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Current Notes

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CURRENT NOTES

V. A. Leonard, Editor

Examination for License as School Psychiatrist—The Board of Examiners for the Board of Education of the City of New York announces that it will conduct in December 1948 an examination for license as school psychiatrist in the Bureau of Child Guidance. In addition to the usual course and professional preparation for the practice of psychiatry, applicants for the position must have had either (a) Five years of practice in psychiatry, including 800 hours of appropriate clinical experience in approved institutions for the treatment of mental diseases and mental defects, and 1200 hours of appropriate experience in approved clinics for the study and treatment of personality and behavior disorders of children, or (b) Three years of practice in psychiatry, including 1200 hours of appropriate clinical experience in approved institutions for the treatment of mental diseases and mental defects, and 1500 hours of appropriate experience in approved clinics for the study and treatment of personality and behavior disorders of children.

The salary attached to the position is \$8,000 per annum for the first year; \$9,000 for the second year; \$10,000 for the third year and thereafter, conditioned upon satisfactory service. The Board of Examiners invites inquiries for further details with respect to the position, the requirements therefor, and any other matters concerned with the examination. Inquiries should be addressed to Mr. Joseph Jablonower, Chairman, Committee on Child Guidance Licenses, 110 Livingston Street, Brooklyn 2, New York.—*The Editor.*

Need for Trained Probation and Parole Personnel—The following resolution was adopted at the last annual conference of the National Probation and Parole Association: "*Whereas*, the need for pre-service and in-service training programs is acute and continuing; and *whereas*, standards of probation and parole would be advanced by a concerted program to meet these needs; *Be it resolved*, that the Professional Council be requested to appoint a special committee to survey the various programs of training in operation, and to make recommendations as to ways in which pre-service and in-service training can be extended in cooperation with colleges and other agencies." The resolution is regarded by some observers as being significant of a general trend in this country toward professional training of personnel at the university and college level for work in all areas of criminal justice administration. It is now becoming apparent that in-service training alone cannot hope to do the whole job that must be done and that advantage must be taken of the facilities for instruction and research in the behavior sciences that are now available at educational institutions. Evidence of this trend is to be observed in the establishment of professional curricula in probation and parole, institutional administration and in police administration at an increasing number of American universities and colleges. The recent installation under the auspices of the American Prison Association of a research center at Ohio State University is of special interest. Among other objectives, this facility will foster the application of university and college training resources to the professional prepara-

tion of men and women for career service in the institutional field. The unvarnished truth is that actual practice in most areas of criminal justice administration trails far in the wake of research findings in the biological and social sciences. Professional precedent in medicine, engineering and other fields leads to the belief that the lag between practice and knowledge can be overcome by the general elevation of training standards to academic levels.—*The Editor*.

Hogs and Homicide—The existence of a strong correlation between economic conditions and crime rates has been further confirmed by a recent study of homicide frequency over a period of 37 years in the state of Iowa. A total of 1,679 murders were committed from 1910 to 1946; the annual toll varied from the lowest number of 22 in 1943 to the highest of 78 murders in 1930. The annual average for the entire period was 52.4 murders. In 1910 there were 52 murders in Iowa; two years later the murder increased to 70, or 18 more killings than the first year of World War I. There is some reason to believe that the number of murders decreased during World War I but there is not enough information available from state records to substantiate the view. After this war, homicides rose again and remained well above the average with the highest number of 64 in 1929. With the opening of the third decade, in 1930, homicides advanced to 78, the highest number on record in the state. During the "Great Depression" of the thirties the yearly number of killings remained high until 1938 when the number decreased to 33. The two years of 1932 and 1933 which marked the bottom of the depression witnessed more killings than any other two year period during the past 37 years. With the return of "Good Times", increased employment, higher prices for hogs and corn, the annual number of murders decreased rapidly to a low figure of 22 in 1943. This decrease is due in part to better economic conditions and also to the fact that the country was at war. Murders decreased in almost every part of the nation during the war years. With the end of World War II, the number of killings in the state began to increase slightly until there were 50 murders in 1946.

The study revealed that the annual number of murders appears to vary according to economic conditions. When the price of hogs and corn was relatively high the annual number of killings has been low and conversely, when hogs and corn prices were low, murders were high. Perhaps the best illustration of this appeared in 1932 when hogs were selling at \$3.44 and corn at 35 cents at the farm and there were 72 murders in the state. During the entire period of 1931 to 1934 murders were high and hog and corn prices were relatively low. Ten years later in 1942 when hogs sold at \$13.04 and corn at 94 cents a bushel, there were but 29 murders in Iowa. While it cannot be said that the price of hogs and corn determines the annual number of murders in the state, these same prices do serve as a barometer of the general economic conditions in Iowa. The annual price changes do not always coincide with the annual changes in the number of homicides but over a period of years, murders do rise as the price of hogs and corn falls, and as the price of hogs and corn go up the number of murders decreases. The study further indicated that, although homicides were less in number in rural counties than in urban counties, murders have been increasing more rapidly in areas predomi-

nantly rural in character.—Dr. Walter A. Lunden (Iowa State College), *The Iowa Sheriff*, Vol. 19, No. 4, November 1947.

Penal Reform in Argentina—Beginning with the abolition of the Ushuaia jail in the Territory of Tierra del Fuego, southernmost prison of the world and reported by Argentinians themselves to have been one of the worst, the Argentine Government moved forward in May, 1877, to the establishment of the *Penitenciaría Nacional* which paved the way for a centralized institutional system. Modifications in discipline and a more humane treatment of prisoners began to characterize prison procedure. The most important milestone on the road to penal reform was the enactment of Ordinance of Law 11,833 in 1933, which provided for the organization of a federal prison system and the establishment of administrative mechanisms which would facilitate the development of treatment procedures. Under the administration of Senor Roberto Pettinato (since January 25, 1947), of the *Dirección General de Institutos Penales de la Nación*, it is reported that significant progress has been made in the installation of modern procedures, including substantial facilities for diagnosis and therapy. Prison uniforms and irons have been abolished; orientation procedures have been developed to bridge the abrupt transition from a controlled environment to normal community life at the time of release; the devices of parole and probation are coming into general use. Medical care, educational and recreational facilities together with opportunities for vocational training are among the innovations that have been provided for. Of special interest is the installation of classification procedures based upon diagnosis of the offender and the assignment of the latter to that type of institutional facility best suited to the problem type which he represents. A general trend is observable away from punitive measures toward a philosophy which emphasizes preparation for release and the social re-education of the individual for ultimate return to community life. Associated with the new penal system and a part of it, is the Institute of Criminology, whose function is that of scientific research in the realm of human behavior.—*From a release by Revista Penal y Penitenciaria*, Calle Paso 550, Buenos Aires, Republica Argentina, under the authority of the *Ministerio de Justicia de la Nación Argentina*. *Editor's Note* The *Revista Penal y Penitenciaria* solicits the exchange of books, journals and other publications in the field of prison administration with interested correspondents in the United States and other countries.

United Nations Commission on Narcotic Drugs—The second session of the United Nations Commission on Narcotic Drugs was held at Lake Success, N. Y., from July 24 to August 8, 1947. In addition to reviewing the work accomplished during the previous year the Commission considered a number of important new problems, the most pressing of which was the development of new synthetic drugs of a habit-forming character which were not within the scope of the existing conventions. The Commission, considering this to be a matter of urgency, put forward a recommendation to the Economic and Social Council that a new international instrument should be drafted and circulated to governments as soon as possible for their early observations. The proposed instrument would apply the full international control of the 1931 convention to these new drugs.

The Commission also considered and agreed to a plan of narcotic control for Japan to be recommended to the treaty-making powers. The proposed plan would prohibit the manufacture and production of drugs in Japan. The internal trade in drugs would be continued under the machinery at present existing under the allied military government which was reported to be excellent. Import authorizations are under rigid control and with Japan receiving drugs sufficient only for her medical needs, no surplus is indicated for export. It was noted that Mexico, Iran, India and Turkey were the principal sources of illicit traffic in opium. The Commission requested the Economic and Social Council to recommend to the Government of Mexico that it take appropriate measures in fulfillment of its international obligations to suppress the illicit cultivation of opium poppies. Evidence was presented of many thousands of acres of this plant under cultivation and the existence of 20 to 30 secret landing strips in Mexico for the use of airplanes in smuggling opium to the United States. It was noted with gratification that favorable developments had followed the prohibition of opium smoking in the Far East. It has been declared illegal in all parts of the world except in certain Indian States and in Siam. No such optimism was expressed in the case of Germany where the control system remained unsatisfactory. Efforts on the part of the Working Party, established by the Allied Health Committee on September 11, 1946, proved disappointing. It had been hoped that the Working Party would be able to make recommendations for the improvement of narcotics control in all four zones. The United States representative was requested to draw up a draft for the revision of the German opium law of 1929. This was done, the proposal envisaging the revision of the law in such manner as to effect centralized control under quadripartite supervision and to control the production and use of poppy straw. Although the proposal was discussed at several meetings, no agreement was reached. The Soviet representative finally stated that the German opium law was satisfactory and he was unable to come to the opinion that it needed revision. The question was thus removed from the agenda and the revision of the German opium law was postponed for an indefinite period. The lack of a centralized administration has resulted in a scarcity of narcotic drugs for medical requirements in certain areas of Germany. The long borders offer good opportunities for smuggling and there is a lack of experienced personnel to cope with the situation.—*Traffic in Opium and Other Dangerous Drugs*, for the year ending December 31, 1947, Bureau of Narcotics, U. S. Treasury Department, Government Printing Office, Washington, 1948.

Penology in Early Utah—The reader interested in the evolution of penal reform will find an interesting chapter in the early history of the Mormon period in Utah. Treatment of criminals by the early Utah settlers was similar to that elsewhere on the frontier; the major difference was the infusion of religious principles of justice and respect of the human personality into penal practices. When Brigham Young led the first company of Mormon pioneers into the Valley of the Great Salt Lake on July 24, 1847, he came to a barren expanse of land where no jails or prisons had ever existed. No attempt had at any time been made to exercise any police control over this region. The pioneers, like other frontier people, were left to care for themselves, and as they were

intensely religious people, church government controlled in civil affairs; the police and peace officers were elected at the religious conferences of the people. The development of criminal law in early Utah was obviously influenced by the religious principles and practices of the Mormon people. Firm believers in the Hebrew concept that crimes were sins against God, the social attitude toward the criminal offender was that "he should willingly confess his crime and willingly expiate his wrong and then go forth with a repentant heart."

Prior to 1849, all of the civil and criminal affairs in the Valley were handled by the ecclesiastical regime. In that year, the Saints in convention adopted a constitution providing for the provisional State of Deseret and a government with executive, legislative and judicial branches. Court organization was subsequently expanded and in 1851, a rather complete criminal code was established by the General Assembly and approved by Brigham Young. Shortly thereafter, news reached the settlers that a bill providing for the Territorial Government of Utah had passed the United States Congress and had been signed by President Fillmore. Because of the influx of people and the increase in the number of violations of the criminal laws it soon became evident that a prison was needed as a place for detention and punishment. Consequently, in January, 1852, the settlers sent a memorial to Congress with the request that an appropriation be made for the erection of a territorial prison. In the course of time, this appropriation was granted. The original prison was built on the same site utilized today for the Utah State Prison, located at Twenty-first South and Fifteenth East in Salt Lake City. It was fashioned of adobes, including the four walls, guard towers, the three inside prison structures, and the fourth building which served to house the administrative personnel. Completed, it assumed the familiar characteristics of an old Spanish fortress. The law providing for the administration of this institution specified that the prison should be under the direction of three inspectors and a warden, who were to be elected by the Legislative Assembly for terms of two years. The inspectors and warden were to establish rules and regulations for the prison and to appoint a clerk to keep careful records; such records were to include the name, age, place of birth, description, former occupation and length of sentence of each inmate. A constant effort was made to keep inmates employed on private or public works both inside and outside the walls of the institution. Upon release, a prisoner could be given \$30 in money and clothing valued up to \$50. Male and female prisoners were not to be kept in the same room, and the females were to be under the supervision of a suitable matron. The records further reveal that even in early Utah, the ecclesiastical tradition and influence sponsored attempts to rehabilitate the individual offender and return him to the community.—Rex A. Skidmore, *Penology in Early Utah, Utah Humanities Review*, Salt Lake City, April 1948.

Security Risk Prediction—A scholarly analysis of institutional escapes and their control has just been completed at the State Prison Colony, Norfolk, Massachusetts, in an attempt to outline the general escape situation and to determine if possible the security risk presented by any inmate. The study covered a fifteen year period and concerned inmates living outside the wall in the minimum security farm dormitories.

The study revealed that September was the most favored month and March the least favored month for escaping. However, the figures do not indicate a predominant emphasis on any one season as the most likely for escapes. The preferred time for an escape is during the evening before nine o'clock. The period during which there were the smallest number was from 9 p. m. to 1 a. m. Most inmates who seriously contemplated escape and had the opportunity to do so, took advantage of this opportunity within their first six months outside the wall. The type of offense for which committed appeared to have little significance. The percentages which differ from the normal distribution occur only in the groups containing few individuals and these numbers are too small to have statistical validity. It was noted, however, that the escape group shows a somewhat smaller percentage of first offenders and a somewhat larger percentage of habitual offenders than appears in a classification of the entire population. Nearly two-thirds of the escapees were under thirty-one and over three quarters of them were under thirty-six. It was noted that advanced age alone is not a factor which will definitely rule out an inmate as a security risk. Based upon four degrees of mobility—geographically stable, somewhat migratory, occasionally transient, or habitually transient—it appears that the escape group had somewhat less geographical stability than an average prison group. It also seems reasonable that a man accustomed to a vagabond type of life would give less thought to the problems of insecurity and haphazard traveling which accompany his departure from the institution. In this connection, the study revealed that most escapees fall into the class of unstable workers. In a study of the effect of the strength and nature of family ties, one fact of major importance was noted—not one inmate who was on congenial terms with his wife escaped.

As a general conclusion, it was found that all kinds of inmates of all ages and all types of criminal and social situations have escaped from Norfolk. However, it was learned that there are certain individual conditions which indicate higher probability of escape than others. To state the matter positively, it appears that the ideal security risk has less than six months to his next parole hearing, less than three years to his maximum, has served approximately half of his entire term, is a first offender, is over thirty-five years old, is geographically stable, has been a steady worker outside, and is happily married. It was emphasized, however, that the ideal type would afford an inadequate basis for security risk determinations and that extended criteria must be taken into consideration in the individual case, including the following:

Favorable factors.

Congenial marital ties.
Served half of entire term.
Less than 1 year to parole hearing.
Less than 3 years to maximum.
Occasional or first offender.
Over 35 years old.
Fair Geographical stability.
Fair employment record.
No detainers on file.
Generally co-operative attitude.

Unfavorable factors.

Weak or non-existent home ties.
Served less than 40% of term.
More than 18 months to parole hearing.
More than four years to maximum.
Habitual offender.
Under 30 years old.
Frequently transient.
Poor employment record.
Detainers on file.

Favorable factors.

Mild, unaggressive personality.

Unfavorable factors.

Uncooperative attitude.
 Daring, aggressive personality.
 Mental instability.
 Inferior intelligence.

After the balance sheet has been drawn up and all definitely favorable and unfavorable factors of an individual case listed, it will often be obvious whether or not the inmate is a reasonably good minimum security risk. In the final analysis, it is held that selection of suitable inmates for minimum security assignment depends on the good judgment and experience of a man who understands criminals. Such a man can be guided by research studies, but should never become slavish in the adoption of statistically established rules.—Nelson N. Cochrane, *Escapes and Their Control, The Prison World*, May-June 1948. *Editor's note*: Mr. Cochrane was recently appointed Director of Classification of the Massachusetts State Department of Correction.

Crime Prevention in Wisconsin—Wisconsin's new Youth Service Act dealing with the treatment of young delinquents and the prevention of crime and delinquency was enacted by the 1947 state legislature upon the recommendation of its Joint Committee on Juvenile Delinquency. This action on the part of the legislature received unusually strong support from citizens and civic leaders in all parts of the state. It was not a hastily conceived idea but represents in its basic provisions some of the best thinking of the leading criminologists, lawyers and jurists in this country. The correctional aspects of the act are essentially taken from the Model Youth Authority Act as recommended by the American Law Institute and later enacted into law by the State of California. The draftsmen of the Wisconsin Act likewise included leading lawyers, jurists and criminologists of the state. Something has been added to the Wisconsin law, however, which was not a part of the American Law Institute Model Act; this innovation includes broad new powers under the authority of the state for the promotion of preventive work. In some respects, these latter provisions dealing with prevention are regarded as the most important and the most challenging part of the new Act. Implementation of this new program will call for the services of a wide range of highly skilled medical, psychiatric, psychological, social work and other professional talent in the organization of diagnostic facilities, classification and treatment. With proper public support, Wisconsin can now carry this important program into execution.—Bjarne Romnes, *Wisconsin's Youth Service Act Designed to Prevent Juvenile Delinquency, Central States News*, Central States Correction Conference, May 1948. *Editor's Note*: Mr. Romnes is Director of the Division of Youth Service, Wisconsin Department of Public Welfare.

Mechanical Restraint of the Mental Patient—Mechanical restraint and seclusion have at one time or another been accepted procedures in the care of the mentally ill in state hospitals. Of the two procedures, states Dr. George W. Morrow of Illinois, mechanical restraint is much more objectionable. Restraint is not a form of therapy notwithstanding the claims to the contrary in an earlier day before modern methods of treat-

ment were available. It was considered by some hospital administrators to be preferable to permitting the patient to race about the ward or to strike his head with his fist or against the wall. Modern facilities for the care of such patients make no provision for the use of mechanical restraint. Therapy is positive and constructive. Restraint is negative and destructive and is at best but a temporary expedient. It may and usually does interfere with treatment. Conditions necessary for the removal of restraint are very largely a matter of education on the part of those responsible for the administrative procedures in state hospitals. Patients must be considered as sick individuals. The functions of the hospital are those of therapy. There is no more reason for the application of restraint to the mentally ill than to those who are physically ill. It has no place in the modern care of the mentally ill patient. Any virtues it may have had have certainly been replaced by therapeutic methods which contribute effectively to the treatment program.—George W. Morrow, M. D., Superintendent, Kankakee State Hospital, Illinois, *Mechanical Restraint and Seclusion, The Welfare Bulletin*, February 1948, Illinois Department of Public Welfare.
