonomous science calling upon clinical and experimental methods and synthesizing the results thus obtained—the participants in the London symposium simply pointed out a direction, a way to follow. This concept of criminology naturally presupposes that clinical and experimental methods are sufficiently well established in practical institutions to permit of serious research, and an indispensable condition therefore for its fruitful operation is the development of observation centres, laboratories of penitentiary anthropology, and institutes for classification. No one at the symposium failed to see that, where this condition was not met or was only partially met, criminology had to resign itself to being simply a collection of different sciences—a cluster of sciences bearing some relationship to the criminal phenomenon; and here 'criminological sciences' would be a more fitting term than 'criminology', the role of the latter being limited to presenting a synthesis of basic disciplines.

These two concepts—criminology as a collection of sciences, and criminology as a unified and autonomous science—are not mutually exclusive. On the contrary, the second can be said to complete the first. The social clinic of criminology proper uses the methods and data of the basic disciplines in a collective undertaking. The teaching of criminology proper therefore does not replace, but rather follows up the teaching of the criminological sciences.

It is scarcely necessary to point out that the teaching of criminological subjects and criminology can be profitably rounded off by the teaching of the adjacent sciences—forensic medicine, scientific police methods,

1. The term 'anthropology' is employed in a relatively narrow sense in the United States and the United Kingdom—in Anglo-Saxon teaching it rarely refers to the vast field which it designates on the Continent: biology including medicine, psychology, psychiatry, psycho-analysis.

and judicial psychology.¹ But it must be taken for granted that these disciplines are to be clearly distinguished from the basic disciplines and from criminology proper. If their subject is the criminal phenomenon, they consider it only from the standpoint of establishing the material facts and the proof of law-infraction; they do not engage in scientific study of the phenomenon, still less in research on remedies for it. For criminology and its basic disciplines, however, this is the real aim.

It is therefore unnecessary to dwell any longer on the purpose of the teaching of criminology—a teaching which is useful for the training of specialized workers as well as for that of students, research workers, and teachers.

This teaching, as it has just been defined, is essentially concerned with the criminal activity of man, and purposes to reinforce the struggle against the social scourge of crime. It thus becomes perfectly integrated with the teaching of the social sciences.

THE STRUCTURE AND GENERAL PLACE OF CRIMINOLOGY TEACHING IN EDUCATION

In studying the various national reports, the reader cannot fail to be impressed by the multiplicity of academic structures in which the teaching of criminology is to be found, and especially by the diversity of roles assigned to it.

It would be tempting to relate these differences to the plurality of aims observed in this teaching—its position in the academic framework has undoubtedly been influenced by such fundamental divergencies. There is a tendency to 'annex'. Old, traditional, disciplines such as penal law are apt to consider criminology and the criminological sciences as accessory disciplines, and thus to accord them, within any pre-existing system, a little corner which unfortunately does not suit their needs. And not only penal law, but all the basic disciplines—sociology, psychology, biology, penology—seem to harbour annexationist tendencies with regard to criminology, although the attitude varies in different countries.²

In fact, the multiplicity of academic structures in which the teaching of criminology is found and the diversity of roles assigned to it are largely bound up with the variations in different countries on the level of university organization. The Continental and the Anglo-Saxon types of universities are here in classic opposition to one another.

1. A general knowledge of these sciences can be considered as part of the training in criminology, but to become an expert in one of these fields requires special instruction in that particular subject. These sciences, in certain countries, are sometimes presented as a group known as 'criminalistics'.
2. This is also true of forensic medicine and scientific police methods, which are almost exclusively restricted to 'criminalistics'.

THE CONTINENTAL AND ANGLO-SAXON TYPES
OF UNIVERSITY SYSTEM

These contrasts have been pointed out by Mr. C. W. Guillebaud,¹ a professor at Cambridge University, in the remarkable general report on the teaching of economics which opens the study devoted to that subject. We need only point out here that what he has written on economics is equally valid for criminology.

These differences between Anglo-Saxon and Continental universities as regards structure, organization and the hierarchy of academic degrees have their repercussions on the university teaching of criminology. The Anglo-Saxon systems are less homogeneous than the Continental ones; that of the United Kingdom differs from that of the United States, where one finds traces of both systems. A brief general commentary on these differences might give a mistaken impression; consequently, the most important distinctions from the standpoint of criminology are treated in the various sections of this report. But the following preliminary observations can be made:

(1) One difference which is important for the teaching of criminology is whether the universities are State or private ones. The very high degree of State control in Continental universities, and the markedly uniform structure and organization which result from it, create greater uniformity in the university teaching of criminology on the Continent than in the United Kingdom. The private and autonomous character of the British universities allows them, despite the financial assistance they receive, to vary in the matter of examinations, curricula and diplomas. This sets up differences among universities as to the importance of criminology, the number of hours devoted to it, the range of treatment, and the level on which the subject is taught.

A second result of these differences is the fact that universities under close State control can more easily ensure the criminological training of penal and police officers, probation² officers, etc. When the bond between State and university is looser, as in the United Kingdom, the State tends to organize criminology teaching for its police and prison officers outside the university. This important difference is evident from the details given by the national reports on the training of officials.

Yet the Anglo-Saxon countries differ between themselves on this point: the United Kingdom has only autonomous, private universities; the United States has both State and private universities. In the United States, because of this complex situation, certain colleges for the training of police and prison officers are attached to the universities, while many others are autonomous.

1. C. W. Guillebaud, in *The University Teaching of Social Sciences: Economics*, Paris, Unesco, 1954.

2. See *Probation and Related Measures*, United Nations, New York, 1951.

(2) As a rule, the subjects sometimes grouped under the heading 'criminalistics' (forensic medicine, scientific police methods, judicial psychology) receive less attention in the Anglo-Saxon system, although great variations exist within this system and make any satisfactory generalization impossible. This circumstance does not imply any kind of disaffection for these subjects; they are simply treated as specialized fields, and taught as such in the appropriate courses of the basic disciplines or in special courses in institutes or other training establishments (such as in courses organized by the services concerned, for example, the police).

(3) Other important differences are the more intensive development of the university teaching of sociology in the United States—and, on a smaller scale, in the United Kingdom—by comparison with Continental countries, and the fact that sociology there has given much attention to criminology—which has influenced the teaching and orientation of criminology, even outside the universities. Thus, this discipline is largely taught in sociology departments in the United States and the United Kingdom, whereas in Continental countries the accent is placed on the relationship and affinities of criminology to law.

Specialized subjects—psychiatry and forensic medicine, for example—however, are taught within the basic disciplines in both systems, although such specialization does not intervene when elementary criminology is taught.

(4) The hierarchy of university degrees varies greatly between the two systems, but this is more a question of words than of level of knowledge. Nevertheless, Mr. Guillebaud's remarks on this point are perfectly applicable to criminology.¹

(5) The existence, in the United Kingdom and the United States, of a considerable number of courses in criminology outside the universities deserves mention; for this complexity in the teaching organization constitutes, together with the great freedom of action left to the universities there, one of the two most striking characteristics of the Anglo-Saxon system. These courses either show the interest of universities in 'outside' students or else meet the professional needs of particular groups. Examples of the latter case are furnished by the in-service training courses for probation officers, the preparatory courses for certain grades of police officers, and the courses held in psychiatric clinics for judicial 'case workers'.

Ampler details are given in later sections of this report on the complexity of teaching outside the universities. One may say that this characteristic of the Anglo-Saxon system aims at encouraging a better adaptation to professional needs.

(6) Another difference between the two systems lies in the development, in the United Kingdom and the United States, of a highly intensive

1. C.W. Guillebaud, *op. cit.*

training in social work, consecrated by a variety of degrees, diplomas and certificates. This is a striking feature of criminology teaching, notably in the United Kingdom, where probation officers take a two-year, full-time university course and receive a diploma in social science before taking a more specialized course under the Home Office.

In both countries, much of this teaching is related to, but not directly connected with, criminology. It improves the professional training, and thereby the professional quality, of social workers and probation officers, who are really clinical criminologists.

(7) The two systems are deep-rooted, and it is scarcely possible to assimilate them to one another. However, the teaching of a multi-disciplinary science like criminology can be encouraged under both systems by the establishment of institutes of criminology in the universities—naturally, with modifications appropriate to each system. This remark applies both to the Anglo-Saxon and to the Continental system; but, because of the existing situation in the Anglo-Saxon countries, it would have been more logical, there, to distinguish between criminology teaching 'inside' and 'outside' the universities than between criminology teaching 'inside' and 'outside' the institutes. This last classification has, however, been preserved in order to allow a better comparison of the different national data.

In adopting this division we hope later on to emphasize the fact that these two systems must profit more than they have done up to now from the study of one another's advantages. Such a study could lead to many reforms that have not yet been made.

Here, the international exchange of knowledge and experts, encouraged by the International Society of Criminology, cannot fail to have a good influence.

INSTITUTES OF CRIMINOLOGY

The institutes of criminology are intended to concentrate in one institution the teaching of criminology, of the criminological sciences, of the subsidiary sciences and, occasionally, of criminal law. These establishments can be either public or private and are organized in various ways, either as regular institutes or as university faculties.

A fairly clear distinction can be made, as to their public or private character, between the Anglo-Saxon type of institute and the Continental type.

The Anglo-Saxon institutes are usually private. The Institute for the Study and Treatment of Delinquency, founded as a private establishment in London in 1931, was at first a clinic available for the examination of delinquents of all ages, but later became a centre for evening courses devoted to social studies. The fourth year of this instruction dealt with criminology (these courses were given by the Extra-Mural Department

of the University of London).¹ In the United States—where the number and variety of institutions of higher learning forbid any generalization—institutes for the advanced training of professionals are dependent both on the university and on public authority. The Institute of Correctional Administration can be cited as an example: founded under the auspices of the College of General Studies of George Washington University, it functions as an advanced training centre for prison officers and probation services.²

While in Anglo-Saxon countries the institute system is not very well developed,³ the contrary is true on the Continent, where institutes, as a rule though not always, have a public character. The institutes in Vienna and Graz in Austria, the *Écoles de Criminologie* of the State Universities of Ghent and Liège in Belgium, the Institute of the Federal District University in Brazil, the institutes in Paris and the provinces in France, the Institute of Rome in Italy, the institutes in Istanbul and Ankara in Turkey, and in Sarajevo, Ljubljana and Belgrade in Yugoslavia, are all public organizations.

Apart from these institutes, the *École de Criminologie* of the *Université Libre de Louvain* and the *École des Sciences Criminologiques* of the *Université Libre de Bruxelles* must be mentioned; they are private, but, like the other institutes just mentioned, are university establishments. On the Continent, the only institute organized outside the university is the *École de Criminologie et de Police Technique* of the Belgian Ministry of Justice; to a certain extent it resembles the American institutes for advanced professional training.

1. A recent tendency in the United Kingdom has been to create university institutes (institutes of psychiatry, education, etc.), but there is as yet no university institute of criminology. The only criminological foundation bearing the name 'Institute' in the United Kingdom is the Institute for the Study and Treatment of Delinquency (ISTD); but it is attached to no university and receives no public subsidies. Rather, it is a private organization whose members are practitioners, teachers specializing in some criminological discipline, or distinguished persons interested in criminology. Instruction (week-end courses or summer courses) is offered to members of the institute and, in fact, to all professionals and also private individuals. The only regular course is given in collaboration with the Extra-Mural Department of the University of London. Sometimes groups of probation officers organize twelve-week seminars with one meeting a week. But such teaching is irregular. The institute cannot therefore be compared, as regards organization and teaching aims, either with the Continental institutes or with the sociology departments in those universities in the United Kingdom which teach criminology.
2. Some specialized American institutes are attached to universities; others are not. Each of them deals with a highly restricted branch of criminology. This explains why their courses are of limited duration, unlike those of the Continental institutes. The specialized institutes are for the intensive training of professionals and practitioners in the penal and penitentiary fields.
3. The question of nomenclature is difficult. The Criminal Science Department of the Law School of Cambridge University, which will be discussed elsewhere, would probably be called an 'institute' on the Continent; the same might be the case with the Berkeley School of Criminology of the University of California, which will also be mentioned later. In fact, the teaching aims of those university departments of sociology which teach criminology—that of the London School of Economics, for example—closely resemble those of the Continental institutes.

Almost all the university institutes are attached to the law faculties. The institute in Stockholm is the only exception; it has been a university institute since 1947, but it is financed from private funds.

This connexion with the law faculties has had certain consequences. In Paris, the Institut de Criminologie is placed under the scientific direction of the Faculté de Droit; the Dean of this faculty presides over its administrative board, and the Director and Assistant Director of the *Institut* can be appointed only from among the in-service professors of criminal law. At Rome the post of director belongs to the professor of penal law. At Ljubljana the director is elected by the law faculty from among its professors.

Such arrangements indicate the domination exercised by the law over this field, as well as the old conception of criminology as a subsidiary or accessory science to criminal law. It may well be asked whether this legal hegemony, which in the past corresponded to a certain historic reality, is not out-moded. Criminology presupposes a multi-disciplinary approach to every individual case, and—to speak only of Continental countries—its basic disciplines belong to the faculties of medicine and letters. This exclusive attachment of institutes of criminology to the law faculties is therefore open to criticism. The teaching of criminology in the institutes might well be moved to a neutral terrain, and the term 'university institute' appears preferable to 'institute attached to the faculty of law'.

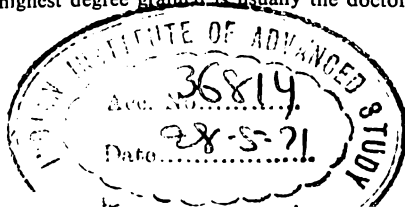
THE TEACHING OF CRIMINOLOGY OUTSIDE THE INSTITUTES

Outside the institutes, criminology is taught in the faculties and in institutions connected with scientific research or professional training.¹

In Anglo-Saxon countries, criminology is widely taught in the faculties. In the United Kingdom it is linked with the development of the university teaching of the social sciences. The University of London, with the London School of Economics (and of course the Institute of Psychiatry), and the Social Sciences School of the University of Oxford, seem to be at the head of the movement. Their example has been followed by many universities. At Cambridge, however, criminology is taught in the Criminal Science Department of the Law School. Elsewhere it is taught in the departments of psychology (Aberdeen) or of psychological medicine (Durham).

In the United States, among the 30 most important universities which offer graduate training only five do not teach criminology. Undergraduate courses in sociology are given in 607 colleges (65 per cent of

1. In the United States, and to a less extent in the United Kingdom, postgraduate training is specially developed for students intending to devote themselves to research or to university teaching. The highest degree granted is usually the doctorate, which rarely applies to criminology.



American colleges), and criminology is one of the most popular subjects of these courses. It usually comes under the department of sociology or the departments of sociology and anthropology. It sometimes forms a special section within the social sciences. At the University of California at Berkeley there is an autonomous department of criminology.

Thus, in Anglo-Saxon countries, criminology, as criminal sociology, is strongly integrated in the social sciences or sociology departments. This is not the case on the Continent. Passing references to criminological problems are, of course, found almost everywhere (in the psychology and sociology courses of the faculties of letters, the forensic medicine and psychiatry courses of the faculties of medicine, and the criminal law courses of the faculties of law); but it is only exceptionally that one of the basic disciplines of criminology is given an individual character—for example, criminal anthropology in Italy, criminal psychology at the Catholic University of Milan, and forensic psychiatry at Stockholm. For the moment the fact may merely be noted that many faculties of law give, under the name of criminology, the outline of a more or less complementary teaching of criminal law (Innsbruck in Austria, Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo in Brazil, Ankara and Istanbul in Turkey). In France a recent reform instituted a semester's teaching of penal law in the second year of the law course.

The instruction given in the faculties should be compared with that offered in certain institutions connected with scientific research. These institutions vary considerably in character and in the teaching they give. Sometimes the research centre completes university training—for example, at London, Oxford and Cambridge. In Belgium, the Centre René Marcq of the Université Libre de Bruxelles ensures the criminological training of research workers. In France instruction in criminal sociology for research workers is provided by the École Pratique des Hautes Études, and a criminology course is given by the École d'Anthropologie, a private institution founded years ago by Broca.

Professional training courses also exist in most of the countries under consideration, attached to the universities or to the administrations concerned. The University of London and many other British universities have organized 'extension' teaching particularly intended for police officers and social workers. The Home Office and the Scottish Home Department train probation, police and prison officers and the personnel of the Borstal Institutes and Approved Schools. In Belgium criminology is taught in the Écoles d'Infirmières et de Service Social (nurses' and social service schools). In France the rudiments of criminology are taught in an École Pénitentiaire and in the Écoles de Police and the Écoles d'Éducateurs organized by the competent administrations. Likewise in Italy there is a School of Scientific Police Methodology, as well as a school and advanced training courses for social workers. In the United States, police and penitentiary officers are trained in the

universities, usually in separate departments (the Berkeley School in California is a notable example). Instruction is also provided for social workers. In Sweden there is an Institute for Social Assistants at Göteborg, with courses in forensic psychiatry and juvenile criminology.

An impression of extreme diversity emerges from this brief glimpse of the structure and general place of criminology teaching. Some of this diversity stems from the nature of things, and can never be completely avoided. Yet it might be kept within bounds if the formula 'university institute of criminology', which we have already advocated, could be accompanied by a real centralization and co-ordination of the teaching of criminology and the criminological sciences.

ORGANIZATION OF THE TEACHING

The organization of the teaching of criminology and the criminological sciences raises many problems: conditions of access, cost of study, number of students, educational cycle (duration of study, examinations, diplomas), and openings.

Conditions of Access

The diversity to be noted in the structure and position of the teaching of criminology and the criminological sciences is also found in the conditions of access to this teaching.

Anglo-Saxon institutes of criminology are centres of high specialization. As one of us has written, their function is 'the mutli-disciplinary teaching of criminology for those who have already received intensive training in one of the sciences pertaining to this field'. Thus the curriculum of the Institute for the Study and Treatment of Delinquency, in London, provides courses for specialists as well as for non-specialists. In the United States, because of the limited number of places, a preliminary professional selection restricts the numbers of students admitted to the specialized institutes: this is to be expected in advanced education.¹ In Belgium, the *École de Criminologie et de Police Technique* of the Ministry of Justice is reserved for magistrates, lawyers, holders of university degrees, and persons giving proof of special knowledge.

In institutes of criminology of the Continental type attached to the law faculties, two distinct policies governing conditions of access are found. Under one system, the institute's courses in criminology,

1. It may be useful to note here that the Anglo-Saxon universities give either postgraduate training for research workers or candidates for university teaching, who may choose criminology as their principal or exclusive field (access is reserved to graduate students in one of these disciplines), or advanced training for professionals (social workers, police officers, prison officials, etc.).

criminological sciences and subsidiary sciences form a whole and must all be taken: criminological instruction, detached from the regular law curriculum, becomes a complementary teaching with special conditions of access. Under the second system, courses given at the institute of criminology do not make up a whole, and law students are simply obliged to take one of the institute's courses along with their studies.

When the institute of criminology's teaching is optional and complementary, proof of scientific training is required. In Belgium, holders of a university 'candidate's' diploma and medical students who have passed the second examination of the 'candidature' in natural and medical sciences are allowed to enter the *École de Criminologie* at Louvain. Similar conditions of access exist at Brussels, Ghent and Liège. In Paris, only students holding at least the degree of bachelor of law or a certificate of aptitude in law, together with students in letters, sciences or medicine, are admitted. In Rome, graduates in law, economics and commerce, or political and social sciences, doctors of medicine and surgery, and graduates of other faculties, may register. In Turkey and Yugoslavia, access is governed by the educational and professional qualifications of the candidates.

Thus, when the institute of criminology dispenses optional and complementary instruction, the conditions of access vary all the way from requirements for entrance to ordinary higher education (Belgium) to requirements which already resemble those applying in postgraduate institutes of the Anglo-Saxon type (Rome, Turkey, Yugoslavia); and there are intermediate systems (Paris). This does not happen when the institute's teaching is obligatory for law students, who, at Vienna and Graz, must take a course in criminology for two hours a week for half a year. Students from other faculties may likewise take the institute's course, and free auditors are also admitted.

It is noteworthy that the conditions of access nowhere include a basic or preliminary theoretical training in biology, psychology and sociology: yet without such a background it would be difficult to follow more than rudimentary instruction. General or special university degrees, or even professional experience requirements in specific fields, are by no means equivalent to the rational acquisition of this basic knowledge.

Conditions of access are less of a problem in criminological training outside the institutes. In the United Kingdom, where criminology teaching is usually a branch of social science teaching, the conditions of access to the latter studies are evidently what count. Likewise in the United States, all university students of sociology and social administration may take general criminology courses. The Anglo-Saxon countries also teach the criminological sciences outside the departments of sociology, as part of the general teaching of other fundamental disciplines. On the Continent, advanced courses in various basic disciplines (criminal anthropology, criminal psychology, judicial or forensic psychiatry) are

given, when they exist, in the framework of corresponding studies in medicine and psychology. As for the criminological concepts involved in criminal law or attached to that discipline, such instruction is reserved for law students. The same is true for students of letters or medicine when criminological matter is brought up in connexion with some other course in the curriculum (psychology, sociology, psychiatry, forensic medicine).

In teaching linked to scientific research, requirements vary with the nature of the institutions. Doctors of law and graduates in criminological sciences are alone admitted to the Centre René Marq in Brussels. Likewise, conditions of access to professional schools are rarely uniform.

Cost of Study

The cost of study at some of the specialized institutes in the United States can be determined. Thus each police officer at the Southern Institute of the University of Louisville receives a \$200 scholarship; the entrance fee is \$100. At the Institute for Correctional Administration, the fees are \$14 per course and \$112 for the whole curriculum. In Belgium, the *École de Criminologie et de Police Technique* of the Ministry of Justice is free.

Special entrance fees are required at the institutes of criminology attached to the law faculties: 1,000 Belgian francs a year at Louvain for students already registered with another faculty or school of the university, 3,000 Belgian francs for others; 4,000 French francs in Paris for students already studying at the faculty of law, 5,150 French francs for others. In Rome the entrance fee is so small that teaching can be said to be practically free.

As for instruction outside the institutes of criminology, there are no special fees, as a rule, for courses included in broader curricula. It is difficult to give precise information on courses linked with scientific research or professional training.

The general conclusion is that the cost of study is extremely variable; sometimes completely free, sometimes fairly heavy.

Number of Students

At the specialized institutes in the United States, the number of students varies greatly, from 20 in one case to 140 in another.¹ At the *École de Criminologie et de Police Technique* in Brussels, 89 students took the advanced course in 1953-54 and 118 in 1954-55.

1. Comparable differences may be noted in the number of students taking sociology courses in the various British universities. The number of students, particularly in the United States, must be considered in relation to the large number of institutes and other teaching establishments.

At institutes attached to the law faculties, there were 40 French language and 32 Flemish language students at the École de Criminologie of Louvain in 1954-55; during the same year there were 48 students at the École Léon Cornil, 42 at Ghent, and 10 at Liège. In Paris, about 170 students are inscribed every year at the institute, and about 60 in Rome.

Even wider differences appear outside the institutes of criminology. At Rio de Janeiro, 400 students take the criminology course for the doctorate of law. Teaching attached to scientific research shows an average of 25 to 30 students at the Centre René Marcq, in Belgium. In vocational education, between 1947 and 1950, 1,194 students took the course of the Police School of Rio de Janeiro. It is difficult to suggest the ideal number of students, since this must necessarily vary with the type of teaching.

Educational Cycle

Duration of studies, examinations and diplomas will be considered under this heading.

Anglo-Saxon institutes provide various solutions. The London Institute for the Study and Treatment of Delinquency gives evening courses which amount to a four-year teaching curriculum involving a diploma in social studies; the fourth year is devoted to criminology. It also provides 1-week summer courses, and seminars of 6 to 12 meetings. The specialized institutes in the United States organize periods of intensive training of 1 to 12 weeks, attested as a rule by certificates of attendance.

The situation is entirely different at institutes attached to the law faculties. At Louvain a *licence en criminologie* is conferred by the school and involves two years' study and two examinations. Each examination includes an oral test and personal research work; the student cannot receive a degree in criminology before obtaining an ordinary degree or a doctorate. Similar rules for the *licence en criminologie* are applied at the École Léon Cornil and at the schools of Ghent and Liège. The Université Libre de Louvain also confers the degree of doctor of criminological science, which presupposes:

1. The *licence*, with honours, granted at least two years previously.
2. A thesis on a subject taught in the school.
3. Three subsidiary theses, unconnected with the subject of the main thesis.
4. An oral test, passed without notes, involving public defence of the main thesis and the subsidiary theses.

In Paris and in Rome, there are neither ordinary degrees in criminology nor doctorates in criminological science; the institute merely grants diplomas. The course lasts two semesters in Paris and two years in Rome. The requirements for the diploma of the institute in Paris are two preli-

minary certificates (written and oral tests) and a thesis. In Rome there is a separate examination for each subject taught, and the diploma is granted to students who have passed all the examinations.

When organized outside the institutes, the educational cycle is bound up with that of the social sciences—notably in the United Kingdom—and leads to a postgraduate diploma in social science.¹ Sometimes, as at Durham, criminology is an optional subject in the final examination for the social science diploma. In London it is also an optional subject for the diplomas in sociology and economics. In the United States, criminology is usually integrated in the sociology curriculum of the arts and sciences.

In criminal law curricula, both in the case of the *licence* (Austria, France, Turkey, Yugoslavia) and of the doctorate (Brazil), criminology enters into the general legal programme. Forensic medicine is sometimes included in the curriculum for a *licence* in law; it is optional in Italy, compulsory in Turkey. The teaching of criminal anthropology is optional in the Italian faculties of medicine. Finally, in the great majority of cases, forensic medicine and criminal psychiatry are included in the cycle of medical studies.

As for teaching linked to scientific research, students at the Centre René Marçq who have taken part in the work during at least one year may receive an 'attestation' in the form of a certificate. The title of '*diplômé du Centre*' may be conferred upon Doctors of Law.

As regards professional training, in the United Kingdom the university extension teaching at Leeds leads to a certificate in criminology after three years' study comprising one evening course a week.² The central government departments give three-month full-time courses. In the United States, diplomas are sometimes granted after university instruction of a professional character. The degree of Master of Criminology can be conferred at the University of Berkeley.

Thus the general tendency is to recognize the existence of educational cycles and, to some extent, of special diplomas in criminology. Obviously the degree of Master of Criminology and especially the *licence* and the doctorate in criminology indicate a higher position assigned to the subject than do simple diplomas from institutes or the integration of criminology in a general teaching curriculum.

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1. In the United Kingdom, a university *degree* has a higher value than 'certificates' and 'diplomas' granted by universities. Diplomas are generally granted to postgraduate students who have taken a one-year course at the university in one of the subjects for which they have received their degree (diplomas in psychological medicine or in educational psychology, for example). The two-year social science course mentioned above can be taken by graduates in any subject, and leads to a postgraduate diploma in social science.
 2. The extra-mural departments of the universities organize evening courses and weekly study meetings whose aim is only partly professional. At the end of the course, certificates may be granted which have not, however, the same value as regular university certificates.

Openings

The individualization of criminology teaching will become easier when the possession of a diploma in criminology makes for profitable openings.

Unfortunately, in this matter the prospects are not, at the moment, very bright. As a general rule, criminological studies lead to no specific opportunities, where either Anglo-Saxon specialized institutes or Continental institutes are concerned. Degrees and diplomas in this field do, of course, constitute a recommendation for various careers in the domain of law enforcement. They ought also to be taken into consideration when professors of criminology are selected.

When criminology is included in some general field (social science, criminal law, etc.), the only openings are those offered by the diplomas in those fields. In London one may obtain a Ph.D. degree either in the law school, with a thesis on criminology of interest to jurists, or in the faculty of economics or in the arts school, with a thesis on the sociological or psychological aspects of criminology.

In teaching linked to scientific research, individual research work done in Brussels at the Centre René Marçq can be presented to the faculty as a thesis for the teaching certificate (*agrégation*) in criminal law. Professional instruction, on the other hand, is a preparation for specific careers, and here the openings are perhaps more evident.

It is to be hoped that more rational solutions will be reached in this question of openings and careers. Such solutions should first be sought within the university framework. In none of the countries under consideration does an *agrégation* in criminology exist which opens the door to the higher teaching of this discipline. This topic will be taken up again later, in connexion with the recruitment of teachers; we must simply state here that as long as the university itself does not come round to this point of view, it will remain difficult to find openings outside the university for studies which are not given more 'university' importance.

SUBJECTS TAUGHT

The subjects taught inside and outside the institutes of criminology, are the basic disciplines which constitute the criminological sciences or subjects (criminal biology, psychology and sociology, and penology), criminology proper, and the subsidiary sciences (forensic medicine, scientific police methods, judicial psychology).

Criminal Biology

Criminal biology originated in the anthropology of Lombroso, which was principally directed towards the organic study of the criminal. Certain courses at the Italian faculties of medicine (at Genoa, Modena,

Naples, Padua, Palermo, Parma, Rome, Sienna and Turin) still bear the name of criminal anthropology.

These courses reveal the methods, aims and evolution of criminal anthropology, the bio-sociological causes of criminal behaviour, the classification of delinquents (criminal typology), the relationship between mental illness and criminal behaviour, general concepts regarding the cause of crime (bio-psycho-sociological criminogenesis) and its psychological factors (affective troubles, emotional states; feelings of injustice, of inferiority, of frustration, of guilt; weakness of the intellect or will), the dynamics of crime (dynamics of offences against property, morals, persons), the examination of the personality, the expert assessment, dangerousness and prevention of crime, and the treatment of delinquents.

This programme shows that all the biological, psychological, sociological 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.

In Austria also, there is an enlarged conception of criminal biology. At the Institute of Criminology of Vienna, the criminal biology course (one semester, two hours a week) comprises the analysis of the causes of crime and criminal types. In Belgium, anthropology is taught along with psychiatry at the *École de Criminologie et de Police Technique* of the Ministry of Justice; at the *École de Criminologie* of Louvain, criminal biology and criminal psychology are taught together. Criminal anthropology is taught in conjunction with criminal pathology at the *École Léon Cornil* and at the schools of Ghent and Liège. At the *École Léon Cornil* the first examination for the *licence en criminologie* deals with concepts of physiology and human anatomy; this examination seems intended to make up for the absence of preparatory training, which has already been pointed out. In Brazil, the course given at the law faculties for the doctorate in criminology covers, in a general way, the subject-matter taught as criminal anthropology in Italy.

In practice, therefore, the tendency is to broaden the teaching of criminal biology. Sometimes it is attached to criminal psychology or pathology (Belgium); sometimes it embraces the study of all causes of crime and of criminal types (Austria); in Italy it is largely synonymous with criminology, as also in Brazil.

This tendency should be compared with developments in France at the *École d'Anthropologie*. From the outset (1876), criminal biology was taught as part of the general anthropology course. A Chair of anthropology of abnormals was founded in 1920; but the courses under it were successively given the names of criminal anthropology, criminology, and 'sociology and criminology'. These variations can be explained from the fact that criminal sociology had, since the foundation of the school, been taught in the social arts course, where the accent was placed on

problems of social defence. It became gradually evident that the study of causes could not easily be separated from study of the problems of social defence. Hence the idea of an autonomous criminology course which would bring these two aspects together and co-ordinate them. After 1945, the name 'criminology' was definitively admitted.

Criminal Psychology

Three basic disciplines are loosely classified under the general designation 'criminal psychology'—psychology proper, psychiatry and psycho-analysis.

Psychology proper, in its many subdivisions (general psychology, social psychology, applied psychology, psychopathology, child psychology, educational psychology, clinical and experimental psychology, etc.), touches upon questions relating to the criminal phenomenon. Both in Anglo-Saxon and in Continental countries, aspects of criminology are and always will be treated, in these disciplines, more or less fully and with a certain amount of standardization. Criminal psychology reappears, especially in the United Kingdom, in social science courses for candidate probation officers, psychiatric advisers and social workers; as also in schools for social work in the United States. It is not, however, called criminal psychology, but is presented as a course in child psychology and behaviour problems, or as clinical work. Courses for graduate professors given in the institutes of education also cover this material. Criminal psychology is therefore rarely autonomous and is rarely taught outside the basic disciplines.¹

Yet psychological criminology is taught at the Catholic University of Milan, and criminal psychology at the institutes of Paris and Strasbourg. At the Institute of Criminology of Graz, a semester course of one hour a week is devoted to the method of tests applied in the diagnosis of personality. The schools of Ghent and Liège and the Institute of Rome teach criminal psychopathology. In the United States, criminal psychology is included in the fullest and best-developed criminology teaching, and to a lesser extent in more elementary courses. In the United Kingdom, the criminology courses of the London School of Economics and at the University of Exeter, teach criminal psychology, and this subject is also included in most of the criminology courses of the other sociology departments. The evening courses leading to a certificate in criminology organized by the Extra-Mural Department of the University of Leeds include psychological problems in the fourth year. In American universities this subject is found not only in the criminology courses of the departments of sociology and social administration, but also in the teaching of the most important professional training colleges for police

1. The term 'criminal psychology', especially in Anglo-Saxon countries, might be said to designate psychological knowledge, research and methods applying to criminals, rather than a specific discipline.

and correctional officers (for example, the Berkeley School of Criminology of the University of California).

In many universities of the United Kingdom and the United States, criminological teaching is also organized at the postgraduate level and gives access to the highest degrees, including the doctorate in fields related to criminal psychology.

A course in delinquent psychology at the Higher Police Institute at Ankara may be mentioned. Criminal psychology was also taught at the institute in Belgrade, but the teaching has not yet been reorganized.

In the light of these experiences, it seems that general notions on the psychology of behaviour, social psychology and phenomenology, and precise knowledge about personality tests, can form the general basis of preparatory training in criminal psychology.

Criminal psychiatry—also called medico-legal psychiatry or forensic psychiatry—on the other hand is a well-defined subject. It is taught either within the general framework of medical studies or as a special projection of medical teaching, or else as part of the criminological instruction of non-medical students (practising lawyers, social workers, probation officers). The first and third cases need not be dealt with at length. The first is a specifically medical problem, and the third does not raise particular difficulties, because almost all institutes of criminology teach criminal psychiatry. Semester courses in legal psychiatry (one hour a week) are to be found in Austria; psychiatry is taught at the *École Léon Cornil*, and psychological medicine at Sarajevo. In Paris there are courses both in mental medicine and in infantile neuro-psychiatry.

This subject is taught, outside the universities, for other than medical students. It is part of the teaching of criminology in many sociology departments in the United States and the United Kingdom—for example, at the London School of Economics. It has its place in the training of probation officers in the United Kingdom, though to a lesser extent.

Criminal psychiatry has been taught separately, as a basic discipline, at the Institute of Psychiatry of the University of London since 1923, and later at the Maudsley Hospital which is connected with it. A post of extraordinary professor of forensic psychiatry was founded at the Stockholm Faculty of Medicine in 1921; the holder was at the same time chief medical officer of the psychiatric section of the central prison. The tendency is thus towards the autonomous teaching of criminal psychiatry as distinct from psychiatry itself. It is curious to note that, although this is not of universal application, every criminological science, as soon as it has reached a certain degree of autonomy, tends to spread beyond the confines of its own subject. The teaching of criminal psychiatry in Sweden and of criminal biology in Italy really cover all aspects of criminology.

Opinions vary greatly as to the proper position of psycho-analysis among the basic criminological disciplines. General and elementary

courses in psycho-analysis usually figure in the curriculum of general psychology or psychiatry applied to criminology. However, there are important differences among countries. Psychology and psychiatry courses are numerous in the United States but rare on the European continent; on the other hand, courses in mental health are well developed everywhere. True psycho-analytic criminology rarely forms part of criminology training, although references are made to psycho-analysis in the syllabuses of the universities of Aberdeen, Liverpool and Nottingham. Many courses in the United States, in the United Kingdom, and even in Continental Europe give some place to psycho-analytic theory, for example in courses held for probation officers or social workers in the departments of sociology and psychology. Interest in this subject is fairly widespread, therefore, and certain psycho-analytic works dealing with crime are extensively used.

Intensive training in psycho-analytic theory and techniques as applied to criminals is probably given automatically in the general instruction of most institutes of psycho-analysis. These institutes concentrate on their own field and do not attempt to teach other aspects of criminology, but the requisite knowledge of the social, psychological and anthropological background inevitably leads to a wider awareness of the great phenomenon of crime. These institutes are chiefly devoted to the post-graduate training of doctors and other specialists. Likewise, in university departments specialized in various branches of psychology and psychiatry, psycho-analysis is often taught, but criminology teaching has a very small share in these courses.

The ISTD in London and the Home Office courses have psycho-analysts among their professors. It is worth noting that many criminologists (at least in the United Kingdom and the United States) educate themselves, through private reading and discussions, in psycho-analytic theory and its applications to criminology.

In short, psycho-analytic knowledge receives considerable attention particularly in the United States, and to a lesser extent in the United Kingdom. In these two countries such knowledge is inevitably applied in several ways to criminology teaching and practice by psychiatrists, psychologists, sociologists, penologists, or social workers concerned to keep the psycho-analytic point of view in mind.

The Continent seems to differ in this respect; here, opinion is widespread that more systematic training in psycho-analytic criminology is desirable, for it can be an important element for training in criminological theory.

This note on the teaching of criminal psychology in the broad sense—that is, covering psychology proper, psychiatry, and psycho-analysis—cannot be brought to a close without reference to the fact that at Louvain, in Belgium, criminal biology and criminal psychology make up a whole; similarly, in the Italian faculties of medicine, criminal anthropology embraces the whole of criminology.

Criminal Sociology

Criminal sociology shows the same tendency as criminal biology and criminal psychology; either this field disappears from the list of the basic disciplines, or else it becomes a kind of sociological criminology, the teaching of which is directed towards a scientific view of the whole criminal problem. A distinct concept of criminal sociology is rarely found in Continental countries.

Only at Louvain is there a course in criminal sociology; in a certain way it completes the courses in criminal biology and criminal psychology. At the École Léon Cornil and at the schools of Ghent and Liège, criminal sociology is brought up solely in connexion with crime prevention. It is merely 'explained' at the Higher Police Institute of Ankara, and taught only in an indirect way at the institute in Sarajevo. In Italy, there is still a course in criminal sociology at the Institute of Criminology in Rome; but no Chair of criminal sociology now exists in other institutions, and the example of the much-regretted Crispini, who taught criminal sociology at Milan at the beginning of his university career, has not been followed. Criminal sociology is really taught in Italy as part of criminal anthropology. In France, references to it are made only in connexion with scientific research. In Austria it is absorbed by criminal biology and finds some expression in criminal phenomenology, which studies forms of crime (criminal morphology) and criminal modes of existence.

The decadence of criminal sociology on the Continent contrasts with its vitality in Anglo-Saxon countries—in the United Kingdom the recent growth of the university teaching of the social sciences has greatly stimulated it. At the London School of Economics, the following subjects are found in the criminology syllabus: concept of crime, functions and methods of criminology, criminal types, causal factors in crime (physical, psychological, social and economic), juvenile and female delinquency.¹

In the United States, general university courses in criminology are conceived from an historical, social and psycho-sociological point of view; they deal with the history of criminology, the causes of crime, organized crime and the professional criminal, juvenile delinquency and its diagnosis, social pathology, prevention and treatment of social

1. At the London School of Economics and Political Science and other institutions of higher learning, in addition to very full sociology teaching, less extensive courses are given for students of social science intending to be probation officers or to take up other social service careers; courses in mental health are also provided for those preparing for careers in the psychiatric field. In the United Kingdom sociological criminology is also taught outside the universities; the advanced training courses given by the Home Office for probation officers, and the courses for the personnel of the penitentiary services, the Borstal Institutes and the Approved Schools, are examples. Certain university extramural departments and certain local institutions give evening courses which include the teaching of sociological criminology; these are intended for police officers, social workers and magistrates.

disorganization, treatment of delinquency, the sociology of law, social control, the social, psychological, psychiatric and legal aspects of criminology, the abnormal personality, alcoholism, etc. Many of these subjects, of course, overlap, but a considerable effort is made to review the principal problems of criminology.¹

Thus in Anglo-Saxon countries the tendency is to enlarge sociological criminology. The fact is all the more noteworthy because a comparable growth in the teaching of the other basic disciplines is much less evident.²

Penology

The teaching of penology has three different sources—sociological, legal and administrative.

In the sociological context, the general university courses in criminology in the United States are completed by the teaching of penology. Among the subjects found in the syllabuses are the evolution of punishment, the treatment of offenders, modern penology, probation and parole, institutional and non-institutional treatment of criminals, work in the penitentiaries, etc. Here, too, an effort is made to present a general view of these questions. In the United Kingdom the development of the university teaching of social science has resulted in increased attention to penology. In so far as it is possible to generalize, law and social science students who study criminology acquire, chiefly, a knowledge of penology.

The legal character of the teaching of penology is manifest in Austria, where this discipline is dealt with only in the penal law course. The same is the case in Turkey. In France the term 'penal and criminological law' covers a six months' teaching in the second year of the *licence*; the main topics are the study of crime in fact and in law, the study of the criminal, his psychology and his responsibility, and the study of reform and repression. The content of the syllabus shows clearly that the real subject is penology, even though the title 'penal and criminological law' might lead one to think that criminology and penal law were studied successively.

1. In the United States, the teaching of criminology has developed parallel to that of sociology. At present 607 American colleges teach sociology, and many of them give undergraduate instruction in sociological criminology; the faculties of letters or science in 25 to 30 universities also provide postgraduate courses in criminology. Sociological criminology is found in the syllabuses of many professional training courses for police officers and the correctional services. This discipline has also taken on considerable importance at the Berkeley School of Criminology of the University of California, which grants the degree of M.A. in criminology. In certain schools of social work, where the Master's degree is also given, courses are provided on juvenile delinquency and its sociological aspects. However, the fact that clinical criminology is treated as part of forensic psychiatry and criminal anthropology, however broadly they may be conceived, shows the insufficient development of penology as a scientific discipline.
2. This phenomenon may be due to the general difference in structure between the universities and institutes of these countries and those of the Continent.

Yet penology is evidently not limited to a statement of penal theories; it has a marked technical and administrative character. Hence the need for separate teaching felt at Louvain, at the École Léon Cornil, and at the schools of Ghent and Liège, as well as at the institute in Rome. The same tendency occurs in the United States in the professional training courses of the universities.

In France, apart from instruction provided by the administration for prison officials, a well-established tradition at the Institut de Criminologie has completely assimilated the teaching of criminology to that of penitentiary science. This course, which was originally called criminal and penitentiary science, and later criminology and penitentiary science, is now termed 'applied criminology'. Its very wide programme really covers criminology proper; here the tendency to enlarge the subject, which has already been observed in criminal psychology, psychiatry and biology, reappears in the field of penology.

This tendency of teachers specialized in one discipline to widen their domain to the point of taking in the whole field of criminology is no doubt inevitable. It shows both the need and the practical advantages of a multi-disciplinary teaching, centralized and co-ordinated within an institute. When criminology as a whole is taught, beginning with and from the point of view of one basic discipline, other, related, disciplines inevitably appear to be neglected—at least to their specialists. Such broadening of scope brings up the problems of room, time, teaching staff and adequate attention to each subject; it demonstrates once again the need for autonomous institutes of criminology whose activities are neither slanted towards a particular discipline nor supervised by specialists in that discipline, but are concentrated on criminology proper.

Criminology Proper

Paradoxically enough, criminology proper stems from the widening of certain basic disciplines. Yet the resultant teaching of it is unavoidably dominated by the orientation and spirit of the original subject (biology, psychiatry, sociology, penology).

The present comparative survey reveals that two new directions are now open: general criminology and clinical criminology.

The concept of a general or synthetic criminology (as opposed to the criminological sciences or analytical criminology) results from the reading of certain national reports, particularly that for Yugoslavia. Such teaching is already given in the Turkish law faculties as a two-hour-a-week, half-year course. It begins with a general view of the criminological explanation and the limits of criminology. Then come the broad outlines of criminal sociology, biology and psychology. Afterwards the relationships between crime and various social situations are analysed, and criminality in different cultural groups is described.

It is at once apparent that general criminology which compares, co-ordinates and classifies the results obtained in each of the criminological sciences, constitutes a useful work of synthesis.

Clinical criminology goes farther, however. It consists of the application of the methods and principles of the basic criminological sciences to the observation and treatment of delinquents. The following are the stages of the operation: medico-psychological and social examination, criminological diagnosis, social prognosis, treatment and social rehabilitation. This amounts to an extension of the clinical method in medicine to the treatment of delinquents, that is, to penology.

For this reason, it is natural that the national reports have to a great extent associated the teaching of clinical criminology with that of criminal psychiatry. The latter, so far as it is taught in the United Kingdom, is handled in courses for psychiatrists reading for a diploma in psychological medicine. Similarly, one characteristic of Swedish instruction in criminology is the clinical aspect which it has always possessed; forensic psychiatry is its point of departure. In Italy clinical criminology belongs, academically, to criminal anthropology, of which it is only a recent development.

However, the fact that clinical criminology is dealt with as part of forensic psychiatry and criminal anthropology—however much breadth may be accorded these fields—shows the insufficient development of penology as a scientific discipline. In practice, the work is limited to an introduction to criminology, as at Louvain and Strasbourg; or else the criminology course is centred around the data of juvenile criminology (École d'Anthropologie, Paris). The development of clinical criminology depends upon the work of the observation centres, the institutes of classification and the anthropological laboratories attached to the penal and penitentiary administrations. At the London symposium, Mr. Benigno di Tullio announced the establishment, in Rome, of a Higher School of Clinical Criminology working in liaison with the criminological centre recently set up by the prison and prevention administrations.

These first experiments show that the teaching of criminology proper from the point of view of clinical criminology must involve both a practical initiation into methods of examination, diagnosis, prognosis and treatment of delinquents, and a systematization of the data obtained from the clinical study of individual cases. This was notably the direction taken by the criminology course given in 1952-53 at the École d'Anthropologie in Paris; it treated successively the evolution of theories about the cause of crime, the results of the medical and typological examinations, dysmorphic stigmata, the results of the neurological, psychological and psychiatric tests, heredity, family factors as well as play, school, judicial, professional, economic and social factors, social survey technique, conflicts and complexes causing crime, the classification of delin-

quents, and the evaluation of the relative importance of these various factors.

There is every reason to believe that in the near future a true criminology will arise out of the systematization and development of clinical data; but for the present these data can usefully be compared with those secured from the synthesis of the results obtained within the basic disciplines. This compromise method, using data from general criminology and clinical criminology alike, is the one applied in the criminology course for 1955-56 at the Institut de Paris. It begins with an introduction to criminology (purpose and nature of criminology, history of criminological doctrines, methods of criminology). Then come the study of criminality (general evolution, personal circumstances of race, age and sex, and social conditions with their geographical, economic, cultural and political backgrounds) and the study of the criminal (classification of criminals, hereditary, anatomic, physiological, pathological and psychological characteristics of the criminal, study of his family, social, penal and penitentiary environment). The fundamental elements of the study of crime are then considered (personality, act, situation), as well as its theories and data (pre-criminal situation, criminogenetic processes, relationship between the criminal and his victim). Finally, the practical applications are shown with regard to observation, diagnosis and prognosis, institutional treatment, non-institutional treatment, later stages of cure and social rehabilitation, and crime prevention.

This scientific development, which founds criminological teaching on the general synthesis and systematization of clinical data, should be compared with the movement already discussed in criminal biology, psychiatry, sociology and penology—a movement which tends to raise these basic disciplines to the rank of criminology proper. In particular, the subject matter of sociological criminology, the programme of which has already been reviewed, is very close to that presented here as belonging to criminology proper. Each of these points of departure, each of these different approaches, leads to the same fact, namely, that criminology is a unitary and autonomous science.

Forensic Medicine

Forensic medicine is the sum of knowledge required, in the administration of justice, concerning the human body and toxicology. Taught as a part of medicine, it is the subsidiary science of criminology which has the longest history. At the beginning it covered criminal psychiatry, scientific police methods and judicial psychology. Today the curriculum suffers from the fact that these disciplines, in theory or in practice, have been detached from their common basis. Concepts of criminal psychiatry, scientific police methods and judicial psychology are still often found in forensic medicine; but the complexity of these questions and the important

progress made in all branches of the mental sciences tend to accentuate the need for criminal psychology and psychiatry to be taught by competent specialists rather than by experts in forensic medicine, except at the elementary level. This solution prevails in the United States and the United Kingdom.

The essential problem here is not the teaching of forensic medicine to medical students, but its teaching to other students. One solution is to adapt forensic medicine in the medical course so that it will serve both for medical and for law students. But this method, applied in the United Kingdom, is not generally followed. The suggestion has been made that forensic medicine should become part of law teaching. In Turkish and Yugoslav law courses, the subject is compulsory. In Italy it is optional, and forensic medicine is likewise an alternative subject in Austria.

The optional course in forensic medicine given in the Italian law faculties includes a general section (concepts of psychology and medico-legal psychopathology, physical lesions, teratology, microscopic research, medico-legal haematology, identification) and a special section (medical ethics, medico-legal problems in civil law, penal law, and insurance).

Forensic medicine is generally found in the curricula of the Continental institutes of criminology, such as those of Belgium and France, and at Rome. It is also taught in university courses for police training in the United States and in the specialized institutes of that country. It is included among the subjects of the 'medical group' at the *École de Criminologie et de Police Scientifique* in Brussels.

Scientific Police Methods

Scientific police methods are today generally distinguished from forensic medicine. They denote the study of material clues and traces, principally by physical and chemical means, and are concerned with all aspects of criminal identification. In Austria this discipline is still called the science of investigation or of material proof. Generally speaking, scientific police methodology is a complement to medico-legal studies; it has no Chairs in the faculties, but scientific police laboratories exist which are entirely distinct from medico-legal institutes. The observations of the national reports are often negative on this subject, because of the tendency to make scientific police methodology an autonomous discipline.

This process has already reached an advanced stage in Austria; here, only investigations involving the human body or toxicology are still part of forensic medicine, and all other branches of the science of material proof depend on the institutes of criminology and the law faculties (as part of criminology teaching). In Yugoslavia, scientific police methodology is taught as criminalistics in the law faculties, and its teaching is clearly distinguished from forensic medicine. In Brazil the curriculum for the doctorate of law includes a course in 'Habitual Offenders and

Identification', that is, in scientific police methodology. It covers anthropometry, dactyloscopy, the identification of unknown corpses, and somatic and external clues. In the United Kingdom, this science is taught in the departments of forensic medicine, notably at the universities of St. Andrews, Birmingham, Leeds, London (Guy's Hospital) and, less fully, at Glasgow.

In the main, these courses are open to law and to medical students. Since 1946 short courses have been given for police officers at the College of Technology at Liverpool, under the auspices of the education authority. The subject is also taught in police colleges, and certain aspects of it are dealt with in the Criminal Science Department of the Cambridge Law School.

In most Continental institutes of criminology, scientific police methodology is taught separately from forensic medicine, for example, in Brussels (École Léon Cornil), Ghent, Liège (as criminalistics), Paris, Rome (as scientific police), Sarajevo, and Ljubljana (again as criminalistics). In Belgrade there used to be a course in 'criminal chemistry'.

The autonomy of scientific police methodology is especially well established on the level of professional training and advanced specialization. In the United States, both in the universities and in the specialized institutes, it is taught very thoroughly. The subject is even broken up into various branches or subdivisions, such as identification, physical and chemical proof, etc. At the École de Criminologie et de Police Scientifique in Brussels, there is an 'identification science group' pairing with the 'medical group'. Scientific police methodology gives its name to the school of that appellation in Rome, and is taught in the Higher Police Institute of Ankara.

Judicial Psychology

Judicial psychology—still called the psychology of criminal procedure—covers all knowledge relating to the conduct of a trial. The psychology of confession, the psychology of testimony, and problems connected with the polygraph (or 'lie detector') come under this discipline.

It is autonomous at the Institute of Vienna (course in the psychology of legal procedure), but is taught at Graz as the 'science of the hearing', together with the science of material proof, within the framework of a teaching in criminalistics understood as the science of investigation. In Brazil the curriculum for the doctorate of law includes instruction in judicial psychology. In Turkey a compulsory course in judicial psychology for law students is part of the curriculum of the law faculty at Ankara.

The only Continental institute which teaches judicial psychology is that of Rome. In Paris, however, certain aspects of the subject appear in the criminal psychology course at the Institut de Criminologie and in the applied psychology course given at the Institut de Psychologie. The

field, moreover, is linked to certain elements of criminal psychology; for example, in France, judicial psychology is not clearly separate from criminal psychology. In the United Kingdom references are made to judicial psychology in the teaching of forensic medicine and of psychology. In the extension courses of the University of Durham, the study of the psychology of testimony is mentioned.

Thus judicial psychology is the least distinct of the subsidiary sciences of criminology.

The following lesson emerges from this general survey of the subjects taught. In the light of past experiments, the time appears ripe to establish the essential points of the programmes of the various courses in the criminological sciences, criminology proper, and the subsidiary sciences. The Brazilian national report has expressed the opinion that the International Society of Criminology could here play a co-ordinating and unifying role, and that its Scientific Commission could well take the initiative in defining and settling the broad outlines of the different criminology courses.

Such action evidently cannot be limited to a general determination of the fundamental aspects of criminology teaching. The theories taught are related not only to the definition of the discipline with which they are concerned, but also to the level of the teaching and to its essential purpose. Instruction intended for students in various faculties, the professional training of specialists in judicial and related questions, and teaching for advanced scientific specialization must each be conceived and developed in a different spirit and with different methods.

TEACHING METHODS

Teaching methods raise many problems. They are mainly connected with what is called 'magistral' teaching in Continental countries. It has no exact equivalent in Anglo-Saxon countries, where instruction is given through lecture courses, clinical work (including supervised case work), practical work and visits, training periods in specialized institutions, bibliography and documentation, scientific research, international teaching, and through the training and recruitment of teachers.

'Magistral' Teaching and Lecture Courses

Magistral teaching undoubtedly predominates throughout the Continent, whether in the institutes of criminology attached to the law faculties, or in the courses given in those faculties themselves. On the other hand, in the Anglo-Saxon countries, lecture courses are one of the basic methods of university instruction bearing on the social sciences.

Certainly magistral teaching and lecture courses are necessary for all those coming into contact with criminological realities for the first time. But it can be inferred from the national reports that this teaching, owing to its theoretical character, cannot constitute a real initiation into the concrete problems of criminology.

This is why the modern tendency has been to complete magistral instruction by the showing of films or slides. A good example is the institute in Vienna, where a rich collection of films and educational slides is available for use in active teaching.

Modern methods also imply modern lecture halls, with proper lighting, ventilation and other facilities, so that a large audience can follow the lecture courses or the magistral teaching, which must be made more effective by visual aids (including films). The degree to which criminology profits from these innovations varies considerably from country to country. In the United States good results have been obtained, but elsewhere too many universities leave criminology teaching to fend for itself in poverty.

Clinical Teaching

Clinical teaching has a medical character. It is not surprising therefore that almost everywhere—and particularly in the United States—criminal psychiatry is taught by the clinical method. Cases are presented in dispensaries of mental hygiene (École Léon Cornil), in psychiatric hospitals (Liège), in ordinary hospitals (at Paris, in the juvenile criminology course given by the Chair of Infantile Neuro-Psychiatry in the faculty of medicine), or in specialized institutes (Institute of Criminal Anthropology in Rome, Institute for the Study and Treatment of Delinquency and Institute of Psychiatry in London, Clinic for Forensic Psychiatry in Stockholm). When criminology teaching stems from criminal psychiatry—as in Sweden—courses for law students naturally consist of the clinical study of cases. The cases of diseased persons or abnormals who have committed criminal acts are naturally preferred. The clinical side seeks principally to reveal the patient's behaviour, to permit a clinical diagnosis of his condition and, if possible, a prognosis of the evolution of his mental state and behaviour, and to stimulate discussion of therapeutic aspects, of the reactions set off by the shock between the individual's bio-psychological personality and the impulses coming from his past or present environment—the result of which is his conduct.

Today it is necessary to determine whether, outside the narrow sphere of criminal psychiatry, and under ordinary penitentiary conditions, such clinical teaching can be employed. The point has not been faced in the national reports, but there are certain penitentiary traditions, founded on moral principles (respect of the prisoner's person) and special needs

(discipline, re-education requirements), which are opposed to the presentation of cases in the medical style. Thus, even though the criminology centres installed within the most important penitentiaries in Italy contribute greatly to criminological teaching, it is not clear whether the presentation of cases is organized there.

The perfectly legitimate scruples of prison services about exhibiting the prisoner himself can be overcome by alternative methods: the projection of his photograph, or recordings of his conversations with doctors, psychologists, social workers and prison officials. What counts is the co-operation of all the specialists concerned.

The 'supervised case work' method in Anglo-Saxon countries is an extremely interesting form of clinical teaching. The student is asked to apply a given method of examination or treatment to a real person, but under the supervision of an expert. This technique is widespread in the United States and is now developing in the United Kingdom. It is employed for studies in medicine, psychiatry, psychology, psychoanalysis, social work, and for the training of probational and correctional officers.

Practical Work and Visits

Practical work and visits do not involve the same difficulties, and are everywhere an indispensable supplement to teaching proper.

Practical work can take several forms: commentaries on the magistral or clinical teaching, under the guidance of a leader or tutor; lectures given by the students themselves and criticized, after general discussion, by the group leader; and lectures on particular subjects, given by qualified specialists and followed by discussions. Thus in Paris, criminal sociology teaching at the *École Pratique des Hautes Études* is supplemented by lectures and discussions organized by the *Centre d'Études Sociologiques*. At an even higher level, veritable seminars are organized with the participation of the auditors of the course. In certain universities of the United Kingdom and at the special institutes in the United States, criminology 'workshops' are found.¹

Practical work can take a more concrete form, especially in legal medicine and scientific police methodology. Modern autopsy rooms exist in Brussels and at Louvain. Everywhere else, attendance at a few

1. Seminars discuss general themes, particular cases and current problems under the direction of an experienced supervisor. They usually have eight members or less, but sometimes include as many as 15 or 20 students. Such seminars and discussion groups are widely found in the United States and the United Kingdom in criminology proper and in many of its branches. Though they often show an excessive tendency on the part of various disciplines to organize their work independently, numerous discussion groups in the United States, in Austria and perhaps elsewhere as well, bring together specialists in scientific police methods, organic medicine, psychiatry, social work and probation, in order to discuss the real problems of current cases.

autopsies fits naturally into the course in legal medicine. Police science laboratories, which may be visited by students, are attached to the Institutes of Vienna and Graz, the *École de Criminologie et de Police Scientifique* in Brussels, the School of Scientific Police Methodology in Rome, and the Turkish law faculties. Students are given all facilities for visiting the laboratories and the autopsy rooms, but practical work (for example, autopsies) can only be done there by persons whose future professions or specialities will involve similar tasks.

Visits to children's courts, reform schools, penitentiaries, identification laboratories and services, and psychiatric hospitals are organized in all countries and at all teaching levels. No difficulty occurs here.

Training Periods in Specialized Institutions

While practical work and visits are widespread, training periods in specialized institutions seem to be virtually non-existent. At Louvain opportunities are afforded for personal contacts between students and prisoners, leading to the writing of memoranda and reports. In university professional training courses in the United States, many facilities are provided for collaboration with the local police, the courts and the penitentiary services, so that the student may familiarize himself with the organization in which he is later to work.

So meagre a result is not surprising when criminology is taught within the framework of legal, medical or social studies. Training periods in specialized institutions are scarcely conceivable on this basis, unless they are part of the general curriculum (hospital internship for medical students). But in professional training and advanced specialization, successive training periods in various criminological services appear to be indispensable to an understanding of the essential unity of criminology and the conditions of the multi-disciplinary approach.

Obviously such exigencies create serious problems of time and expense, especially for multi-disciplinary training in criminology. Nevertheless, it seems that more ought to be done in this field—not only as regards elementary courses, for which short training periods would suffice, but also as regards postgraduate courses, which involve only a restricted number of institutions.

Bibliography and Documentation

The subject of criminology, like others, presupposes a bibliography and documentation available for students.

No bibliography of the abundant criminological literature available for teaching purposes can be given here. Most countries have specialized libraries with textbooks, reviews and official reports on criminal statistics, prison government, etc. In the United Kingdom many works are used

both in undergraduate and graduate teaching and in specialized courses. In the United States, many basic textbooks are used for graduate teaching; the undergraduate situation is less clear. In the sociology schools a single textbook is often used; but in other university departments, such as medicine, and in the institutes, a great variety of manuals or digests are employed. Even in sociology, students need more than one textbook, because of the scope of the curriculum.

Similar methods are applied on the Continent—but textbooks suitable for beginners must first exist. In Brazil, the absence of teaching manuals has resulted in loss of interest on the part of students. The author of the Brazilian national report strongly emphasizes the need for preparing a scheme for publishing criminology textbooks; various chapters could be written by groups of specialists chosen from among the members of the International Society of Criminology. This need, of course, is less clearly felt in countries where many adequate works exist.

As regards documentation, in certain countries there are, or soon will be, museums of criminology attached to the institutes (Turkey, Yugoslavia). These are undoubtedly excellent initiatives which merit more widespread application.

Scientific Research

Scientific research, as a rule, is closely associated with criminology teaching. The relationship is inevitable; for scientific research supplies the materials which instruction must disseminate, and it can itself constitute, in many respects, a teaching method.

At the beginning, many institutes of criminology were merely research institutions. The Institute for the Study and Treatment of Delinquency, in London, began as a clinic; it later went over to research, and finally to teaching. Today it has two research fellows working under the supervision of a scientific commission. The special institutes in the United States can also be thought of as research organizations; their foundation was often due to the need for providing institutional answers to urgent and immediate problems of police and prison work and social control, so that the required concentrated study might be given to solutions and reforms.

In Continental institutes, scientific research appears to be inseparable from teaching, for example in Austria, in Italy (where the activities of several specialized institutes are centralized at the Institute of Rome), in Sweden, and in Turkey (where at the beginning the institutes were simply research organizations). In Yugoslavia, the aim of the institute in Sarajevo is to study criminality throughout the country.

Scientific research is mentioned as an objective in the statutes of the school at Louvain in Belgium, which is made responsible for 'promoting research and reflection'. The *École Léon Cornil* also endeavours to

encourage research. At Ghent, the Gentse Kriminologen Kring (Ghent Criminology Circle) continues the work of the Criminology School, and 'seeks to promote criminological studies'. However, the Belgian national report states that, despite these efforts, the results obtained in research have not been altogether satisfactory.

In France, the institutes of criminology in Paris and the provinces are in no wise research organizations. This is one consequence of the divorce of research from teaching in that country—a principle of which one need only say that it is unsuited to criminology.

With regard to the relationship between research and teaching outside the institutes, at Cambridge the criminal science section of the Law School has a full-time teaching and research staff, composed of the Director of the section, an Assistant Director, two research officers, and some consultants; students are thus able to do supervised research. Oxford employs a full-time research assistant and part-time field workers. At London, research is encouraged indirectly, through the preparation of theses required for the degree of doctor of philosophy (Ph.D.). During the past few years much important research has been done in association with the Home Office which, in virtue of the Criminal Justice Act of 1948, is authorized to subsidize research on the causes of delinquency and on the treatment of delinquents. This measure is not directly related to teaching, but graduate students working for higher degrees can be enrolled in such research work.

In the United States postgraduate instruction is directed towards the preparation of candidates for research and teaching.¹

In other countries, centres specialized in the training of research workers are sometimes found (Centre d'Études René Marcq, Brussels; École Pratique des Hautes Études, Paris).

This rapid survey clearly shows that scientific research cannot be separated from the teaching of criminology.

International Teaching

The teaching of criminology cannot be considered from an exclusively national point of view. The institute in Sarajevo has been given 'the duty of working for international collaboration'. An institute of criminology is shortly to be inaugurated in Brazil under the auspices of the United Nations; it will fulfil the double task of teaching and research. Various international foundations subsidize research in the universities of the United Kingdom.

This evidence of international activity in the teaching of criminology will certainly contribute to an improvement of methods. Such was the

1. Undergraduate instruction in the United States does not really seem to be directly oriented towards research. Yet the best students, as in the United Kingdom, can devote themselves to research and obtain the highest degrees.

aim of the five International Courses of Criminology organized in Paris in 1952 and 1953, in Stockholm in 1953, in London in 1954, and in Rome in 1955. Using the criteria defined by the Scientific Commission of the International Society of Criminology, they helped to reconcile methods and techniques in criminology and to bring participants from different backgrounds and parts of the world closer together. This aim will be pursued by the International Institute of Criminology, the foundation of which was definitively approved by the Third International Congress of Criminology (London, 1955).

At the London symposium, a question was brought up as to the obligation which might be imposed upon future criminology teachers to attend an International Course of Criminology before beginning to teach in their own countries.

This raises the problem of the training and recruitment of teachers.

Training and Recruitment of Teachers

This problem calls for different solutions, according to whether what is involved is the teaching of one of the basic disciplines or of the subsidiary sciences already provided with general or specialized professorships, or whether it concerns the teaching of the subsidiary sciences for which there is no professorship, or the teaching of criminology proper.

In the first case—that is, when a general Chair (psychology, psychiatry, sociology) or a specialized professorship (criminal anthropology, criminal psychology, criminal psychiatry, criminal sociology or sociological criminology, forensic medicine) already exists—no special difficulty arises. The holder of a general Chair supplements his teaching by references to criminology; he needs no special criminological qualifications to discuss certain questions involving the subject he teaches. A specialized professor, as long as he keeps within his speciality, needs only to be qualified for the subjects within his field. In Sweden, for example, teachers of psychiatry are competent to teach forensic psychiatry. But the professor of forensic psychiatry must also be chief medical officer of the psychiatric section of the central prison.¹

The situation becomes more complicated when basic disciplines (penology) or subsidiary sciences (scientific police methods, judicial psychology) are not yet provided with Chairs. In that case, specialists of neighbouring disciplines, such as penal law and sociology (for penology) or forensic medicine and psychology (for scientific police methodology and judicial psychology), are allowed—as it were—to some extent to usurp subjects that are not of their particular competence. But this solution hardly applies beyond the stage of general courses in the university curriculum. For instruction at a higher level, specialists are called

1. There is a lecturer in forensic psychiatry at London, and there will soon be one at Glasgow.

in—persons who, because of their work or their position, have acquired undisputed competence in a particular field, such as, penology, scientific police methodology, judicial psychology. Such specialists are rare; nothing, as a rule, incites practitioners to undertake specialized research and it is thus not surprising that some institutes have to have recourse to the visiting professor. In the United States, teachers in the special institutes are divided into resident and visiting staff. Some of these institutes, eager to give their students the best possible professors, call upon 'micro-specialists', often fifty in number.

Thus subjects not yet officially recognized suffer either from insufficient or from excessive specialization, and this situation will continue until ordinary or extraordinary professors are recruited for these specialities.¹

It remains to consider the last case—that of the teaching and recruitment of teachers of criminology proper. When this science has been evolved from a basic discipline, the university teacher or the specialist who has succeeded in extending his teaching to criminology must obviously have been fully qualified in his specific field and have acquired wide multi-disciplinary knowledge. The only problem is to standardize his work.

Yet criminology proper can also proceed out of general or synthetic criminology. Penal law and sometimes forensic medicine have a tendency to preface their subject matter with concepts of criminology, or to incorporate concepts of criminology. Such instruction is found in Turkey and Yugoslavia, but the national reports say nothing about the training of teachers. In France, where a 'penal law and criminology' course in the law faculties is being spoken of, the lack of criminological training and qualifications in the teachers has been pointed out as a drawback. In Brazil, the solution adopted for the instruction in criminology included in the curriculum for the doctorate of law has been to have it taught by professors of penal law and forensic medicine, in yearly rotation. According to the national report, this method has been a total failure. The situation appears to be better in the United States, although the national report does not go into details.

Too often, therefore, the tendency is to add the word 'criminology' to the curriculum without worrying over the training and recruitment of teachers—a useless proceeding, since one can only teach what one has learnt. Austria should be pointed out as a happy exception; to be qualified, the *Privatdozenten* (lecturers) of penal law and criminology must

1. An ordinary professor, in the terminology which we have been obliged to adopt in order to cover (however imperfectly) the different national terms, is a full professor or holder of a Chair. The extraordinary professor, though he enjoys the privileges of professorial rank, has no Chair, and his competence is strictly limited to his speciality. The 'Reader' in the United Kingdom, the assistant professor in the United States of America, and the *professeur associé* in France, roughly correspond to the extraordinary professor; this last term has the advantage of showing that the expert in question is not fully integrated into the university hierarchy.

show at least two years' practical experience. The professor of penal law and criminology at Innsbruck was Attorney-General for several years.

This indication of the need for practical experience is of great interest because the future development of criminology proper will depend chiefly on clinical criminology. The future professor of criminology must have the habit of group work and be familiar with scientific research in criminology.

In short, some solution has to be adopted. In view of the above considerations, a teaching certificate in criminology could be instituted: the candidates would be doctors of various specialities who also held a doctor's degree in criminology (the generalization of which has already been recommended) and who could prove at least two years' practical experience.¹ The habit of scientific research in criminology could be acquired through work done on a thesis for a teaching certificate in criminology.

The teacher so trained would naturally be called upon to direct the institute of criminology in his university, to teach criminology proper there, to act as technical adviser for administrations dealing with crime prevention and the treatment of delinquents, and to promote scientific research in his sphere of influence.

The progress of criminology and its teaching depend upon the existence of such a co-ordinator or promoter.

CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions to be drawn from the present general report may be resumed as follows:

1. Criminology teaching, which covers the criminological sciences or subjects (criminal biology, psychology and sociology, and penology), criminology proper, and the subsidiary sciences (forensic medicine, scientific police methodology, judicial psychology), is essentially a multi-disciplinary affair. It should therefore be organized in university institutes, and not in institutes attached to a single faculty.

These institutes of criminology will centralize and co-ordinate the teaching of criminology, the criminological subjects and the subsidiary sciences; they will give elementary professional training and general courses for students, and will promote advanced technical and scientific specialization, within that framework.

1. The exact title or the appropriate doctorate could vary in different countries, according to traditional academic titles and precedents, but the level of knowledge should be the same. Also, the length and type of previous experience required could differ as between the Anglo-Saxon and the Continental systems, because certain posts bearing the same name in the two systems do not refer to the same type of work.

University traditions and educational precedents in each country will influence the way in which this general recommendation will be applied. Sometimes the accent will be placed on the centralization of the teaching in the institute; in other cases, the centralization of planning and the co-ordination of the teaching will be more important. Between the two extremes—least and most centralization—all compromise solutions are possible.

2. Elementary professional training will be organized in or by the institutes of criminology, either as a major study or in a supplementary way, whenever a country feels the need of such instruction for particular posts. In the first case, the institutes of criminology will provide the complete training of the candidates. In the second case, only certain courses of the institute will be taken by the candidates, who will receive their specific technical training in special schools. This rule will apply, for example, to students in schools of social work, psychology or pedagogy who wish to specialize in criminology.
3. The general criminology courses for students of law, medicine, social science or psychology will also be organized either as principal or as complementary studies. One of the complementary courses offered (in particular, the course in criminology proper) will be taken in connexion with their general curriculum by students of law, medicine, social science and psychology. For major study, all the courses given will be taken by candidates reading for a degree or a diploma of the same academic value as the Belgian *licence de criminologie*. No one will receive the *licence* or equivalent diploma in criminology unless he has already reached a corresponding academic level, generally shown by appropriate degrees and diplomas, in another field.
4. Advanced technical or scientific specialization will develop through studies leading to the doctorate and the teaching certificate (*agrégation*) in criminology. The teaching certificate may be sought by candidates who have already obtained adequate degrees or diplomas in certain specialities, who are also doctors of criminology and can show valid experience, in conformity with established university rules. The work will consist essentially in the preparation of an *agrégation* thesis mainly on the lines of scientific research.
5. The teacher thus trained will, quite naturally, be called upon to direct a university institute of criminology, to teach criminology proper there, to act as technical adviser for the public authorities dealing in crime prevention and the treatment of delinquents, and to encourage scientific research in his sphere of influence. He will be both a co-ordinating and stimulating force.
6. It is desirable that the teaching of criminal biology and psychiatry should be introduced in the faculties of medicine; that criminal psychology and sociology be taught in the faculties of letters and of social sciences; and that penology, scientific police methodology and

forensic psychiatry be taught in the faculties of law. In order to give this teaching suitable authority and prestige, it may become necessary to found Chairs or create academic posts of a sufficiently high rank. In this way the multi-disciplinary teaching of the institutes will be able to proceed *pari passu* with the acquisition of full competence in a particular branch.

7. It would be extremely useful for the Scientific Commission of the International Society of Criminology to take the initiative in defining and fixing the main points of the syllabuses of different criminology courses in relation to their aim and educational level. Various chapters in textbooks could be written by the different specialists.
8. 'Magistral' teaching and teaching in lecture-courses should be renovated by the use of active methods (films or slide projections), clinical teaching (presentation of cases, with or without the actual participation of the human subject, supervised case work), through seminars, practical work and visits, and the establishment of museums and laboratories attached to the institutes; likewise, the equipment of classrooms and lecture halls should be modernized.

These are the principal conclusions which, in the opinion of the authors, should be adopted with a view to a better development of the teaching of criminology, the criminological subjects and the subsidiary sciences. They show that solutions found in certain countries can, after various inevitable adaptations, be used in others. In criminology teaching, surely nothing is more essential than to maintain international contacts and compare experience—a role which the International Society of Criminology is endeavouring to fill.

The London symposium was, in this respect, an excellent point of departure; and the resolution concerning the society's scientific programme, adopted by the General Assembly at the end of the Third International Congress, included in the list of specific subjects suitable for discussion in the society's *Bulletin* the problem of the training of criminologists. What is 'the training of criminologists'? What should it be? How may it be varied according to the different roles which 'criminologists' play? These are questions to be solved by the survey which, developing and completing the present study, will be its logical sequel.

The General Assembly of the International Society of Criminology expressly recommended 'that instruction continue to be given through International Courses centred upon themes capable of leading to general conclusions about specific items of scientific research'. In compliance with this recommendation, the Sixth International Course of Criminology, to be devoted to the problem of crime prevention, will open at Lausanne in December 1956. The international teaching of criminology, inaugurated under the sponsorship of Unesco, will thus be pursued and

developed, and the basis for a future International Institute of Criminology will be laid.

For this reason the authors can, in conclusion, repeat what one of them said at the inaugural meeting of the First International Course of Criminology: 'In this age of effervescence and transition, and in a world which twice in twenty years has been convulsed by war, our ambitions must not be excessive; but we must work with courage and perseverance for the advance of criminology. We must have at our disposal, in all the countries of the world, specialists and savants who, endowed with the same spirit and using a common method, will take up the study of the criminal phenomenon in a new perspective, from the point of view of man and his needs, and not from that of repression and its techniques.'

PRACTICAL RECOMMENDATIONS ON THE ORGANIZATION OF CRIMINOLOGY TEACHING

by JEAN PINATEL¹

The general report on the teaching of criminology presented by Dr. Denis Carroll, President of the International Society of Criminology, and myself, reaches a certain number of conclusions. Our aim in stating them was to make them sufficiently general for adaptation in the various countries, to existing precedents, traditions and circumstances. These conclusions obviously tend to represent an ideal for countries where criminology teaching is already organized and equipped with a structure. But there are countries in which it is not organized at all. For them, some practical recommendations could, it seemed, usefully be annexed to the general report.

The best way would naturally have been for Dr. Carroll and myself to have prepared such practical recommendations together. Unfortunately, this did not prove possible. Therefore, in a purely personal capacity, I was asked to present them in broad outline.

The practical recommendations that follow are therefore merely hints which, in the opinion of one of the general rapporteurs, might prove useful to countries where criminology teaching has not yet been organized. They will be concrete, utilitarian and empirical; they will take the form of question and answer, due regard being had to the essential distinction between the general organization of Anglo-Saxon teaching and that of the Continental type.

Who should take the Initiative in the Organization of Criminology Teaching?

The initiative in the organization of criminology teaching must, in our opinion, be taken at the 'university' and not at the 'faculty', 'department' or 'college' level. Thereby the danger that one educational body, and consequently one discipline, may monopolize the teaching of criminology would be avoided.

Here the countries of the Anglo-Saxon type seem to have an advantage—their concept of the 'faculty' is less rigid than that of Continental countries. Yet even in Continental-type countries the principle ought to be observed, if a decisive error at the outset is to be avoided.

What Kind of Collaboration is Needed at the Start?

University, judicial, and administrative collaboration will be needed from the beginning.

1. See biographical note, page 11.

The following collaborators can be assembled both in Anglo-Saxon and in Continental countries:

1. From the university standpoint—professors of penal law, psychiatry and forensic medicine.
2. From the judicial standpoint—a magistrate who handles penal affairs or cases involving minors.
3. From the administrative standpoint—representatives of the police, of the penitentiary services, and possibly of probation and social control agencies.

This list of basic collaborators is not final or exhaustive. In some countries it may seem more useful to call upon private individuals than upon officials. Again, as regards the university, certain countries may have well-developed specialities, such as anthropology or sociology. The professor of anthropology or sociology must, in that case, be a member of the team.

It will be seen that the basic group thus constituted does not include a real criminologist. It must therefore comprise someone of university, judicial or administrative background, to specialize in general criminology. The person selected should be young, dynamic, and endowed with a gift for synthesis.

What should be the Institutional Framework?

The institutional framework must be that of a university institute. This formula can be easily applied in Anglo-Saxon countries, where the university institute can be one of the many colleges or departments of the university. In countries of the Continental type, where faculty institutes predominate, this latter formula should be avoided and that of 'university institute' adopted.

The various professors, magistrates and administrators already enumerated will, obviously, constitute the board of the institute. The person chosen to specialize in general criminology must be placed in charge of executive tasks, that is, the technical direction of the institute.

The fact cannot be too strongly stressed that the technical direction of the institute must be entrusted to a person who will devote his main energies to it. Questions of organization and operation are extremely important in a multi-disciplinary institution, and a man who is already absorbed by other functions—university, judicial or administrative—cannot give sufficient time to such questions.

On the other hand, the chairman of the institute's board can quite profitably be chosen by rotation from among the members of the basic team.

As these statutory arrangements will ensure the institute's autonomy, it matters little, at the outset, whether its services and courses are materially organized within a pre-existing university framework or not. Even if its services are installed in a college or faculty, and the essential teaching is done in various departments or faculties, the official headquarters of the institute will remain the university and its teaching will stem from the university as a whole and not from a particular faculty.

What Curriculum should be Adopted?

The curriculum to be adopted must be conceived in relation to the general curriculum of law and medicine. Later, courses of professional training and advanced specialization can be separated from this teaching. But initially

the most urgent needs must be met, and an acceptable teaching scheme should be drawn up containing the germ of the system which can be applied at a later, more advanced stage.

With regard to basic disciplines a teaching of criminal psychiatry can be inaugurated leading, later on, to the teaching of criminal biology and criminal psychology. This last can later, in turn, embrace psychology proper, psycho-analysis and psychiatry. Instruction in penology can also be organized at once, both in its general aspects (taught by the professor of penal law) and in its technical aspects (taught by a penitentiary officer or a person competent in that field). In countries of the Anglo-Saxon type, penitentiary instruction will be completed by the techniques of probation and social control, taught by competent authorities. Criminal sociology will quite naturally result from this teaching.

In criminology proper, the person responsible for the technical direction of the institute must try to present a general view of criminological problems. Such a synthesis of general criminology can afterwards lead on to clinical criminology. But this stage can only be reached when more progress has been made in penal and penitentiary services (establishment of observation centres, examination services and surveys).

As for teaching of the subsidiary sciences, that of forensic medicine should not, it seems, raise any difficulties. Judicial psychology and scientific police methodology will at first be less easy to organize. We feel, however, that magistrates should forthwith be asked to communicate, in a few lessons, their reflections on the problems of judicial psychology; and specialists from the police should describe the basis of the teaching of scientific police methodology.

The following table enables the initial curriculum and the subsequent ideal curriculum to be compared:

Subjects	Initial curriculum	Final curriculum
Basic disciplines	Criminal psychiatry Penology General aspects Technical aspects Prisons Probation	Criminal biology Criminal psychology Psychology proper Psycho-analysis Psychiatry Criminal sociology Penology
Criminology proper	General criminology	Clinical criminology
Subsidiary sciences	Forensic medicine Judicial psychology Scientific police methodology	Forensic medicine Judicial psychology Scientific police methodology

Once the curriculum has been established, the problem will be how to carry it out.

What are the Essential Tasks to be Considered?

They are of three kinds, both in Anglo-Saxon and in Continental countries. In the first place, criminology must be inserted into the general teaching framework of the country. In particular, students of law and medicine must be obliged to take the course in criminology proper. Also, the whole teaching of the institute of criminology must continue to be assimilated, in Anglo-Saxon countries, to that of other colleges or departments, and, in Continental countries, to faculty instruction for the *licence*.

Secondly, the position and training of professors of criminology must be determined. Even if at first some sort of arbitrary proceeding must be adopted, so that the teaching may begin, promising students will later appear and reveal a vocation for criminology. Their interest will be shown in their personal work and in theses. Rules for the training and recruitment of teachers must consequently be established.

The first teacher of criminology, who will not have had the benefit of this new training, will have to establish international contacts before assuming his main duties.

Thirdly, the institute must be supplied with documentation covering both the country itself (statistical information, surveys, visits to institutions, inventory of problems) and foreign countries (books, reviews, periodicals). A criminology library must be constituted at once.

The simultaneous accomplishment of all these enterprises will involve many difficulties, and for a number of years the work will run a continual risk of being deadlocked.

What Precautions may be Taken to Avoid Impasses?

To avoid impasses, the following precautions should always be taken:

1. The fact should continually be emphasized that the teaching of criminology proper does not absorb that of the fundamental sciences, still less that of the subsidiary sciences. The analytical character of the basic disciplines and subsidiary sciences must be insisted upon—whereas criminology proper is a synthesis.
2. Contacts, gatherings, and group studies on specific problems, must be multiplied; collaboration cements the unity of the criminological team.
3. The institute of criminology must be made to serve a real purpose; the degrees it offers must create openings; its contacts with justice and the administration must lead to its being entrusted with the study of definite problems.

The key man, who will determine the institute's success or failure, is the head technical director—the professor of criminology. The risk of letting everything depend upon the understanding and firmness of one individual must be taken; for without an animator, whose administrative and scientific function is to centralize and co-ordinate, no effective teaching of criminology can be organized. Criminology teaching has developed in certain countries precisely because such animators have arisen in the basic disciplines. But the pre-eminence of a single discipline ultimately retards the whole field's development; it is perhaps a stroke of luck that countries which so far have no criminology teaching can now profit from the experience acquired by other nations and thus avoid the groping and mistakes which always attend any new enterprise.

REPORTS

ON THE TEACHING OF CRIMINOLOGY
IN TEN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

AUSTRIA

Summary of the report presented by

ROLAND GRASSBERGER¹

INTRODUCTION

The present position of criminology in Austria cannot be understood without a brief summary of the development of the science in that country. Franz von Liszt, founder of the modern school of penal law, and Hans Gross, the father of criminalistics, were both of Austrian origin. These two men have had a decisive influence on the evolution and teaching of criminology.

Franz von Liszt believed that students of penal law should not merely be trained in the legal side of crime and penal procedure. In order to apply penal law properly, one had to understand the phenomena of human life which lay behind juridical abstractions. In his crime policy programme, he maintained the principle that modern penal law should aim less at repression than at the 'resocialization' of the malefactor. This involved the need to pay less attention to the criminal act itself than to its author, and to try to understand the latter's individual peculiarities. Thus Franz von Liszt, on the basis of this new science founded on realities, assigned a prime role to criminal aetiology, that is, to the science of the causes of crime.

Once attention became fixed on the criminal and his 'resocialization', the whole problem of the appropriate treatment of malefactors had to be reconsidered; and Franz von Liszt saw that penology was a second pillar of support for criminological research and teaching.

He did not, however, confine himself to practical questions of penal law, he also applied his revolutionary ideas to formal penal law. Just as, behind the juridical abstraction of crime, there was a science which dealt with the real phenomena of criminal life, so certain real phenomena, open

1. Mr. Roland Grassberger is professor of criminal law and Director of the Institute of Criminology of Vienna. He has been Vice-President of the International Society of Criminology (1950), national delegate of the Society (1951), and General Rapporteur at the Third International Congress of Criminology (London, 1955). He is the author of works on criminal sociology (*Statistics*) and judicial psychology. His main work is *Die Psychologie des Strafverfahrens* (The Psychology of Criminal Procedure) (Verlag Springer, Vienna, 1950).

to scientific analysis, corresponded to the regulation of legal procedure. Franz von Liszt insisted that these phenomena should be accorded scientific study and should become part of law teaching in universities. He thus reached the concept of the 'universal science of penal law' (*gesamte Strafrechtswissenschaft*), a concept which he explained in 1899 at his inaugural lesson in Berlin. According to the view of the subject which he expounded on this occasion, the training of jurists in penal law and the subsidiary sciences should include: (a) 'criminalistic' training (i) through juridical and logical instruction in penal law and the penal procedure (science of penal law in the narrow sense), and (ii) through practical and technical initiation into the establishment of material proofs (criminalistics); (b) the causal description (i) of crime (criminology), and (ii) of punishment (penology); (c) the development of legislation in the direction of a conscious struggle against crime, by means of punishment and related security measures (crime policy).

After a brief period of professorial work in Austria, Franz von Liszt was called to Germany and taught in Berlin until his death in 1919. His aim had been to establish institutes of criminological research in German universities; their task would be to develop the universal penal sciences as he conceived them in his system. His efforts, however, were unsuccessful.

Hans Gross, who antedates Liszt by some years, was born at Graz, where for a long time he held the post of examining magistrate. He was the founder of modern criminalistics—the science of the material facts involved in the tracking-down of criminals. He considered that the forms of personal and material proof ought to be given profound study. The result was criminal psychology, conceived not merely as the science of the criminal mind, but also as the analysis of psychological phenomena in witnesses, judges and other persons connected with penal procedure. As regards the establishment of facts, Gross developed the modern theory of investigation and placed the methods of the natural sciences at the service of crime detection.

At about the same time as Franz von Liszt was failing in his efforts to found institutes of criminological research in Germany, Hans Gross—who had now been appointed professor of penal law and penal procedure in his native town—succeeded in establishing, at the University of Graz, the first university institute of criminalistics, thanks to the spirit of comprehension shown by the education authorities in Austria. In this institute the accent was placed on criminalistics and experimental criminal psychology rather than on criminal aetiology or penology.

This institute at Graz met with such success among both professionals and law students that Wenzeslaus Gleispach, professor of penal law and penal procedure at the University of Vienna, was led to create a similar organization at the university in 1923—the University Institute for the Universal Penal Sciences and for Criminalistics.

This name selected by Gleispach shows that, as a disciple of Franz von Liszt, he was trying to arrive at a concept of crime and criminal investigation which would be as universal as possible.

The Position of Universities in the Development of Criminology

The history of the development of criminology in Austria shows that, from the outset, the subject was regarded as part of scientific research and teaching for young jurists. Furthermore, according to Austrian judicial police regulations, judicial acts, especially the interrogation of witnesses and accused persons, are incumbent, not upon judicial police officers, but upon officials of the administration who have received juridical training. Thus the results of the criminological training of young jurists were soon to be observed in practice.

In 1936 the reorganization of the teaching of law and political science brought this evolution more or less to an end. The new regulations prescribed the principle that law students must be trained in the criminological sciences. All law students were obliged to take at least one criminology course (one semester, two hours a week). In addition, a question relating to the fundamental problems of criminology had to be included in the examination for penal law and penal procedure.

Three universities in Austria, Vienna, Graz, and Innsbruck, have faculties of law and political science. Only the faculties of Vienna and Graz, however, possess institutes of criminology; at Innsbruck there is no specialized institute for this discipline.

The university institutes of criminology at Vienna and Graz are not exclusively devoted to teaching and research; they assign a considerable place to judicial practice, and engage in expert appraisal in all fields of the science of investigation and the psychology of criminal procedure.

As a result of the close contact between theory and practice in the institutes, criminology in Austria has been considered, never from a purely theoretical point of view, but always in relation to practical needs. The effect on teaching and research has been very beneficial.

INSTITUTES OF CRIMINOLOGY

Place in the Educational Structure

The institutes of criminology of Vienna and Graz depend upon the faculties of law and political science. Other criminological disciplines are taught in the institutes of forensic medicine and by the Chairs of psychiatry at the faculties of medicine. The regulations of Austrian universities allow law students to take courses at the faculty of medicine, and students from other faculties have the right to attend the law faculty's criminology courses.

The university teaching of criminology is aimed at giving universal criminological training to law students. Criminological studies, however, do not constitute a special branch of university studies.

The number of students in attendance at the institutes of criminology is the same as the total number of law students, for whom a certain minimum of criminological training is compulsory.

Organization of the Teaching

Criminological studies are part of the curriculum of the faculty of law and political science. There are no special courses in criminology outside this faculty, and the study of criminology does not result in any special privileges for students.

The criminology courses are open to all students of Austrian universities, as well as to persons who do not study at a university and are admitted as 'free auditors'.

There is no examination or special diploma in criminology.

Experience proves that a general view of criminology cannot be given in the one compulsory course of two hours a week limited to one semester. For this reason, several criminology courses are offered in all Austrian universities. They give the student who takes them a solid training in the 'auxiliary penal sciences' (a name often given to criminology, following the terminology of Liszt).

Subjects Taught

Criminology teaching varies in different universities.

At the University of Vienna, the curriculum includes the following (the time devoted to each subject is given in parentheses): criminal phenomenology, psychology of procedure, analysis of the causes of crime and criminal types (criminal biology), science of material proof (science of investigation) (2 hours a week, 1 semester); forensic medicine (3 hours a week, 1 semester); legal psychiatry (1 hour a week, 1 semester).

At the University of Graz, the criminology curriculum includes the following courses: criminal biology and phenomenology, forensic medicine, criminalistics (science of investigation and the hearing) (3 hours a week, 1 semester); practical work in criminal biology (presentation of prisoners in penitentiaries), method of applied tests in the diagnosis of personality, legal psychiatry for law students (1 hour a week, 1 semester).

At the University of Innsbruck the following courses are given in the field of criminology: psychology of testimony and the hearing, the criminal man (criminal phenomenology and biology) (2 hours a week, 1 semester); forensic medicine (3 hours a week, 1 semester); legal psychiatry (1 hour a week, 1 semester).

At the present time, penology is not studied as a separate discipline in Austrian universities: study of the principles of punishment is included in the penal law course. The latter comprises, among other topics, a serious analysis of the gradual application of punishment and of different possible substitutes for the afflictive punishment. Several years ago the University of Vienna gave special one-hour-a-week semester courses in penology.

For fuller details on the different problems dealt with in these courses, reference may be made to the article entitled 'Qu'est-ce que la criminologie?' (What is Criminology?) published in the *Revue de criminologie et de police technique*.¹

Basic Disciplines

Criminal phenomenology. This discipline investigates both the crime itself and the criminal's personality. Thus it has two distinct fields of study—'external forms of crime', and 'criminal modes of existence'.

The science of the external forms of crime (criminal morphology) seeks to give a clear picture of criminal behaviour in its actions and omissions. This science must reveal the way in which the criminal prepares, carries out, and profits by his crime. Its importance for the success of an investigation is therefore decisive. A true idea of the clues that the criminal leaves behind, of the place where they are likely to be found, and of what they signify, can be obtained only from a knowledge of his methods.

Knowledge of the external forms of crime is likewise indispensable for those who apply the law. A just appreciation of the standards of punishment provided by law demands an awareness of criminal realities. Only the judge who knows how much cruelty, danger and suffering are ordinarily attached to the commission of a crime can have the right, in a particular case, to give a heavier sentence on account of the 'especial cruelty', the 'extraordinary danger' or the 'exceptional tortures' which his act reveals.

The science of criminal modes of existence, considered as part of criminal phenomenology, studies criminal behaviour in relation to society. It reveals the way of life and the environment of delinquents, their interests, their means of subsistence, and their particular moral and religious conceptions, which result from their outcast position; means of communication in the underworld are also studied. The knowledge thus acquired through the descriptive method of the natural sciences has its effect on the practical application of the law, because it makes it possible to judge the degree to which the delinquent has drifted into an anti-social world. This method also sharpens the investigator's perceptive faculties and helps him to spot criminal organizations more

1. R. Grassberger, *Revue de criminologie et de police technique*, Vol. III, No. 1, Geneva, 1949.

easily. Very often, a knowledge of all the means of communication employed by the criminal world, from its special slang to its hidden signs given in writing or by gesture, is decisive for the discovery of the truth in the course of an investigation.

Criminal biology. The task of criminal biology is not only to explain the dynamics of the criminal bent in individual cases; it must also supply information on the forces which govern the behaviour of the whole population. The dual origin of crime—inner predisposition and external influence—must be taken into account; and, according to the problem, the examination must centre either on the criminal's personality or on his associations and environment.

As science of the criminal personality, criminal biology deals with the purely physical characteristics of the delinquent and explains the influence of sex, age, health, somatic constitution, etc., on the formation and manifestation of anti-social tendencies. But it also seeks the psychological reasons for the criminal bent which has caused individual crimes. Formerly, this method produced a clear separation between criminal anthropology and criminal psychology, but modern research shows more and more clearly the mutual dependence of psychological and physiological processes. In the study of personality, it then appears more rational to consider the general unity of the subject and to discard subdivisions into anthropology and psychology. Not only is the study of the criminal personality essential to the application and adaptation of punishment to particular cases, but it also leads to the broad distinctions of modern penal law in the judicial evaluation of an act, according to whether it has been committed by an habitual or by an occasional delinquent.

Criminal sociology. The science of external criminal influences, named criminal sociology, reveals the effect of external circumstances on the individual's social comportment. Whether the external world is examined from the natural or the family angle, from the economic or the cultural point of view, the investigator must study the influence of the shape of the soil, climate, seasons, weather, housing, illegitimate descent, orphanhood, family dissensions, education, etc. The results of this research are important not only for crime prevention, but also for the evaluation of individual responsibility in the constant interplay between what comes from the individual and what comes from his environment. These observations complete those permitted by character analysis on the dangerousness of the delinquent and his receptivity to influence.

Subsidiary Sciences

The science of investigation studies the application of all aids furnished by the modern natural sciences in the reconstitution of past facts of

judicial importance, thanks to the clues left behind by the criminal. Thus it includes both forensic medicine and criminal technique. This last field is often called 'criminalistics', but the term will be avoided in this report because of its imprecision. It either refers, in a very broad way, to the science of the trial, or else designates the more restricted science of investigation; with the result that sometimes it seems to include forensic medicine and sometimes not.

Criminal technique or criminalistics in the narrow sense is a science of facts which uses scientific methods of investigation specially adapted for this field in order to clarify questions of legal importance. It involves 'judicial chemistry'; but this conception is really out of date in modern physical chemistry, because it is now often impossible to distinguish between physical and purely chemical methods of investigation.

A modern method must therefore divide the science of investigation into a general science of clues and indices and a special science of investigation. The general science of clues will deal with the finding and preservation of clues and the study of indices at the scene of the crime.

The special science of investigation will include medico-legal examination of human or animal bodies, the science of toxicological research, the field of expert work in ballistics, explosives and arson, the study of the traces of professional tools, and the technico-criminal methods of investigation in burglary and damage to property. It must also cover the vast domain of the study of handwriting and of all written documents, which in many cases has become an autonomous science.

The remarks made on forensic medicine are equally valid for criminal technique. Only an expert can completely master this speciality; but the judge, the public prosecutor and the investigator must understand its broad outlines. Otherwise they will not be capable of calling upon a competent expert in a given matter at the right moment, and will fail to extract as much information as possible from the piece of evidence they are studying.

The result of what has preceded is that in Austria, out of the eight main disciplines included in the science of investigation, only medico-legal research on human and animal bodies and research on the presence of toxic substances are studied as part of forensic medicine; all other branches of that science are included in the practical work of the university institutes of criminology at Vienna and Graz and are taught in the law faculties as part of criminology.

Judicial Psychology

The psychology of criminal procedure is scarcely less important for the conduct of a trial than the science of investigation. Judicial psychology does not supply the special knowledge required for expert testimony, but it does supply the knowledge which every person conducting a trial, especially the judge, must acquire in order to proceed rationally. Since

the penal process is often composed of an extremely complicated succession of related psychological acts, in the domain of observation and judgement, psychology has a decisive role in the search for the truth. Deductive faculties remain essential to the exercise of the judicial judgement, but modern psychology has demonstrated that intelligence and the faculty of observation are not enough. Psychological knowledge preserves us from serious errors in the search for truth, especially in the application of proof; it also affords the possibility of detecting psychological indices where the layman is incapable of suspecting their existence and, *a fortiori*, of bringing them to light. The psychology of penal procedure is thus one of the bases of criminological instruction as part of legal training.

Criminal Tactics

However, the copious means for obtaining specific and material proof revealed by the science of investigation and the psychology of penal procedure cannot give a complete result unless they are employed at the right time and in the right order. The science dealing with this question is criminal tactics, with which police officers, and especially the judge, should be familiar. It is, therefore, taught in Austrian law faculties as part of the criminological training of jurists.

Teaching Methods

Criminology is taught at the university either by professors or by *Privatdozenten* (lecturers). In Austrian universities every candidate *Privatdozent* must be able to show at least two years' practical experience; so that these lecturers know both the practical and the theoretical aspects of the problems they discuss.

Teaching takes the form of courses in which all modern audio-visual aids are used. The Institute of Criminology at Vienna University has a collection of 2,700 slides which have all been prepared at the institute; most of them are the result of practical work or research done at the institute itself. Films for criminological instruction are also used; they amount to about five hours of film, produced by the institute in co-operation with the Educational Cinema Centre. Visits to penitentiaries, to the laboratories and collections of the institute, and to police identification services, are organized during the courses. The institute has a rich library containing, in addition to works in German, the most important English, French and Italian publications.

The situation at the institute in Graz is comparable to that at Vienna. At the University of Innsbruck, the professor of penal law and criminology has been Attorney-General for several years and has thus acquired a wealth of practical experience.

THE TEACHING OF CRIMINOLOGY OUTSIDE THE INSTITUTES

Non-university teaching of criminology in Austria is almost exclusively entrusted to the Institutes of Criminology at Vienna and Graz. These establishments have the task not only of initiating all police officers (from the ordinary judicial police officer to the highest official), as well as the members of the constabulary, in criminal tactics and the theory of investigation, but also of giving them the basic concepts of the theory of the criminal personality and the psychology of those who take part in a criminal trial either as defendants or as witnesses.

Special courses in criminology are given for law enforcement agents. Lecturers are chosen from among particularly qualified law enforcement officials who have received their scientific training in the university institutes of criminology, psychology, pedagogy, and psychiatry (or at the psychiatric clinic).

Forensic medicine and legal psychiatry are compulsory for medical students. They receive much more intensive instruction in these subjects than do law students, and every medical student must pass an examination in these disciplines. Doctors who have completed their studies and wish to qualify for the position of legal pathologist must take additional courses in forensic medicine and legal psychiatry.

In addition, the lectures given by the *Österreichische Gesellschaft für Strafrecht und Kriminologie* (Austrian Society of Penal Law and Criminology) in Vienna, and by the *Kriminalbiologische Gesellschaft* (Society of Criminal Biology) in Graz, play an important part in the advanced training of lawyers.

CONCLUSIONS

The above account brings out the fact that the Austrian university teaching of criminology assigns equal importance to disciplines dealing with the criminal and to those whose aim is to discover the author of the crime. Both in research and in practice, a thorough knowledge of the data of a crime, as well as of criminal life itself, is considered to be the basis of scientific criminology. Thus teaching always begins with phenomenology and criminal biology. Among the sciences whose object is to explain or clarify crime, the disciplines considered most important are the psychology of legal procedure or, more exactly, the science of investigation, and criminalistics, that is, the study of the material evidence of crime.

Experience shows that most law students—in particular those who intend to become police officials, judges, lawyers or attorney-generals—are not content with a one-semester, two-hour-a-week required course (30 hours altogether), but almost always adopt the full criminology

curriculum (120 to 180 hours). Instruction is so organized that every student may, within his period of university study, take all the criminology courses.

The characteristics of the teaching of criminology in Austria can be resumed as follows:

1. Extreme specialization has been abandoned voluntarily; the aim is to give all law students a general criminological training which may serve as a basis for special knowledge to be acquired later.
2. The basis of all criminological knowledge is criminal phenomenology, which is at the foundation of criminal biology and criminalistics.
3. In the teaching of criminology, the study of criminal reality (criminal phenomenology and biology) and the study of the facts of the legal procedure (theory of investigation and the psychology of procedure) are considered to be disciplines of equal importance.
4. Penology, or the science of the application of the punishment, is treated as applied penal law in the penal law course.
5. In university institutes of criminology, there is a very close bond between scientific research and the practice of applied criminology.
6. The university institutes, under the direction of jurists, play the essential role in criminological teaching and research.

BELGIUM

Summary of the report presented by
PAUL CORNIL¹ and R. GROSEMANS

INTRODUCTION

When one looks for the origins of a systematic teaching of the criminological sciences in Belgium, two names at once come to mind: the professor of penal law Adolphe Prins, and Dr. Louis Vervaeck.

Adolphe Prins (1845-1919) taught penal law at the Université Libre de Bruxelles. He trained students there over a period of 40 years and had a decisive influence on the evolution of penal institutions in Belgium. His teaching stressed the need for preventive social action to reduce criminality. He advocated the adaptation of the punishment to the individual and the confinement of delinquents in specialized institutions. Inspector-General of prisons for many years, Adolphe Prins was the inspirer of the penitentiary reform which one of his pupils, Emile Vandervelde, effected as Minister of Justice, shortly after his teacher's death.

In the field of legislation, the Lejeune Law of 31 May 1888, on conditional liberation and condemnation, and the Carton de Wiart Law of 15 May 1912, on the protection of children, are marked by the personal influence of Adolphe Prins.

The foundation of the École de Criminologie et de Police Scientifique, which will be discussed below, can be regarded as a necessary corollary of the teaching and administrative work of Adolphe Prins.

Dr. Louis Vervaeck entered the prison service as medical officer in 1902. In 1907 he set up a laboratory devoted to the scientific study of the personality of the prisoners. This initiative was the beginning of the penitentiary anthropology service which, in 1920, was extended by Vandervelde to all prisons in the country.

Dr. Louis Vervaeck had understood that penitentiary methods could be improved only if criminological instruction was given to the staff and to all those who came into contact with the delinquents.

1. Mr. Paul Cornil is Secretary-General at the Ministry of Justice and professor of penal law at the University of Brussels. He was President of the International Penal and Penitentiary Foundation (1950), member of the Scientific Commission of the International Society of Criminology (1951), director of the European Cycle of Brussels (1951), and President of the International Association of Penal Law (1953). In numerous reports and monographs he has analysed the penological aspects of criminology.

Starting in 1922, he undertook, with the help of his associates, to give a series of courses at the prison at Forest (Vorst). This constituted the first clinical course in criminal anthropology delivered in Belgium. In it, Dr. Vervaeck presented patients to an audience composed of members of the prison staff, prison visitors, pupils of the social service schools, students, nurses, etc. The subject of the course changed every year. Attendance was free, and no diploma was granted.

This teaching was pursued by Dr. Vervaeck's successor, Dr. Marcel Alexander. It was interrupted by the war and resumed from 1945 to 1952. Then, unfortunately, it ceased; it is to be hoped that it will be reorganized in the near future.

INSTITUTES OF CRIMINOLOGY

ÉCOLE DE CRIMINOLOGIE ET DE POLICE SCIENTIFIQUE

This school, which has its headquarters at the Law Courts in Brussels, is a State institution dependent upon the Ministry of Justice. The project for it goes back to 1913, and it was actually created by the Royal Decree of 15 October 1920. A first cycle of courses was organized in 1922.

The school is governed by an Administrative Board presided over by the Minister of Justice and composed of 13 members: magistrates, delegates of the Ministry of Justice, members of the Bar, the teaching faculties, and the communal police forces.

Organization of the Teaching

The aim of the school is to teach the applied criminological sciences. It is therefore a school of practical instruction; its courses are all, essentially, practical. Owing to this clear orientation, the teaching given differs distinctly from that of the university institutes of criminology.

Instruction comprises two stages. The higher stage is reserved for magistrates, lawyers, holders of university diplomas, and persons showing special knowledge and admitted to the course by the Minister of Justice on the nomination of the school's bureau. This stage is divided into two academic years; the courses, three days a week, last two months each year. The second stage is reserved for judicial police officers and communal police officers, members of the constabulary, commissioners and sub-commissioners of the Comité Supérieur de Contrôle (Higher Supervision Committee), and for all persons authorized by the Minister, with the consent of the Director.

For each of these two stages, an examination takes place at the end of each academic year and a diploma is granted.

Subjects Taught

The subjects taught are divided into two groups: (a) the basic disciplines of criminology, criminal anthropology; (b) subsidiary sciences to criminology, subdivided into (i) medical sciences (forensic medicine, toxicology, serology, psychiatry), and (ii) sciences of identification (scientific police methods, fire-arms, explosive devices, incendiary machines, traffic accident technique).

Number of Students and Cost of Study

During the academic year 1953-54, 89 students attended the courses of the higher stage (courses in French and in Dutch), and 196 attended the courses of the second stage. During the academic year 1954-55 the corresponding figures were 118 and 204.

The courses are free.

Teaching Methods

Teaching is not merely professorial; it also has a technical aspect. Thus, in the field of judicial expert examinations, courses of the higher stage instruct magistrates in what they are to expect from various scientific procedures, and from the experts to whom they entrust missions.

Furthermore, lectures are given by specialists in the fields of Police des Étrangers, aeronautical police, maritime police, the Sûreté de l'État, the constabulary, radio-communications, psychotechnics, gambling, anti-scientific proceedings (charlatanism, 'divining', etc.). They are completed by practical demonstrations (cheating in games of chance, various forms of burglary), by visits to airports (aeronautical police) and to prisons, etc.

Laboratories, Workshop and Museum

The École de Criminologie et de Police Scientifique is not only a teaching organization but also a centre for applying identification methods. Its laboratories include: a microphotography room, a room for ultra-violet and infra-red rays and X-rays, a spectography room, a small chemical laboratory, equipment for film projections.

The courses are given by magistrates, professors of the four universities and of the Royal Military School, government officials, legal pathologists, and certain experts and instructors in scientific police methodology.

A workshop is attached to the school, which allows students of the second stage to practise making casts of footprints, taking and reproducing fingerprints, and making sketches of the scene of a crime and diagrams of traffic accidents.

The school also has a museum, reflecting the content of the courses. It contains many specimens of the identification of fingerprints in

burglary cases, as well as fabrics, fire-arms, explosive devices and collections of tools and various materials used by burglars, counterfeiters, poachers, etc. The museum also possesses exhibits used in trials and many transparent positive colour photographs.

UNIVERSITY SCHOOLS OF CRIMINOLOGY

CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY OF LOUVAIN

In 1929 the University of Louvain, under the impulsion of the late Louis Braffort, professor of penal law, instituted a Criminology School attached to the Faculty of Law. This school was for many years the only university institute in Belgium.

The founders of the Criminology School intended not only that it should add criminological instruction to the training of law students, and even of students at other faculties, but also that it should promote research and reflection in this field.

Organization of the Teaching

The courses are given in French and in Flemish.

The Criminology School confers the scientific degrees of *licencié* and Doctor of Criminology.

The courses for the *licence* are open to: (a) holders of a university 'candidate's' diploma; (b) medical students who have passed the second examination for the 'candidature' in natural and medical sciences.

In specific cases, the school's board can admit students who do not entirely qualify formally but who show equivalent training.

Subjects Taught

The subjects taught are divided into three groups: (a) the basic disciplines of criminology (criminal biology and criminal psychology, psychology of juvenile delinquents, penology, criminal sociology); (b) the true criminological sciences (introduction to criminology, practical exercises in criminology, special questions in criminology); (c) the subsidiary sciences (forensic medicine (the human organism).

Duration of Study

The courses for the *licence in criminology* involve at least two years' study and two examinations. Each examination comprises: (a) an oral examination on the subject matter of the various courses; this examination covers, for each test, at least 20 hours' work per semester for students

whose university training has not taken them as far as the *licence* or the doctorate, and at least 10 hours per semester for students who pursue or have pursued other university studies on the level of the *licence* or the doctorate; (b) practical work.

The second examination requires an effort of personal research by the student; he must present practical work which he has carried out under the supervision of a professor of the school. The subject must have been submitted for approval by the school board; the student defends his work before a jury composed of the professors of the school.

The Doctorate

The University of Louvain is the only university in Belgium which grants the degree of Doctor of Criminological Science. The following are the requirements for this degree: the degree of *licencié* with honours, granted at least two years previously; a dissertation on a subject covered by the teaching of the school; three secondary theses, susceptible of being discussed, on subjects other than the subject of the dissertation; a successful oral examination, passed without notes, involving public defence of the dissertation and the additional theses.

The subject of the dissertation must have first been submitted to the school board.

With regard to the duration of study, it must be noted that, although the course necessarily involves two years and two examinations, the student who has passed his second examination is not proclaimed *licencié* of the Criminology School unless he has already obtained the degree of *licencié* or doctor elsewhere.

Number of Students and Cost of Study

During the year 1954-55, the Criminology School was attended by 40 French language and 32 Flemish language students.

Full instruction costs 1,000 Belgian francs a year for students who are already registered with another faculty or school of the university, and 3,000 Belgian francs for the others. The registration fee for individual courses is fixed at 200 Belgian francs per course, for students regularly inscribed at a faculty or school of the university. The examination fee for the *licence* is 600 Belgian francs per examination.

Students who wish to take the examination for the doctorate pay 1,100 Belgian francs, apart from the university registration fee.

Teaching Methods

The clinical teaching of psychiatry includes, in particular, visits to prisons, personal contacts with prisoners, and field work on the basis

of these contacts. Guided visits to various institutions are also organized.

At the 'practical exercise' groups in criminology, students must present personal work.

The second examination for the *licence* includes a *mémoire* (report) which requires personal research on the part of the student. Some reports are written following personal contacts with prisoners, young delinquents, habitual criminals, etc.

Instruction given at the Criminology School is in harmony with the principles of the Catholic religion.

UNIVERSITÉ LIBRE DE BRUXELLES —
ÉCOLE DES SCIENCES CRIMINOLOGIQUES LÉON CORNIL

The École des Sciences Criminologiques of the Université Libre de Bruxelles was founded in 1936, under the impulsion of Mr. Léon Cornil, today honorary Attorney-General at the Court of Appeal, who taught penal law and penal procedure at this school.

Even before 1936, the courses in penal law and penal procedure already treated of what Adolphe Prins quite accurately termed 'penal science', and law students were already initiated into the main theories of anthropology and sociology.

Such teaching appeared too elementary, however, in view of the importance of these subjects. The foundation of a special school for the criminological sciences had become a necessity. On 2 June 1945, at the suggestion of the Law Faculty, to which it is attached, the school assumed the name of École des Sciences Criminologiques Léon Cornil.

The school does not aim merely to be a centre for university teaching. It also tries to develop research and contribute to the progress of penal science.

Organization of the Teaching

The École des Sciences Criminologiques Léon Cornil confers upon regular students the degree of *licencié* in criminological sciences or the title of *diplômé de l'École des Sciences Criminologiques*. To obtain regular admission to the courses for the degree of *licencié* in criminological sciences, the student must hold one of the 'candidate's' diplomas provided for in the university curriculum. To obtain regular admission to the courses for the title of *diplômé de l'école*, the student must have a valid certificate in the humanities (ancient or modern), or any other certificate considered by the school's bureau to be equivalent.

In exceptional cases, the Collège des Professeurs (faculty) admits to the courses, as 'regular students' for the title of *diplômé*, candidates who do not have a valid certificate in the humanities, but who have passed an aptitude test. The contents of this test are fixed by the faculty.

Subjects Taught

They are divided into three groups: (a) the basic disciplines of criminology (penology, criminal anthropology and criminal pathology, criminal prophylaxis [crime prevention], psychiatry); (b) the true criminological sciences (criminology); (c) the subsidiary sciences (criminal forensic medicine, elements of criminalistics).

Duration of Study

The examination for the degree of *licencié* or for the title of *diplômé* involves two tests and at least two years of study. Regular students who are already doctors of law or of medicine are exempt from examination on subjects of which their knowledge, deemed sufficient, is attested by diplomas. They may obtain the degree of *licencié* in criminological sciences by passing a single examination.

Candidates for the degree of *licencié* or the title of *diplômé* must present a thesis on one of the subjects taught at the school. It must be an original dissertation, the theme of which has been submitted for approval to one of the professors of the school.

This thesis is presented and defended orally, before the Collège des Professeurs. It is judged under the same conditions as those governing the subjects of the examination.

Number of Students and Cost of Study

During the academic year 1953-54, 24 students attended for the first *licence* and 32 students for the second *licence*. During the academic year 1954-55 the numbers attending were 25 and 23 respectively.

Admission to the courses cost 2,250 Belgian francs, and 650 francs for various fees (registration, insurance, medical examination, etc.). The examination fees are 500 Belgian francs per examination.

Teaching Methods

Instruction is mainly by formal lesson or lecture, but involves some clinical work. This is notably the case for the forensic medicine course, which includes attendance at autopsies. In the study of anthropology, students are presented with certain clinical cases at a dispensary of mental hygiene.

Visits are also organized every year to penitentiaries, institutions for child protection, a prison school for young delinquents, institutions for abnormals, etc.

Students must engage in field work in penal law and penal procedure; afterwards they present, orally, the work they have undertaken. Their

reports are discussed and commented upon by the professor or those of his assistants who supervise the work, as well as by the other students.

CENTRE D'ÉTUDES RENÉ MARCQ

This study centre comprises six sections. One of the oldest of them is called the Penal Law Section and Criminology Study Group; its activities go back to 1938, before the foundation of the Centre René Marcq.

Work is supervised by professors or readers of various courses included in the curriculum of the law faculty or the *École des Sciences Criminologiques* Léon Cornil.

Students who have done one year's successful work at the study centre may receive proof of their study in the form of an 'attendance certificate' which indicates the subject of the work.

Doctors of law who have collaborated with distinction for at least one year in the work of the study centre may receive from the faculty, on the proposal of the Director and with the approval of the professors concerned, the title of *Diplômé du Centre d'Études René Marcq de la faculté de droit de l'Université Libre de Bruxelles*.

Thanks to the René Marcq Fund, individual or collective scientific work deserving of notice can be published by the Centre d'Études. Thus the Criminology Study Group plans to publish, in the near future, recent studies on 'Compulsory reparation of damage resulting from law infraction'.

An individual study can, if necessary, be presented to the faculty as a *thèse d'agrégation* (thesis for a teaching degree), or else be used in the preparation of a thesis.

Conditions of Access

Doctors of law, or *licenciés* in criminological sciences presented by one of the directors of research and admitted by the Director of the centre, are authorized to attend the study centre. This authorization can be revoked at any time, if the personal work of the participant is judged to be inadequate.

Directors of research can authorize attendance at sessions, and even—exceptionally and only with the consent of the Director—participation in the work, by holders of university diplomas other than the doctorate of law or the *licence* in criminological sciences.

Number of Participants

An average of 25 to 30 people take part in the work of the Criminology Study Group, during each academic year.

Subjects of the Work

Research involves all problems of penal law and the criminological sciences. In particular, the following questions have been treated:

1952-53. Twenty years of application of the law of social defence to habitual offenders (study of the social environment in the light of existing documentation, the personality, nature of delinquency, evolution of the population confined since 1930, the law itself, criticism and suggestions, conclusions on the juridical level).

1953-54. Modifications in certain social groups and their effect on the incidence of criminality. Examination of the medico-social problem of prostitution; of a few cases of encouragement to vice or prostitution.

1954-55. Reparation of damage resulting from law infraction (suit for reparation, the optional or obligatory character of the reparation, and its accomplishment in judicial trials, guarantees and execution, certain methods which tend to increase the victim's chances of being indemnified). A few reflections on 'victimology'.

THE STATE UNIVERSITIES OF GHENT AND LIÈGE

The Royal Decree of 10 May 1938 (which appeared in the *Moniteur Belge* of 16 June 1938) authorized the teaching of the criminological sciences in the two States universities of Ghent and Liège. A criminology school was accordingly founded in each of these universities and attached to the faculty of law. They confer the degree and deliver the diploma of *licencié* in criminology.

At the University of Ghent the courses are given in Flemish.

The first president of the *École de Criminologie* was Mr. Jules Simon, counsellor at the Court of Appeal) and ordinary professor at the faculty of law, who was also president of the *Revue de droit pénal et de criminologie*.

The teaching of forensic medicine at this school has always been particularly brilliant. It includes, in addition to the theoretical course, many practical demonstrations (autopsies, microscopic examinations, etc.). Criminalistics, accompanied by numerous demonstrations, is a subject taught during the whole second year of study.

At the University of Liège the courses are given in French.

This university disposes of two insane asylums for the teaching of psychiatry, and thus provides interesting clinical instruction in that science. Certain courses of the Criminology School involve field work, in particular visits to penitentiaries.

The university also grants the degree of doctor of anthropological science.

Organization of the Teaching and Conditions of Access

Both at Ghent and at Liège, only qualified 'candidates' in philosophy and letters, or 'candidates' in science or in the natural and medical sciences, may read for the *licence* in criminological sciences.

The examination for the *licence* comprises two tests, taken at the end of at least two years of study (at least one year for doctors of law or doctors of medicine, exempted from the test on subjects for which they have already undergone an examination in their own faculties).

Subjects Taught

The subjects taught are divided into three groups: (a) the basic disciplines of criminology (penology, criminal anthropology and criminal pathology, crime prevention [psychopathology and social], special questions of psychology); (b) the true criminological sciences (criminology); (c) the adjacent sciences (forensic medicine, toxicology and serology, elements of criminalistics).

Number of Students and Cost of Study

At Ghent, during the academic year 1953-54, there were 50 young men and 5 young women enrolled, and in 1954-55 the numbers were 42 and 2 respectively. Up to the present, about 126 degrees of *licencié de criminologie* have been conferred.

At the École de Criminologie, Liège, there were 8 students inscribed during 1953-54 and 10 during 1954-55.

At both universities the inscription fee is 1,145 Belgian francs for the first *licence* and 1,195 francs for the second *licence*. The examination fee is 315 francs for each test.

GENTSE KRIMINOLOGEN KRING (GHENT CRIMINOLOGY CIRCLE)

The non-profit association Gentse Kriminologen Kring (Ghent Criminology Circle), whose headquarters are at Ghent and whose statutes were published in the *Moniteur belge* of 12 January 1952, includes magistrates, lawyers and doctors. The executive board is composed of a chairman, vice-chairman, secretary, and treasurer.

It seeks to promote criminological studies and organizes a lecture every month, following which those present are asked to state their views on the subject handled by the lecturer.

The first general assembly was held on 12 January 1952 under the chairmanship of Professor Nico Gunzburg, founder of the Circle. The title of

the first lecture, given by Mr. Alfons Cuelenaere, former student and assistant at the University of Ghent, was entitled: 'De Europeesche Studiecyclus betreffend het medico-psychologisch onderzoek van de delinquent' (The European cycle of studies on the medico-psychological and social examination of delinquents). During the same year six lectures were given, by Miss de Bock, Professors Pompe and Van Bemmelen, Dr. Van Den Broucke, Mr. Louwage and Judge Legros, on subjects involving the protection of childhood, criminology, penal law, and criminalistics.

Owing to unforeseen circumstances, the activities of the Circle have been somewhat reduced, but the executive board has recently adopted measures which warrant the hope that the Circle's work will be intensified as from next winter.

THE TEACHING OF CRIMINOLOGY OUTSIDE THE SPECIALIZED INSTITUTES

Certain subjects related to the criminological sciences are taught outside the university schools of criminology.

At the *École d'Infirmières* (nurses' school) attached to the Free University of Brussels, courses are given on social evils, prevention and social medicine.

A course is included in the curriculum of the Faculty of Medicine of the University of Brussels on the preventive treatment of social evils (pauperism, prostitution, vagrancy) which comprises 10 hours of instruction and makes up part of the studies for the degree of public health doctor.

Provincial police schools also exist in Belgium—notably at Brussels, Tournai, Mons, Charleroi, Bruges, Ghent and Namur—which provide elementary criminology teaching and a conception of the techniques of criminalistics.

The curricula of the *Écoles de Service Social* and of the *Institut d'Études Sociales de l'État* in Brussels include concepts of criminal law and the study of protective legislation for children.

CRITICISMS AND SUGGESTED REFORMS

An examination of the curricula of the criminology schools in Belgian universities reveals a perhaps excessively theoretical type of instruction. The historical part of certain courses is extended in a way that would chiefly be justified by the degree to which it clarified and facilitated the understanding of more recent data.

Excellent technical and teaching equipment is usually available for the courses in forensic medicine. Modern autopsy rooms were recently

installed at the Universities of Brussels and Louvain, following an agreement with the Ministry of Justice. These installations are used for judicial as well as for scientific and educational purposes.

In the disciplines more directly connected with criminology, students ought to be brought into closer contact with the delinquent. The study of 'live' records would enable them to understand better the hard realities and the difficulties raised by judicial problems.

Should the doctorate, which so far exists only at the University of Louvain, be made general in university schools of criminology? Some feel that this step would be premature, while studies for the *licence* have still to be developed and scientific research organized.

Professor J. Van Bemmelen, of the University of Leyden, advocates a higher degree in criminology, whose holders would be eligible for posts in the magistracy. This suggestion does not appear to be feasible in Belgium. It would require a complete reorganization of the judicial system, and the permanent specialization of certain functions (examining magistrate, public prosecutor, judge of a criminal court).

This measure does not seem to us to be opportune; for while some specialization is to be desired, excessive specialization from the university level onwards would be harmful both to the general training of students and to their subsequent careers.

One may conclude from the present report that criminology teaching has been considerably extended in Belgium during the past 30 years. The Ministry of Justice has created an *École de Criminologie et de Police Scientifique*, for magistrates, lawyers and higher police officers; and each of the four universities has organized systematic teaching of criminology.

In pure scientific research, however, the result of these efforts leaves something to be desired. The 'practical instruction' work and the personal research of students have too often been of a hasty character. Those engaging in them show that they lack time and means for investigation. A serious effort should be made in this domain, if the material aids required can be obtained.

As has been shown in this report, these studies are not rewarded by the right of admission to specific posts reserved for holders of degrees. However, the influence of this teaching on the judicial world grows greater every year, because of the increasing number of graduates in criminology who participate in the administration of penal justice.

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BRAZIL

Summary of the report presented by

LEONIDIO RIBEIRO¹

INTRODUCTION

In 1931 the Francisco Campos Law introduced criminology teaching into the curriculum for the doctorate in Brazilian law schools. A Chair was founded, and Mr. Afranio Peixoto, Professor of Forensic Medicine at the Faculty of Rio de Janeiro, was appointed to inaugurate it.

The following year, on the initiative of Professor Peixoto, the first specialized course in criminology was instituted. It was attended by about 500 persons, among whom were doctors, lawyers, magistrates, experts, students and police officers. The syllabus comprised 32 lessons, given by three professors of forensic medicine and a lawyer, the various subjects being distributed among them as follows: criminology (Professor Afranio Peixoto), penal law (Professor Mario Bulhoes Pedreira), judicial psychology (Professor Julio Porto Carrero), habitual offenders and identification (Professor Leonidio Ribeiro).

At the opening lecture, Professor Bulhoes Pedreira described the precise orientation of the course in these terms: 'In science, penal law and biology do not constitute watertight compartments; rather are they rivers which, like their numerous affluents, are fed by converging canals all along the terrain which leads them to the common estuary—that is, life itself. The solution to penal problems must be sought in man, in his biological constitution as an autonomous reality and necessary expression of the community. Law is born of life, and must serve it. Judicial standards would be false to their origin and would miss their aim, if they were to be separated from biological law. Man is a homogeneous complex of physiological, psychic and social functions which cannot be conceived of independently or in isolation, except with a view to facilitating research or for reasons of simplification. There is no mental process without a bodily process, for, as in metabolism, a subjective factor is

1. Mr. Leonidio Ribeiro is professor of criminology, forensic medicine and scientific police methodology at the University of Rio de Janeiro. He has been Secretary-General of the first Pan-American Congress of Criminology (Rio de Janeiro, 1947), member of the Board of Directors of the International Society of Criminology (1950), and national delegate of that Society in Brazil (1951). His main work is: *Medicina legal e criminologia* (Forensic Medicine and Criminology) (Rio de Janeiro, 1949).

present which unifies organic phenomena and makes them perceptible. A criminologist who confined himself to the circumscribed field of law, in a spirit of logic and exegesis alone, without contact with the natural and social sciences, would produce something paltry and sterile not corresponding to the present needs of penal law. Here for the first time, doctors and jurists have been "brought together"; and that is the most interesting feature of the course we are now inaugurating. Our course is the cornerstone of a larger edifice—the Institute of Criminology, a centre not only for theoretical studies, but also for practical and experimental work, designed to provide technical and professional training for members of the auxiliary services of criminal justice and the police.¹

INSTITUTES OF CRIMINOLOGY

An institute of criminology, placed under the auspices of the United Nations, will shortly be inaugurated at São Paulo. Its aim is to teach this discipline and to make statistical surveys on the causes of criminality in Brazil.

The Law Faculty of the Federal District University has an Institute of Criminology already in operation.

A plan for a similar institution attached to the University of Brazil, to serve for teaching purposes, has also been drawn up.

THE TEACHING OF CRIMINOLOGY OUTSIDE THE INSTITUTES

LAW FACULTIES

As already stated, the teaching of criminology was introduced by the Campos Law into the curriculum for the doctor's degree at the law schools. Brazilian university circles today are greatly interested in criminology. Various courses have been given at Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo during the past few years. Attendance is heavy, not only among law students, but also among students intending to take up careers in the police or the penitentiary administration.

Subjects Taught

The subjects taught are the following:

Penal law and penology,² by Professor Mario Bulhoes Pedreira.

1. *Archives of Forensic Medicine and Identification*, Rio de Janeiro, 1933, Vol. 5, p. 125.
 2. Characteristics of contemporary penal law; modern penal codes; the problem of the indictment; indictment and medical reporting; criminality and abnormality; social defence, prevention and repression; punishment and security measures; dangerousness before the fact (propensity to crime).

Criminology (classification of criminals, causes of criminality, dangerousness, prevention),¹ by Professor Afranio Peixoto.

Judicial psychology (*corpus delicti*, trial and judgement),² by Professor Julio Pires Porto Carrero.

Habitual offenders and identification (scientific police methodology and technique),³ by Professor Leonidio Ribeiro.

A study of the syllabuses of these courses shows that many aspects of the fundamental disciplines are treated. The subsidiary sciences (judicial psychology, scientific and technical police methodology) are also well represented.

At the Oscar Freire Institute of the Faculty of Medicine at São Paulo, Professor Flaminio Favero, in collaboration with a group of colleagues, has initiated lectures and national and international courses on forensic medicine in relation to criminological problems.

In all the faculties of medicine and of law in Brazil, there are Chairs of forensic medicine and penal law; these subjects are taught in regular courses for future doctors and lawyers.

Attendance, as well as practical work, is compulsory; the courses are accompanied by partial tests and followed by final examinations. Such criminological questions as the cause of crime, and its treatment and prevention, are dealt with. Holders of the Chairs of forensic medicine and penal law are recruited by competitive examination and after verification of their diplomas. The doctorate in medicine is compulsory for the professorship in forensic medicine.

1. Criminals and criminology; the sickness and the sick; the remedy; penology; crime prevention; crime policy; crime (from *Genesis* to the penal code and taboo); motivated prohibition (inhibition), from Hammurabi to Freud. Crime theories; the classical writers (Carrara, etc.); the positivists (from Lombroso, Ferri, Tarde, etc. to contemporary authorities). Psycho-analysis and endocrinology; classification of criminals; political, love, sex and sacrilegious crimes; common crimes; habitual offenders. Crimes due to insanity, congenital imbecility; senile degeneracy; madmen and maniacs; psychopathy and mental unbalance; criminal madmen, madmen and criminals. Causes of criminality (biological, social, economic, prostitution, alcoholism, social vices and their dangers). Crime prevention; social legislation; eugenics; representation; adaptation and transformation of society.
2. Normal psychological operations; sketch of psychology; the result of impulses; conflicts of the ego; the feeling of guilt. Psychological variations (age, sex, education, temperament, emotions, intoxication, infection). The accused and the crime; need for punishment; tendency to confession; 'original sin'. Proof; police research; public report; circumstances; *corpus delicti*; the scene of the crime. Psychology of testimony. Psychology of interrogation (simulation, dissimulation, contradiction). Confrontation. Psychology of judgement (the judge, the lawyer, the prosecutor, the jury). Higher appeals (pardon, waiving of the punishment, suspension of the sentence, and conditional liberty).
3. Habitual offenders. Identification by photograph and anthropometry. Dactyloscopy (civil, electoral, professional, military identification). Identification of unknown corpses. Typology and its constituents. Criminology (somatic clues and imprints; external clues and imprints). Detection. Technical police and police schools.

POLICE SCHOOLS

The Police School has been in operation in Rio de Janeiro since 1912. At the time of its creation, one of its founders, Elysio de Carvalho, explained it as follows: 'Science has now demonstrated that the delinquent is an abnormal who lives in a world apart and acts differently from other men. It has thus become necessary to employ special methods to recognize, watch and combat him. The importance of the new data of criminal anthropology is incontestable; they must be put to practical use and be made available to police officers and the penitentiary administration, by means of rational biological teaching in institutions which must be veritable crime clinics.'

Two years before, in 1910, Professor Reiss, Director of the Laboratoire de Police Technique at Lausanne, had come to Brazil to give lectures and courses on the subject to the police officers of Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo. In our country the interest in technical police problems and the appearance of the first experts in the field date from this period.

From the beginning the courses taught at the Police School of Rio de Janeiro covered criminology, for which a special Chair was founded. The Police School was reformed in 1944, and its instruction became practically compulsory for all accredited officers of the Federal District Police. From 1947 to 1950, 1,194 students of various backgrounds attended the different courses.

Other police schools are in operation in the State capitals. The best-known are those of São Paulo, Belo Horizonte, Porto Alegre, Salvador and Vitoria.

In 1934, when the author of this report was director of the Institute of Judicial Identity in Rio de Janeiro, he invited Professor Bischoff of Lausanne to come and give several courses in scientific police methodology at Rio de Janeiro, São Paulo and Belo Horizonte. His lessons were collected in a volume entitled *La police scientifique* (Scientific Police Methods) and published in 1938 by the Librairie Payot in Paris.

Subjects Taught

The curriculum of the Police School includes the following subjects: Introduction (empirical police work and scientific police methods). Fundamental sciences (criminology, criminal psychology, natural history of malefactors). Subsidiary sciences (technical police, crime investigation).

SOCIETIES OF CRIMINOLOGY

Societies of criminology in normal operation have existed in Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo for many years. One of their purposes is to

organize courses, lectures and congresses of criminology and so to stimulate the interest of their members in subjects connected with penal, criminal and penitentiary problems.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Criminology has thus been taught officially in Brazil for the past quarter of a century in various law faculties and at police schools, by doctors and jurists chosen from among specialists in penal law or forensic medicine. This factor explains the variations in the curricula and the diversity in the orientation given to different courses, the lessons of which are always influenced by the professional training of their teachers. Since Chairs of criminology do not yet exist, a different professor is chosen every year to instruct in this subject, and is allowed to organize his own course according to his personal ideas.

Often, therefore, a legal pathologist replaces an expert in penal law; and since their respective points of view are sometimes opposed or even contradictory on essential questions of doctrine and technique (causes and remedies of crime), a student who must take the courses for two years in succession is often unable to form a personal opinion on the subject.

Furthermore, no specialized libraries exist in the schools such as would enable the students to enrich their knowledge; there are no clinics for criminals, or laboratories which would make experimental work easier. Visits to penitentiaries and to police institutions are also extremely rare; so that until now the courses have been purely theoretical and incomplete, despite the competence and devotion that most of the professors have shown in the exercise of their functions.

The lack of textbooks on the subject and the diversity of official curricula have caused students to lose interest in this field; accordingly, theses and research on the criminal phenomenon are non-existent, and scientific work (with data and observations) on criminal statistics in Brazil is scarce.

It would seem advisable to ask the International Society of Criminology to define and fix the essential points in the syllabuses of the various criminology courses for law students, lawyers, experts, judges, legal pathologists and police officers.

In the first place, a commission of experts should establish a general plan which would cover the basic principles of the teaching of this discipline. 'Chapter headings' should be determined for the courses, and a list should be given of the schools where the courses are provided, in accordance with the special knowledge of the students. The preparation of a publication scheme for criminology textbooks is indispensable; they could be drawn up by a group of specialists in the subject, chosen from among the members of the International Society of Criminology.

All this will depend, however, upon a fundamental, urgent decision: the body of doctrine must be made uniform, at least the field of action of criminology teaching being defined, so that all confusion with other penal and penitentiary disciplines and sciences may be avoided in the curricula. This teaching, moreover, must not, as has been the case up to now, be reduced to a forensic medicine or penal law chapter in the ordinary courses given in the faculties of medicine or of law of the official universities. One interesting problem which it would be as well to resolve is that of scientific terminology. The true sense of expressions like 'criminal anthropology and criminal biology', 'criminalistics', and 'technical and scientific police methods', should be made clearer; they are frequently employed as synonyms for criminology in the courses of the faculties and police schools.

The ideal solution would be to found institutes of criminology in the universities, and to make them sufficiently autonomous; they would offer theoretical and practical courses to all who wished to extend their knowledge of criminal problems, that is, to doctors, lawyers, students, judges, experts, police and judicial officers.

Summary of the report presented by

JEAN PINATEL¹

INTRODUCTION

The need for teaching criminology in France has been stressed for many years. A Frenchman, Gabriel Tarde, was the first to declare that such teaching should be organized. In 1885, on his proposal, the First International Congress of Criminal Anthropology in Rome formulated the following *vœu*: 'The Congress, in keeping with the scientific tendency of criminal anthropology, expresses the hope that the prison administration, after adopting all necessary precautions for internal discipline and the moral liberty of condemned prisoners, will admit teachers and students of penal law and forensic medicine to the clinical study of delinquents, under the supervision and responsibility of the professors concerned—in the form, preferably, of a benevolent society for prisoners and former prisoners.'²

In 1900 Tarde was appointed to the Chair of modern philosophy at the Collège de France. After teaching social psychology and economic psychology, he devoted his 1902 course to moral and criminal psychology, that of 1903 to penal philosophy, and that of 1904 to intermental psychology. He died on 12 May 1904 and was succeeded by Bergson.³

The development of criminology teaching, both inside and outside the Institutes of Criminology, is undoubtedly due to the activity and example of Gabriel Tarde.

INSTITUTES OF CRIMINOLOGY

Immediately after the First International Congress of Criminal¹Anthropology, the Faculty of Law of the University of Paris took the initiative of founding a free course in criminal and penitentiary science and entrusted it to Henri Joly. This example was shortly followed by the Law Faculty of Toulouse, where Vidal inaugurated a 'magistral' course

1. See biographical note on page 11.

2. *Actes* (du I^{er} Congrès international d'Anthropologie criminelle), p. 398.

3. It is interesting to note that Bergson had also been appointed professor at the Collège de France in 1900, but to the Chair of ancient philosophy.

in penitentiary science. Its very broad programme, following a philosophical and historical introduction, covered the causes of criminality and the struggle against crime.¹

Thus both Vidal and Joly completely assimilated the teaching of criminology to that of penology and penitentiary science. The reason for this was given by Joly at the International Penitentiary Congress of St. Petersburg in 1890. He showed that penitentiary science, after having been confined, at the beginning, to the study of repression through incarceration, had evolved into the study of the repression of crime and the reform of delinquents. Thus he had come to see that this extension of penitentiary science—its promotion to the rank of penology—inevitably led to other questions being involved in such a study. 'To know how to prevent crime' he wrote, 'one must first know what crime is, what are its characteristics and causes. To know how one may reform the criminal, one must know what the criminal is, how he arises, how he develops, and what becomes of him.'²

The conception of Joly and Vidal was maintained when in 1906, on the initiative of two eminent criminal jurists, Garçon and Le Poitevin, the Law Faculty of Paris created an Institut de Science Pénale with a curriculum including a course in criminology and penitentiary science. This Institut de Science Pénale later became the Institut de Criminologie of the University of Paris. It was reorganized in 1952; Professor Henri Donnedieu de Vabres inspired this reform, which was one of his last activities in the service of science.³

The example of the law faculty in Paris spread to the provinces, where organizations set up largely in imitation of that of Paris were founded one by one in the faculties of law, under various designations (Institut de Science Pénale, Institut de Criminologie, Institut de Sciences Criminelles et Pénitentiaires).

It is therefore necessary to consider first the Institut de Criminologie of the University of Paris and then the institutes of criminology in the provincial universities.

THE INSTITUT DE CRIMINOLOGIE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF PARIS

The Institut de Criminologie of the University of Paris is attached to the faculty of law. The Ministerial decrees of 29 July 1935 and 27 August 1952 expressly stipulate that it shall be placed under the scientific direction of the faculty of law.

1. *Revue pénitentiaire*, 1895, p. 1356 et seq.

2. H. Joly, *Rapport au Congrès pénitentiaire international de Saint-Petersbourg*. 1890. *Actes*. Vol. II, p. 459 et seq.

3. *Bulletin of the International Society of Criminology*, 1952, 2nd semester, p. 133 et seq.

This overlordship accorded to the law faculty is shown by the fact that the Director and Assistant Director of the institute can be appointed only from among the in-service professors of criminal law at the Paris law faculty. Furthermore, the administrative board of the institute is presided over by the Dean of the law faculty.

Organization of the Teaching

The Institut de Criminologie provides no openings, properly so called. It has not been possible, up to now, to make its courses compulsory for applicants for various police and penitentiary functions, future medical experts, future social workers, and future psychologists and educators specialized in criminology. A single exception is found—the École Nationale des Officiers de Gendarmerie (National School for Officers of the Constabulary), whose curriculum obliges student officers to take the courses of the Institut de Criminologie in Paris.

Only students holding the degree of bachelor of law or the certificate of aptitude in law are admitted to the institute. Students of letters, sciences or medicine, and foreign students holding a degree in a foreign faculty, may be authorized by the Dean to take the courses.

The Institut de Criminologie of Paris comprises two sections, each involving two semesters of courses.

1. Section of criminal science. This section is essentially devoted to the juridical disciplines: advanced penal law (40 hours), comparative penal law (20 hours), special penal law (40 hours), criminal procedure (30 hours). Only the elements of scientific and technical police methodology (20 hours) directly concern criminology.
2. Section of criminological sciences. This section is more specially devoted to the study of applied criminology and of the medical and psychological aspects of the criminal phenomenon. It is naturally the teaching of this section which will be given prime consideration in what follows.

Two examinations are held every year, in June and in October. They comprise, in both sections, a written and an oral test, the latter being given only if the written test has been passed.

For the section of criminological sciences, the written examination is made up of two three-hour compositions, the first always devoted to applied criminology and the second to a subject chosen by lot.

The oral test involves three 'interrogations' on subjects, also chosen by lot, which have not been dealt with in the written composition.

The Institut de Criminologie of Paris delivers two certificates and one diploma. Students who have passed the written and oral examinations of either section receive a certificate either in criminal science or in criminological sciences. Either of these certificates confers the title of 'Graduate' of the Institut de Criminologie of the University of Paris.

Students wishing to receive the title of *Diplômé de l'Institut de Criminologie de l'Université de Paris* must have obtained the two certificates of the institute and must write and defend a typewritten thesis on a subject approved by the professors of the institute.

Subjects Taught

The section of criminological sciences gives the following courses: applied criminology (40 hours), Mr. Pinatel; forensic medicine (20 hours), Mr. Piedelièvre; mental medicine (15 hours), Mr. Heuyer; juvenile delinquency (20 hours), Mr. Costa; criminal psychology (15 hours), Mr. Cénac; infantile psychiatry (15 hours), Mr. Michaux.

This curriculum prompts the following observations, as regards the teaching of the basic disciplines, of criminology proper, and of the subsidiary sciences.

Basic disciplines. These are well covered, especially in the medico-psychological field, where four courses are devoted to criminal psychology, mental medicine, infantile psychiatry, and corrective child training (special course in juvenile delinquency).

This instruction in the basic disciplines has a strong psychological orientation, a policy which conforms to the modern evolution of criminological science. It thus opens the door to applied criminology or criminology proper, which attempts to relate the data of criminal psychology to the findings of criminal sociology and criminal biology and to those of penology and penitentiary science.

Thus the tradition of Joly is revived. It had been neglected during the period between the two wars, when only an administrative teaching of penitentiary science, unconnected with criminology, had been preserved. This also explains why neither criminal biology nor criminal sociology nor penitentiary science is taught separately as a basic discipline.

Criminology proper. This is taught as applied criminology. The curriculum, after an introduction to criminology, is composed of four parts: criminality, the criminal, the crime, and practical applications. It is developed in the following way:

The *introduction* starts by defining the purpose of criminology (problem of the criminological definition of crime) and its nature. There follows a history of criminological doctrines, intended to give a general idea of the theories and working hypotheses which can be used. Thus the door is open to the study of criminological method, the examination of which concludes this introduction.

The first part of the teaching of applied criminology is devoted to the study of *criminality*, that is, to crime considered as a mass

phenomenon.¹ After a review of the general evolution of the problem, this study analyses the personal and social factors which can be observed at the mass level. These factors are more precisely referred to by the terms personal conditions (race, age, sex) and social conditions (geographical, economic, cultural or political).

After the study of data on crime considered from a mass angle, the data viewed from an individual perspective must be examined. The second part of the teaching of applied criminology is therefore devoted to the *criminal*.

This study begins with a glimpse of the problem of the classification of criminals and continues with an analysis of the personal and social factors which influence criminal behaviour. First of all the person of the criminal is studied, together with the hereditary, anatomical, physiological, psychological and pathological aspects of the question; then follows a study of his environment (family and social). A special place is given to the study of the penal and penitentiary environment.

The study of the *crime* from the individual angle is useless unless it leads to the essence of the criminological problem—the phenomenon viewed as a human and social act.

This brings us to the very heart of criminology. As the first programme circular of the Second International Congress of Criminology (Paris, 1950) emphasized, what must be studied is ‘the person of the delinquent and of the criminal, his act, and the circumstances in their mutual relationship’.² That is, the first step is to define the elements which must be taken into consideration: the personality, the act, and the situation.

After the elements of the problem have been specified and defined, its scope and difficulty must be realized. For this reason, the various proposed theories on the crime, whether bio-psychological, psychosocial, psycho-analytic, or psycho-moral, are examined one by one.

The results of the study of the crime remain to be stated; and then the study of the pre-criminal situations and the criminogenic processes attached to them, as well as the relationship between the criminal and his victim, must be undertaken.

The study of the criminal act is the final stage of scientific criminology, the one which immediately opens the way to *practical applications*.

The domain of crime treatment and prevention, which is considered in the last place, raises up the problem of the relationship between scientific criminology and spontaneous criminology. The methods of observation, diagnosis and prognosis, without the intervention of

1. F. Grispigni, *Introduzione alla Sociologia Criminale*, Torino, 1928, p. 12 et seq.

2. *Actes*, Presses Universitaires de France, 1951, Vol. 1, p. 1 et seq.

which there could be no treatment, are then taken up. Treatment can be institutional, in which case the programme should be specified and the methods indicated (penal and penitentiary, medical and medico-pedagogic, socio-educative). A treatment in a free environment can also be given; its methods must be related to those of the post-cure and social rehabilitation which follow institutional treatment. Finally, the problem of crime prevention must be dealt with.

These are the broad divisions of the teaching of applied criminology, as it is given at the Institut de Criminologie of the University of Paris.

Subsidiary sciences. The only subsidiary science taught in the section of criminological sciences is forensic medicine. Scientific and technical police methodology is attached to the section of criminal science. Judicial psychology is not taught.

Number of Students and Cost of Study

The number of students is constantly increasing; at present, there are about 170.

Students must be registered at the institute in order to obtain certificates and must pay tuition and examination fees. The total cost of study is, at the moment, 4,000 French francs for students already registered at the law faculty for the current academic year. Others must pay an additional 'immatriculation' fee of 1,150 francs.

Teaching Methods

The teaching is given in the form of 'magistral' courses supplemented each week by sessions of practical work.

During the year, the institute organizes visits conducted by various professors—attendance at criminal trials, visits to penitentiary establishments and reform schools, to judicial identification services, to the medico-legal institute, to the police museum, etc.

Bibliography and documentation are furnished by the library of the Institut de Criminologie.

The teaching staff of the criminological sciences section is made up of persons outside the law faculty: four doctors (three of whom are professors at the faculty of medicine), one senior official of the Ministry of Justice, and an Inspector General of Administration at the Ministry of the Interior.

The scientific part of the teaching of scientific and technical police methodology is entrusted to a doctor, professor at the Muséum d'Histoire Naturelle, who directs the Judicial Identification Services at the Préfecture de Police; an official of this same department handles the technical part.

THE INSTITUTES OF CRIMINOLOGY IN PROVINCIAL UNIVERSITIES

Institutes exist in many provincial law faculties at present, as can be seen from the following list:

Aix-en-Provence: Institut de Sciences Pénales.

Bordeaux: Institut de Droit Pénal.

Grenoble: Institut de Sciences Criminelles et de Criminologie.

Lille:¹ Institut de Criminologie.

Lyons: Institut de Sciences Pénales.

Nancy:² Institut de Criminologie.

Montpellier: Centre d'Études Pénales.

Poitiers:³ Institut des Sciences Criminelles.

Strasbourg:⁴ Institut de Sciences Criminelles et Pénitentiaires.

Toulouse: Institut de Criminologie et de Sciences Pénales.

This list shows clearly that the teaching of these institutes corresponds in many cases to that of the criminal science section in Paris. Elsewhere, a basic juridical instruction is supplemented by study of the subsidiary sciences (forensic medicine, scientific and technical police methodology) and of penitentiary science. In yet other cases a specific claim is made to teach criminology, but it is not possible to know exactly what is covered by this term.

In fact, the title does not always entirely correspond to realities. Thus at Strasbourg, notwithstanding a highly restrictive title, criminology teaching does exist; it comprises an introduction to criminology, and instruction in criminal psychology and criminal psychiatry. A course in criminology is also given at Poitiers and at Lille.

These courses are usually much shorter in the provinces than in Paris; and professors are recruited outside the faculties much less easily than in the capital, especially for the course in criminology proper.

As a result, the certificates and diplomas delivered by the provincial institutes do not have the same value as those of Paris, and it is difficult to envisage giving credit to candidates for judicial and related posts on the basis of the certificates and diplomas currently granted throughout the country.

THE TEACHING OF CRIMINOLOGY OUTSIDE THE INSTITUTES

Outside the institutes, criminology teaching is organized in various faculties and other establishments associated with scientific research.

1. *Revue internationale de criminologie et de police technique*, 1954, p. 69 et seq.

2. *Revue de science criminelle*, 1953, pp. 376-7.

3. *Revue de science criminelle*, 1952, pp. 652-3.

4. *Revue de science criminelle*, 1954, p. 430.

Here again the teaching of the basic disciplines, of criminology proper and of the subsidiary sciences must be distinguished.

Subjects Taught

Basic disciplines. The École d'Anthropologie, founded by Broca in 1876, has, since its inception, included *criminal biology* in its teaching as part of the general anthropology course. In 1920 a Chair of anthropology of abnormals was founded and entrusted to Mr. Georges Paul-Boncour. The course in the anthropology of abnormals has in fact been entitled: from 1921-22 to 1930-31, 'Criminal Anthropology'; from 1931-32 to 1933-34, 'Criminology'; from 1934-35 to 1943-44, 'Sociology and Criminology'.

These variations are explained by the fact that criminal sociology was taught, after the foundation of the school, in the 'Social Arts' course, where the accent was on problems of social defence. But it gradually became evident that aetiological problems could not easily be separated from problems of social defence. The result was the idea of an autonomous criminology course which reunited and co-ordinated these two aspects.

Beginning in 1945, the appellation 'criminology' was definitively admitted, and since then the École d'Anthropologie has taught criminology proper.¹

Criminal psychology is taught to a certain extent at the Sorbonne, in the social psychology course. It is also taught at the faculty of medicine, as part of the teaching of clinical psychiatry for adults and minors. In particular, a course in juvenile criminology for practising doctors specializing in infantile psychology is given every year by the holder of the Chair of infantile psychiatry (Mr. G. Heuyer).

At the École Pratique des Hautes Études, whose aim is to train research workers, *criminal sociology* is taught by Mr. H. Lévy-Bruhl. This instruction is supplemented by reports and discussions organized by the

1. The successive courses of Mr. G. Paul-Boncour dealt with the following themes: 1921-22: Anthropological conditions of anti-social reactions. 1922-23: Psychological conditions of anti-social reactions. 1923-24: Character and psycho-moral anomalies as factors in criminality. 1924-25: Criminal environments (family, school, and workshop). 1925-26: Social, ethnic and cosmotelurian causes of criminality. 1926-27: Criminal investigation and proof of guilt. 1927-28: The concept of responsibility in anthropology, forensic medicine and justice. 1928-29: The struggle against crime (theory and practice). 1929-30: Criminal groups and associations (origin, transformations, means of action, punishments). 1930-31: The anti-social reactions of drug addicts. 1931-32: The problem of vagrancy. 1932-33: Theft and the thieves. 1933-34: Homicide in anthropological science. 1934-35: Prostitution, a biologic-social phenomenon. 1935-36: The struggle against prostitution; moral indiscipline in law and morality. 1936-37: Genesis and morphology of the financial crime. 1937-38: Suicide in anthropo-sociology. 1938-39: Punishment and its transformations throughout the ages. 1939-40: The modern penitentiary system and penitentiary science. 1940-41: Juvenile delinquency and its preventive treatment. (The titles of the courses for 1941-42 and 1942-43 are lacking.) 1943-44: Some criminal modes of expression (gesture, speech, handwriting). 1944-45: (1) Military indiscipline; (2) desertion in time of war.

Centre d'Études Sociologiques (an organization dependent upon the Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique). Criminal sociology is also taught at the École Anthro- Biologie by Mr. V. V. Stanciu.

Until a few years ago, *penology* was not taught systematically, except in professional courses for penitentiary officials given at the École Pénitentiaire de Fresnes or in the schools for social assistants and educators. This is no longer the case since the decree of 27 March 1954 modified the system of studies and examinations for the *licence en droit*. A Ministerial decree of 29 September 1954 provided for semestrial teaching of penal law and criminology in the second year; the syllabus includes the following: Crime in fact and in law: (a) The criminal phenomenon, social causes of crime, individual causes, criminology and the subsidiary sciences; relationship between penal law and the other branches of law and the other human sciences. (b) Basis and evolution of the right to punish; the general principles of French penal law; the constituent elements of law infraction; the classification of forms of infraction.

The criminal—his psychology, his responsibility: (a) The broad categories of delinquents; delinquency of minors and delinquency of adults. (b) Penal responsibility; elements of criminal psychiatry and criminal psychology.

Penal treatment—reform and repression: (a) Treatment, punishment, and security measures; how they are applied; principles of penitentiary science. (b) General concepts of the organization of repressive justice, of the penal process and the observation of this process.

This programme shows that penology is in fact being taught, although the title 'penal law and criminology' might lead one to believe that criminology proper and penal law are being studied successively.

Criminology proper. Criminology proper is taught at the École d'Anthropologie and the Institut Médico-Légal attached to the Faculty of Medicine of the University of Paris.

1. The criminology course at the École d'Anthropologie is now given by Mr. P. R. Bize. It includes 15 lessons, and the syllabus in 1952-53 included the following: the evolution of ideas on criminogenesis; the data of the medical and typological examination; the problem of dysmorphic stigmata; the data of the neurological examination; the data of the psychological examination; the data of the psychiatric examination; study of the role of heredity; family factors; play, school and judicial factors; professional factors and work; general economic and social factors; social survey technique; criminogenic conflicts and complexes; classification of delinquents; evaluation of the part played by the various determinants.

A study of this syllabus shows that the new criminology course covers all aspects—biological, psychological and sociological—of the criminal phenomenon.

2. The criminology course of the Institut Médico-Légal was given in 1953-54 and in 1954-55 by Mr. J. Pinatel and comprised 15 lessons, covering the following subjects: subject, aim, method of criminology; criminal aetiology (biological factors, family factors, social factors); clinical criminology (classification of delinquents, professional delinquents, maladjusted delinquents, occasional delinquents and delinquency for emotional reasons); diagnosis and prognosis (the medico-psychological and social examination, the criminological diagnosis, the social prognosis); criminal therapy (the programme for treatment and social rehabilitation, institutional treatment, treatment in a free environment); criminal prophylaxis (crime prevention).

Because of the length of the course, it is obvious that the subjects it contains can only be touched upon.

Subsidiary sciences. Forensic medicine is taught in the faculties of medicine and in the medico-legal institutes attached to them. Scientific and technical police methodology is taught in the various police schools controlled by the Sûreté Nationale and the Préfecture de Police.

To the author's knowledge, judicial psychology is taught only in the applied psychology course given at the Institut de Psychologie of the University of Paris; moreover, it is merged in a brief study of the elements of criminal psychology. Various aspects of judicial psychology are also treated in the criminal psychology course of the Institut de Criminologie at Paris.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS AND PROSPECTS FOR THE FUTURE

The rapid survey just given of the teaching of criminology in France brings the following facts to light.

There is a difference in teaching level between the Institut de Criminologie in Paris and the provincial institutes, which makes it difficult to standardize certificates and diplomas on a national basis.

The teaching of criminology proper tends to replace that of the basic disciplines, because of its association either with criminal biology and sociology, or with penology. In this respect, the tradition of the Institut de Criminologie of the University of Paris has, so to speak, been rediscovered at the École d'Anthropologie.

Among the basic disciplines, the medico-psychological sciences are now in full development.

The teaching of the subsidiary sciences creates no problem in forensic medicine and scientific and technical police methodology, but instruction in judicial psychology is very rarely given.

These observations deserve attention and are capable of contributing to substantial reform in the teaching of criminology conceived, no longer

as a subsidiary study within some faculty, but as an independent field within the university; criminology being above all a science founded on the multi-disciplinary approach.

With this future perspective, it would be well to conclude by an analysis of recent publications in France on the problem of criminology teaching.

1. First of all, a study by Mr. J. Pinatel may be cited, entitled: 'L'enseignement de la criminologie' (The Teaching of Criminology), which appeared in the *Revue internationale de droit pénal* (1950, p. 583 *et seq.*). This study makes the following terminological distinctions:

The criminological *clinic*, an institution for diagnosis and selection, the aim of which is to study the personality of prisoners, to direct them to an appropriate establishment, and to prepare an individualized treatment for each of them.

The criminological *laboratory*, devoted to pure scientific research, which centralizes clinical observations, frames statistics, and determines research programmes.

The criminological *training centre*, which is a school dispensing instruction.

The study sets forth the principle that the training centre cannot exist without the clinic and the laboratory—certainly not, in any case, without the clinic.

For this reason, the question is to know whether the *licence en droit* should be accompanied by a *licence de criminologie*, or whether it would not be better to integrate criminology teaching into the curriculum for the *licence en droit*.

Serious arguments militate in favour of the first solution, involving interfaculty instruction. The second idea implies the founding of additional Chairs according to the development of clinics and laboratories throughout the country.

2. The reform in the *licence en droit* effected in 1954 has been presented by Mr. R. Vouin as a concrete expression of this second solution. With regard to the course in 'penal law and criminology', he expresses himself in the following terms (*Revue de science criminelle*, 1955, p. 337):

'This course, to speak only of the main headings, will deal successively with (a) crime in fact and in law; (b) the criminal, his psychology and his responsibility; (c) penal treatment, reform and repression. Two remarks may be made on this subject.

'In the first place, this course was visibly intended to associate the most classic juridical concepts with the most modern data of the criminological sciences and the penitentiary art. Each professor, according to his temperament, will evidently lean towards one or the other of the two tendencies thus linked together. So at least criminology is introduced into the law faculties and united to criminal law, just as the study of penitentiary questions was, practically speaking,

already attached to them. Certainly the old juridical discipline will here find a useful opportunity for renovating itself, and the young science will gain, from contact with a discipline so admirably evolved by our teachers, a precision which its first manifestations often lacked.

'In the second place, the concept of penal treatment, which involves both security measures and punishment and leads thereby to the happiest suggestions regarding social defence, also covers, according to the very letter of the curriculum, the elements of the organization of repressive justice, the penal process, and observation during the course of this process. This fact should give great satisfaction.

'It might have been thought that "general penal law" would be limited to the study of basic rules. Fortunately, however, the programme includes concepts of procedure which—let it be noted—will be the only ones given, in four years of university, to the student of political economy, or to the student of public law who, in his third year, will not have chosen penal procedure (to say nothing of the student who modestly limits himself to the bachelorship in law). Thus, in conformity with the true spirit of the reform, every student reading for the *licence* may acquire the elements of a penal law which is both a rule of substance and a rule of form—the two being indissolubly joined.

'Furthermore, owing to this association imposed by the curriculum, questions of procedure will be reviewed in a "criminological" spirit; and one may hope that criminology, until now too exclusively attached to the examination of the criminal person, will benefit from having its horizon enlarged to the dimensions of its true purpose, which is also the purpose of criminal law: crime and the social reaction which it provokes.'

3. Mr. R. Vouin's optimism is not shared by Mr. J. B. Herzog (*Revue internationale de droit pénal*, 1955, p. 265).

'One may regret that the reform in the studies and curricula has not been profited by in order to give criminal science (read *criminology*) its autonomy. This evolution appears all the more necessary because the new teaching of penal law makes an appeal to criminological concepts—an appeal which may well remain theoretical if the training of criminalists is not modified. The system resulting from the decree of 27 March and the departmental order of 29 September 1954 sets up, for the teaching of penal law, a régime of transition. It must be taken as such, and its necessary evolution must be prepared.'

The conclusion to be drawn from these studies oriented towards the future is that the problem of criminology teaching is today actual in France, and that progress is slowly but surely being made towards its rational solution.

ITALY

Summary of the report presented by

CARLO ERRA¹

INTRODUCTION

This study will be subdivided into two parts: the first will deal with the institutes of criminology themselves (in Italy there is only one), and the second with the teaching of the discipline outside the institutes. In each case, the author will limit himself to an objective appraisal of the existing situation.

INSTITUTES OF CRIMINOLOGY

In Italy, criminology teaching made its appearance about fifty years ago. Today it is given under the name of criminal anthropology. Courses are offered in the faculties of law and medicine.

However, while criminology teaching goes fairly far back in date, an Institute of Criminology bearing that name is of recent creation. In 1950, through the initiative of the late Professor Grispigni, the Advanced Training School of Penal Law at the University of Rome also took the name of Institute of Criminology and added all the criminological disciplines to its curriculum. This school, founded by Enrico Ferri in 1911, could already be considered an institute giving criminological training. Today, after the reorganization accomplished by the late Professor Grispigni, it has become an authentic institute of criminology.

Organization of the Teaching

The institute, which is located near the Faculty of Law of the University of Rome, has a public character and depends on that faculty.

The number of students attending varies from year to year. On an average it amounts to 60 for each academic year. Many of the students are foreigners.

1. Mr. Carlo Erra is Counsellor at the Court of Appeal (Judge of Appeal) in Rome. He has been Assistant Secretary-General of the International Society of Criminology (1950), national delegate of the Society in Italy (1951), General Rapporteur at the European Cycle of Brussels (1951), Secretary-General of the Italian Society of Criminology (1951), and co-director of the Fifth International Course of Criminology (Rome, 1955).

Except for a very modest registration fee, attendance at the course is entirely free of charge. Students in certain special situations can even be exempted from the registration fee.

In order to accede to the institute, the student must hold a diploma. Those holding the licentiate in law, economics and commerce, or political and social sciences of any Italian or foreign university may be inscribed. Following deliberation by the administrative board of the school, doctors of medicine and surgery and graduates of any Italian or foreign faculty may be admitted. To take the examinations, they must have undergone an admission test dealing with law and penal procedure.

The educational cycle is organized so as to give students theoretical and practical training in criminology.

The duration of study is two years; however, the administrative board can reduce this period to a minimum of one year for students who hold adequate degrees and who have attended the school with assiduity and profit.

An examination is provided for each subject taught. At the end of the course a diploma is granted to students who have passed the examinations.

Subjects Taught

In criminology, the subjects taught are grouped under two headings (a) basic disciplines and (b) subsidiary sciences.

Basic disciplines. The teaching of *criminal anthropology* and forensic medicine is the same as at the university, where these subjects are also taught, but is much more detailed and on a higher level, the school being 'post-graduate'. The syllabus will be discussed in the second part of this report.

The purpose of *criminal psychopathology* is to study all mental illness in its relation to delinquency; it also treats of the different psychological aspects of delinquency, as well as of methods of psychiatric and psychological examination of the delinquent.

On the psychiatric level, it considers the principal mental deformations which can influence delinquency. Among them may be cited: moral insanity, the toxic psychoses, phrenasthenia, epilepsy, hysteria, the neuro-psychasthenic psychoses, schizophrenia, manic depression, paranoia, senile dementia, general paralysis, epidemic encephalitis, infectious psychoses due to auto-intoxication, traumatic psychoses, and psychoses due to dysfunction of the endocrine glands.

On the strictly psychological level, it starts from the hypothesis that knowledge of the human personality must be gained before attacking the problem of criminality, and more particularly that of its causes and its dynamics. Thus this teaching deals with the personality, which differs

from the average because its various component parts are not in harmony with one another, and in particular because the inferior and the superior psyche, feeling and intelligence, impulsion and will, are in conflict.

The study is extended to the different categories of the personality (dysharmonic, impulsive, volitional, abnormal, psychopathic), to their reactions to different stimuli, and finally to the classification of the enormous range of diverse personalities and especially of psychopaths.

The programme of *criminal sociology* considers the various elements in the environment which can influence criminality. In particular it covers the natural geophysical environment, hygienic conditions, and the educational environment.

It then studies the importance—from the standpoint of the development of criminality—of sex, age, climate, soil conditions, the succession of night and day, seasons, changes in temperature, and agricultural production.

It also examines the influence on human conduct and criminality exerted by the hygienic conditions in which the individual lives and develops, from his birth onwards; food and housing are given particular attention (anthropology of the poorer classes).

Finally, study is given to irregularities in the family environment (family situation), the relationship between parents, their morals, the habits of members of the family with regard to work, gambling and alcoholism, inadequacy of school instruction, choice and company of friends, bad habits, attitude towards work and the difficulty of finding it, idleness, and the influence of reading and public entertainment.

This course makes ample use of criminal statistics.

Penology is assigned great importance at the Institute of Criminology. The course provides a fuller understanding of the concepts of penal law through scientific and practical experiments either in penal law or in penal procedure. Attention is directed to the legal definition of crime and the classification of delinquents. The course is supplemented by a special course in penitentiary law.

The subjects studied are: penitentiary regulations, classification and organization of penitentiaries, classification of prisoners, observation and methods of treatment, ways of preventing delinquency, assistance to former prisoners.

Subsidiary sciences. As stated earlier the syllabus for *forensic medicine* will be discussed in the second part of this report. The programme of *judicial psychology* seeks to give the basic concepts of that science. The course studies the psychology of all persons who participate in penal proceedings—the accused, the plaintiff, the witnesses, the judge.

Finally, the syllabus of the course in *scientific police methodology* includes: methods and technique of police investigation, judicial identification, and search of premises.

Teaching Methods

Teaching is 'magistral' and theoretical. It is also clinical in certain disciplines which involve the presentation and clinical study of persons who have committed crimes.

The institute is located at the faculty of law. However, it entrusts the teaching of certain subjects to specialized institutes and enjoys their scientific collaboration.

The most important of these institutes are: the Institute of Criminal Anthropology, the Institute of Forensic Medicine, the Institute of Psychology and the School of Scientific Police Methodology.

The teaching is based on practical work, such as practical and experimental research, visits to specialized institutes and to penitentiaries, etc. The study of criminology is notably facilitated by the 'criminological centres' inside the most important penitentiaries. Their task is to examine delinquents in order to unmask their personality, identify the causes of the crimes committed, and suggest adequate treatment. They are an incomparable source of scientific information.

A library, particularly rich in Italian and foreign works in the field of criminology, is at the disposal of students.

The post of Director of the institute is given to the professor of penal law at the university. The professors are chosen by the Director from among the professors of the faculties of law and medicine.

THE TEACHING OF CRIMINOLOGY OUTSIDE THE INSTITUTES

Outside the Institute of Criminology in Rome, criminology is taught in the university faculties and in various schools.

UNIVERSITY FACULTIES

Subjects Taught

Basic disciplines. Criminal biology is taught as *criminal anthropology*, and this teaching, though optional, is given in the faculties of law and of medicine. At present, courses in criminal anthropology are given at the universities of Genoa, Modena, Naples, Padua, Palermo, Parma, Rome, Sienna, and Turin.

In Italy, the teaching of criminal anthropology is mainly clinical. It studies particular cases among the various categories of delinquents, in order to reach a diagnosis of each delinquent's personality, evaluate the genesis and dynamics of criminal phenomena, and prescribe the medico-psycho-educational treatment appropriate to each case. The development

of the clinical method in criminal anthropology has been facilitated by the criminological centres set up inside the most important penitentiaries, following a happy initiative taken by the penitentiary administration in 1950. In each town these centres are directed by professors of criminal anthropology and forensic medicine.

The syllabus includes the following subjects: methods and objectives of criminal anthropology; evolution of criminal anthropology; causes of criminality (general theories, heredity and criminality, biological causes, toxic substances, toxic infections, traumas, morbid processes, environment, bio-sociological factors of the most important collective anti-social and criminal phenomena); criminal biotypology (various classification systems for delinquents, the occasional delinquent, the habitual delinquent, the institutional delinquent, insane criminals and the criminally insane); mental illnesses and criminality; criminogenesis (general conceptions, bio-psycho-socio-criminogenesis, affective troubles, emotional states, feelings of injustice, of inferiority, of frustration and guilt, troubles of the intelligence and of the will, the phenomenon of predisposition); criminal dynamics (dynamics of the commonest crimes against property, of the commonest sexual crimes, of the commonest crimes against persons); examination of the personality of the delinquent (morphological examination, functional examination, psychological examination, anamnestic-biographical examination); appraisal (directive criteria of the psychiatric expert's report, evaluation of dangerousness, simulation and dissimulation, importance and development of the anthropologico-psychiatric expert examination in penal justice); crime prevention (general prophylaxis, special prophylaxis, prophylaxis of the delinquency of minors, the police in the struggle against anti-social behaviour and in the prevention of individual and collective criminal activity, the police for minors, the police for the protection and surveillance of dangerous subjects and milieux, for assistance to former prisoners); criminal therapy (therapy of occasional delinquents, therapy of habitual delinquents, therapy of constitutional delinquents and the mentally ill, reforms of the modern penitentiary system, medico-psycho-educational treatment of various categories of delinquents in relation to the needs of the penitentiary administration and the social readaptation of prisoners).

It is well to recall that the scope of the criminal anthropology programme is determined by the fact that, as will be seen below, no Chair of any other basic criminological discipline exists in the Italian universities. Hence the study of criminology depends upon the Chair of criminal anthropology.

Naturally, at the Institute of Criminology in Rome, where courses are devoted to other criminological disciplines, more detailed information on each branch is given in the courses.

There is no Chair of *criminal psychology* in the State universities. This teaching is included in criminal anthropology.

At the Catholic University of Milan, Father Gemelli, now retired, taught criminology for many years and gave it a strongly psychological orientation. Today this university has an experimental Institute of Psychology, one section of which is devoted to criminological studies. Various kinds of research work are in progress.

Research in objective and subjective criminal psychology is undertaken by the criminological centres mentioned above; the results of this research enter into the teaching of criminal anthropology.

An autonomous course in criminal psychopathology is given at the Institute of Criminology in Rome.

Criminal sociology was taught for a great many years by Enrico Ferri at the University of Rome, at the Advanced Training School of Penal Law, and by the late Professor Grispigni at the University of Milan.

Today, an autonomous Chair is no longer provided for criminal sociology; this science is taught in the criminal anthropology course. However, a course in criminal sociology is given at the institute in Rome, as this report has already stated.

There is no Chair of *penology* in Italy, although all the universities have regular courses in penal law and penal procedure. This discipline is taught at the Institute of Criminology in Rome; it also features as part of the training of police officers.

Clinical criminology is integrated in criminal anthropology, and only represents the most recent stage in the evolution of that teaching. Emphasis is laid on the need for observing and treating delinquents on the following bases: medico-psychological and social examination, criminological diagnosis, treatment. For this purpose, criminal anthropology teaching uses the studies of delinquents made by the criminological centres of the penitentiaries.

Subsidiary sciences. *Forensic medicine* is taught in all the universities, both in the law faculties and in the faculties of medicine. This course, however, is compulsory only for medical students; for law students it is optional. The syllabus is as follows:

General section: concepts of psychology and of medico-legal psychopathology; physical lesions; thanatology; necroscopic research; medico-legal haematology; personal identification.

Special section: medical ethics; medico-legal problems of civil law, of penal law, and of insurance law.

Practical work accompanies the theoretical instruction, and is done at the Institute of Forensic Medicine.

Scientific police methods and judicial psychology are not taught in the universities. A course is devoted to them at the Institute of Criminology in Rome; the former subject is taught, moreover, at the School of Scientific Police Methodology in Rome, which will be discussed below.

OTHER SCHOOLS

School of Scientific Police Methodology. The headquarters of this school are in Rome. It is directed by a high police official. Its principal aim is to prepare judicial police officers for their tasks. It also undertakes, for the police and the judicial authorities, all technical investigations which may be required in different cases.

The instruction given in this school deals in the main with scientific police methods. In addition, courses are given in criminal anthropology and forensic medicine.

Teaching methods are theoretical, practical, and clinical. The school is located next to the prisons of Rome; thus the courses can be illustrated for the students by the presentation of the most interesting types of delinquents.

Training schools for social assistance work. These schools are found in the principal towns of Italy. An important part of their programme is given over to criminology teaching. The subjects included are criminal anthropology (called 'criminology' in certain schools) and penology.

The teaching of criminology can take other forms: advanced training courses for penitentiary officers, cycles of studies organized by certain administrations, meetings of scientific associations, etc. These activities, of course, are without any kind of regularity or continuity. However, they demonstrate the interest shown in Italy in criminological studies, as well as the conviction held by the different authorities that the development of criminology is the basis of all progress in crime prevention and the treatment of delinquents.

SWEDEN

Summary of the report presented by

OLOF KINBERG¹

INTRODUCTION

Criminology teaching was first attempted in Sweden in 1911. The professor of penal law at the University of Stockholm, N. Stjernberg, and the author of the present report, who was at that time lecturer in psychiatry and judicial psychiatry at the Stockholm Faculty of Medicine and chief medical officer in one of the city's mental hospitals, agreed to organize periodical courses in psychiatry for law students.

A certain number of dates mark the development of Swedish criminology teaching. At first centralized in Stockholm, it later spread to the main cultural centres of the country. This report will show (in the section on the teaching of criminology outside the institutes) that the simple statement of the historical phases through which this teaching has passed suffices to give a highly significant general view of the situation in Sweden.

INSTITUTES OF CRIMINOLOGY

The Stockholm Institute of Criminology was founded in 1946 on the initiative of O. Kinberg, and in 1947 it was attached to the university of that city. It has been able to cover most of its expenses through private generosity. Thus the Swedish Brewers' Association granted it a generous subsidy to undertake a study on the influence of alcoholism on criminality (a partial and preliminary report on this subject was submitted to the London Congress of Criminology in 1955).

Because of insufficient space at its present premises, the institute has not yet been able to offer criminology teaching in the form of regular

1. Mr. Olof Kinberg is honorary professor at the Faculty of Medicine of Stockholm and Chief of the Institute of Criminology in that city. He has been General Rapporteur at the Second International Congress of Criminology (1950), member of the Board of Directors of the International Society of Criminology (1950), national delegate of the Society in Sweden (1951), member of the Society's Scientific Commission (1951) and Director of the Third International Course of Criminology (Stockholm, 1953). He is the author of works on criminal psychiatry and clinical criminology. His main work is *Basic Problems of Criminology* (London and Copenhagen, 1953).

lectures addressed to a large audience. However, individual instruction has been given to the young assistants who take part in the various studies pursued by the Institute.

In 1953 a University Commission, appointed by the government, proposed the founding of a Chair of criminology at the University of Stockholm. This plan will probably be carried out in the near future, and in that case the State will necessarily shoulder the administrative and scientific expenses of the institute.

THE TEACHING OF CRIMINOLOGY OUTSIDE THE INSTITUTES

At the beginning of this report mention was made of periodical courses in psychiatry for law students.

This was the first form taken by criminology teaching in Sweden. The courses consisted of clinical demonstrations made in his own clinic by the author of this report. The cases presented were chosen preferably from among patients or abnormals with criminal antecedents.

The clinical demonstrations aimed, above all, to reveal the genesis of the maladjusted and criminal behaviour of the patient, to diagnose his condition clinically, to prognosticate, so far as possible, the evolution of his mental state and social comportment, and to discuss the therapeutic aspects of the question. An attempt was then made to discover the psychological mechanisms set in motion by the shock between the biopsychological personality of the individual and the impulses coming from his former and present environment, all of which had resulted in his anti-social or criminal behaviour.

These courses in mental and criminal clinical work were attended by a very large number of students of penal law.

In 1921 the post of extraordinary professor of judicial psychiatry was created at the Stockholm Faculty of Medicine; it was reserved for the chief medical officer of the Central Prison of Longholmen in Stockholm. The first holder of the post was O. Kinberg. According to the regulations, this teaching was in principle intended for doctors and medical students. However, jurists, police and penitentiary officers, social assistants, etc. also profited by it.

Shortly after this State teaching was inaugurated, courses in judicial psychiatry, introduced through private initiative in 1911, were also given in the psychiatric section of the Central Prison, the inmates of which served as subjects for the clinical demonstrations.

The decision of the *Riksdag* (Parliament) to institute a teaching post in judicial psychiatry was the first sign of the State's interest in the teaching of criminology. It is perhaps natural that this interest should have appeared only ten years after the private initiative. One distinctive aspect of this teaching in Sweden is the fact that, from the beginning, it

has had a clinical character, chiefly because it developed out of judicial psychiatry.

With the entry into force of a law concerning the mentally ill (1931), the procedure of the medical expert examination of accused persons was modified. It was decided that all accused persons under arrest and given a mental examination should then be placed for observation in *psychiatric wards attached to the prisons*. This same law also made the mental examination compulsory in certain cases. These provisions, and the increasing interest shown by the judicial authorities and the public in the mental state of accused persons, explain the rapid increase in the number of mental examinations ordered by the Courts. Thus the annual average of cases examined, which in 1900 was about 60, increased from 300 in 1930 to 740 in 1940 and to 1,700 in 1944. After reaching this figure it fell to about 100 in 1950; this reduction was mainly the result of a revision of the penal law in 1945.

In 1932, the psychiatric section, provisionally installed in premises unsuited to this purpose, was replaced by a Clinic of Judicial Psychiatry in a special house better adapted to the range of its new tasks. Serving as a reception centre for prisoners whose mental examination had been ordered by the courts of the largest judicial district in the country, this clinic had to undertake a great many examinations (about 150 a year). Thus it always offered a wide choice of immediate cases for clinical and criminological demonstration.

For the past 10 years, J. Agge, professor of penal law at the Stockholm Law Faculty, has taught criminology considered as the basis of crime policy, and has treated questions of general criminology in his course on applied penal law.

In 1935, the Social Institute responsible for the training of social workers, which is dependent on the University of Stockholm, organized a teaching of criminal psychology. It was entrusted to the author of the present report. These courses also had a clinical character. The clinical demonstrations were always founded on criminal cases with well-known histories, from the standpoint both of the personality and of the environment. This clinical character of the teaching was all the more emphasized by the fact that students had to report on criminal cases known to them—after which, their views and conclusions were discussed by them and the professor.

During the same period, it was agreed between the Clinic of Judicial Psychiatry and the Social Institute that a certain number of the latter's students should work as volunteers in the clinic. They would complete the social record of accused persons, question them on their personal antecedents, submit them to psychological tests, and so forth.

They would thus be able to observe and know personally a certain number of criminals. Afterwards they would follow the criminological instruction given at the clinic.

In 1948 the Social Institute expanded its criminological teaching by organizing courses on alcoholism, which were given by O. Kinberg, expert at the Central State Insurance Bureau since 1915. These courses dealt not only with the medical signs of alcoholism, but also, and especially, with its social and criminological importance. Like the other courses described above, they had a clinical character.

In 1952 O. Kinberg resigned his post of professor of criminal psychology and the pathology of alcoholism at the Social Institute and was replaced by his former pupil H. Knöös, chief medical officer of the Clinic of Judicial Psychiatry, which carries out the mental examination of accused persons not under restraint in the Stockholm region.

At first confined to Stockholm, criminology teaching has gradually spread to other cultural centres of the country.

At the University of Uppsala, the professor of philosophy A. Hägerström has also concerned himself with criminological problems for many years. Shortly after 1939, he gave a series of lectures on a book by O. Kinberg, *Aktuella Kriminalitetsproblem*, which appeared in 1930 and was published in English with the title of *Basic Problems of Criminology*.

Since 1949, J. Strahl, professor of penal law at the law faculty of this same university, has stressed in his teaching the importance of criminology in law and the need to provide a criminological basis for the application of juridical and social measures in the struggle against crime.

Towards 1940, the University of Uppsala organized courses in psychiatry, with clinical demonstrations, for law students. These courses were at first given by the psychiatry professor B. Jacobowski, and later by the lecturers Bo Gerle and G. Lundqvist.

In 1949, the Faculty of Medicine organized courses on the clinical study of alcoholics, in which the criminological problems of alcoholism were treated.

Likewise, at Lund, the Faculty of Letters has become interested in criminology teaching. The professor of philosophy, A. Petzell, who also collaborated with Pierre Janet and Étienne de Greeff in studies of clinical criminology, gave in 1940-41 a series of lectures on 'The Problem of Penal Law' from the criminological standpoint. His later teaching has repeatedly dealt with criminological problems.

Since 1931 courses in judicial psychiatry have been given, for law students, at the University of Lund. In 1944, the university organized teaching in this subject for medical students and doctors. All these courses were at first given by T. Sondén, the lecturer in psychiatry and judicial psychiatry. After his death in 1952 this teaching was entrusted to Bo Gerle, author of a monograph on incendiaries.

Since the spring semester of 1955, the Lund Faculty of Medicine has provided a course on the pathology of alcoholism, in which Bo Gerle lectures on the criminological aspects of alcoholism.

In 1947 a Social Institute was founded at Lund in which Bo Gerle taught criminal psychology.

In 1944 a Social Institute was also founded at Göteborg for the training of social assistants. A course in judicial psychiatry was included in the teaching prescribed by the statutes of this institution. This course has been given by I. Lundström, the chief medical officer of the judicial psychiatry clinic in Göteborg.

Dr. C. G. Berglin has also given a course on the criminality of alcoholics, as part of the sociology teaching of medical students, at the University of Göteborg.

Finally, since 1952, the chief of the Central State Insurance Bureau, L. Bolhin, has delivered courses on the criminality of minors.

CONCLUSIONS

This brief report shows that instruction related to criminological problems has existed in a large proportion of Swedish universities for a fairly long time. This teaching has been best attended and best organized at the Judicial Psychiatry Clinic of Stockholm. There, its character has been clearly clinical; it has borne mainly on the aetiology of crime, stemming from a complex of individual and mesological (environmental) factors. It also provides for the medical, social and criminal diagnosis of cases examined and clinically demonstrated, and indicates rational and effective treatment designed to avoid criminal relapse and promote social rehabilitation.

TURKEY

Summary of the report presented by
SULHI DÖNMEZER¹

INTRODUCTION

It was in 1944 that the Institutes of Criminology were founded in Turkey, following upon the considerable growth of criminality during the years of World War II. Until then, various aspects of criminological problems were included in the courses given to students of criminal law and thus the different schools of criminology were covered and comparisons made. The purpose was to give students a general picture of criminology and its related sciences.

After the new legislation governing teaching and examinations entered into force in 1953, a criminological course was introduced in 1954 into the regular programme of the faculty of law. The present report, therefore, will deal first with criminological institutes and subsequently with the teaching of criminology outside these institutes.

INSTITUTES OF CRIMINOLOGY

The Institutes of Criminology of the Universities of Ankara and Istanbul were originally research institutes rather than teaching establishments. Provision was made in the statutes of each institute, however, to enable it to become a teaching institution as soon as research work furnished adequate material to analyse criminality in Turkey. The institute at Istanbul has, in fact, been planning to provide courses in the scholastic year 1956-57, aimed mainly at the instruction of persons dealing in practice with crime and criminality.

During the past few years, the institute at Istanbul has, in addition to its research work, initiated an extensive programme including lectures for those who are interested in different aspects of crime and criminality, such as coroners, public prosecutors, lawyers and social workers, who are invited to attend lectures and to discuss the questions raised. In 1954,

1. Mr. Sulhi Dönmezer is professor of criminal law and Director of the Institute of Criminology of Istanbul University. National delegate of the International Society of Criminology in Turkey (1955) and member of the Society's Board of Directors (1956), he is the author of several works on criminal sociology and penology.

the institute at Istanbul altered its statutes and became the Institute of Criminology and Criminal Law. This has enabled it to co-ordinate work between lawyers, sociologists and natural scientists.

Organization of the Teaching

Institutes of criminology in Turkey are attached to the faculties of law of the universities of Istanbul and Ankara. They are public institutions with budgets which make up part of the general budgets of the universities. According to the statute of 1954, the institute at Istanbul is administered by three organs: (a) a Director; (b) an Executive Council, and (c) a General Assembly. Professors in the University of Istanbul who have an interest in criminology, through the special subject which they teach or through related subsidiary disciplines such as legal medicine or judicial psychology, automatically become members of the institute. Other specialists, however, whose interest in criminological questions is well known, are likely to be chosen as members by the General Assembly upon the proposal of the Executive Council.

To date, the institute has undertaken four major research projects, the results of which have been published under the following titles:

Statistique criminologique relative aux condamnés pour homicide en Turquie (1948).

The Prevention and Treatment of Juvenile Delinquency in Turkey (A Report by the Turkish Working Group) (1950).

Enquête criminologique concernant 974 enfants délinquants (1953).

Enquête criminologique concernant 894 cas de suicide (1954).

The institute at Ankara has published a booklet on 1,000 recidivists in Turkey (*Enquête criminologique concernant 1,000 délinquants récidivistes* (1954).

THE TEACHING OF CRIMINOLOGY OUTSIDE THE INSTITUTES

Subjects Taught

Basic disciplines. The new course on criminology introduced two years ago into the regular curriculum of the faculty of law is considered very useful for the professional training of young lawyers. This course occupies two hours a week over one semester. It consists mainly of *criminal sociology*, but includes some basic notions concerning *criminal biology* and *psychology*. The fundamental aim of the teaching is to make students realize the close relationship between social situations and crime. Crime is shown to be a complex social phenomenon with roots in our social organization and culture. The relationship between a given culture and crime is specially emphasized by providing students with a

number of examples from foreign countries, proceeding to an analysis of the comparative data. The course opens with a general conspectus of the field of criminology. Students are acquainted with different views on the limits of criminology. Following a general outline of criminal sociology, biology and psychology, relations between social situations and crime are analysed. This analysis emphasizes the cultural origins of criminality. To this end, comparisons are made between criminality in different cultural frameworks. For students who have chosen to interest themselves in criminology, special facilities are available. First, they are able to choose also a course in statistics and juridical sociology; secondly, by choosing criminology as their major subject, they acquire the right to profit directly from the library, museum and laboratory of the institute. Those who wish to pursue their studies may participate in the researches being conducted by the institute and in this way earn a small income while continuing their study of law. The faculty considers that this way of handling the teaching of criminology will materially contribute to a better understanding of crime and criminals by future lawyers. Furthermore, it is believed that the teaching of criminology not only helps future lawyers in this manner but also contributes to the formation of future leaders of our society by providing them with a better opportunity to understand the different constituent elements of our community. Criminology is one of the social disciplines which help intellectuals to achieve an awareness of different sides of our culture and society and to build up a general philosophy of life.

Criminology is also taught at the Higher Police Institute of Ankara, which was founded for the training of future police officers. The content of the criminological course given at this establishment is mixed. It is composed of three parts: at the outset, the broad aims and general methods of criminology are explained. The first part consists of a discussion of criminal anthropology. Instruction is given on general criminal anthropology, criticism, the different classifications of criminals, suicide and prostitution among women. The second part is devoted to an explanation of criminal sociology. In this part, the relation between various social factors and crime is analysed. In the third part, the psychology of the criminal is studied. Although this kind of eclectic teaching may not lend itself to the evaluation of any original theory of criminology, it is of the utmost value for introducing students to different trends in criminology. Impartiality of approach has as far as possible to be maintained by teachers so that students may be encouraged to use their own intellectual faculties.

Penology has been taught for years in the faculties of law. For the moment there is no teaching of *clinical criminology* in Turkey.

Subsidiary disciplines. *Legal medicine* has been a compulsory subject for law students in both the Ankara and the Istanbul faculties of law for

many years. On a larger scale it is also taught within the faculty of medicine. The subject has always been considered to be virtually a necessary part of the professional training of students. Every student of law must take a course in legal medicine, which is given for an hour a week over two semesters. Within the faculties of medicine, students not only acquire theoretical knowledge but also conduct practical experiments. The new law governing the general direction of legal medicine enables the faculty of medicine to act as official expert in cases brought before the courts. This provides the faculty with enough analytical material to present to its students before they have the opportunity to get in touch with the practical side of this branch.

Police science and technique is a subject of teaching and research at the Higher Institute of Police in Ankara. *Judicial psychology* is also taught in the faculty of law at Ankara as a compulsory course.

UNITED KINGDOM

Summary of the report presented by
HERMANN MANNHEIM¹

INTRODUCTION

The data on which this report is based were collected by means of a questionnaire, which was sent to all universities, local education authorities and other educational establishments in the United Kingdom that might include some aspect of criminology in their teaching.² Since the information in the first questionnaire did not cover all the points subsequently required for the report, a further supplementary questionnaire was sent.³ The number of teaching establishments, or educational authorities responsible for such establishments, in the United Kingdom that to some extent teach some aspect of criminology is indicated in the table on page 117.

From this table it may be observed that most of the universities teach criminology at least to some extent, whereas a much smaller proportion of other establishments deal with the subject. The institutions listed above as 'miscellaneous' which teach criminology do not, although relatively numerous, as a rule provide regular or comprehensive courses, most of them being included as teaching criminology merely because they have at some time organized a week-end course on the subject. The more comprehensive and regular teaching is given by the universities and by the few government or local authority establishments.

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1. Mr. Hermann Mannheim is Reader in Criminology at the University of London. He has been member of the Board of Directors of the International Society of Criminology (1950), national delegate of the Society in Great Britain (1951), member of the Society's Scientific Commission (1951), co-director of the Fourth International Course of Criminology (London, 1954), and chairman of the programme commission of the Third International Congress of Criminology (London, 1955). He is the author of works on sociological and statistical criminology, on penology and on penal law. His main work is *The Dilemma of Penal Reform* (London, Allen and Unwin, 1939).
 2. The writer is greatly indebted to all those who were kind enough to reply to the questionnaire or to individual requests for information. He also wishes to thank the Council and staff of the Institute for the Study and Treatment of Delinquency (ISTD), London, for their co-operation and in particular Miss Mary Woodward, B.A., Research Fellow of the Institute, for her valuable help in collecting the material and drafting the report.
 3. Where not available in the replies to the questionnaire, data have also been obtained from other sources, e.g. the *Universities Yearbook*.

	Total number written to	Criminology taught		No reply
		Yes	No	
Universities or university colleges	23	21	1	1
University extra-mural departments	23	6	7	10
Government training es- tablishments.	5	5	0	0
Local education author- ities	192	6	133	53
Miscellaneous institutions	64	17	17	30
TOTALS	307	55	158	94

INSTITUTES OF CRIMINOLOGY

THE INSTITUTE FOR THE STUDY AND TREATMENT OF DELINQUENCY

The Institute for the Study and Treatment of Delinquency (ISTD) in London is a voluntary society which was founded in 1931 with the aim, in the first place, of organizing a clinic for the examination and treatment of offenders of all ages. It later extended its work to teaching and to research, which became its chief activities when the clinic, the so-called Portman Clinic, was taken over by the National Health Service in 1948. In 1938 the institute became a centre for University Extension Lectures of the University of London (see page 125) consisting of a four-year Diploma Course in Social Studies (evening course), of which the fourth year is a course in criminology.

In the post-war period, summer schools of a general character of one week's duration have also been held, for students with varied professional backgrounds. The subjects of the two held so far were 'Juvenile Delinquency' and 'The Changing Attitudes of Society Towards Criminal Responsibility'.

The first week-end school was held in 1938 and since the end of the war week-end schools and one-day conferences have been frequently held. These schools and conferences are of two types: one is general and open to people with varied experience and background, covering various aspects of criminology; the other type is for specialists, for example, psychiatrists, magistrates, probation officers, teachers, etc., and is concerned with the aspect of criminology related to the work of the

specialists concerned. The fundamental rather than the subsidiary disciplines are the subject of schools and conferences, as is most of the other educational work of the institute. Seminar groups of 6-12 meetings for probation officers, chiefly taken by psychiatrists and concerned with the psychiatric and psychological aspects of delinquency, began in 1934. Since the end of the war they have been held on the average about once a year.

Other teaching work of the institute is aimed at the general public rather than specialists, and carried out chiefly by public lectures. These, which began as single lectures in the early days of the institute, have recently developed into series of lectures. The series for the autumn of 1955 consists of six lectures on 'Society and the Delinquent', concerned with the sociological and psychological aspects of juvenile delinquency.

The whole of this teaching work is carried out by specialist lecturers, many of whom are members of the institute.

UNIVERSITY TEACHING OF CRIMINOLOGY

The university teaching of criminology has developed on different lines in different countries. Whereas on the European Continent it is mainly treated as an auxiliary discipline to the teaching of law and therefore usually attached to the faculties of law, in the United Kingdom, as in the United States, criminology is usually regarded as a branch of the social sciences.

Although an attempt to teach criminology as a separate subject in all its aspects was made for the first time in 1935 at the London School of Economics and Political Science in the University of London, certain specific sections of it had been included in courses in psychology and psychiatry much earlier. At the University of Liverpool, from 1906 to about 1914, Professor Sir Cyril Burt, then lecturer in psychology, included lectures on the causes and treatment of juvenile delinquency in his course in individual psychology to teachers in training and to medical students. In the post-war period he gave special evening courses on juvenile delinquency to London teachers, and from 1924 onwards, first as professor of education and later as professor of psychology in the University of London, courses similar to those at Liverpool were given by him to teachers in training, with the addition of case demonstrations and case conferences. In the late 1930s he began a course in psychology for students of physiology which included a lecture or two on delinquency. Other occasional courses were given, for example, to school medical officers, and in 1931 a series of lectures which was given to students at the London School of Hygiene included juvenile delinquency.¹

1. These dates are taken from more detailed information kindly supplied by Sir Cyril Burt.

At the Institute of Psychiatry in the University of London, Sir Norwood East lectured on forensic psychiatry from the 1920s.

As far as the later, more comprehensive, teaching is concerned, its growth has largely been dependent on the development of the university teaching of the social sciences, which has expanded only recently. In the Unesco publication¹ on this subject, it is pointed out that up to 1945 sociology was taught as an independent subject only in the University of London and in some of the university colleges in the provinces for which London was the examining body; it was only after this date that sociology became a serious subject for study in several other universities.

In this connexion it should be added that the teaching of 'social science', in the narrower sense in which this term is often used in the United Kingdom with reference to the 'Social Science Departments' existing in certain British universities, has also been of considerable significance for the development of the university teaching of criminology. As mentioned in another recent Unesco publication,² the most important of these Social Science Departments, which are mainly concerned with the training of social workers—to a level somewhat below that of a degree and with particular emphasis on practical social work—are at the Universities of London, Liverpool and Edinburgh. In the period between the two world wars, some of these departments, in particular that at the London School of Economics, which is by far the largest of them, began to take an interest in the criminological training of their students, especially of those intending to become probation officers.³

At present, Readerships in Criminology exist only in the Universities of London (tenable at the London School of Economics and Political Science) and Oxford. Cambridge has a Department of Criminal Science in the Faculty of Laws, with a Director as its head. No university in the United Kingdom has as yet established a Chair in this subject, and the teaching of criminology usually forms part of the syllabus for the study of other subjects. These other studies in which courses are provided on criminology or some aspects of it are chiefly degree or diploma (or certificate) courses in sociology, psychology, social science, etc.; occasionally the syllabus for courses in law or psychological medicine may also include a short course on criminology, or at least two or three lectures on some aspects of it are given.

The English universities at which criminology or certain aspects of it are taught in the departments of sociology or economics are: Birmingham,

1. *The Teaching of the Social Sciences in the United Kingdom*, Unesco, 1955, p. 76.

2. *The University Teaching of Social Sciences: Sociology, Social Psychology and Anthropology*, Unesco, 1954, p. 214.

3. On the whole subject of the training of social workers see Eileen L. Younghusband, *Social Work in Britain*, Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, Comely Park House, Dunfermline, Fife, Scotland, 1951, pp. 68 *et seq.* and Appendix I.

Bristol, Durham (King's College, Newcastle), Leeds, London (London School of Economics and Bedford College), Sheffield and Southampton, it is also taught in the Sociology Department of the University of Exeter. The department responsible for the teaching in the University of Nottingham is that of philosophy, which carries out the social science teaching. The University of Wales provides courses on aspects of criminology at two of its constituent colleges (Cardiff and Swansea). Of the four Scottish universities, Edinburgh provides such a course in the Department of Social Study and Aberdeen in the Department of Scots Law. At King's College, Newcastle (University of Durham), the Department of Psychological Medicine provides a course, and the courses at the Institute of Psychiatry, London, include the fundamental disciplines.

The universities at which an aspect of criminology occurs in the syllabus of the faculty of law as an odd lecture or two are: Bristol, Manchester, Oxford and Wales (at Cardiff). Those at which it is referred to in the department of psychology are: the University of Liverpool, Birkbeck College in the University of London, the Universities of Aberdeen and Glasgow, and Queen's University, Belfast.

Some reference to the subject is also made in courses in social science and citizenship at the University of Glasgow, in the courses in sociology, social psychology, and social administration at University College, Leicester, and in the social studies course at the University College of North Staffordshire.

When the subject is taught in the department of social science, sociology, or economics, the course involved for a first degree is usually in sociology, social administration, or economics with sociology as the special subject, or for a diploma or certificate in social studies. Where the faculty of law teaches criminology, it may be in both undergraduate and post-graduate courses. Criminological subjects may also be studied for higher degrees in various departments of sociology and psychology, and (at Cambridge) in the department of criminal science.

The teaching is usually carried out by the staff of the department concerned. At some universities series of lectures are periodically given by visiting criminologists, for example, at the Universities of Aberdeen and Edinburgh. Occasionally probation officers and principals of approved schools give case discussions.

Methods of teaching vary. When criminology plays only a small part in a course, the teaching is usually in the form of lectures; when the subject is dealt with more fully, other methods, such as classes, seminars, clinical demonstrations, and visits to institutions, juvenile courts, etc., are usually introduced.

Since most of the teaching of criminology is at the undergraduate level, few students have any professional background—though postgraduates taking the postgraduate Diploma in Social Studies may have some. At Cambridge the postgraduate students belong to the legal profession

or have a background of social administration, particularly local government; at the London School of Economics they are mostly lawyers, sociologists or psychologists, and at the Institute of Psychiatry in London they are psychiatrists.

Practically none of the courses are specifically arranged with a definite professional aim in view, though some students of social science are trainee probation officers and others wish to prepare themselves for work in institutions for delinquents.

The detailed content of the courses is given for each university later, and only a short summary is presented here. As regards the courses on some aspect of criminology, the discipline receiving the most attention is penology. This appears in nearly every course, irrespective of whether the teaching is carried out by the departments of social science, law, criminal science, or philosophy. In some cases (for example at Birmingham and at Bedford College, London), it is the only aspect taught. At other universities, one or more of the other fundamental disciplines are also included. Biological criminology is rarely taught. Sociological and psychological criminology are more commonly included, the psychiatric aspect and the psycho-analytical approach less frequently.

When the teaching of criminology is limited to only two or three lectures, the aspect touched on, naturally, is that discipline which the department concerned is teaching. For example, the departments of psychology which refer incidentally to criminology teach the psychological, psychiatric, and psycho-analytic aspects, some also referring to other aspects, such as at Belfast to sociology and biology, and at Aberdeen to sociology and penology. The aspect touched on incidentally in courses in law, apart from criminal law, is chiefly penology.

On the whole, therefore, as far as generalizations may be made, students of law and social science who receive some teaching in criminology mainly have a knowledge of penology, some of the latter in addition having a knowledge of sociological and psychological criminology, and students of psychology are taught the psychological aspects in so far as it enters into a consideration of child behaviour or psychopathology.

Not all departments providing courses supply a reading list of recommended books, and it is not easy to determine whether there is uniformity in the teaching of the various universities. From the book lists supplied, certain trends are evident. As regards the fundamental disciplines, the books occurring most frequently in these lists are the various publications of Grünhut, Mannheim, and Radzinowicz (as the editor of the publications of the Cambridge Department of Criminal Science). On the more psychological aspects, the books most frequently recommended are by earlier writers on the subject, Burt and Norwood East, together with Stott among the contemporary ones. Students are also referred to various

government publications, such as criminal statistics, reports of Royal Commissions, reports of the Prison Commissioners, etc. Thus the general conclusion may be drawn that the teaching tends to be based on books published in the United Kingdom, referring to the British penal system and investigations of delinquents and criminals in Britain.

In the book lists recommended by those departments providing a larger and more comprehensive course, general textbooks from other countries also appear, though these are American rather than Continental: Barnes and Tecters, Elliott, the Gluecks, Hockless, Sellin, Shaw and Mackay, Sutherland and Taft; Continental criminology is represented only by Hurwitz and von Hantig. These departments also recommend books on more specific aspects dealt with by British writers, for example, Elkin, Friedlander, Margery Fry, Glover, Clarke Hall, Kenny, Page; also Continental (Aichhorn) and American writers (the Gluecks, Sheldon, Thrasher).

UNIVERSITY OF ABERDEEN

Criminology is taught in the Department of Psychology to about 40 students at one time and in the Department of Scots Law to about 30 students by the professors and lecturers in those departments. In the Department of Psychology, psychological criminology is studied, together with psychiatric and psycho-analytic aspects; sociological criminology, penology and judicial psychology are also touched on. In the Department of Scots Law, penology and criminal law are taught; these courses are supplemented at times by courses of lectures by visiting criminologists. An application has been made for a course of lectures from a visiting American professor under the Fulbright Scheme.

UNIVERSITY OF BIRMINGHAM

A course of 8-10 lectures on the incidence and treatment of juvenile delinquency is provided by the Department of Social Science during the three-year course for a first degree in social studies and the two-year course for the Certificate in Social Studies.

UNIVERSITY OF BRISTOL

The subject is touched on in the course of four lectures in social administration offered by the Department of Economics, in connexion with the course for the Certificate in Social Studies. Criminology is also mentioned in the courses in the Faculty of Law.

UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE

The Department of Criminal Science in the Faculty of Law has a full-time teaching and research staff consisting of a director of the department, an assistant director, two research officers and consultants. In the course which has been provided since 1948 the whole field of penology, with relevant legal topics, is covered.

The students taught are reading in the Faculty of Law for the degree of LL.B., the Diploma of Comparative Law, and the degrees of M.Litt. and Ph.D. The research carried out by students in this department must be on a criminological subject, usually connected with some of the wider aspects of the administration of criminal law or with the treatment of offenders.

The research activities of this department are described in the section on research (see page 135).

UNIVERSITY OF DURHAM

At King's College, Newcastle, one of the two constituent colleges of this university, 'Crime, Delinquency and Child Protection', which is taught by the Department of Social Science, is an optional subject for the final degree examination in social studies, and it is one of the six subjects, from which two must be chosen, for the second examination for the Certificate in Social Studies. This subject, covered by a course of weekly lectures of one hour throughout the academic year, covers the sociological aspect and penology. In addition, the subject 'Advisory Social Services', which most of the degree and certificate students choose as one of their options in the second year, includes some discussion classes on child guidance and juvenile delinquency, and criminology is touched on in the course in modern legal problems and to some extent in the lectures in psychology to social studies students. The last-named series of lectures is given by a member of the staff of the Department of Psychology, the rest being taught by the staff of the School of Social Studies.

During the postgraduate diploma course in psychological medicine, 8-10 lectures on the sociological aspects of juvenile delinquency are given by the Principal of a local classifying school and others by the head of the Department of Psychological Medicine.

UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH

In three of its courses the Department of Social Science makes some reference to criminology. The course in psychiatric social work includes a series of 10 lectures on the Criminal Justice Act, criminal responsibility, psychotherapy for offenders and certain aspects of penology. In the

course in social economics, which is compulsory for certificate and diploma students in social study, four lectures are given on juvenile delinquency and the Criminal Justice Act; and in the course in social theory, which is also compulsory for social study students, two lectures are provided on social deviation and theories of causation.

In the Faculty of Law, frequent references to penology are made by the professor of public law in his lectures on jurisprudence, and there is now provision for a lectureship in penology, which has for the current year been filled by the temporary appointment of an American Fulbright Professor, who will lecture to students of social science and law.

UNIVERSITY OF EXETER

In the Sub-department of Sociology, a course in criminology has been available since October 1954 for the 4-6 students per year reading for the B.A. Honours (or B.Sc.) degree in sociology of the University of London. Two hours a week throughout the academic year are given to lectures and classes, there being in addition occasional visits to institutions; half the course is concerned with penology, half with the psychological and sociological causes of crime, with brief discussion of biological aspects.

UNIVERSITY OF GLASGOW

In courses in psychology, citizenship and social studies some reference is made to aspects of criminology in lectures to undergraduates; there is also the beginning of an interest in postgraduate research.

UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

Beginning with the session 1955-56 the Department of Social Studies has provided an introductory course on crime and punishment from the sociological point of view, including biological and psychological aspects, and extending to adult and juvenile crime. This will be an optional subject for the special studies degree in social studies, with two teaching hours a week throughout the academic year: out of 17 students 10 have opted to take this course in the session 1955-56.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LEICESTER

Some reference to psychological and sociological criminology is made in the courses in social psychology and general sociology provided by the

Department of Sociology for students who are reading for the B.Sc. (Econ.) of the University of London, with sociology as a special subject. The treatment of delinquency is included in the course in social administration taken by diploma students of social studies.

UNIVERSITY OF LIVERPOOL

In the courses in child psychology and abnormal psychology provided by the Department of Psychology, two or three lectures are given on the psychological, psychiatric and psycho-analytic aspects of juvenile delinquency. These lectures are for Honours degree students in psychology, those taking the Certificate in Social Science and those taking the Diploma in Social Administration.

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON

At the London School of Economics systematic teaching of the subject began in 1935, at first on a small scale and limited mainly to students of social science, but gradually expanding and catering for a growing number of undergraduate and postgraduate students from different disciplines and also from other Colleges of the University of London, in particular Bedford College and University College. In the last pre-war years and during the war it consisted of two courses of lectures, one on criminology and another on penology, covering the whole of these subjects, and a weekly seminar conducted for two parallel groups of students. After the war, the number of lectures was somewhat reduced in favour of more classes and seminars; the teaching now includes one introductory course (attended by about 100-150 students) on criminology and penology,¹ consisting of a lecture per week followed by an hour's discussion, of one terminal course of lectures on 'Selected Problems of Criminology and Penology' (about 60-70 students), several weekly classes (about 20 students each), and two fortnightly seminars (20-25 students each), one of them mainly for undergraduates, held in two parallel groups, and another exclusively for postgraduates. Some years after the war, criminology became one of the optional subjects for students taking the degrees of B.A. or B.Sc. in sociology and also for those taking the B.Sc. in economics. In addition, these courses are attended by social science students who are training as probation officers,

1. The syllabus consists of: conception of crime; functions and methods of criminology; criminal types and causal factors in crime (physical, psychological, social and economic); special problems (juvenile and female delinquency); penal philosophy and psychology; meaning and objects of punishment; penal history; the modern English penal system and the criminal courts; problems of crime prevention.

or who for some other reasons take a specialized interest in the subject, while for other social science students a shorter, more elementary, course is given by a member of the Department of Social Science. For students reading for the Certificate in Mental Health, in order that they may qualify for psychiatric social work, 14 lectures are given on 'The Study and Treatment of Crime', with particular attention to methodological problems and forensic aspects of psychiatry. There are about 15-20 students, most of them postgraduates or social workers already possessing the Certificate in Social Science. Emphasis in post-war years has been placed on the teaching and supervision of postgraduate students, of whom there are about 10-12 each session recruited mostly from successful students of the school or from other British and foreign universities and reading either for the Ph.D., or the M.A. or M.Sc. (Economics) degree. The degree of Ph.D. can be taken in London, depending on the first degree of the student concerned, either in the Faculty of Law, with a criminological thesis of interest to lawyers, or in the Faculties of Economics or Arts, with a criminological thesis taken from the sociological or psychological fields of criminology. Several outstanding doctoral theses of this kind have been published in recent years and others are in process of publication. The teaching is conducted by the University Reader in Criminology who is assisted by one or two lecturers or assistant lecturers and who is responsible for teaching arrangements in consultation with the professors of sociology and social administration and the Dean of the Department of Law.

Penology is also taught at Bedford College in the Department of Sociology, Social Studies and Economics, to Honours degree students in sociology (about 28), to students taking the certificate in social studies and to postgraduates (about 5 a year) taking the postgraduate diploma in social studies. The teaching time given to this subject is two hours a week for one term.

Separate arrangements have been made by the University of London for the criminological training of lawyers not reading for the degree of Ph.D. While there is no instruction in the subject for undergraduate students of law, in 1948 criminology became an optional subject in the syllabus for graduates taking the degree of Master of Laws (LL.M.). The teaching for this degree is arranged on an inter-collegiate basis by the University Institute of Advanced Legal Studies, a course of one and a quarter hours per week, given in the first two terms by the University Reader in Criminology and in the third term by a member of the Department of Law of King's College. Criminology can also be taken as an optional subject in the one-year course leading to the postgraduate diploma in law.

Some reference to adult and juvenile delinquency is made in degree courses in psychology and ancillary sociology provided by the Department of Psychology at Birkbeck College.

The Polytechnic School of Commerce, London, which, though not a school of the university, enters students for University of London degree examinations, provides a course of 30 1½-hour lectures in criminology for the 5-10 students who at any one time are entering for the B.Sc. Sociology examination of the University of London, covering penology and biological, psychological and sociological criminology.

UNIVERSITY OF MANCHESTER

In the Faculty of Law, students reading for the degree of LL.B. are given a brief account of theories of the purpose of punishment in the courses in criminal law and jurisprudence; in the course in legal history some account is given of the nineteenth century reforms in criminal law and procedure.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, NORTH STAFFORDSHIRE

For the combined degree and diploma course in social studies, occasional lectures on delinquency are given by probation officers.

UNIVERSITY OF NOTTINGHAM

The Department of Philosophy is responsible for the teaching of sociology and psychology. Beginning with the session 1955-56, criminology will be an optional subject in Part I of the Honours degree in social administration. The course, lasting one academic year, one hour a week, will cover penology and sociological, psychological, psychiatric and psycho-analytic aspects of adult and juvenile crime.

UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD

There is a full-time Reader in Criminology, with facilities for a full-time research assistant and part-time field workers. The Board of Social Studies provides a course for undergraduates and other students registered for the delegacy for social training, extending over one term as regards individual tutorials and over one academic year as regards optional lectures. The tutorials have existed since 1941, the lectures from 1947; there are about 20 students in an academic year. Penology is fully covered; the main approach in other respects is sociological, though references to psychology are made. This course is a special optional subject for the certificate in social training and for the diploma in

public and social administration. An additional course of four lectures is optional for first-year students reading for law moderations.

QUEEN'S UNIVERSITY, BELFAST

The subject of juvenile delinquency is touched on in the course on problems of sub-normality, arranged by the Department of Psychology for students of psychology, intending social workers and intending teachers, and to a lesser extent in the course work in social psychology. The approach is chiefly psycho-biological and sociological.

UNIVERSITY OF SHEFFIELD

At the School of Social Studies and in connexion with courses for the certificate and diploma in social studies, aspects of penology are dealt with in two or three lectures on the machinery of justice in the course in social administration, and in discussions on penal policy in the lecture course in policy and practice in social legislation and the social services. The psychology of delinquent behaviour may enter incidentally into lectures in psychology given to certificate students, and sociological criminology into the first-year course in social structure.

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

The Department of Social Studies arranges a course of ten lectures on the administration of justice, etc., in the course in social and industrial structure and legislation, and six lectures on the aetiology of delinquency in the course in psychology. These courses are given to students reading for the degree of B.Sc. in economics with sociology as the special subject, or for the certificate or postgraduate diploma in social studies.

UNIVERSITY OF WALES

The Departments of Social Science in two of the constituent colleges of this university provide some lectures and classes in criminology during the course for the diploma in social studies. At Cardiff the aspects dealt with, in addition to background lectures on criminal law, are the psychological and sociological aspects of delinquency and institutional treatment. At Swansea, where there are about 12 first-year and 12 second-year students at a time, the first course of 12 hours in the session is concerned mainly with the aetiology of juvenile delinquency, legal aspects and

treatment; in the second course of 15 teaching hours there is some discussion of delinquency in technically underdeveloped areas. Case discussions with practising probation officers and heads of approved schools are also arranged.

A new course is being arranged as an alternative subject in the special social welfare course for United Nations scholars, of whom there are four in the 1955-56 session (two graduates and two trained teachers) all with experience of social work. This course, of about 25 lectures plus seminars, will be limited to juvenile delinquency and taught by members of the social science staff, together with some assistance from a magistrate's clerk, a probation officer, and the heads of an Approved School and a Borstal Institution.

UNIVERSITY INSTITUTES OF EDUCATION

For the certificate or diploma in education about 1-2 hours are given to juvenile delinquency in the courses in the psychology and sociology of education at the Institutes of Education at the Universities of Bristol, Exeter, London and Wales and at the University College of Leicester. At the University of Birmingham reference is made to juvenile delinquency in lectures on personality development and behaviour problems and the psycho-pathology of childhood for the diploma in the psychology of childhood and educational psychology.

Clinical criminology. The teaching of clinical criminology, so far as it exists at all, largely occurs in the courses for intending psychiatrists reading for the postgraduate diploma in psychological medicine. The course at the Institute of Psychiatry in the University of London, which has been given since 1923, and is taken by about 25 students at any one time, includes forensic psychiatry in relation to both adults and juveniles. There is a special course of 11 lectures yearly, together with daily clinical teaching sessions at remand homes and two a week at out-patient evening sessions. In addition there are two special three-month courses, one attached to remand homes and the other to prisons (Brixton and Wormwood Scrubbs).

At the University of Manchester a course of eight lectures in forensic psychiatry is given by a prison medical officer to students taking Part II of the postgraduate diploma in psychological medicine, of whom there are about six in any one year. The professor of psychiatry may also assign one registrar on the staff of the Manchester Royal Infirmary to a prison in order to gain first-hand experience of criminal psychiatry.

Some reference to juvenile delinquency and forensic psychiatry is made in the teaching of psychiatry to undergraduates by the Department of Psychological Medicine at the University of Durham (King's College,

Newcastle), at the Medical Schools of Guy's Hospital and St. Mary's Hospital, in the University of London; and in the University of Glasgow, where the plans for development include a lectureship in forensic psychiatry.

Little information is available on the books recommended in the teaching of clinical criminology. Those recommended at Manchester are *Forensic Psychiatry* (Davidson), *Sexual Perversions* (Clifford Allen), *Mental Deficiency* (Tredgold), and *Psychopathic Delinquents and Criminals* (G. N. Thompson); at King's College, Newcastle, the authors most frequently mentioned are Burt, Norwood East, Glueck and Henderson.

Subsidiary disciplines. Chairs in *forensic medicine* exist at the Universities of Birmingham, Edinburgh, Leeds and Glasgow, and Readerships at Guy's Hospital Medical School and at the London Hospital in the University of London and at the University of Sheffield (part-time). There is a Senior Lectureship at the University of Wales at the Welsh National School of Medicine, and there are Lectureships at the Universities of Aberdeen, Bristol, Liverpool, London (at the Medical Schools of Charing Cross Hospital, St. George's Hospital, King's College Hospital and University College Hospital), Manchester and St. Andrews.

The teaching of forensic medicine and toxicology has a longer history than the teaching of the fundamental disciplines of criminology. At Guy's Hospital Medical School, London, for example, it has been taught since 1840. This course, given to two groups of about 75 undergraduates, occupies about four teaching hours a week throughout the academic year. The course at the University of Birmingham, which extends to 45-50 lectures in the session, is given to medical and law students, of whom there are about 100 in any one year. At the University of Glasgow a 10-week course in forensic medicine is provided for undergraduate law students and a 10-week course in medical jurisprudence for undergraduate medical students. At the University of St. Andrews a course of 40 lectures and some tutorials is provided for undergraduate medical and law students. At the Welsh National School of Medicine in the University of Wales a course of 30 lectures is provided for undergraduate medical students. At the University of Edinburgh and at the University of Sheffield, where about 60 students are involved, the subject is taught to all medical students, and is optional for students in the Faculty of Law. At the University of Aberdeen, forensic medicine is taught in the Faculties of Law and Medicine. The course at the London Hospital Medical College consists of nine lectures and two visits to coroner's courts. At the University of Oxford a course of eight lectures for medical students is given by a visiting lecturer who is a medically qualified barrister-at-law. At Charing Cross Hospital Medical School, London, a course of ten lectures is given by a lecturer who is a barrister-at-law.

The textbooks used in the teaching of forensic medicine appear to be those of Keith Simpson, Sidney Smith, and Smith and Fiddes, with Glaister for medical jurisprudence.

Police science and technique enter very little into the university teaching of criminology, mainly because of the lack of technical equipment and suitably qualified staff. The view is held in this country that this aspect of criminological teaching is better left to the police colleges (see below). The history and the development of the police forces in the United Kingdom are, however, taught in the Department of Criminal Science at the University of Cambridge, together with the study of police powers, procedure and statistics. Police science and technique are included in the courses in forensic medicine at the Universities of Birmingham, Leeds, London (Guy's Hospital Medical School), and St. Andrews, and are mentioned incidentally at the University of Glasgow.

Judicial psychology also plays a very small part in the university teaching of criminology in the United Kingdom. It enters a little into the courses given at the Institute of Psychiatry, Guy's Hospital (Department of Forensic Medicine) and the London School of Economics in the University of London, at the University of Aberdeen (Department of Psychology), and at the University of St. Andrews in the course on forensic medicine.

Recent trends and suggestions for reform in university teaching. Since the teaching of the fundamental disciplines is a recent development in most of the universities in the United Kingdom, it is perhaps too early to expect any new trends, and our inquiry has therefore produced very little material in this respect. Proposed reforms that have been met in the course of this inquiry refer to the teaching of forensic medicine, rather than to criminology proper. For example, the postgraduate teaching of forensic medicine, in the form of refresher courses for casualty officers and also for visitors from foreign schools, on current teaching methods and practice.

A problem to be faced by those responsible for university policy on the non-medical teaching of criminology is in which department it should best be provided. Experience has shown that it is equally desirable to preserve the link with the law faculties and with the departments of sociology and social science, and to some extent also with the department of psychology. The teaching of criminology can achieve its objects only if it has the backing and can use the resources of all these disciplines alike, and if it is in a position to offer instruction recognized as being of theoretical interest and practical value to students with such varied backgrounds. In the circumstances, a separate department or university institute of criminology with a small staff of teachers representing these different disciplines might seem to be the ideal solution, provided it can rely on those other departments for the supply of students and part-time teachers.

UNIVERSITY EXTRA-MURAL TEACHING OF CRIMINOLOGY

The interest of the departments of extra-mural studies of the British universities in criminology has grown recently, and at present a number of them organize courses on the subject, mostly non-vocational, though some are run especially for police officers. It is usual to meet weekly in the evenings for a lecture followed by discussion. Most lectures are given by the department's own staff, which is frequently drawn from the staff of the university; occasionally specialist lecturers are engaged. The content of the courses varies, but most cover penology and sociological and psychological criminology.

The University of Durham Extra-Mural Department provides a three-year course for police officers (approximately 65), dealing with sociological and psychiatric aspects, criminal law and witness psychology. A second course of 24 lectures attended by about 80 police officers is concerned with police law. A third course on the social services is attended by the general public, but chiefly by members of the local National Assistance Board.

Since October 1953 the University of Leeds Extra-Mural Department has been giving a three-year course leading to the University Extension Certificate in Criminology, dealing with criminal law in the first year, sociology and penology in the second year, and psychology in the third year.

In October 1954 the Extra-Mural Department of the University of Liverpool began a two-year course which has been attended by 50 people of various backgrounds. The first year's course was on psychological and sociological criminology, the second on penology and criminal law. The University of London Extra-Mural Department ran courses before the war, and after the war the demand increased. The course of one year (two terms) is the fourth year of the non-vocational Diploma course in Social Studies, attended by 30 to 50 students, some of whom are social workers. The course covers penology and psychological and sociological criminology.

In 1954 the University of Manchester Extra-Mural Department began two concurrent three-year courses for the police officers of Lancashire and Cheshire, dealing with sociological and psychological criminology, penology and forensic medicine. Other courses organized by this department are entitled 'The Psychology of Crime' and 'Recent Advances in Criminal Research'.

The Extra-Mural Department of the University College of Cardiff has a course of 20 lectures dealing with penology and biological, sociological and psychological criminology.

At the Department of Adult Education of University College, Leicester (Vaughan College), occasional classes on most aspects of criminology except police science are given.

TEACHING OF CRIMINOLOGY
IN CENTRAL GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS

Various departments of the Home Office (and the Scottish Home Department) are concerned with the training of probation officers, police, prison and Borstal Institute officers and staffs of Approved Schools. Unlike many other courses, those run by government departments have a specific professional aim and are designed for specific groups of people. Students admitted to the course for probation officers provided by the Probation Advisory and Training Board of the Home Office have usually obtained a Certificate in Social Science at one of the universities; some are graduates and some have no academic qualifications. The courses in their present form have been given since 1946. Lasting for three months, they cover all the fundamental disciplines including criminal law, criminology and penology, and psychiatry, and are concerned with adult crime as well as juvenile delinquency. Most of the lectures and seminars are given by university lecturers.

The Police College at Ryton-on-Dunsmore was established in 1948 to provide courses for police officers of middle and higher ranks: 11 of 611 teaching hours of the six-month junior course and 8 of 289 teaching hours of the three-month senior course are given to certain aspects of treatment or penology. At this college, as at the Scottish Police College, the emphasis is on organization and training in police duties.

Four courses of varying length for prison and Borstal Institute officers, to enable them to qualify for positions as Assistant Governors, are arranged by the Prison Commission at the Imperial Training School at Wakefield. Penology is dealt with by a psychologist and psychology by a medical officer in the Prison Service.

Since April 1951 the Children's Department of the Home Office has organized four types of refresher courses each year in various parts of the country for the staffs of Approved Schools, Remand Homes and Approved Probation Homes and Hostels. Those for the teaching staff are based on the background and treatment of juvenile delinquents. These residential courses, which last from 10 to 20 days, include a little psychology, psychiatry, sociology and penology in relation to juvenile delinquency. Two inspectors from the Children's Department of the Home Office are present as resident tutors; the part-time lecturers are university staff or other specialists.

TEACHING OF CRIMINOLOGY
BY LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES

Criminology plays no large part in the adult education programmes of the local authorities. Recently, however, two or three authorities have

organized courses on criminology. From November 1954 to June 1955, under the auspices of the City of Portsmouth Education Department, a course of some 27 lectures (of two hours each, with discussion) was arranged in the Commerce Department of the College of Technology. This course, which was attended by 49 students who were police officers, lay magistrates, social workers, etc., covered police services and systems, the causes of crime (sociological and psychological) and punishment and other treatment of offenders. The lectures were given by visiting specialists. It is proposed to hold the course every two or three years.

In the County Borough of Sunderland annual refresher courses of two weeks' duration for the staffs of Approved Schools have been held at Sunderland Training College since 1951, usually attended by 30 students. The lectures, given by visiting specialists, include, in addition to problems specific to Approved Schools, such as teaching and leisure activities, a lecture on the psychology of juvenile delinquency. This authority also held a special evening course on criminology at Sunderland Technical College from February to May 1954, attended by magistrates, social workers, police officers, probation officers, teachers, youth leaders, etc. The lectures, given by visiting specialists, included some penology. This course may take place every two or three years.

Since 1946, 28 short courses on police technique for police officers have been arranged at the College of Technology by the City of Liverpool Education Authority. These consist of three lecture demonstrations on physical methods and three on microscopic methods.

At the Teachers' Training College of the Borough of Swansea Education Committee, students training to teach in the secondary modern schools (pupils' age-range 11 years and above) are given six three-quarter-hour lectures on juvenile delinquency, including psychological and sociological aetiology, probation and institutional treatment.

Aspects of criminology may also enter into short courses given at residential colleges run by local authorities. For example at Urchfont Manor (Wiltshire) two-day courses for magistrates have been held since 1949. Since 1952-53, when they have been held under the Lord Chancellor's Training Scheme, there have been two or three a year. One day is spent on criminology, usually penology.

At Knuston Hall (Northamptonshire) short courses for magistrates are given, and aspects of juvenile delinquency enter to a limited extent into other courses attended by social workers, teachers, etc.

TEACHING OF CRIMINOLOGY BY OTHER SOCIETIES AND INSTITUTIONS

The Magistrates' Association organizes a correspondence course for magistrates; the course has 27 sections which are concerned mainly with a

magistrate's duties and court procedure. It also organizes a number of meetings all over the country, sometimes in conjunction with schemes of training for magistrates which are arranged by local magistrates' courts committees under the Justices of the Peace Act, 1949, Section 16. The association has prepared a book of six model lectures which covers the subjects set out in the Model Training Scheme drawn up by the Lord Chancellor's department.

The Howard League for Penal Reform, since its formation in 1921 by the amalgamation of the Penal Reform League and the Howard Association, has organized meetings and one-day conferences on specific aspects of penal reform. Beginning in 1937 summer schools have been held every two or three years, apart from the war years, on a penologic topic.

There is some treatment of criminology in courses in sociology and psychology run by various branches of the Workers' Educational Association, and single week-end courses on some aspect of criminology are held at some residential educational establishments, for example at Attingham Park in Shropshire, Ashridge in Hertfordshire and Woodbroke near Birmingham.

RESEARCH

The three main university centres of research are the Department of Criminal Science in the University of Cambridge, the London School of Economics in the University of London, and the Board of the Faculty of Social Studies, University of Oxford. Some of the more important research of the last 15 years has been carried out by these three institutions in association with the Home Office, which, under the Criminal Justice Act of 1948, Section 77, is authorized to spend money on research into the causes of delinquency and the treatment of offenders. Members of the staff of the London School of Economics have been associated with the Home Office in studies of juvenile offenders,¹ prediction for Borstal Institute training² and methods of disposal in the London Juvenile Courts.³ Studies have been made by the University of Oxford with the support of the Home Office on the treatment practice of the English Juvenile Courts⁴ and of Detention Centres.⁵ The publications of the Cambridge Department of Criminal Science have included studies of

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1. A. M. Carr-Saunders, H. Mannheim and E. C. Rhodes, *Young Offenders*, Cambridge University Press, 1942.
 2. H. Mannheim and L. T. Wilkins, *Prediction Methods in Relation to Borstal Training*, HMSO, 1955.
 3. Not yet published; see 'Current Research' in *British Journal of Delinquency*, Vol. 4, 1953-54, p. 199.
 4. *The Magistrate*, June-July 1952 (Progress Report).
 5. M. Grünhut, 'Juvenile Delinquents under Punitive Detention', *British Journal of Delinquency*, 1955, Vol. V, p. 191-209.

detention in Remand Homes¹ and other penological topics,^{2,3} in addition to the *Journal of Criminal Science* (Vol. I, 1948; Vol. II, 1950). Other criminological research is carried out at these three universities by the staff and research students of the departments concerned. The following publications should be mentioned: *Oppression: A Study in Social and Criminal Psychology* by T. Grygier (London, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1954), *The Habitual Criminal* by Norval Morris (London, Longmans, Green and Co., 1951) and *Crime and the Services* by J. C. Spencer (London, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1954) at the London School of Economics; and *500 Borstal Boys* by A. G. Rose (Oxford, Blackwell, 1954) at Oxford.

The Institute for the Study and Treatment of Delinquency has at present two Research Fellows on its staff, who work under the direction of a scientific committee. Research over the last few years has been concerned with the leisure-time pursuits of juvenile delinquents, probation hostels, low intelligence and delinquency, prevention measures in Europe (United Nations report on *The Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency in Selected European Countries*, 1955), juvenile delinquents in a psychiatric clinic, cruelty to children, etc. Research by members of the staff of the Portman Clinic, which was originally established by the institute, is being conducted on problems of psycho-therapy, play-therapy, etc., with offenders.

A large-scale research being carried out at Bristol, under the direction of Dr. John Spencer, is the Bristol Social Project, which is financed by the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust; it includes a community and ecological study of delinquency.

In Scotland several criminological studies have been made at the University of Glasgow: for example, a survey of delinquents among school-leavers⁴ and a study of methods concerned with juvenile delinquency.⁵ These were financed respectively by the Nuffield Foundation and the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, the latter having also financed a psychological study of Approved School inmates.⁶

The Burden Neurological Institute, Bristol, carries out electro-encephalographic research on delinquents,⁷ which aspect has also been the subject of study at the medical school of King's College, Newcastle.

1. L. Radzinowicz and J. W. C. Turner, (ed.) *Detention in Remand Homes*, London Macmillan, 1952. (*English Studies in Criminal Science*, Vol. VII.)
2. L. Radzinowicz and J. W. C. Turner, *The Modern Approach to Criminal Law*, London, Macmillan, 1945. (*English Studies in Criminal Science*, Vol. IV.)
3. F. A. Barker, *The Modern Prison System in India*, London, Macmillan, 1944. (*English Studies in Criminal Science*, Vol. III.)
4. T. Ferguson, *The Young Delinquent in his Social Setting*, Oxford University Press, 1952.
5. J. Mack, *Sociological Review*.
6. D. H. Stott, *Delinquency and Human Nature*, Dunfermline, 1950.
7. R. Sessions Hodge, V. J. Walter and W. Grey Walter, 'Juvenile Delinquency: An electro-physiological, psychological and social study', *British Journal of Delinquency*, Vol. III, p. 3.

A number of researches on various aspects of criminology have been carried out at the London University Institute of Psychiatry (by members of the staff and research students), at the Tavistock Institute for Human Relations in London and at the Liverpool University Settlement.¹ The Army Operational Research Group conducts studies of army delinquents.

The Department of Psychology of the University of Aberdeen is carrying out research on causes, and other universities at which criminological research is conducted by research students, in addition to those already mentioned, include Birkbeck College and University College (departments of psychology) in the University of London and the University of Manchester. At Queen's University, Belfast, studies by advanced students in the Department of Psychology are being made of the distribution of juvenile delinquency in Belfast and of the abilities of delinquents.

Two journals devoted exclusively to the publication of the results of criminological research and discussion of problems are the *British Journal of Delinquency*, the organ of the Institute for the Study and Treatment of Delinquency and, on a more popular level, the *Howard Journal*, published by the Howard League for Penal Reform. Annual reports on current research are published in the section 'Research and Methodology' of the *British Journal of Delinquency* and in the *Register of Research in the Social Sciences*, published by the National Institute of Economics and Social Research, London.

To judge from the reading lists issued to students, there is a close relation between teaching and research—the results of research soon being incorporated into the lists. Moreover, the larger teaching establishments are themselves centres of research.

1. J. B. Mays, *Growing up in the City*, The University Press of Liverpool, 1954.

Summary of the report presented by

THORSTEN SELLIN¹

(with the collaboration of MARVIN E. WOLFGANG)

INTRODUCTION

The vast number of institutions of higher learning in the United States and their heterogeneity make difficult any comprehensive review of the teaching of criminology in all its ramifications. The following survey is not complete in the sense that it includes all such institutions. However, it does aim at providing a general statement of the status of the teaching of criminology, illustrating this status by reference to many specific institutions and institutes. The survey is divided into three sections: special law enforcement and correction institutes; general courses in criminology in American universities and colleges; and police and correctional training in American universities and colleges. The material used includes articles in professional journals reviewing the teaching of sociology in this country, examination of graduate and undergraduate catalogues of approximately 25 leading universities, the *Directory of University and College Criminology Programs* prepared for the Society for the Advancement of Criminology,² letters of inquiry to those institutions for which information was not otherwise available, and announcements of special institutes noted in the *Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science*.

SPECIAL INSTITUTES

In various parts of the country there are institutes in law enforcement or correction; most of them are connected with universities. Intensive specialized training is provided, ranging in length from one to twelve

1. Mr. Thorsten Sellin is Professor of Sociology at the University of Philadelphia. He has been Secretary-General of the International Penal and Penitentiary Commission (1949), General Rapporteur at the Second International Congress of Criminology (Paris, 1950), member of the Board of Directors (1950) and Scientific Commission (1951) of the International Society of Criminology, Secretary-General of the First World Congress of the United Nations (Geneva, 1955) and Vice-President of the Third International Congress of Criminology (London, 1955). He is the author of many works on sociological criminology and on penology; his main work is *Culture, Conflict and Crime* (New York, 1938).
2. Frank M. Boolsen (ed.), *Directory of University and College Criminology Programs*, prepared for the Society for the Advancement of Criminology, 1 May 1950 (mimeographed manuscript).

weeks. Only an extensive search would uncover the total number of such institutes, although they would probably be little different from those mentioned below.

These institutes (seminars, training courses, or other similar nomenclature) should be differentiated from the law enforcement and correctional training in college curricula. Criminology, as part of a sociology or social work curriculum, is designed to train officers and workers who usually have had no previous experience and are setting out on careers in the field. The institutes, on the other hand, are usually established to encourage in-service training for workers who have already begun a career of law enforcement or correction, who have demonstrated superior ability, and can be expected to profit greatly from supplementary classroom experience with substantive knowledge. Furthermore, institutes are often institutional and organizational responses to immediate police and penal problems, thus reflecting, to a degree, the types of situations calling for reform, solution, or need for concentration of attention.

THE DELINQUENCY CONTROL INSTITUTE

This institute at the University of Southern California provides special training for police officers and others engaged in work with juvenile delinquents. Attendance is limited to 20 students for each 12-week term. Sixteen of these are selected from among officers employed in police or sheriff's departments; the other four may be attendance officers, social workers, or on parole, probation, or district attorney's staffs. Each person completing the course receives a certificate. The programme includes full-time regular classes, supervised field work in local juvenile agencies, night police activity once each week, field trips to agencies and institutions, and regular conferences designed to integrate classroom and field work—analysis of cases, evaluation of field work, and review of current literature on delinquency control.

THE SOUTHERN POLICE INSTITUTE

The Institute, which is connected to the University of Louisville, Kentucky, opened in January 1951, and has the following aims: (a) to foster an instrument for the raising of police standards, increasing public confidence in and support of law enforcement; (b) to give training on a regional basis to the law enforcement officers of the southern states; (c) to offer a medium through which law enforcement officers can reach an understanding of their common problems and receive specialized guidance toward their solution; (d) to provide advanced instruction for the development of commanding, supervisory and administrative police personnel.

Since its opening, the institute has held 14 regular terms of three months' duration each, and four short-term seminars. It has graduated 310 police officers from 25 states, 124 cities, and two foreign countries. For the regular terms, 25 officers are selected from the country at large, each of whom is given a \$200 cash expense scholarship. Some 50 lecturers of prominence in criminology or related fields are brought to the institute each term for one-day visits. No credit toward a degree is given, but a diploma certifying satisfactory completion of the course is given to each student. In the winter of 1955 the institute conducted four seminars on police administration, the policeman and the law, human relations and human behaviour, and scientific crime investigation. Each seminar was of ten days' duration; enrolment for each was limited to 30 students, and a tuition fee of \$100 was charged. From January to March, 1956, the four seminars were on police administration, delinquent youth and society, alcohol and road traffic, and scientific crime investigation.

THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND SOCIAL SERVICE

This school, of New York University, held a Law Enforcement Institute on Youth and Crime on 18-21 July 1955, in compliance with the New York State's Attorney General's proposal for three regional institutes, at Syracuse, Buffalo, and New York City, to offer training on youth and delinquency to New York State law enforcement officers. The institute was, therefore, a pilot experiment toward a sound approach to a carefully considered permanent programme.

GOVERNMENTAL RESEARCH CENTRE

Each year a one-week institute is held at the Governmental Research Centre of the University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas. The Police Officers School is primarily a refresher course open only to men actually holding police jobs. Usually 100-140 officers attend, mainly from towns under 10,000 in population. Forty hours of instruction are given in each of three fields: basic police work, investigation, and traffic. There are no entry requirements and a certificate of attendance is awarded to each person attending all classes.

THE INSTITUTE OF CORRECTIONAL ADMINISTRATION

A nine-week course is offered to approximately 75 officials in the field of correction, and is conducted under the auspices of the College of General

Studies of The George Washington University, Washington, D.C. The programme is designed to give officials who are responsible for the administration and supervision of correctional institutions the fundamentals underlying rehabilitative work. It affords such officials the opportunity to become acquainted with practices and policies in correctional work as these are currently carried on in the United States and elsewhere. Since the institute deals with the application of concepts and policies to the treatment of offenders, civilian and military, it is concerned only indirectly with historical or descriptive criminology. The institute is held in Washington, the centre of professional work in federal law enforcement, prison, probation, and parole practice, and in retraining services in the Department of Defense. It offers an intensive six-week programme, five days a week—a total of 120 hours of instruction, for which the student earns eight university credits. Qualified members of the Department of Defense and of Justice, or of any correctional or law enforcement agency, may apply for admission. Fees are \$14 per university credit for a single course, and \$112 for the entire programme.

THE MORAN MEMORIAL INSTITUTE ON CRIME AND DELINQUENCY

The institute is held for one week each summer on the campus of St. Lawrence University, Canton, New York, and offers a variety of courses and workshops in criminology, multiple aspects of correctional administration, and police problems. A visiting and resident faculty of about 50 offer courses to approximately 600 participants each year. Students at the institute may earn one college credit by attending two lecture courses or one lecture course and one workshop and passing examinations on the material covered. Other students may receive 'in-service training' credit with the New York Department of Social Welfare. Registration fee is \$75, including room and board, if college credit is desired; \$60 if in-service credit only is desired; and a number of \$25-scholarships are available.

OTHER REPRESENTATIVE INSTITUTES, COURSES AND SEMINARS

A *Homicide Investigation Seminar*, established by the Kettering Laboratory in the Department of Preventive Medicine and Industrial Health, College of Medicine, University of Cincinnati, Ohio, meets for several days (usually in December) in co-operation with the coroner's office of Hamilton County and with the Cincinnati Police Department.

A seminar and training course for arson investigators meets usually in late April and early May under the direction of the *Public Safety Institute*, Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana.

The Bershire International Forum at the Bershire Industrial Farm in Canaan, New York, exchanges views on the institutional treatment of juvenile delinquents.

The Federal Bureau of Investigation Academy in Washington, D.C. and Quantico, Virginia, sponsors two sessions of three months' duration each year. The staff is comprised of members of FBI, and all phases of police work are included in each session.

A Traffic Training Institute is held each year at the Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania. Report writing, use of fire-arms and tear-gas, radar control of traffic, public speaking, etc. are several courses offered during a two-week session, usually in April. Week-end *Correctional Institutes* are occasionally held on the campus also, attended by various members of local and state correctional offices concerned with jails, probation, and parole.

At the *Institute of State and Local Government* on the campus of the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, policemen throughout the Commonwealth enrol for administrative experience and instruction. Police officers of superior qualities are selected for attendance at the institute, and approximately 40 officers from Philadelphia have been enrolled.

A Workshop in Human Relations at Rutgers University, Trenton, New Jersey, is a six-week course with an emphasis on law enforcement. Police officers and other public servants concerned with law enforcement participate in these summer sessions in group dynamics.

A six-day annual *Institute in Law Enforcement*, Law-Medicine Center, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio, usually meets in June.

The *Traffic Institute* at Evanston, Illinois, conducts several courses concerned with traffic control: motor vehicle fleet supervision (five days); accident investigation (three weeks); driver examination administration (three weeks); traffic safety clinic for newspapermen (three days); standards for driver examinations (three weeks); military vehicle safety and traffic regulations (for U.S. Army, four weeks); fundamentals of traffic police service (three weeks); supervision of police personnel (two weeks); chemical tests for intoxication (five days); introduction to police management (four weeks); motor vehicle control (for U.S. Air Force, three weeks).

Police officers also frequently attend the *Traffic Court Conference*, conducted with the American Bar Association at the School of Law, Northwestern University, Chicago.

At Tulane University, New Orleans, Louisiana, there is a two-week course in *Police Traffic Training* and a five-day *Traffic Court Conference*.

For 14 years the *Annual Technical Institute of Peace Officers' Training* for Northern California has met at the University of California, Berkeley, and for Southern California, in Los Angeles.

The *Keeler Polygraph Institute*, Chicago, conducts a six-week course in training for polygraph examiners.

Arizona State College, Tempe, Arizona, offers a two-week course in fundamentals of traffic police service.

Although the above list of institutes is not exhaustive, it is probably representative of the important training centres in the United States.

GENERAL COURSES IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

UNDERGRADUATE

The teaching of criminology is almost universally found in the curriculum of every sociology department in undergraduate liberal arts colleges throughout the United States. Courses in criminology have increased proportionately with the increase in the number of sociology departments from the beginning of the century. Studies by Tolman¹ (1902), Bernard² (1907-08), Chapin³ (1910) and the Kennedys⁴ (1939-41) show the relative position or ranking of criminology in undergraduate schools. In 1902, of a total of 21 different sociology courses offered by most colleges in this country, criminology was the sixth most frequently listed in college catalogues. Bernard did not list the teaching of criminology among the 12 he surveyed in 1907-08; but Chapin found criminology ninth out of 14 courses included in his review of sociology courses in 1910. The most recent such analysis of sociology in American colleges made by the Kennedys included 607, or 65 per cent, of a total of 928 colleges offering sociology courses. All told, 5,544 courses were found in the catalogues, and the 32 varieties of these courses were ranked according to the frequency of their appearance in sociology curricula. General sociology, introductory sociology, or principles of sociology ranked highest, and comprised 11.9 per cent of all sociology offerings. Social problems ranked second (9.2 per cent); marriage and the family third (8.1 per cent); social work fourth (5.9 per cent); and criminology a close fifth (5.8 per cent). Although criminology and social work are virtually in the same position, in departments having only four courses, criminology was almost invariably the fourth course offered. As the authors point out, some

1. F. L. Tolman, 'The Study of Sociology in the Institutions of Learning in the United States', *American Journal of Sociology*, 1902, Vol. 7, pp. 797-838.
2. L. L. Bernard, 'The Teaching of Sociology in the United States', *American Journal of Sociology*, 1909, Vol. 15, pp. 164-213.
3. F. S. Chapin, 'Report on Questionnaire of Committee on Teaching', *American Journal of Sociology*, 1911, Vol. 16, pp. 774-98.
4. R. Kennedy and Ruby J. R. Kennedy, 'Sociology in American Colleges', *American Sociological Review*, 1942, Vol. 7, pp. 661-75.

sociologists might contend that criminology is a distinct and well-developed discipline; yet it ranks among the most popular courses in sociology departments. In many cases, the course in social problems covers problems of delinquency, crime, the judicial process, and punishment. It is, therefore, of interest to note that social problems and criminology have pursued even careers of high popularity, the former retaining second place all through the years, the latter dropping slightly from sixth to ninth between 1902 and 1910, but rising to fifth place by 1939-41.

Any student meeting general university entry requirements is eligible to take these criminology courses and the costs vary with institutional costs per semester credit.

GRADUATE

Of 30 leading universities¹ offering graduate training in the arts and sciences, only five fail to provide the teaching of criminology or any phase thereof. As with most undergraduate programmes, graduate teaching of criminology is found primarily in departments of sociology or combined departments of sociology and anthropology. In a few schools where there is specialized professional training, criminology is a separate field of study within the social science division of the university, or a separate school (such as at the University of California), or may be found in a department of public administration. The more elaborate and all-inclusive the curriculum becomes and the more delimited in scope the specific courses are, the more likely is criminology to be taught as a special discipline apart from the normal curriculum of a sociology department.

Typical of these graduate courses within the larger scope of sociological orientation are the following:

Criminology: the history of criminology; crime and its causes; juvenile delinquency; normal and delinquent behaviour of youth; theories of criminal causation; organized crime and the professional criminal;

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1. Boston University (Boston, Mass.); University of California (Berkeley, Calif.); University of Chicago (Chicago, Ill.); Columbia University (New York, N.Y.); George Washington University (Washington, D.C.); Harvard University (Cambridge, Mass.); University of Illinois (Urbana, Ill.); University of Kansas (Lawrence, Kansas); University of Louisville (Louisville, Ky.); University of Maryland (College Park, Md.); University of Miami (Miami, Fla.); Michigan State College (East Lansing, Mich.); University of Michigan (Ann Arbor, Mich.); University of Mississippi (University, Miss.); New School for Social Research (New York, N.Y.); New York University (New York, N.Y.); University of North Carolina (Chapel Hill, N.C.); Northwestern University (Evanston, Ill.); University of Notre Dame (Notre Dame, Ind.); Ohio State University (Columbus, Ohio); University of Oregon (Eugene, Ore.); Pennsylvania State University (University Park, Pa.); University of Pennsylvania (Philadelphia, Pa.); University of Pittsburgh (Pittsburgh, Pa.); St. Lawrence University (Canton, N.Y.); University of Southern California (Los Angeles, Calif.); Stanford University (Stanford, Calif.); University of Texas (Austin, Texas); University of Wisconsin (Madison, Wis.); Yale University (New Haven, Conn.).

diagnosis of juvenile delinquency; social pathology; treatment and prevention of social disorganization; delinquency and its treatment; sociology of law; social control; crime and delinquency as a community problem; crime causation, prevention and correction; psychological aspects of criminology; legal relations involved in criminology; psychiatric aspects of criminology; social treatment aspects of delinquency control; conditioning factors in juvenile delinquency; law enforcement and alcoholism; therapeutic theories in preventive criminology; the abnormal personality; behaviour problems in childhood and adolescence; deviant behaviour and social control; proseminars and seminars in criminology.

Penology: evolution of punishment; the treatment of offenders; modern penology; probation and parole; institutional treatment of adult offenders; probation procedure; institutional treatment of criminals and delinquents; non-institutional treatment of the criminal and delinquent; proseminars and seminars in penology; field work or internship in correctional administration.

This list of titles found in graduate catalogues does not necessarily indicate separate types of courses, for there is much overlapping regardless of title, and in many cases there is doubtless similarity of data discussed in classroom. In most cases a single textbook is used as the core of material for undergraduate courses in criminology and penology. While no single book is generally used in graduate courses, a book list of suggested readings is usually provided from which the student is expected to read assigned sections and books as well as to explore the field himself. The types of courses referred to above are designed to make it possible, in most graduate schools, for the student to concentrate his study in the field of criminology within the framework of a major in sociology while pursuing his Master of Arts or Doctor of Philosophy degree. These courses purportedly treat crime and punishment from historical, socio-institutional, socio-psychological viewpoints. The schools are oriented toward producing teaching and research scholars, whose primary interests are in empirical data gathered from scientifically controlled experimentation, and in the relation between such scientific studies and the social structure that attempts to control crime.

POLICE AND CORRECTIONAL TRAINING IN UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES

At the time of the completion of this survey, 23 graduate and undergraduate schools were known to have curricula designed especially to provide police and correctional training leading to a degree, diploma, or certificate of completion. In some schools these courses are part of the sociology department, but usually the training is given in a separate

'field' or 'division' of the university or college and the costs again vary with each institution. A summary of the types of programmes offered in each of these institutions follows.

BAKERSFIELD COLLEGE, CALIFORNIA

This is a two-year public junior college that offers a criminology training programme with two types of curricula: the first is concerned with police training and the second with penology. Both are one-year programmes, and upon completion of both the student is conferred the degree of Associate of Arts.

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA

The School of Criminology offers two organized programmes, technical and social. A group major in criminology provides a programme of study for undergraduates leading to the A.B. or B.S. degree. A curriculum is presented on the graduate level which leads to the degree of Master of Criminology, and deals primarily with the application of the social sciences to law enforcement and criminal investigation. A natural science curriculum is designed to provide advanced training in the examination of physical materials used as evidence in courts of law, and to establish an understanding of the sciences involved in order that full and accurate interpretation of laboratory findings may be made. The social science curriculum is intended to provide advanced instruction in the administration of law enforcement agencies, their organization, functions, and operation in maintaining public security. The social, economic, and psychological factors involved in criminal behaviour are of direct concern to this major.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

Within the Department of Sociology, courses are offered in criminology which lead to undergraduate and graduate degrees. The programme is conducted in connexion with the Center for Education and Research in Corrections and in collaboration with the School of Social Service Administration as well as with the Institute for Juvenile Research and the Chicago Area Project.

FRESNO STATE COLLEGE, FRESNO, CALIFORNIA

An organized training programme in criminology leading to the degree of Bachelor of Arts is offered. Included among the specific studies

undertaken are law enforcement, probation, parole, correction, social work, and law. In addition to the academic and technical training, criminology majors must participate in the activities of the Fresno State College Police, and a group of students is sworn in by the Fresno City Police Department as special policemen to function at athletic events, campus activities, etc. The students also serve as traffic officers in the city during certain periods of the year, and those taking Practice in Youth Supervision spend 90 hours participating in camp activities at the Coarsogold Camp of the California Youth Authority. Those majoring are required to purchase a .38 calibre revolver and must qualify in the use of the weapon. A Division of Criminology Certificate is presented to students who receive an A.B. degree with a major in criminology, and who have successfully completed the requirements of the division.

INDIANA UNIVERSITY, BLOOMINGTON, INDIANA

The work of the Department of Police Administration is planned to provide (a) a basic understanding of police science and administration as a minor or minor supplement to a major in a related field of study, and (b) a thorough training in police science administration and procedure as a major subject leading to an A.B. degree. The department presents to the student completing the required curriculum a special certificate in Police Administration.

UNIVERSITY OF MARYLAND, COLLEGE PARK, MARYLAND

A four-year pre-professional crime control curriculum is presented in the College of Arts and Sciences, with a major in sociology and a minor in psychology, leading to the degree of Bachelor of Arts. The programme is designed specifically for students preparing for positions in correctional and penal institutions, institutions for juveniles, juvenile courts, probation and parole services, the so-called 'area projects', research in criminology and other similar positions. The degrees of Master of Arts and Doctor of Philosophy are granted to qualified students who major in sociology-criminology.

MICHIGAN STATE COLLEGE, EAST LANSING, MICHIGAN

The Department of Police Administration offers two organized programmes in the field: (a) police administration and (b) police science. The police administration course offers a pre-entry training programme for the student interested in seeking a career in the law enforcement field; the police science course is designed to prepare a limited number of students for careers in scientific criminal investigation.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, ANN ARBOR, MICHIGAN

The university has a specialized programme for students who desire a bachelor's degree and preparation for a career in the field of correction. Criminology, delinquency, psychiatric social work, prison management, and administrative law are among the course offerings.

UNIVERSITY OF MISSISSIPPI, UNIVERSITY, MISSISSIPPI

Although criminology is not in a separate curriculum and is integrated into the general programme for a liberal arts degree with a major in sociology, there is considerable concentration of work specifically in criminology with special correctional programmes and planning courses offered.

UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA, LINCOLN, NEBRASKA

Although no specific curriculum is listed, the university offers two criminology training programmes—prison work and law enforcement—which are especially designed for the administrative, fiscal, engineering, custodial, protective, dietetic, diagnostic, vocational, religious, educational, medical, and parole services.

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK

The law enforcement curriculum is part of the professional training programme in correction administration of the Graduate School of Public Administration and Social Service. The programme represents an educational effort to increase the efficiency of law enforcement staffs and is offered in recognition of the professional character of police and investigative work. Courses in the law enforcement curriculum may be credited toward the degree of Master of Public Administration for qualified students. Courses are also open to special students who are not college graduates but who have the professional background and experience in the field.

UNIVERSITY OF NOTRE DAME, NOTRE DAME, INDIANA

The university has an organized training programme in the field of correctional administration and aims at the preparation, on the graduate level, of qualified students for careers in public and private correctional

agencies and institutions. The required courses leading to a Master of Arts or of Science in Education may be completed in two semesters of resident study, to be followed by a six months' internship in an approved correctional agency or institution.

OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, COLUMBUS, OHIO

Graduate training in the field of penology and corrections can be taken in either the School of Social Administration (Social Work), or in the Department of Sociology. In the former, the student elects penology and corrections as his field of major interest within the general framework of social work training and receives the two-year professional degree of Master of Social Work. The first year is composed of lectures, seminars, and concurrent field experience under an accredited case supervisor in an accredited agency dealing with juvenile and adult offenders. The second year is devoted one-third to seminars and thesis preparation, and two-thirds to additional field work experience in an accredited correctional agency.

The student in the Department of Sociology gets a major concentration in criminology and penology within a framework of related graduate lectures and seminars in sociology. Field observation and research are expected but no field work experience is required. The Master of Arts and Doctor of Philosophy degrees are conferred with a major in Criminology and Penology. Approximately eight Master's students and one or two Ph.D. students are accepted per year.

OLYMPIC JUNIOR COLLEGE, BREMERTON, WASHINGTON

Without special technical courses, the college has a suggested two-year curriculum as a guide for those students who wish to enter police work as a career.

SACRAMENTO STATE COLLEGE, SACRAMENTO, CALIFORNIA

For students above sophomore level there is a law enforcement training programme leading to the degree of Bachelor of Arts.

ST. LAWRENCE UNIVERSITY, CANTON, NEW YORK

The student who wishes to concentrate in the field of correctional administration may go on to a Master of Arts degree. Courses offered

include: criminology, social deviation, social legislation, contemporary problems and comparative studies in criminology and correction, probation systems and methods, and survey projects in criminological and correctional research. Emphasis in the curriculum may be on probation and parole, in which case the student is expected to take courses in social work, statistics, etc. The field of correction includes probation, parole, custodial supervision and counselling and offers a number of primary careers in human rehabilitation.

CITY COLLEGE OF SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA

The law enforcement programme covers two years of preparation leading to the Associate of Arts degree.

SAN JOSE STATE COLLEGE, SAN JOSE, CALIFORNIA

The two-year vocational course for police service leads to the junior college Associate of Arts diploma, and is adapted to the needs of more mature students and others now in the police service who have a limited time for training. The penology programme provides professional training for a career in correction, and special emphasis is given to the prevention of crime and delinquency, to rehabilitation, parole and probation.

COLLEGE OF THE SEQUOIAS, VISALIA, CALIFORNIA

An organized two-year programme designed to train men and women for public service in the field of law enforcement leads to the degree of Associate of Arts upon completion.

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA,
LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA

The School of Public Administration offers six programmes in law enforcement and its related fields: Bachelor of Science in Public Administration, Master of Science in Public Administration, Doctor of Public Administration, Certificate in Public Administration, The Student-Officer Program in Law Enforcement and Public Administration, The Delinquency Control Institute. The number of liberal arts courses decreases from the first to the last of these programmes, but specialized technical training in law enforcement is similar in each.

STATE COLLEGE OF WASHINGTON, PULLMAN, WASHINGTON

The Department of Police Science and Administration offers a Bachelor of Science and a Master of Arts degree. The following curricula are offered: general police administration; police personnel administration; police records administration; police communication engineering; scientific crime detection; detection of deception; traffic regulation and control; delinquency and crime prevention.

UNIVERSITY OF WICHITA, WICHITA, KANSAS

The police training programme has three major objectives: effective law enforcement; specialized techniques in combating crime; and general basic training for police executives. The training covers a two-year period on the upper division level and is under the general direction of the Department of Political Science and under the immediate supervision of the Chief of Police of the Wichita Police Department. A Police Science Certificate is awarded by the Police Department of the City of Wichita.

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN, MADISON, WISCONSIN

The Department of Sociology and Anthropology offers a special curriculum in correctional administration. For undergraduates, this curriculum leads to a bachelor's degree with a major in correctional administration in sociology, and comprises required basic courses in sociology and special courses in criminology, juvenile delinquency, police administration, crime prevention, probation and parole, and institutional treatment of adult offenders. Graduate degrees are also available for those who wish to acquire special professional competence in a particular area, one leading to the Master of Arts or Ph.D. degree for students who wish to prepare for teaching and research in criminology and related fields; the other leading to the Master of Science degree for students who wish to prepare for clinical work in the field of correctional administration. The latter degree is designed for those who wish to be prepared for executive and administrative positions in state departments of correction, or of probation and parole, as superintendents of penal and correctional institutions or wardens of such institutions, or in adult or juvenile correctional authorities.

The number of courses offered in these institutions varies, but is usually within a range between 10 and 25. The list that follows indicates the types of courses offered, although no one school covers all of them:

Crime causation	Practice in youth supervision
Crime investigation	Fingerprints
Police administration	Forensic ballistics
Traffic control and accident investigation	Administrative aspects of delinquency control
Administration of justice	Social treatment aspects of delinquency control
Police investigation	Firearms
Personal identification	Probation
Physical evidence	Parole
Legal medicine	Penology
Microchemical testing of physical evidence	Institutional treatment of the criminal and delinquent
Questioned documents	Correctional treatment of offenders
Interrogation and detection of deception	Jurisprudence
Police planning	Public welfare administration
Lie detection and criminal investigation	Institutions
Police records	Community organization processes
Report writing	Psychiatric aspects of social work
Criminal law	Interviewing in probation and parole
Crime prevention	Personnel management
	Financial management

It should be obvious from these course titles that criminology is taught under these programmes from a functional, utilitarian perspective. The objectives are primarily to produce police and correctional officers for the specific tasks in which they engage. Where the programmes are four-year or graduate ones, a liberal arts and administrative education adds to the maturity and sophistication of the student. The emphasis is on practice and application of socio-psychological principles in the fields of crime, prevention, and correction. Abundant opportunity is always provided for collaboration with local police, court, and institutional agencies so that the student may become a well-integrated part of the organization in which he does full-time work upon receiving his degree, diploma, or certificate.

SCHOOLS OF SOCIAL WORK

Of 18 leading schools of social work examined¹ to determine whether their curricula provide for specialized training in probation, parole, or

1. Boston College (Boston, Mass.); University of Boston (Boston, Mass.); University of California (Berkeley, Calif.); Catholic University of America (Washington, D.C.); University of Chicago (Chicago, Ill.); Florida State University (Tallahassee, Fla.); University of Michigan (Ann Arbor, Mich.); New York School of Social Work (Columbia University, New York, N.Y.); University of North Carolina (Chapel Hill, N.C.); Ohio

institutional work, only four contained from one to five specific course offerings. St. Louis University has a course called juvenile delinquency; the University of North Carolina offers a course in probation and another in parole; Boston University has one course in juvenile delinquency. Ohio State University is the only school that has a definitely organized curriculum in the field of correction, including such courses as criminology, elementary principles of probation and parole, juvenile delinquency and its treatment, penology, social administration, and treating the problem child. In all four schools a Master's Degree is granted. Although no specific course title suggesting concentrated attention to problems of crime and punishment may be found in the other 14 schools, all 18 schools of social work provide the general skills of counselling, interviewing, casework, group work, and community organization that are important in correctional treatment programmes. Furthermore, opportunities for field work practice or internships in correctional agencies or institutions exist in all the schools examined.

METHODS OF TEACHING CRIMINOLOGY IN THE UNITED STATES

Most of the undergraduate and graduate schools of higher learning in the United States providing course work and degrees with a major emphasis on criminology use the following methods of teaching:

1. Lectures.
2. Student discussion and participation groups with considerable interchange of ideas between instructor and students within a pre-arranged framework established by the instructor.
3. Seminars, in which students usually present both written and oral reports of individual research topics.
4. Field trips to observe the judicial process in operation in the courts and to visit various types of correctional institutions as time and other circumstances permit.
5. Visiting lecturers from other educational institutions or from law enforcement and correctional agencies in the local communities, thus providing for the student some kind of communicative bridge between science and practice.

Similar teaching methods are employed in educational institutions providing a more functional orientation, with an emphasis on criminalistics,

State University (Columbus, Ohio);⁷ University of Pennsylvania (Philadelphia, Pa.); University of Pittsburgh (Pittsburgh, Pa.); St. Louis University (St. Louis, Mo.); Simmons College (Boston, Mass.); Smith College (Northampton, Mass.); University of Southern California (Los Angeles, Calif.); Western Reserve University (Cleveland, Ohio); Worden School of Social Service (Our Lady of the Lake College, San Antonio, Texas).

law enforcement, correction, and social work, and leading to the graduation of students expected to work in the field. In addition, the following pedagogic techniques are frequently used:

1. Laboratories in micro-biology, handwriting, fingerprint, and ballistics analysis, etc.
2. Practice on local police firing range.
3. Part-time experience working with local law enforcement agencies and correctional institutions.
4. Internships as probation, parole, or other correctional officers.

There is no rigidity in the use of these teaching devices. The schools in general and the individual instructors within each school in particular have considerable flexibility regarding the pedagogic tools to be used, omitted or emphasized. Where available, a single textbook is usually assigned by either the department or instructor for a given course, in addition to which a reading list of correlated books and professional journals is supplied to each student. From this list reading assignments are made throughout the course.

Report on the Psychological Aspects of Criminology Teaching
presented by

GREGORY ZILBOORG¹

The whole problem of criminology has become an object of great interest and investigation among American sociologists and jurists. Studies in criminology are still mainly pursued in the universities of the United States in the faculties of sociology and of law. Little is being done in the medical schools or in the departments of psychiatry of the medical

1. Mr. Gregory Zilboorg is professor of psychiatry at New York. He has been member of the Scientific Commission of the International Society of Criminology (1951). He received the Isaac Ray Prize in 1952. He has been Vice-President of the Third International Congress of Criminology (London, 1955) and member of the Board of Directors of the International Society of Criminology (1956). His main work is *A History of Medical Psychology*, in collaboration with George W. Henry (New York, 1941).

schools, although some occasionally give courses, or rather a few lectures, on legal medicine. Strictly speaking, however, these have little to do with criminology as a subject. Very recently a Department of Legal Medicine has been developed at Harvard University; the head of this department is Dr. J. Ewalt, the Commissioner of Mental Diseases of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. This fact is of considerable significance in so far as Dr. Ewalt is a psychiatrist. By inference at least, it would indicate that academic medicine is beginning to recognize that criminology is the concern of psychiatry, and that criminogenesis may, if not must, be understood more often than not as psychogenesis of crime.

Another example of the same trend is the foundation of the School of Criminology at the University of California, at the Berkeley Campus just across the Bay of San Francisco. Dr. Douglas Kelley, one of the leading members of the staff of this school, is a psychiatrist. The school is outside the sphere of the medico-psychological departments, and ought therefore to be considered as a more or less independent unit.

An older institution, the Institute for Juvenile Research in Chicago, is traditionally headed by a psychiatrist, but it is not a part of any medical school in the strict sense of the word. For the most part medical students, whether they be future surgeons or future psycho-analysts, do not come in contact with the problem until after they become doctors of medicine and begin to try to find things out for themselves. Professor George Dession (recently deceased) was the representative of the Law Department at this unit. Dr. Lawrence Z. Freedman was the appointee of the Department of Psychiatry.

This is more a research than a teaching unit. Its job is to find ways and means for practical and scientific research co-operation between the legal and psychiatric professions. The goals dictated by the interest in the origin of crime are here pursued either occasionally or in a desultory fashion; it is merely a pragmatic symbiosis of two disciplines. The results of the research or other activities are published in the *Yale Law Review*.

The Institute of Human Relations, of which the unit under discussion is one of the parts, has no separate unit for the study of criminology, nor has the Department of Psychiatry at Yale University. The Department of Psychology, which sometimes functions as an adjuvant to the Department of Psychiatry, sometimes as an adjuvant to the social sciences, does occasional work on juvenile delinquency, but there is no systematic teaching of criminology.

A unit analogous to the Yale unit is now being organized at Temple University in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. There the Law Department will add a psychiatrist to its staff to study the relationship between law and psychiatry.

In the United States the psychiatric and psycho-analytic approach to criminology has not yet entered the university teaching. Criminology

is looked upon mainly as a subject of considerable interest to the individual psychiatrist, or as a non-academic *ad hoc* subject for some professional groups.

The psycho-analytic institutes, of which there are a great number in the United States (five in New York alone, two in Los Angeles, two in Philadelphia) do not include criminology in their curriculum, nor do the problems of criminal behaviour receive any special attention except where this type of behaviour might be considered as a part of the general and special study of neuroses and neurotic behaviour.

Such older institutions of research and guidance as the Judge Baker Foundation in Boston, Massachusetts, or the Institute for Juvenile Research in Chicago, Illinois, are traditionally headed by a psychiatrist, at one time even by a psycho-analyst (Dr. William Healy). Such institutions represent either general research or practical guidance, and teaching is limited to having younger members of the staff undergo 'training', that is to say having them learn from the senior members of the staff the various ways of handling the material in question.

The need for special criminological work (studies and teaching) in psychiatry and psycho-analysis is apparently more or less felt, but this need has as yet not received the attention necessary for the purpose of treating the subject of criminology systematically. As a result, the interest of psychiatry and psycho-analysis in the field of criminology has developed along curiously individual lines. Thus, some courts in the United States (not the Federal Courts but those of the various 48 States) have special psychiatrists attached to them on an almost full-time basis. The outstanding examples are the late Dr. Lowell Selling, who assisted the courts of Detroit and the State of Michigan, and Dr. Manfred Guttmacher, attached for many years to the courts of Baltimore, Maryland.

Two things must be noted in this connexion. Such psychiatrists work to assist the courts, but they are divorced in fact from clinical work and from teaching criminology. The results of their labours and observations are usually more or less pragmatic and are only partly reflected in the books they publish as independent individuals. A number of such psychiatrists are attached to the offices of the District Attorneys (or Prosecutors) in various states, but they are, in addition to being divorced from clinical and academic work, more or less limited to the prosecutory aspects of cases to which their attention is called by the District Attorney.

A number of psychiatrists are employed by various states in various prisons. Their functions are limited to what are called prison diagnostic clinics. They limit themselves to diagnosis of mental diseases, if any develop in criminals already in prison, or to reporting on the mental state or vocational inclination of newly arrived prisoners. If any special study of criminals is undertaken in prisons from the standpoint of criminogenesis and/or treatment, this is done unofficially and in accordance with the interests of individuals only.

The only more or less corporate effort to teach criminology—not in its totality, but from the point of view of some aspects which are of particular concern to individual psychiatrists or lawyers—is that established four years ago by the American Psychiatric Association. The Isaac Ray Award Committee every year singles out some individual who has particularly distinguished himself in his contributions to the joint functioning of psychiatry and the law. The award (one thousand dollars) is given to a psychiatrist or to a member of the legal profession, a judge or a lawyer. The award carries with it a lectureship on any theme of law and psychiatry—pre-eminently criminological problems come into consideration—in any university that has both a law and medical faculty. The lectures are given to students as well as to representatives of the legal and medical professions.

Up to the present the following lectures have been given: three by Dr. Winfred Overholser at Harvard University; six by Dr. Gregory Zilboorg at Yale University; five by Federal Judge John Biggs at the University of California. Lectures have also been given by Professor Henry Weihofen (lawyer), of the University of New Mexico, at Temple University in Philadelphia; the number of lectures here is not yet determined. At the time of writing Dr. Philip Roche has just been chosen to receive the award. He will offer a course of lectures (number as yet undetermined) at the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor, Michigan.

Three of these five courses belong strictly to the field of criminology, although they are also concerned with some practical issues of purely legal significance.

The American Psychiatric Association has also had for the past 35 years a Committee on Legal Aspects of Psychiatry. One of the major problems always before this committee is criminology and its relationship to psychiatry. A special section on forensic psychiatry of the American Psychiatric Association devotes its time and scientific papers more directly to criminological issues during the annual meetings of the American Psychiatric Association.

After the last war a group of people joined together under the name of the Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry, known as GAP. This group is made up of about 150 people, mostly members of the American Psychiatric Association, and it has a special Committee on Legal Aspects of Psychiatry, dealing in a more or less parallel way with the same problems as the corresponding committee of the American Psychiatric Association. It has published several valuable reports which serve as guidance to the psychiatrist, the lawyer, and the judge.

This brings us to two events of particular importance in American psychiatry and criminology.

First, the problem of so-called sex offenders has attracted the attention of the public in the United States more than any other criminological problem. The State of New York has passed a law according to which

sex offenders are to be sentenced to from one day to life in prison—the duration of the imprisonment to depend upon the successful psychotherapy of the offender. The psychiatrists who would be in charge of the psychotherapy of such offenders were thus given considerable authority. This authority was based on their medico-psychological insight into the given offender and the prognosis of the latter's behaviour after a period under psychotherapy. Unfortunately, only \$50,000 were appropriated for the administration of this plan, whereas ten times as much money would hardly suffice for as large a prison system as that of New York State. The law remains on the books.

Secondly, on 1 July 1954, the United States Court of Appeals rendered a momentous decision in a case of murder in which the older McNaghten Rule (in existence officially since 1843) and the right and wrong test (in existence for over two centuries) were set aside, and purely psychiatric evidence was required that a given crime was or was not a direct result of the mental illness found in the offender. The decision, written by Federal Judge David Bazelon, and concurred with by Judges Washington and Edgerton, cited more psychiatric and psycho-analytic sources than any other decision in the history of American criminological jurisprudence, except perhaps some of the decisions of Federal Judge John Biggs, who also turned to psychiatry for the better understanding of the true responsibility of a given criminal.

Thus psychiatry and the administration of the criminal law have begun a rapprochement, but not through academic channels or efforts. Recently a new journal appeared, the *Journal of Criminal Psychodynamics*, the first in the United States to deal with the psychogenesis of crime and in general with the psychological problems of criminogenesis. The editor of this journal, Dr. Ben Karpman, is a student of the great pioneer Dr. William A. White, who introduced psychiatric and psycho-analytic criminology to the American public. Before Dr. William A. White, who died in 1937, there had been no one of the stature of an Isaac Ray, whose epoch-making book on *Medical Jurisprudence of Insanity* was published in 1838.

However, neither Isaac Ray nor William A. White established psychiatric or psycho-analytic criminology in the United States. What they established, and what is still characteristic of the approach to the issue of crime in America today (on the part of psychiatrists) is: (a) the necessity to combat punitive jurisprudence which fails to take into consideration the data of modern psychiatry; (b) the necessity for empirical dealing with delinquents on any basis that seems practicable, from the standpoint of prevention rather than treatment.

The true study of criminology from the psychiatric and psycho-analytic point of view is just beginning. These beginnings are often reflected in the writings of certain psychiatrists, but have not yet as a rule found their way into the curricula of the departments of psychiatry.

FEDERAL PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF YUGOSLAVIA

Summary of the report presented by
DRAGOLJUB V. DIMITRIJEVIĆ¹

INTRODUCTION

The problem of criminology teaching is closely linked with the conception of criminology as a science, that is, with its definition. However, since there is no unity of views on this point, the plan provided for the general survey of this teaching should doubtless be adhered to: (a) basic disciplines (criminal biology, criminal psychology, criminal sociology, and penology); (b) criminology proper (clinical criminology); (c) subsidiary sciences (forensic medicine, scientific and technical police methodology, and judicial psychology).

This framework shows well enough the desire to present the survey in the form of a broad criminological training covering a certain number of special fields.

It might be interesting, in this connexion, to distinguish between a 'synthetic' conception of criminology teaching, designed to give students a general training in criminology, and a much wider 'analytical' conception, embracing, over and beyond basic training, all the special knowledge necessary to criminologists.

Teaching of the first type is mostly given by the law faculties. Teaching of the second is a matter for the specialized institutes of criminology.

In the light of these general remarks, the teaching of criminology in the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia can be set out under the following heads: institutes of criminology; criminology teaching in the law faculties; other institutions.

INSTITUTES OF CRIMINOLOGY

Of recent foundation, the institutes of criminology are State and public institutions within the faculties of law. Access to their courses is free and depends solely upon the academic or professional qualifications of

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students. The teaching is not yet organized in the sense indicated by the survey programme. The curricula and teaching methods have been determined mainly by their practical aim, which is to permit students and officials interested in the subject to acquire special criminological knowledge. Three institutes of criminology now exist in Yugoslavia: the Criminological Institute of Sarajevo, the Institute for Criminology of Ljubljana, the Criminalistics Institute of Belgrade.

CRIMINOLOGICAL INSTITUTE OF SARAJEVO

The Criminological Institute of the Faculty of Law of Sarajevo was founded in March 1954 and began to function in 1955. Its task is to study crime throughout the country, to help in the development of the criminological sciences, to contribute to the prevention and repression of crime, and to encourage international collaboration in the field of criminology. The institute has four sections: (a) penal law, (b) penal procedure, (c) criminalistics, and (d) medico-psychological.

The experience of the first few months has shown the need for changes in this structure. One criminological section will probably be made responsible for studying the basic disciplines (enumerated in the survey programme), particularly criminal sociology and penology. At the same time, the penal law and criminal procedure sections will be amalgamated; the creation of a criminal clinical section will, for lack of personnel, be postponed.

The institute co-operates regularly with the Institute of Forensic Medicine and the Neuro-Psychiatric Clinic of the Sarajevo Faculty of Medicine, the Secretariat of Internal Affairs, and the courts. The psychiatric and medico-legal expert examinations of the past 10 years are now being assembled under the direction of the Institute of Criminal Statistics, and a survey on criminality in Bosnia-Herzegovina is being prepared.

Seven elected members constitute the board of the Criminological Institute of Sarajevo. They are either professors of the university, or experts of repute. The board appoints a director and the chiefs of sections. Two assistants, and one woman employee in charge of administrative questions, complete the staff.

The institute depends upon the law faculty, which supplies the funds for its operation; it has a library, and a laboratory and a museum are being planned.

Teaching at the institute has not gone very far. An accelerated training course of about 30 lessons for State criminal investigation agents is planned for the autumn of 1956; it will cover criminalistics, forensic medicine and judicial psychiatry.

The development of a complete 'analytical' teaching of the criminological sciences is still at the planning stage, and international co-operation will be of capital importance for this task.

INSTITUTE FOR CRIMINOLOGY OF LJUBLJANA

This institute was founded in 1954, a few months after the Sarajevo institute; its purpose is the same.

Its work is supervised by a director, who is chosen by the law faculty from among the professors of the university. He is assisted by a board, consisting of members likewise chosen by the faculty of law from among the professors of the university or specialists in criminology. His staff is composed of a scientific collaborator, a professional assistant and an administrative employee.

The institute is engaged in a survey of the influence of alcoholism on crime in Slovenia.

Criminology training for law students deals exclusively with criminalistics; but the work plan contemplates an extension of teaching activities.

The institute possesses a library, and the installation of a laboratory and of a criminological museum is under study.

CRIMINALISTICS INSTITUTE OF BELGRADE

The Criminalistics Institute of Belgrade was founded in 1926. Its statutes, approved in 1934, assigned it the following aims: the scientific study of crime and of the means of investigating it and eliminating its causes; the theoretical and practical training of students of criminal science who intend to become penal magistrates or police officers.

The institute was composed of four sections: penal law and penal procedure, criminal sociology, statistics, criminal pedagogy and aetiology; crime technique and tactics of investigation; criminal psychology; criminal chemistry and forensic medicine.

Teaching lasted through the academic year and dealt with all the subjects included in these four sections; it was reserved for law faculty students who had already passed their penal law and penal procedure examinations. The studies were followed by theoretical and practical tests bearing on all the subjects taught; a diploma confirming the acquisition of satisfactory criminological training was granted by the institute. Apart from this regular instruction, special courses were given for legal pathologists and for staff of the courts, the police and the penitentiaries. The institute recruited its professors from among those of the law faculty, or from among specialists; it also disposed of research assistants and an administrative and technical staff. A director was in charge of its work.

The institute fulfilled its task with somewhat uneven success. It did, however, play a pioneer role in the development of criminology studies and in the spread of criminological education. World War II brought its activity to an end, and it is now being re-organized. For the present, instruction and practical work in criminalistics, forensic medicine and

judicial psychiatry are arranged as part of the general teaching of criminology at the faculty of law.

CRIMINOLOGY TEACHING IN THE LAW FACULTIES

In Yugoslavia, general criminological training is given as part of the curriculum of the law faculties, which are public institutions of higher learning. Access to the faculties, which are undenominational, is free of charge; it is reserved for holders of the certificate granted after eight years of secondary studies. Legal studies last four years and are confirmed by a 'jurist's diploma' (approximately an M.A. in law).

The universities of Belgrade, Zagreb, Ljubljana, Sarajevo and Skoplje all have faculties of law. Under a law of 1955, a sixth faculty, at Novi Sad, has now been established.

General criminological teaching is given in the following courses: criminology,¹ criminalistics; forensic medicine and judicial psychiatry.

Criminology teaching is 'synthetic' in character and deals especially with the biological, psychological and sociological aspects of crime, as well as with the study of the means of combating crime.

Criminalistics covers scientific and technical police methodology.

Forensic medicine and judicial psychiatry are combined in a single course, but because of their individual character they are presented in separate syllabuses.

When criminology and criminalistics are not taught separately, concepts of criminology are contained in the course of penal law,² and the study of criminalistics is touched upon during the course in penal procedure.

Teaching is theoretical and practical. In principle, practical work concerns criminalistics, forensic medicine and judicial psychiatry; students are instructed in the procedure of criminalistic operations, and examine the different types of delinquents from a medico-legal point of view. This work takes place in the criminalistic laboratories of the institutes of criminology, in the special institutes of the police, or in the hospitals. Visits to penitentiaries and reform schools are organized, to study methods of treating prisoners.

This instruction, which is compulsory, is part of the third and fourth years of the curriculum; each subject is studied for a year, and an examination is held.

During the academic year 1954-55, criminology proper was not taught in the five law faculties. On the other hand, criminalistics was taught in the law faculties of Belgrade, Zagreb and Ljubljana, and forensic medicine and judicial psychiatry were the subject of courses in all five faculties.

1. See Appendix on page 164 for the syllabus of the criminology course.
2. See Appendix on page 164.

Criminology was taught at Belgrade in 1945-46, but the courses were later interrupted. At Zagreb in 1949 and at Ljubljana in 1954, the courses were likewise suspended, after the death of their professors. At Ljubljana, the courses were to be resumed this year, and a similar development is expected at Zagreb.

Criminology is not yet included in the programmes of the faculties of Sarajevo and Skoplje. But the reform in legal studies now under way will probably alter this situation.

As for criminalistics, it was taught at Sarajevo for two academic years, and subsequently disappeared from the curriculum. However, this teaching is expected to be resumed and to be introduced, moreover, at the faculty of law of Skoplje.

OTHER INSTITUTIONS

The subsidiary sciences of criminology are taught in the faculties of medicine (Belgrade, Zagreb, Ljubljana, Sarajevo and Skoplje) and in the schools of the Secretariat of State for Internal Affairs, which are in operation in each of the federal Republics.

Thus medical students take a two-semester course in neuro-psychiatry, which includes judicial psychiatry; they also take courses in forensic medicine. The teaching of these disciplines, followed by examinations, is both theoretical and practical; but the syllabuses, though similar in structure to those of the law faculties, are much broader, and take into account the specific needs of medical studies.

The teaching of the Schools of the Secretariat of State for Internal Affairs also covers the subsidiary sciences of criminology. It is intended for officials, and is entrusted to university professors or higher officials of the Ministries. Apart from these schools, special courses of variable duration are organized periodically; they deal with certain current criminological questions, generally in the field of criminal investigation.

CONCLUSIONS

This report has attempted to present an objective picture of criminology teaching in the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia. It has emphasized the efforts made, and indicated the possible development of this teaching or of scientific activity in this field.

Doubtless the most urgent task is still the training of teachers and the improvement of technical equipment in the institutes of criminology. In conclusion, the initiative taken by Unesco and the International Society of Criminology is a most welcome development, calculated to promote the extension of criminology teaching throughout the world.

A P P E N D I X

The following details are taken from Dr. D. V. Dimitrijević's work *The Elements of Penal Law in the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia* (Sarajevo, 1953).

SYLLABUS OF THE CRIMINOLOGY COURSE

1. *General Principles and Doctrines*

What is criminology?

Place of criminology in the system of the criminal sciences.

Outline of criminology teaching and the schools of criminology:

- (a) The evolution of criminological doctrines up to the foundation of the criminology schools;
- (b) The evolution of criminological doctrines after the foundation of the criminology schools;
- (c) The problem of crime in the light of historical materialism.

2. *The Present-day System of Criminology Studies*

Sociological studies of crime:

- (a) The concept of criminal sociology and its relationship to other criminological disciplines;
- (b) The methods of the sociological study of crime;
- (c) The socio-historic analysis of crime; economic structure and crime; causes of criminality.

Biological studies of crime:

- (a) The concept of criminal biology and its relationship to other criminological disciplines;
- (b) The bio-criminological methods of the study of crime;
- (c) Social and economic conditions of the development of the personality.

CRIMINOLOGICAL KNOWLEDGE IMPARTED IN THE TEACHING OF PENAL LAW:
EXTRACT FROM THE SYLLABUS OF THE COURSE IN PENAL LAW

The Problem of Criminality (Chapter II)

The evolution of criminality:

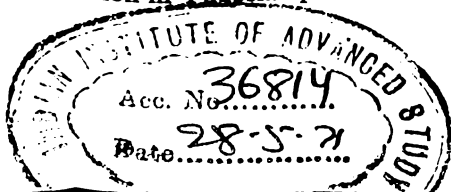
- (a) General concepts of criminality;
- (b) Evolution of criminality;
- (c) Study of criminality.

The causes of criminality:

- (a) The problem of the causes of criminality;
- (b) The science of penal law and the causes of criminality.

The struggle against criminality:

- (a) The struggle against criminality;
- (b) and (c) The theories of criminality and the concept of penal sanctions; of penal law;
- (d) The theories of punishment, i.e., of the penal sanction in the science
- (d) Critical remarks on these theories;
- (e) Justification of the sanction in Yugoslav penal law.







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