THE DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION OF AN INVENTORY OF ACADEMIC REQUIREMENTS FOR CRIMINAL JUSTICE EDUCATION

APPROVED:

Graduate Committee:

G. E. Matthews
Major Professor

Mele Boney
Minor Professor

J. E. Halstead
Committee Member

Robert C. Haines
Committee Member

Dwane Kring
Dean of the School of Education

Robert B. Toulouse
Dean of the Graduate School

The purpose of this study was to develop a concept of higher education which would be responsive to the needs of criminal justice. The study sought first to identify from both the popular and professional literature the principal roles of the three main component areas of criminal justice (police, courts, and corrections). Second, the study sought to identify those fundamental areas of knowledge which would support the common criminal justice roles; and, finally, the study sought to formulate the essential items of knowledge thus developed into an inventory of academic requirements for criminal justice education and to validate that inventory by subjecting it to the scrutiny of a panel of experts for their evaluation.

Each of the subcomponent areas of criminal justice was found to have a variety of roles, but three broad, unifying roles were identified: (1) the maintenance of social order, (2) the official application of the sanctioning power of the state, and (3) decision-making with regard to the propriety of the conduct of others.
An examination of the fundamental concepts in higher education (in the behavioral and social sciences) disclosed some fifty-two concepts or academic elements which were perceived as providing necessary academic support for the common roles of criminal justice. The fifty-two items were evaluated by the panel of experts and a total of forty items were accepted by the experts as necessary for a program of higher education for criminal justice. The items selected met a mean acceptance rate of 89 percent.

It was concluded on the basis of the data received that although routine tasks of criminal justice require training in specific job skills, the broad occupational requirements also demand a certain degree of academic preparation at the post-secondary level. The response of the panel of experts confirms the thesis that there is a definite role for higher education in criminal justice and that this role may be met at least in part through application of traditional concepts within the social and behavioral sciences. It was further concluded that the view of the experts tended to reflect a more pragmatic as opposed to theoretical orientation on the part of the experts polled; the items selected indicate a propensity to seek active solutions to crime-related problems as opposed to seeking an etiological or epidemiological type of understanding.

It was inferred that criminal justice curricula based on the validated inventory developed in this study could be
adapted to the community college setting and that the effects of higher education on the quality of criminal justice may be expected to play an increasingly important role in the future. It was further inferred that there is a need to develop more qualified academicians who are oriented toward the problems of law enforcement and corrections not so much from the practitioner's point of view but from a more theoretical position. This theoretical position should incorporate a sound, advanced preparation in such areas as clinical and social psychology, sociology, political science, public administration, and education.

It was recommended that additional research be conducted to more fully understand the problems involved in interfacing criminal justice needs with institutions of higher education and that additional research be carried out in the area of determining the most desirable combinations of requirements for persons who will either teach in or administer criminal justice programs within institutions of higher education.
THE DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION OF AN INVENTORY OF ACADEMIC REQUIREMENTS FOR CRIMINAL JUSTICE EDUCATION

DISSERTATION

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Charles P. McDowell, B. S., M. P. A.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Some change in higher education has been seen in the development of new academic programs in areas not previously included within the traditional role and scope of most colleges and universities. One such area is that of criminal justice. It has been noted, for example, that one of the most important gains made by the police profession in the past quarter century is the development and expansion of pre-employment education at the college and university level (14, p. 183).

If it is true, as one writer suggests, that police decisions and practices have a greater effect on the legal system than those of any other agency involved in the administration of the law (1, p. 98), then a movement towards the establishment of higher education as an integral aspect of occupational preparation for criminal justice careers may have a significant impact on higher education.

The last several years have seen a proliferation of criminal justice programs at all college levels; however,
there has been a relative paucity of information relating to the nature, role, scope, objectives, or conceptual basis for such programs.

One recent study prepared by the International Association of Chiefs of Police has examined police education and training in Texas; however, this study was mainly concerned with training and its review of the role of higher education was for the most part restricted to an examination of several of the various curricula (9). Recent articles in professional journals on the subject of criminal justice education have tended to deal with the tabulation of existing criminal justice programs or the need for additional programs (6, 16). There have been additional articles covering such topics as organizational status and location relative to criminal justice programs, as well as a number of articles concerned with the professional objectives related to education (11, 13, 20). Although these articles reflect a growing concern over the role of higher education in criminal justice, little exploration has been made of the exact nature of that role.

Criminal justice is a highly complex field. Its constituent elements (the police, the courts, and corrections) are major factors in social regulation. These respective subcomponents are only able to perform their respective functions when those who are employed as officials within these areas have the proper combination of training and education.
The role of education in criminal justice—especially the role of higher education—is still emerging. The end product of this developmental process must be based upon sound theory and must be expressed in valid educational processes if society is to be afforded a sound, viable system of criminal justice.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was the development of a concept of higher education for criminal justice responsibilities. This was accomplished through the development and validation of an inventory of academic requirements for criminal justice education.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to provide answers to the following questions:

1. What do the component areas of criminal justice (the police, the courts, and corrections) have in common in terms of interacting with man and his institutions?

2. What fundamental areas of knowledge or understanding would be most germane to a preparation for a career in criminal justice?

3. On the basis of the answers to questions one and two, how may the potential of an institution of higher education best be directed to the needs of criminal justice; that is, what inventory of academic requirements would bring
the fundamental areas of knowledge and understanding together so as to provide for a systematic body of instruction required for meeting the higher education needs of a person entering a career in criminal justice. By "inventory of academic requirements" this study means relatively specific areas of academic content as opposed to generic categories such as "political science" or "sociology." Such generic categories would be too inclusive and vague to provide an identifiable referent. Also, the inventory of academic requirements is not intended to be a listing of course titles, as course titles may or may not accurately reflect the actual content of the course. An example of what might be included within an inventory of academic requirements might possibly be "a study of the structure, needs, kinds, and functions of American municipal governments."

Background and Significance of the Study

The development of the American system of criminal justice has followed a highly complex evolutionary sequence with an uneven development of the constituent elements within the system. The most conspicuous element, the police, had its origins in the industrial revolution of the 1700's in England when human resources were drawn from the country to the cities. As the cities expanded in population they experienced a corresponding growth in strife and disorder. The problems which arose from the lawlessness bred by
poverty and the other social ills of the time culminated in
the formation of the Metropolitan Police in London in 1829.

The American system of law enforcement, based on British
jurisprudence, is also the product of major urban unrest,
most notably that occurring during the period from 1830 to
approximately 1860 (8, p. 41). American law enforcement at
the municipal level has evolved from the cumbersome watch-
and-ward systems of the last century to the present-day
formally organized police systems and their companions, the
courts and corrections. The fruits of modern technology,
enhanced by the viability of an unprecedented system of
education, have been made available to the police and have
materially aided them in their advancement.

In the early years of this century the concept of formal
training (to say nothing of education) for a police officer
was a radical idea, the philosophy being that a man could
only learn from experience on the job. In fact, at about
the time of the First World War one writer noted that a group
of lectures covering criminal law, municipal government, and
criminology offered at Columbia University for police officers
was of doubtful practical value (5). Some fourteen years
later a new attitude was made manifest when in 1931 August
Vollmer went on record as being of the opinion that within
a comparatively short period of time the traditional police-
man, who believed that there was more law in the end of a
nightstick than in all of the books in all of the libraries,
would disappear and in his place there would be found a man especially trained to serve the people more intelligently (21).

It was also in the year 1931 that the Wickersham Commission took note of the growing competence of the police but also noted the need for law enforcement agencies to improve their educational requirements for personnel (15, p. 56). This movement in thought towards the educating of law enforcement personnel was unique in this country, as the system of law enforcement then extant was essentially based on coercion and the use of force and accordingly found little functional value in an emphasis on education. That this has tended to be a continuing philosophy is reflected in a 1961 survey of over 300 police departments which revealed that 24 percent of those departments had no minimum educational requirements and less than one percent required any level of college preparation (19, p. 127). The complaint of the lack of education among law enforcement personnel was reiterated in 1967 in the report of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice (Task Force Report: The Police) in the prediction that the quality of police service would not improve until higher educational requirements were established for police personnel (19, p. 127). Kreml (12) voiced a similar attitude when he made the assertion that a comparison of a large police department with a comparable business enterprise revealed
that the administrative skills required of both had many common elements; he was specifically alluding to problem-solving through the use of traditional managerial techniques calling for efficiency, planning, communication, and technical innovation (12, p. 36). Kreml was merely stressing the point made much earlier by Fosdick that in spite of the great need only a very few police administrators have achieved the appropriate level of training and education in management and administration to effectively administer a law enforcement agency (4, p. 220).

In considering the relationship between criminal justice and higher education several perspectives must be differentiated. Although the criminal justice system includes the police, the courts, and corrections, the principal aspect tends to be in the area of the police with the other two subcomponents being largely ancillary in nature. From the standpoint of education there are thus two prime areas of concern. The first is the problem of enticing educationally qualified personnel into criminal justice careers; that is, getting people who already have the needed education and may thus bring their skills into service (18, p. 24; 22, pp. 138-139). Second, there is the need to provide within institutions of higher education suitable academic programs which will meet the cognitive and conceptual needs of those who wish to develop an educational background for a career in criminal justice. In this latter respect there
has been a rapidly growing movement, especially at the community college level, to develop degree programs to meet the needs of those either in or contemplating careers in criminal justice. It was noted in 1966, for example, that there were 134 programs in higher education nationwide which were identifiable as criminal justice oriented; of this total, 100 were community college programs (19, p. 127). Two years later, in 1968, there were 261 criminal justice oriented programs of which 199 were community college programs (2, p. 1.2). The increase in criminal justice oriented programs by 95 percent from 1966 to 1968 kept fairly constant the proportion of programs located at the community college level (from 75 percent of the overall total number of programs in 1966 to 77 percent of the overall total in 1968). In 1970 there was a total of 437 criminal justice oriented programs in United States colleges and universities, of which 345 (70 percent) were located at the community college level (10). This represents a 67 percent increase over the 1968 figure, but a 226 percent increase over the 1966 figure. Once again, it should be noted that the proportion of programs located at the community college remained fairly stable, although the slight upward trend has continued.

In order to support and encourage the growth of these programs (among other things), the Law Enforcement Assistance Agency was established within the United States Department of Justice and has been instrumental in infusing large sums of
money into the area of criminal justice education. The President's Crime Commission has examined a number of these programs and has found them to be highly vocational in nature and primarily intended to provide the technical skills necessary for the performance of police work (19, p. 127). The Commission concluded that there has been far too little analysis either by the police or by colleges and universities of the educational needs of law enforcement personnel, and that until the needs of field officers are more fully evaluated undergraduate programs should emphasize the social sciences and the liberal arts (19, p. 128).

Inasmuch as preparation for a criminal justice career involves a combination of education and training, it is important to distinguish between education and training. Training would be essentially the development of performance skills required to carry out routine occupational functions. Teaching to meet this type of need is typically conducted in special institutions (in the case of the police this would normally be the police academy). On the other hand, teaching designed to increase the student's ability and inclination to employ critical, independent judgment and creativity may appropriately be called education (17, p. 23).
With the above in mind, it may be noted that one major source composed of both police executives and educators has indicated that the primary emphasis in criminal justice degree programs has been upon the nature and implementation of the law enforcement function (3, p. 9). Such an emphasis would place the bulk of these programs under the heading of training rather than education, thus leaving open the question of what the actual role of higher education is in relation to criminal justice. This also poses the question of what inventory of academic requirements would be most valid in providing the student with the requisite conceptual skills needed to enable him to function through the use of critical, independent, and creative judgment.

This study will be significant in three respects. First, it will deal with a problem of broad social significance. Second, it will relate the role of higher education to the needs of criminal justice and in so doing will attempt to clarify this relationship. Third, it will seek to produce a valid paradigm for use in future curriculum development.

Definition of Terms

For purposes of this study the following definitions have been formulated:

1. **Criminal Justice System**.—A conceptual framework encompassing those institutions and agencies charged with the responsibility for enforcing the provisions of the
criminal law. The system is composed of three broad sub-component categories: the police, the courts, and corrections.

2. Higher Education.--That level of instructional activity associated with academic programs offered at the post-secondary level. This includes community or junior colleges, senior colleges and universities, and graduate schools.

3. Academic Programs.--The formal sequence by which persons are matured, educated, disciplined, and conditioned to effectively plan for, react to, or resolve a wide variety of societal or technological problems on the basis of rational choice and the understanding of effects and alternatives. This process is defined as being associated with the instructional programs offered by institutions of higher education.

4. Vocational-Technical Training.--The formal sequence by which persons are brought to an adequate level of competence, skill, and understanding to properly perform tasks expected or required of them; although such training may be offered by institutions of higher education, it is typically associated with special institutions provided for purposes of the training required.

Assumptions

It is the underlying assumption of this study that there is in fact a role for higher education in criminal
justice and that this role may be defined. It is further assumed that an inventory of academic requirements may be identified which will be compatible with the basic nature and requirements of criminal justice roles and that the means of determining such an inventory as well as its validation, as set forth in this study, will be both proper and valid. It is further assumed that such an inventory may be utilized in the development of a criminal justice program within the framework of higher education.

Limitations

The limitations imposed on this study were intended to accomplish the following: (a) to carefully restrict the scope of the study to those areas appropriate to higher education; (b) to maintain a clear distinction between the requirements of training and education; and (c) to develop a basic set of educational requirements for criminal justice. Educational requirements were restricted to those appropriate to the level of higher education within the realm of the social and behavioral sciences. The requirements thus developed were further limited to those which were common to each subcomponent area of criminal justice.

Procedures for Collection of Data

The procedure for the collection of data for this study consisted of an intensive review of both the specialized and general literature. The review of literature fell into two
broad phases. In the first phase, the review determined the common, essential requirements facing practitioners of criminal justice in dealing with man and his institutions. In essence this phase set forth the common role requirements for those who work in police, court, and corrections functions. This phase furnished the guidelines for the second broad phase of the review of literature. The second phase took the common, essential requirements facing practitioners of criminal justice in dealing with man and his institutions and articulated these role requirements in terms of fundamental areas of knowledge or understanding necessary to perform the role functions. In short, the two phases provided answers to the questions, "What do practitioners of criminal justice do?" and "What do they need to know in order to do it?"

Procedures for Treatment of Data

The fundamental areas of knowledge or understanding necessary for the performance of role expectations of criminal justice agents were expressed in terms which allowed them to interface with appropriate academic syllabi or curriculum and constituted a preliminary inventory of academic requirements for criminal justice education.

The preliminary inventory of academic requirements for criminal justice education was then subjected to an analysis of content validity by the following method:
A. A list was compiled, with the assistance of the Secretary-Treasurer of the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, of persons active in the field of criminal justice and the list was composed of persons representing the respective subcomponent areas of police, courts, and corrections. Further, this list was restricted to persons with the following qualifications:

1. Minimum educational attainment of at least the master's degree or a terminal professional degree (J.D., LL.B.).
2. Prior active work experience with either police, courts, or corrections.
3. Current or recent employment as a faculty member at an institution of higher education.

B. Each person on the list was furnished the preliminary inventory of academic requirements, along with a suitable cover letter requesting the respondent to rate each item in terms of its value to a sound, basic preparation in higher education for a career in criminal justice. The rating was accomplished on a three-point scale with the following choices:

1. Essential
2. Not essential
3. Undecided
C. Only those items selected by a minimum of 75 percent of the judges as being in the first category were considered as valid.

D. On the basis of the selections made by the judges a final list was compiled and was considered to be a valid inventory of academic requirements for criminal justice education and accordingly expressed, at least in part, the role of higher education in meeting the needs of criminal justice.
CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY


CHAPTER II
CRIMINAL JUSTICE ROLES: THEORETICAL BACKGROUND
AND RELATED RESEARCH

In attempting to formulate a body of knowledge required for the effective performance of criminal justice functions, it is first necessary to define the role expectations of those who are engaged in such activities. Only by doing so may some determination be made as to the nature of the academic preparation which would be best suited to the job which needs to be accomplished.

This chapter includes a discussion of the theoretical background of criminal justice roles as they appear in the general and specialized literature. These roles may be either de jure or de facto. The relationship among the three principal functions of criminal justice vis-à-vis their roles is examined and set forth.

Criminal justice is an enormous complex of interrelated operations, and in recognition of this fact the President’s Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice (The President’s Crime Commission) sought to examine criminal justice in the United States through the construction of a model based on the principles of system analysis.
The Commission was aware of the fact that as of the present time the exact nature of the relationships among the elements of the criminal justice system are but poorly understood and that available data has brought forth little clarification (71, p. 262). The Commission further gave recognition to the fact that a systems analysis approach could only be applied to those aspects of criminal justice that were amenable to quantification (71, p. 262). Thus an analysis of criminal justice operations had to be based on the type of events which could be tallied and summed, limiting the representativeness of the areas of emotion, motivation, personality and the like.

With full recognition of these major limitations, the President's Crime Commission developed a model based on a description of the detailed events which may occur as an individual is processed through the criminal justice system. The model consists of three principal components: the police, the courts, and corrections. The theoretical background and related literature pertaining to the roles of criminal justice will accordingly be presented in terms of this three-way nomenclature.

The Police

Doig (22) has made the observation that for a considerable period of time the police have been an unexamined entity to political scientists, students of public administration,
and the general public. He noted that the police have been mentioned in articles which dealt with the infringement of civil liberties, violations of criminal law, or which involved scandals centering around corruption or brutality. Doig maintains, however, that the police have not been the subject of any careful analysis in terms of their normative behavior and he feels that this is in part the case because the main concern of political scientists is in the realm of power, and they have tended to focus their attention on conflicts which have become overt public issues. The political scientists have thus avoided systematic study of the police because the police have not been perceived as having had a hand in the shaping and sharing of power (22, p. 393).

Before examining the role of the police, it is first necessary to briefly note some points in their development as a social institution. In this respect Carleton (14) has pointed out that enforcement of the criminal law in the United States is a governmental obligation, and the definition of criminal conduct has been largely left to the states. The police function has therefore been a local affair. This was very obvious in the colonies where local constables and night watchmen were appointed by their townsmen to patrol the town streets and to call out the time and weather (55, p. 328). With the passage of time, the night watchman concept grew into a more organized night watch system complemented by a smaller day watch; however, in numerous cities
there existed considerable animosity between the day and night watches, which inhibited the effectiveness of both. This was resolved (in theory) in 1844 when the New York Legislature passed an act creating a unified day and night force and abolished the old independent day and night watches, thus leading other cities in creating the first formal American police department in the modern meaning of the term (55, p. 329). The New York Police Department was composed of policemen and superior officers who were appointed to their posts through the nomination of the aldermen of the wards to which they belonged, and it became common for political parties to use the police in their own partisan interests, such as in the controlling of local elections (55, p. 330). The value of the police as an instrumentality of political interests resulted in action on the part of many state legislatures to create boards to administer police departments in order for political ends to be met (55, p. 330).

As the urban centers developed and found their emerging police departments to be politically dominated, similar experiences were occurring in the rural areas and on the frontier. Sheriffs, for example, were not paid salaries but were rather reimbursed in fees based on the number of prisoners in the county jail, and the sheriff of a large or populous county could earn a higher income than the governor of his state or the President of the United States (14, p. 2).
It may thus be seen that there was good reason for the sheriff's position to be highly coveted, for it was not only lucrative but also the most ideal base upon which to build a county political machine (14, p. 2).

No sketch of the historical antecedents of American police systems would be valid without some mention of the role of frontier mores, for as Elliot has observed, much of the basis for conduct is rooted in the past as well as in the present (25, p. 185). Early settlers typically moved ahead of established communities and often resided in areas where there was no law enforcement of any kind. Under such circumstances men and women did what they felt was necessary to provide for their own safety and well-being. In frontier areas private individuals often took the law into their own hands by forming vigilante committees which frequently sought out and arbitrarily executed suspected malefactors (14, p. 3). This usurpation of power by extralegal police agencies has not only had an impact on subsequent social development, but has been forged into a broader mystique as represented by the thesis of Frederick Turner. The Turner thesis holds that the isolation of the frontier forced the need to create civilization anew during each westward advance, thus accounting for the individualism of Americans (29, p. 583).

The combined philosophies of individualism and the local enforcement of criminal laws has been partially
responsible for the development of our present system of some 40,000 separate police agencies which employ approximately 420,000 people and spend more than two and one half billion dollars each year (69, p. 1). Coupled with this numerical diversity is the fact that there are no detailed codes of police practices, and the police are in general accountable to no one but themselves (50, pp. 18, 20). It may therefore be expected that in a pluralistic society with an attendant high degree of fragmentation among police agencies there will be significant variances in the roles the police are expected to perform. It may further be expected that this diversity will reflect a myriad of social, political, and economic variables. Both the general and the specialized literature confirm this. For purposes of clarity and analysis, police role expectations will be grouped into four broad categories: (a) enforcement of the criminal law, (b) maintenance of public order, (c) provision of emergency services, and (d) social regulation.

**Enforcement of the Criminal Law**

Perhaps the most traditional concept of the role of the police centers around the enforcement of the criminal statutes. In its most basic sense, this involves the discovery by the police of the commission of some criminal act, the identification of the persons believed to be responsible for the act, and the remanding of all information and evidence
to the courts for adjudication. As Bordua has said "... the legally defined end of a police department is the enforcement of the law" (9, p. 34). Donnelly (23, p. 92) has affirmed this view in his statement that "perhaps the most typical police task is the arrest and detention of persons reasonably suspected of criminal behavior." In the words of a policy statement issued by the International Association of Chiefs of Police, the police role is to "... prevent crime and to detect and apprehend violators" (38, p. 15). William Parker, the late chief of the Los Angeles Police Department, often stated that the role of the police was to provide immediate, effective protection of the individuals' constitutional guarantees and that protection of those guarantees depended on the ability of the police to repress criminals (53, p. 273). Parker contended that only tough, ruthless police work "would stem the tides of evil" (39, p. 96). Enforcement of the law normally means that the police invoke the pretrial criminal justice processes, generally consisting of an arrest which involves the taking of the suspect into custody for purposes of charging him with a crime (31, p. 207). Such action involves a number of attendant functions, including the administrative processing of the suspect (booking) and perhaps a continuation of the investigation through interrogation. Not every instance of police action against an individual in a law enforcement episode involves these activities, although in the case of
the more serious offenses the procedure is generally consistent. In lesser offenses, such as the violation of traffic laws, the police officer has the option of considerably milder treatment in the form of issuing a citation. However, it is in the role of enforcer of the criminal statutes that the police receive the most attention in the literature (6, 8, 10, 20, 24, 30, 35, 37, 39, 46, 48, 52, 53, 57, 67).

Chambliss and Seidman (16) view this role from a sociological perspective when they define a law as a norm and assert that such norms compel obedience on the part of all individuals concerned and at the same time command sanctioning agencies to act against those who refuse to comply with the mandate of the norm. For example, the laws (norms) against criminal homicide prohibit people from taking the lives of other people. If a person violates this norm, it likewise commands the police to act against the violator.

In spite of the general tone of the literature that the police should enforce the criminal law, there is very little amplification on exactly how this should be done. Rinck (59) says that the police should enforce the law because no one else will, and Day (20) sees the need for giving the police greater authority to enforce the law, but without specifying how and under what circumstances this is to be done. Misner (48) believes that law enforcement should consist of (in part) apprehension, criminal investigation, and the regulation and control of traffic. Mead
includes in enforcement the functions of investigating homicides, giving tickets, and keeping addicts, prostitutes, and gamblers off of the streets (or confined to certain streets). A review of the literature has revealed considerable concern for enforcement in crimes of violence (especially those against the person) and in some property offenses, as well as in the case of traffic regulation. With relatively few exceptions (2, 26, 40, 68, 74) there is little mention of the role of the police in enforcing the law in the case of organized crime, white-collar crime, or in offenses involving regulatory processes.

Maintenance of Public Order

In spite of the apparent mandate of the police to enforce the criminal law, Wilson has viewed the patrolman's role as being defined more by his responsibility for maintaining order than by his responsibility for enforcing the law (77, p. 40). Skolnick (66, p. 6) modifies this stand somewhat by saying that "The police in a democratic society are required to maintain order and to do so under the rule of law."

Bittner (15, p. 137) addresses himself to this point when he says that there appear to be two more or less independent domains of police activity: one involves police conduct in affairs which will later be brought under the scrutiny of the courts, and the other involves activities
which will not be subject to any outside review. These two domains spell the difference in the activities between "law officers" and "peace officers" (15, p. 137). Bittner says that when a police officer directs, aids, informs, pacifies, disciplines, rousts, or does whatever else he does that involves action with an arrest, he does it with some reference to the circumstances of the occasion and in so doing contributes to the maintaining of peace and order (15, p. 137). In fact, Bittner is of the opinion that in a majority of the cases of arrest for minor offenses, although the specifications of the law may be met, the arrest is merely the outward appearance of an intervention that is actually based on altogether different considerations. He believes the police do not really enforce the law, but rather use it as a resource to solve certain practical problems involved in keeping the peace (15, p. 149). Packer sees this dual role in terms of two models, which he calls the "due process model" and the "crime control model" (51). The due process model is based on the central value of the protection of non-criminals from physical restraints by agents of the state and emphasizes procedural due process whereas the crime control model is based on the proposition that the repression of criminal conduct is the most important function which can be performed by the police, because only by guaranteeing order can the individual in a society be guaranteed his freedom (16, p. 272). Sutherland and Cressey (68, p. 379) have
noted that in some cases the police use the crime control model despite its occasional conflict with other police obligations: "Most police departments . . . have rules which authorize officers to make arrests on suspicion quite in opposition to the law. Most of the illegal arrests are designed to protect society." In this same vein Mead has also noted that one of the main functions of the police is to keep the peace and to provide whatever the community would support or tolerate in the way of law and order, "... including order that is outside of the law" (46, p. 38). She states that the police are expected, among other things, to establish quiet, safety, and respectability (46, p. 38). The homeostatic view of preserving the social order was attacked from a slightly different perspective by Bard (4, p. 247), who stated that the police represent the status quo and are the guardians of society's present value system. The central problem of maintaining order is, of course, in the definition of what "order" is and under what circumstances it is to be properly achieved. Not all disorder is of necessity unlawful activity, and this casts the police in the role of acting as arbiters of the common welfare. The report of the President's Crime Commission illustrated this when it stated that a great majority of the situations in which the police intervene are not criminal in nature but rather are simply public nuisances that someone in the community wants stopped, "... such as barking
dogs, loud music, or youths throwing snowballs" (71, p. 91). Schur emphasizes this same point when he states that a majority of police actions involve such matters as drunkenness, disorderly conduct, and vagrancy, which are violations of law or ordinance not so much because they are intrinsically bad but because they violate good order (62, p. 26). It should be borne in mind that the maintenance of order calls for official responses to the behavior of persons who may be acting out of a wide variety of reasons. Terris has noted that because of this the police officer's job demands a knowledge of human beings and the personal, as opposed to official, authority needed to influence people without the use or the threat of the use of force (70, p. 67). Singer also sees much of the work of the policeman as being in the peace-keeping role, such as when they are involved in mediating family brawls, locating lost persons and runaway children, and arbitrating business and barroom disputes (65, p. 52). Fink (27) emphasizes the catch-all nature of police work while Blum (8) feels that policemen are social workers whose aim is to keep the modern city safe and its inhabitants at peace with one another. It is obvious that the peace keeping function of the police role brings the individual officer into contact with a wide variety of persons whose behaviors reflect the full gamut of human motivation and whose behavior responses represent reaction to the full range of internal and external stimuli.
To exacerbate this problem is the oft-quoted assertion that the individual police officer may be charged with enforcing all of the laws, but practical reality demands that he select the situations to which he will direct his attention (27, 34, 48, 70, 71). Thus it may be seen that an individual officer may see a noncriminal act as being of more importance than a minor criminal offense and will use his authority accordingly. This is the basis for the statement by Blum (8, p. 76) that the policeman's job is whatever the community feels needs doing (including solving family disputes, administering first aid, destroying dangerous animals, preventing suicides, calming the deranged, redirecting delinquents, and preventing riots—just to name a few). Because of this large and complex peace-keeping role, Fink sees the police as being subject to procedures which require that efforts be made to foster communication with the community as a whole in order to be aware of the problems and propensities of the entire community with which the police must come into contact (27, p. 626).

Provision of Emergency Services

Wilson (78, pp. 464-465) has advised students of police administration that since police and fire personnel are both involved in emergency services, the police should clearly establish their responsibilities in these areas. Although he was looking at this role from a management point of view, he did give recognition to the fact that the police are
often called upon in the case of drownings, building cave-ins, transportation accidents, and other such disasters (78, p. 465). The provision of emergency services is a role commonly subsumed under the rubric of protection of life and property (67, p. 111). This type of service was prominent in a study cited by Menninger (47, p. 273) in which he noted that of 801 incoming calls to the police (not including those excluded for good reason) about one half were requests for support or assistance with regard to problems involving health, safety, or interpersonal relationships. Mead (46) saw the provision of emergency services as one of the main roles of the police, and in his analysis of the role of the police in an urban setting, Misner (48) also included the role of providing emergency services.

It should be noted that the provision of emergency services is not restricted to those situations in which there is immediate threat to life or limb. The Task Force on Law and Law Enforcement to the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence (13, p. 286) cited such diverse activities as getting cats out of trees, providing emergency medical aid, and helping people who have locked themselves out of their homes. In many instances these are not actual public emergencies, but are nonetheless situational problems in which people find themselves in need of assistance and call upon the police for aid. The literature is generally silent on this matter (the provision of
emergency services) perhaps because it is an area so com-
monly taken for granted.

Social Regulation

Sutherland and Cressey have stated that until the
police were brought into contact with large numbers of
citizens through enforcement of traffic laws, they were
"mostly workingmen employed by the upper classes and middle
classes to control other workingmen" (68, p. 389). Chambliss
and Seidman (16), in their analysis of the social organiza-
tion of police work, have noted that one of the reasons for
the establishing of the London police in 1829 was that the
poor population of London's slums was rioting and the police
were thought of as one way to keep the masses from destroying
property and life in the better sections of the city.

It has already been shown that the formative years of
American police service were marked with political influ-
ence. Even at the present, municipal police agencies are
subordinate to local administration, and the local adminis-
tration normally involves elected officials who in turn
represent a positively privileged segment of society (16,
p. 329). The situation was tersely summed up by Bard (4,
p. 247) when he wrote, "The police represent the status quo-
they are the guardians of societies present value system."
According to Devlin (21) the police have grown from the
earlier task of providing protection to society from its
enemies (men who wished to violate law) to the enforcing of
social regulations. Implicit in this statement is the notion that the social regulations which will be enforced are regulations which have been set forth by those who are in a position to do so, and furthermore that they will be enforced by agencies responsive to their desires. Sutherland and Cressey feel that the police can therefore safely exceed their legal authority only when they deal with people who are not powerful politically and who are by and large helpless (68, p. 377). It is for this reason, according to Chambliss and Seidman, that typically "... the police limit their search for potential crimes to lower-class sections of the city" (16, pp. 330-331). They make the observation that other offenses which would be suitable invitations for arrest—such as discrimination in jobs, unfair advertising, excessively high interest rates, and other offenses of a similar nature are seldom afforded police attention (16, p. 330). The police role of social regulation is largely defacto; but, regardless of its origins or legitimacy, it has very serious ramifications. One writer (17, p. 135) found both police and minority groups fighting a battle "... on grounds and according to rules that neither chose, or are to change." Even more directly, Roberts (60) sees the police as caught in the vortex of forces they cannot control. In his assessment of the paradoxes in law enforcement work, Roberts sees the police caught between the conflict of private wealth and public
poverty and he sees them as victims of the paradox of public concern over social upheavals abroad and as yet being ignorant of our own domestic social upheaval (60, p. 224).

It is in the realm of social regulation that the police have increasingly entered the literature and it is in this role that considerable effort has been directed in terms of the selection and education of police personnel. It is becoming increasingly apparent that the police are out of their legal milieu when they continue to function by the old rules in a new society; according to Wilkins (76, p. 126), there are social consequences of technological change which are of importance in relation to the law and its enforcement. As a result of these changes, according to Grafton (35), the police are called upon to handle social problems for which they are not equipped, and the man on the beat is finding himself forced to deal with problems that are really economic or medical, and as a result he is beginning to feel overwhelmed. The problem is circular, for as the social situation deteriorates the police tend to take an attitude of superordination and, according to Sutherland and Cressey (68, p. 387), "... to assume unofficial powers, often in opposition to the desires of many of their constituents, and in doing so they often adopt punitive measures." The police view, according to one police spokesman, is that the police must "keep anarchy from taking over" (67, p. 107).
Summary

The police are the first, and perhaps the most complex, element in the criminal justice system. They have developed out of the combination of transplanted English jurisprudence and an evolving American character. The police have developed in a nation dedicated to selective law-breaking: the manufacture of certain items in colonial days, in spite of British prohibitions; the sale of firearms and liquor to the Indians; violations of early laws of commerce and currency regulation; Shays' Rebellion in 1786; the Whiskey Rebellion in 1794; trading with the enemy during the War of 1812; Dorr's Rebellion in 1841; illegal slave trading and the harboring of fugitive slaves; the violation of anti-trust laws and the era of the robber barons; violation of banking and prohibition laws; and the present widespread violation of draft laws and popular acts of sabotage in efforts to upset desegregation and unpopular military operations. The concomitant ubiquitousness of law violation and the political contamination of the police have generated considerable amounts of role conflict, not all of which is by any means resolved. The police are expected to enforce criminal statutes and to maintain public order. The maintenance of public order brings the police into contact with a wide variety of persons, not all of whom are lawbreakers and confronts them with situations in which the problem may have a social, medical, or psychological genesis. The police are
expected to provide service in emergencies, including matters which, although of no great social significance, are nonetheless affairs of signal importance to the persons concerned. Finally, the police are charged with the largely de facto role of social regulation. In this latter capacity they act on the basis of pressures applied to them as a consequence of their location within the organizational structure of the prevailing system of political control.

The Courts

The difficulty in examining the role of the courts as an element of the criminal justice system is compounded by two considerations. The first is that in general the courts are a function of the legal profession and much of the action which transpires under their aegis is regulated by substantive and procedural law. That is, the role of the courts is defined by law, which further defines the manner in which the court's activities are to be carried out. Second, the term "courts" is generic in nature and covers tribunals ranging from local justice of the peace courts to the Supreme Court of the United States. It should be readily obvious that not all courts play a similar role in the administration of justice.

For purposes of this discussion, only the lower criminal courts, or trial courts, will be considered, for it is in the trial court that the most fundamental role of the courts in criminal justice is carried out. Because the role of the
court is so clearly defined by law, the literature is largely silent on this matter, other than to describe the efficiency or lack thereof which characterizes court performances. The President's Crime Commission (71, p. 125) stated that the criminal courts are primarily institutions for dealing with specific acts which have already taken place. Sutherland and Cressey (68, p. 418) are more to the point in their assertion that "... the courts are formally organized primarily for implementation of the punitive societal reaction to crime."

In short, the courts neither seek out their clientele nor do they punish them. Persons who come before the bar are brought to it by the prosecuting attorney who in turn generally receives them from the police. The courts then act as a filter for the cases which come before it. This phenomenon is alluded to by Schur in his description of "case mortality" in which not all arrests lead to actual prosecution, not all prosecutions result in convictions, and not all convictions result in imprisonment (62, p. 36).

The reasons that a criminal case may not come to trial are several. The person who has been accused, for example, may plead abatement; he may file a demurrer; or, he may move to quash or dismiss the accusation. These actions may be based on defective accusations or because the court may not have jurisdiction over the offender or the offense, or perhaps because of a technicality such as a prior conviction
for the same specified offense. Or, the court may accept a

*nolle prosequi* in which the prosecutor declines to pursue

the case. One major reason that many cases never reach the

trial stage is that the accused is induced to plead guilty
to a lesser charge in return for which he is given a lighter

sentence (40).

The basic point is that the problems dealt with by the
courts—the acts of individuals—are the problems brought
to the courts by way of the police. It is widely reported
in the literature (1, 3, 5, 18, 28, 40, 71, 73) that the
courts are in need of reform, and for the most part the
focal point of concern is on the management of the court's
administrative affairs.

In terms of the interrelatedness of the courts with
other elements of criminal justice, they have had a marked
influence on police activities in recent years—which may
in turn be expected to have an effect on the type of cases
the police send forth for court action. The principal point
of the court's influence has been through the use of the
"exclusionary rule" which excludes evidence obtained il-
legally by the police (41, 42, 43). Thus, by failing to
honor the product of irresponsible police conduct, the courts
have given a clearer legal definition of the role of the
police. By the same token, as the courts make greater use
of bail and probation, fewer suspects ultimately go to
prison.
A brief look at the matter of bail will illustrate a type of change which has had an effect on the whole criminal justice system. Bail is a sum of money, the actual amount determined by a judge, which an accused may be allowed to post in order to guarantee his appearance in court at some later date (32, p. 80). As a general rule, if a person does not have the money for bail, he may obtain it from a bail bondsman; however, if he cannot obtain the services of a bondsman, he must remain in jail to await his trial. Of course, while he is in jail he is unable to prepare his case, and his family suffers his loss in personal, social, and economic terms. Foote (28) has criticized the bail system for its shortcomings, the major one being that the indigent cannot make bail and thus must forfeit his liberty. Doig cites the innovative work of the Vera Institute of Justice, in New York, which has served as a pacesetter in this area (22). The Vera Institute was founded in 1961 as an organization dedicated to bringing about improvements in the criminal justice system. In brief, workers from Vera interviewed defendants awaiting trial and gathered information relating to family, job, residence, and other factors. Vera workers determined which of the defendants had "roots in the community" and recommended that the courts release them without bail. The project was sufficiently successful that it was quickly accepted by the courts and corrections agencies in New York, and in the fall of 1964 New York City's Office of
Probation assumed control of the program and expanded it to the entire city (22).

Summary

The courts receive the product of the police effort, and are charged with the application of judicial remedies appropriate to the situation. The criminal courts decide whether or not the cases brought before them contain all of the substantive and procedural elements required by law. When such is the case, and when the defendant either pleads guilty or is so adjudged he is then sentenced by the court. The criminal courts are somewhat unique in American systems of criminal justice in that they are restricted to consideration of specific facts in criminal matters; except in certain instances (the so-called "general defenses"—insanity, mistake of fact, immaturity, etc.), the social matrix which wrought the offender and the state of his personality are not subject to judicial scrutiny. The court examines matters of fact and assesses liability on that basis. Personal factors may be considered in a judge's presentence investigation, and such factors may be used to determine the most appropriate disposition of the case, but they are not normally issues of law and thus are not proper affairs of the court. The courts also act as a watchdog on the conduct of the police in that they apply standards of justice to the conduct of police officers and refuse to entertain cases brought before them which are contaminated by violations of
the rights of the individuals concerned. The criminal courts, therefore, measure offenders against pre-existing rules of conduct and on the basis of what they find, direct that the defendant either be granted his freedom or be remanded to the custody of an agency charged with his treatment.

The criminal courts do have some opportunity to view the defendant in his own unique perspective. This comes about in the main through such matters as the decision to grant bail and in the sentencing of the offender (should his case reach that stage).

Corrections

After an offense is discovered and cleared (via arrest) by the police, and after this same offense has been measured against a judicial yardstick, the offender may be lawfully deprived of his right to live (at the most extreme) or of his right to remain at liberty. After this decision has been made by the courts, the person is delivered to an institution which is charged with his custody. These institutions form the quintessence of our system of corrections.

The area of corrections is probably one of the oldest areas of contention in criminal justice. All societies have been faced with errant members and have wrestled with the question of what to do with them and why. The roles of the corrections process are several and their historical roots
run deep. This history is described by Sellin as being

. . . by and large, a sordid history; a record of
our slow progress in finding effective means of
reducing criminality by punishment; a record of
much violence, brutality, torture, and indifference
to human suffering, but also of charity, compassion,
and honest search for methods of correctional treat-
ment that will salvage rather than destroy those
who are its objects (64, p. 585).

The literature on the role of corrections may be
generally divided into three categories, with some degree of
overlap among each: (a) punishment, (b) social defense, and
(c) rehabilitation.

**Punishment**

Governor Orville Faubus of Arkansas is quoted as having
remarked that the purpose of a penitentiary is to punish,
not to rehabilitate, the prisoners (54). That this role
was carried out in Faubus' prisons has been docu-
mented (44, 54, 56). Sellin (64) has outlined the motives
for punishment as being in part the consequences of a primi-
tive desire for vengeance and the wish to exploit the off-
fender's productive capacities. He also sees punishment as
a means for turning the offender into a law-abiding citizen;
however, this latter perspective will be discussed under the
heading of rehabilitation.

The most obvious types of punishment based on the notion
of vengeance are capital and corporal punishments. Pearman's
discussion of the use of corporal punishment on the Arkansas
Prison Farm (54) and Jackson's essay on the criminal nature
of our prisons (44) illustrate the continued, albeit declining, currency of this concept as a perceived role in corrections. Goldfarb summarized this problem area in his statement that "Prisons and correctional facilities operate in isolation and reject public scrutiny. Programs of rehabilitation are shallow and dominated by a greater concern for punishment and custody than for prevention" (33, p. 15).

**Social Defense**

The literature demonstrates that not all punishment is based on vengeance, however. The incarceration of dangerous persons is seen by some as not just retribution for unacceptable behavior, but as also being a means of protecting society from further intimidating acts.

The segregation of convicted criminals from the rest of society is viewed as a means of defending society from further criminal acts of known offenders. Burdman (11) acknowledges that one of the traditional purposes served by prisons is to allay the anxiety among non-criminals concerning the whereabouts of the criminals. The basis for this type of anxiety was demonstrated in a *Newsweek Magazine* article which cited the testimony of a prisoner testifying before a Senate subcommittee who, when asked what he intended to do when he got out, replied "Do what I always did: get me a pistol and stick up anything that moves" (72).
However, the greatest emphasis within the area of social defense is not simply on the removal of the convict from society but rather on deterring him from committing future crimes. This was the essence of the thesis of Cesare Bonesana Beccaria in his classic essay on Crime and Punishment (63). Beccaria argued against the use of capital punishment on the grounds that it was not the severity of the punishment but rather its duration that wrought a deterrent effect (75). It must be admitted, however, that this early concept of deterrence was not thought of in terms of the future acts of the offender himself, but rather was the use of the offender as an example, and from that example of misery without abatement, the persons who were free were to have thus been deterred from committing the same or similar crimes. In due time the assumption became accepted that incarceration was a punishment with a deterring effect on the prisoner concerned. This became expanded into a philosophy which held that the more time served, the more deterrence, the more rehabilitation, and the more community protection. It is interesting to note that in his study Crowther (19) found no solid evidence that the preceding assumptions were correct, and considerable evidence that they were wrong. The role of deterrence through punishment is one which has received broad public support, and it is a point put forth by Schrag (61) that prisons operate under the constraints of the broader society, and that any changes
that are to come about within the prisons first require a change in the normative values of the larger society. Correctional facilities are increasingly coming under criticism for the side effects of the role of deterrence. For example, Newsweek Magazine cited the case of an old prisoner who had served sixty-four years in prison; he had not received a letter or a visitor since 1904 and had forgotten why he was in prison (49). Perhaps even more tragic are the references by Jackson (44) to a sixty-year-old inmate who had been in prison since he was seven years old for running away from home, or to the convict who went mad after thirty-seven years of imprisonment for painting a horse to look like a zebra, on a dare.

Rehabilitation

One of the most recent roles of correctional facilities is the reinvesting of the offender with dignity and preparing him to assume a productive and acceptable role within the community to which he must ultimately return. Hollister (36) has said that prisons cannot be a reforming influence so long as they are assigned the task of inflicting punishment, and James Bennet (former director of federal prisons) wrote that the men and women in our prisons "... are individuals with hearts, lungs and emotions like anyone else" (7, p. 125). McGee (45) represents many modern penologists in his assumption that the central purpose of a prison sentence is for rehabilitation. The role of rehabilitation has
met with public apathy and a certain degree of animosity; the allegation is made that the prisons that emphasize the role of rehabilitation are "coddling the criminal." One popular publication pointed out that this was not really the case; the prisons that attempted to rehabilitate were just treating convicts as human beings, with intelligence and compassion (58). The same article pointed out that treated as persons and given reasonable trust and responsibility, many of the convicts will rehabilitate themselves and repair the damage they have done to society (58).

Caldwell (12) represents this position in his statement that

There is needed, not some change in the methods of punishment, but the elimination of the entire program of punishment itself, and the establishment, in its place, a system of scientific treatment, with emphasis on the understanding of the causes of crime, the rehabilitation of the individual, and the modification of conditions which produce criminality (12, p. 177).

The role of rehabilitation looks not simply at the crime the offender has committed, but also looks at the offender as a person. Bennet has stated that "... more than three fourths of the men and women who are locked up in local jails are drunks, vagrants, mentally ill or defective, or social misfits of other kinds" (7, p. 124). Wolfgang recognizes this in his stress on the need for proper attention in the diagnosis and classification of persons sent to penitentiaries (79).
The role of corrections in the criminal justice system may be classified under three separate but overlapping rubrics: punishment, social defense, and rehabilitation. Punishment may be either an act of revenge designed to hurt the offender for having brought harm to others or it may be an effort to deter repetition of the criminal behavior. Where the act is based on retribution, the mode of treatment tends to stress capital and corporal punishment. Where the philosophy of the role of corrections strays from the simple path of revenge and incorporates the idea of deterrence, the role of corrections becomes concerned with social defense. This may be carried out through the vehicle of punishment, for it is assumed by many that the prospect of punishment is in itself a deterrent. The role of social defense calls for correctional facilities to make every effort to prevent the incarcerated individuals from committing future crimes and to provide examples to the non-criminal population which are expected to act as a deterrent. The third role of corrections is that of rehabilitation. This role recognizes that in many cases there is something wrong, which, if corrected, will restore the offender to a useful and productive life.

Synthesis and Summary

The criminal justice system may be seen as a continuum which functions to maintain a homeostatic sociopolitical environment. Actions on the part of individuals which are
viewed as aberrant invite the role performance of the police. The police, using their discretionary powers, may view the particular instance as a breach of order and may restore the order unilaterally by issuing appropriate commands to those who are involved. On the other hand, the police may view a particular event as a breach of statute which requires the taking of the offender into custody. In such a case, the individual might be delivered to the criminal courts where the facts and circumstances of the case will be heard and, if the conditions so warrant, the person may be adjudged a criminal and placed in the custody or control of the state. The state, as custodian, may bring social revenge upon the offender or it may hold him up for others to see; so that they might think twice before doing the same thing. Or the state might examine the criminal and see what efforts should be expended to bring him into harmony with the society of which he is both a part and a product.

In any event, the criminal justice system deals with the actions of people. The roles of criminal justice agents are interpretive and subjective. In spite of this subjectiveness, all three main components of the system have several broad roles which they share in common. The first is the requirement to distinguish between acceptable behavior and that which is not. An even finer line is drawn when it is considered that unacceptable behavior may be divided into two categories: that for which the individual may be
held accountable, and that for which he may not. In this latter category are actions committed by the mentally incompetent and those beneath the age of criminal responsibility. Understanding behavior calls not simply for being able to distinguish between right and wrong, but for understanding the social context of the behavior: the time, place, and circumstances of the behavior in question.

Second, agents of the criminal justice system have a common broad role of being required to understand and apply principles of official regulation. The police must understand the law to enforce it, the courts must understand the law to interpret it, and the corrections agencies must understand the laws and social regulations which they hope to teach inmates to respect and obey.

In addition to understanding the vagaries of human behavior and the meaning and application of social regulation, criminal justice agencies have as a role the conduct of government, for they are the mechanism by which the regulatory process of government is effected.

The common roles of the agencies of criminal justice may thus be conceived of as follows:

1. The maintenance of social order.
2. The official application of the sanctioning power of the state.
3. Decision-making with regard to the propriety of the conduct of fellow citizens.
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CHAPTER III

CRIMINAL JUSTICE ROLES: THE CONTRIBUTION OF ACADEMIC CONCEPTS

This chapter will examine the three broad common roles attributed to the criminal justice activities developed in the previous chapter in terms of supporting academic concepts found in higher education. Specifically, concepts developed within the social and behavioral sciences will be explored and grouped under each of the three common roles. These concepts will then be consolidated and will constitute a tentative inventory of academic requirements for criminal justice education.

In considering a theoretical academic regimen for criminal justice careers it will be assumed that skills needed for the performance of routine tasks particular to any aspect of criminal justice will not be included. This includes, but is not limited to, such specific topics as narcotics and vice control, fingerprint classification, criminal and physical evidence, patrol practices, traffic control, criminal investigation and so on. Germann (13) has pointed out that the elevation of educational standards should not be "... misinterpreted as calling for a lengthy technical education"
in college, for the basic skills and techniques can be offered by the police academy." The assumption is made that such training will be furnished in due course by the particular agencies involved. The consideration of areas of higher education will therefore be restricted to those areas subsumed under the mantle of the more traditional academic processes.

The Maintenance of Social Order

It has been shown that two roles of the police include the maintenance of public order and social regulation. These two roles may be viewed as separate although at the same time as being symbiotic in nature. This is because public order exists in terms of the referent of the broader social context. These two roles are affirmed by judicial sanction in cases where transgressions are brought before the criminal courts, and are further validated through the process of corrections which either eliminates (at least for a period of time) or alters the behavioral patterns of those who elect to deviate. It is the consolidation of these separate roles into a unifying conception of the maintenance of social order which will now be discussed from the vantage point of sociological theory.

Criminal justice agencies, individually viewed, are formal organizations. However, they draw their relevance from the fact that they are constituent parts of a broader,
more comprehensive social organization. Social organization, in turn, refers to the ways in which human conduct has become socially organized due to the nature of the social conditions in which people find themselves. According to Blau and Scott (4, p. 2) the numerous social conditions that influence the conduct of people may be divided into two basic types: "(1) The structure of social relations in a group or larger collectivity of people, and (2) the shared beliefs and orientations that unite the members of the collectivity and guide their conduct."

Agents of criminal justice are thus affected by the structure and function of the secondary groups which they as agencies constitute, and each of these secondary groups are in turn subject to influences based on their sharing of beliefs and orientations which unite them with the broader dominant culture. In a wider application the two dimensions of social organization (social relations and shared orientations) may be viewed as the respective functions of social structure and culture. Kroeber and Parsons (17) presented this point of view in their explanation of culture as the "... transmitted and created content and patterns of values, ideas, and other symbolic-meaningful systems" and social structure as "... the specifically relational system of interaction among individuals and collectivities."

Thus criminal justice agencies may be viewed as functional units which are not only a product of the values of the
dominant culture but which exist to sustain that culture. This was observed by Douglas (11, p. 310) in his statement that "Probably the agencies with the broadest mandate of social control, the official purpose of maintaining order in its broadest sense, are the urban police bureaucracies."

Douglas continues,

Perhaps the one overriding fact about police constructions of the meanings of "social order" is that they have been determined primarily by the conceptions of the absolute public morality shared by the dominant groups in our society, namely, the Anglo-Saxon morality (11, p. 312).

For purposes of the present analysis and for the sake of clarity, the role of maintenance of social order will be examined by separate considerations of the meanings of social structure and culture and by relating these meanings to the task of criminal justice.

**Social Structure**

Olsen (23, p. 46) has described social structure as an arrangement of social activities "... that is seen to exist over some period of time and that is believed to depict underlying patterns of social order." This conceptualization denotes, in essence, a frozen or static overview of relatively enduring patterns of social interaction.

A static picture of the United States would reveal a highly pluralistic social pattern. This pluralism complicates the issue of social structure by multiplying the "between groups" differences in direct proportion to the
degree of plurality. As a result, agents of criminal justice (if they are to be able to relate their roles to the general population) must have an awareness of the principal characteristics of the prevailing gross social structure. This gross social structure is perhaps best understood in terms of its principal subcomponents (class, demography, human ecology, organization, and institutions) and their respective functions.

**Class.**—It has been said that if all men had in equal degree whatever traits were honored, there would be nothing to honor (33, p. 245). That is to say, values depend on distinctions. In a pluralistic society not all people are equal and the system of patterned inequality (or stratification) is at the basis of the class system (8). Each person receives his class position as a result of birth, although that position may later be altered (32, p. 229). A person's class, and oftentimes his place within that class, may be inferred by symbols (status symbols), the meanings of which have been standardized through common consensus. Agents of criminal justice come into contact (direct as well as symbolic) with members of all classes and levels of stratification although such contacts seem to be much more frequent at certain points or levels in the overall system. Therefore, a knowledge and understanding of the elements of social stratification and class structure would seem to be of importance to police officers, court officials, and corrections personnel.
in their respective attempts to understand and relate to the problems which arise within and between various levels of the class structure.

**Demography.**--The study of human population, especially with regard to size and density, distribution, and vital statistics, is one aspect of the study of social structure. Age-sex differences are important in that they underscore commonly expected differences in role performances and aspirations, while knowledge of race composition may provide clues as to the way different backgrounds may result in facilitative or disruptive conceptions of roles and expectations (33, p. 224). Crime and deviant behavior have often been linked with certain age and racial groups (1, 6, 25, 26) and population density and the quality of the urban environment have recently assumed a major importance (5, 20, 22, 29). Since agents of criminal justice must perform their roles in terms of such demographic variables, it would appear that their work would be simplified by having an understanding of the significance of the birth and death rate, population size and distribution, age-sex ratio, and racial composition of the society which they are expected to serve.

**Human ecology.**--Human ecology is the distribution of man in space (32, p. 304). It may be hypothesized that where people will live will influence how they will live. This may be deduced from the fact that a determinate, nonrandom pattern of settlement, land use, and social and psychological
characteristics emerge upon examination of systems of human ecology (16, 33). These differential patterns of existence should call for corresponding differential patterns of application of the criminal processes on the basis of the differing levels of need as manifested by the various types of social groupings.

Organization.--One major aspect of social structure deals with organizations and their respective structures (33). Society is composed of organizations; indeed, the respective agencies of criminal justice are themselves organizations. Organizations are normally composed of a vertical arrangement of elements with varying degrees of authority, power, and reward at the different levels. In addition to being hierarchical, organizations often have a lateral plane which consists of the division of labor and the coordination of differentiated roles. A final element in most organizations is that they normally involve some type of transformation of raw material by the organization: ore is processed into refined metal; buildings are constructed; toasters are manufactured; and criminals are apprehended, adjudicated, and confined. Most of what gets accomplished within society is accomplished through the efforts of organizations. In order for an organization to effectively meet its goals it must have efficient managerial control, communications, and staffing. Criminal justice as a process will be of optimal effectiveness to the extent to which its members are aware of
the meanings and functions of organizational structure and to the extent to which they perform their own roles within that context.

Institutions.—One of the things which contributes to the stability and relative permanence of the social structure is the network of social institutions. These are the familial, economic, and political systems which tend to help individuals and organizations realize and maintain their values (33). Broadly speaking, our social institutions fall into three categories. The first category includes those institutions which induce the person into society, principally the family and education. The second category of institutions includes those which allocate scarce commodities. These include economic institutions. The third category of institutions are those which legitimate relationships, and those include the institutions of religion and politics. These institutions provide much of the day to day meaning of life for countless people and foster beliefs which are closely related to conduct. The enforcement of formal codes of conduct by the police, as well as their affirmation by the courts, demands an understanding of the principal social institutions by which so many people are regulated.

The preceding analysis of the principal subcomponents of social structure has revealed a variety of areas of vital interest to the person wishing to work within the field of
criminal justice. In order to have a minimal degree of understanding and knowledge of these areas, a would-be student of criminal justice might be advised to study the following academic concepts:

1. The significance of the elements of class structure and social stratification.
2. The meaning and significance of the birth and death rates.
3. The significance of population size and distribution.
4. The composition and significance of the sex ratio.
5. The nature of the racial distribution of society.
6. The ecological distribution of the members of society.
7. The nature of formal organizations.
8. The functional composition of formal organizations.
9. The functions of formal organizations.
10. The fundamental processes of communications.
11. The principles of managerial control.
12. The meaning and significance of social institutions.
13. The composition and roles of the family.
14. The role of education as a social institution.
15. The role of economic institutions in society.
16. The role of religious institutions in society.
17. The role of political institutions in society.
Culture

If social structure could be likened to anatomy, then the corresponding analogue to physiology would be culture. Dressler (12, p. 45) defines culture as consisting of "... the skills, beliefs, and knowledges that are commonly shared by a number of people and transmitted to their children." Thus, where the social structure is the construction, culture is the function.

Rather than being a single, simplistic concept, culture is a mosaic composed of many separate and overlapping pieces. One of these pieces is language, which is of major importance in that it provides a common media for symbolic interaction (12). Culture also provides standards by which members may distinguish between what is right and wrong, beautiful and ugly, reasonable and unreasonable, tragic and funny, and safe or dangerous (12). In general, culture provides the matrix which binds people together in common groupings. LaPiere (18) has divided culture into three interdependent systems. The first of these is the ideological system, which deals with the ideas and beliefs that people learn in defining what is reasonable and unreasonable. The second system is the technological system, which consists of the crafts and skills which enable people to produce goods from their physical environment. The third system is the organizational system, which is comprised of all of the learning
which enables human beings to coordinate their behavior with the actions of others.

The high degree of generality involved in the descriptions of culture has been recognized by Dobriner (10, p. 70) when he concedes that culture, as a concept, "... is very possibly the broadest and most inclusive idea that one can encounter in the social sciences, and because of this a universally accepted definition is virtually impossible."

In spite of the difficulty involved in defining culture, it is a concept which would seem to be of major importance to any person who intends to deal in the social realm—especially if his work will lead him through a multiplicity of cultural contexts. For the agent of criminal justice, what may perhaps be among the most significant concepts within the broad notion of culture might be those which deal with regulatory processes. Included in this category would be the norms and sanctions. A knowledge of the norms and sanctions is of key importance because they provide the referent for the definition of what is deviant and spell out the means by which deviant behavior is to be met or treated.

The term "norm" is actually a term of consolidation which brings under the same semantic roof the separate concepts of folkways and mores. "Folkways" is a term introduced in 1906 by William Graham Sumner of Yale University (3, p. 179). The term simply means the ways which people have devised for meeting their needs and for interacting with one another on
a harmonious basis. The chief utility of the term lies in its implicit emphasis that different societies, cultures, and subcultures have different ways of doing things; hence, different folkways (3). Inasmuch as the folkways are the routine ways and practices of everyday life, the sanctions they carry for infractions are relatively minor in scope (10). Such sanctions are normally carried out within the primary group and usually involve something on the order of a face-to-face rebuke.

Whereas folkways define customary conduct, the mores of a society, culture, or subculture concern themselves with moral conduct (3, 10). Mores carry with them connotations of societal welfare. The violation of the mores is a less acceptable mode of behavior than the violation of folkways; hence, sanctions tend to be more severe and to arise from a broader base than the simple primary group, although mores are not sanctioned by any agency created expressly for that purpose.

Some norms are regarded as being of sufficient importance that their compliance is demanded through the enactment of laws. Laws are expressly enacted by legislatures or decreed as acts of legitimate authority by political officials. Laws are norms which have been codified and promulgated and with which compliance is demanded on pain of actual punishment ranging up to and including the taking of the life of the offender. Agencies are created to secure the compliance
of laws (the police and the courts) and to provide the official sanctions (police, courts, and corrections).

If society were highly homogeneous, the respective roles played by folkways, mores and laws would be simple and easy to understand. However, in a highly pluralistic society (such as that of the United States) this is not the case. There is in this nation a dominant culture (Caucasian, Anglo-Saxon, Protestant) and several lesser subcultures. Each of the subcultures is constructed around a racial, ethnic, political, religious, ideological, or economic locus and manifests its own respective folkways and mores. In some cases there is a partial overlap among the norms of the several subcultures and the dominant culture; however, in spite of these commonalities, each tends to remain highly unique.

The norms which are ultimately enacted into laws do not necessarily represent the norms of all of the cultures and subcultures of a given society. In fact, they tend to reflect the principal norms of the dominant culture. Since there will normally be a degree of similarity in the norms of the various cultures and subcultures, the laws will tend to have a similar significance or meaning to all. However, to the degree that there is divergence in the norms of the various social subgroups, then laws based on divergent norms will have a differential meaning or significance interculturally.
Where agents of criminal justice are members of the dominant culture, the laws which they enforce will tend to more fully represent the normative code with which they are the most familiar and into which they have been socialized. However, many of the efforts of criminal justice agencies are directed toward subcultures which, although subject to the same laws, may pattern their behavior around conflicting folkways and mores. When this is the case, it may be safe to assume that intercultural conflict will maximize, and the role of criminal justice will become more difficult at all levels.

On this basis, if the police, courts, and systems of corrections are to perform their tasks with any degree of efficiency, it may be well to consider as almost a necessity that they have a knowledge and understanding of the following aspects of culture:

1. The development and use of symbols as a medium of communication.

2. The broad meaning of "culture."

3. The meaning and application of "folkways" as a means of social control and regulation.

4. The meaning and application of "mores" as a means of social control and regulation.

5. The meaning and application of the criminal law as a means of social control and regulation.

6. The meaning and significance of "subculture."
7. The relationship between social norms and conduct.

8. The nature and types of social sanctions which may be applied at the various levels of social organization.

**The Official Application of the Sanctioning Power of the State**

It has been seen that one method by which agencies of criminal justice accomplish their organizational goals is through the official application of the sanctioning power of the state. This may be viewed as both a method and a role. The official application of the power of the state is a role which is in part defined by its limitations, and these limitations are in turn a function of both the source of the power of the state and the lawful methods of its administration.

**The Source of Official Power**

If it is true that power represents a type of relation among people then it follows that power, as it exists within the political infrastructure, falls within the legitimate domain of political science. According to Polsby, Dentler, and Smith (24, p. 68), "The goal of a science of political behavior is to establish general statements explaining the actions of persons and groups as they are observed in political situations." Therefore, an examination of the source of the power of the state will be sought among the concepts of political science.

In relating power to the political process, it has been noted that the federal government is a government of
delegated powers; it may exercise those powers (and only those powers) that have been conferred on it by the Constitution (21, p. 36). The Constitution is in turn a contract of social regulation arising from the common consent of those governed. It should be borne in mind that the federal government is not limited to those powers expressly conferred upon it: Article I, Section 8, Clause 18 of the Constitution authorizes Congress "to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution" the powers expressly granted by the Constitution, and this clause has been quite loosely interpreted (21, p. 36).

However, at the state level, the state governments are governments of reserved, or residual powers (21, p. 52). To them is given all the authority (generally speaking) not given to the federal government. On this basis, unless it is clearly prohibited from doing so, a state may make any reasonable regulations to promote the health, safety, morals, convenience, or comfort of its citizens. This right to take reasonable action to promote the general welfare is known as the police power of the state, and the enforcement of these regulations when they pertain to criminal matters is the function of the criminal justice system of the state—the police, the courts, and corrections.

It has already been observed that one of the prime roles of criminal justice agencies is the maintenance of social order. One means by which the stability of the social
order is maintained is through the rule of law. That is, the application of the sanctioning power of the state by agencies of criminal justice as that application is provided for by specific legislative mandate. As Skolnick (30, p. 6) has pointed out,

If the police could maintain order without regard to legality, their short-run difficulties would be considerably diminished. However, they are inevitably concerned with interpreting legality because of their use of the law as an instrument of order.

Not only does the law set forth those areas of misbehavior which may be met with official sanction, the criminal law "regulates the conduct of state officials charged with processing citizens who are suspected, accused, or found guilty of crime" (27, p. 7).

In summary, the state derives its power from the common consent of those governed. This power is to be used in effecting the police power of the state which is used to provide for the common welfare. The actual use of this power is vested in official agencies of the state, acting as agents of the state and those who are citizens thereof. It is important that agents of criminal justice realize these relationships, for a failure to do so could result in the misinterpretation of the rationale behind the existence of the police power of the state and its consequent abuse. In order that agents of criminal justice understand the basis for the power of the state, it might be recommended that they become acquainted with the following concepts as they are set
forth in the field of political science:

1. The organization of federal, state and local government.
2. The process of legislation.
3. The source of power of the state.
4. The manner in which the police powers of the state are used to provide for the common welfare.
5. The principal provisions, and their meanings, of the United States Constitution.

The Application of Power

In recent years, because of a series of decisions made by the United States Supreme Court, certain highly vocal groups have alleged that the courts have "handcuffed the police" (31, pp. 80-81). As a point of fact, the power of the state does not rest solely in the hands of those who are charged with enforcing the laws. The framers of the Constitution sought to preclude the development of an absolute power by means of two auxiliary precautions.

The first precaution was the dividing of power among the three branches of the federal government—the so-called "separation of powers." In his Federalist No. 47 (15, pp. 312-320), James Madison wrote, 

No political truth is certainly of greater intrinsic value, or is stamped with the authority of more enlightened patrons of liberty, than that . . . the accumulation of all powers, legislative, executive, and judiciary, in the same hands . . . may justly be pronounced the very definition of tyranny.
The separation of powers was not a fool-proof means of preventing the pooling of power, however. Therefore, the second auxiliary precaution was added: the system of checks and balances. In this move the branches and officials of the federal government were made responsive to different pressures. The system of checks and balances has also provided that each branch of government be given certain responsibilities in performing functions of the other branches of government, and each has some ability to impede the operations of the others. For example, Congress can enact laws and the President can veto them, but the Congress can then pass them over his veto. The Supreme Court can invalidate a law passed by the Congress and signed by the President—but the President (with the advice and consent of the Senate) appoints Supreme Court justices. The President is responsible for administering the laws, but the Congress allocates the funds by which this will be accomplished; and, the Senate and the House of Representatives each have an absolute veto over one another.

The application of the power of the state may be seen as the consequence of an interrelated, coordinated effort of the system of government, established to provide for the common welfare and at the same time designed to protect the public from its own agents. In order for an agent of criminal justice to fully understand and appreciate his roles and the methods by which they are to be carried out, he must
have an awareness of the overall picture of which he is but a small part. It might therefore be recommended that agents of criminal justice be familiar with the following concepts of political science:

1. The role and limitations of the executive branch of government.
2. The role and limitations of the legislative branch of government.
3. The role and limitations of the judiciary.
4. The structure and functions of American municipal governments.
5. The basic principles of public administration.

Decision Making with Regard to the Propriety of the Conduct of Fellow Citizens

The entire continuum of criminal justice is predicated on the unacceptable behavior of some members of society. It has already been shown that behavior is inextricably bound up in the structure and functions of society; however, structure and function merely provide a standard or basis from which to deviate.

The conduct of people arises from a multiplicity of sources and there is often a high degree of overlap in the etiologies of unacceptable behavior patterns. Inasmuch as agents of criminal justice must make decisions regarding the propriety of the behavior of fellow citizens, it may be of significance to examine the principal sources of behavior.
which may be classed as unacceptable. For purposes of analysis, the sources of socially unacceptable behavior will be considered to fall under the categories of social and psychological factors. It is understood that some forms of unacceptable behavior have an organic basis, but these will not be considered as they may more properly be regarded as medical problems. It is also recognized that it is in reality impossible to fully separate the social from the psychological.

**Social Factors**

In the section dealing with the structure and function of society it was seen that a multiplicity of factors, acting in concert, provide the context of normative social behavior. Normative social behavior implies behavior within acceptable ranges. It was further noted that a hierarchy of social pressures exists to exert sanctions in the event that behavior goes beyond the acceptable parameters.

At the same time that the norms define acceptable behavior they also define the unacceptable, or deviant behavior. According to current theory (9, 22) the basic nature of deviance is found in the departure of certain types of behavior from the extant social norms: Deviance is always and irrevocably normative. Because deviance is itself normative, one writer has argued that human deviance is just as characteristic of society as conformity is, and further
"... every society must somehow deal with its saints and sinners, its kooks and clowns, and its dependent, disruptive, inadequate, and aberrant members" (9, p. 3).

Deviance is a deceptively simple term. In actuality, there appear to be five categories of deviants (9, p. 13). The first category is that of the so-called freak; he may deviate from physical, physiological, or mental ideals and is represented by such types as midgets, dwarfs, giants, the ugly, disfigured, deformed, or the severely retarded. Their deviation is an aberration in being, and they are not normally held accountable for the nature of their deviance (9, p. 13).

The second category of deviant is that of the sinful. Those in this category deviate from religious or secular ideologies and include such types as the apostate, heretic, sinner, and traitor. The nature of their deviation is simply the rejection of orthodoxy, and they may be held accountable for their actions by those who subscribe to the orthodoxy which they have rejected (9, p. 13).

The third category of deviance is the criminal. The normative order which the criminal violates is embodied in the legal codes, and in this category we find such people as the murderers, thieves, and burglars. The specific nature of their deviance is unlawful action. Criminals are normally held accountable for their deviant acts, and may pay for them with their lives, depending on the circumstances of the case (9, p. 13).
The fourth category of deviant is the one which includes those who are mentally ill—the neurotics and psychotics. The normative order which they violate is the prevailing cultural definition of mental health (9, p. 13). Although the mentally ill are responsible for their deviant acts, they are not accountable for the consequences of those acts.

The fifth and final category of deviant is that of the alienated (9, p. 13). Examples of persons contained in this category are the bums, tramps, hippies, and social isolates. The normative order which they violate is composed of the culturally accepted ends and means of society, and their particular deviance is the rejection of the dominant cultural values (9, p. 13).

In spite of the diversity of categories of deviant behavior, certain generalities are discernible. For one thing, studies do show that rates of most forms of deviance are disproportionately higher among such populations as low socioeconomic groups, ethnic minorities, and persons living in urban areas (25, p. 9). Even where economic factors are controlled deviant behavior rates are more likely to vary with sex, age, and residence (25, p. 10).

At this point it should be much more evident that the roles of criminal justice agencies are frequently strained when they attempt to maintain the social order by applying an inappropriate remedy to a particular type of deviation.
Where the deviation is based on illness, alienation, or physical aberration, for example, the use of traditional police power is frequently both ill-advised and doomed to failure.

In order for agents of criminal justice to be aware of the interrelationships between deviant behavior as a social phenomenon and their own role expectations, it would be important to become familiar with the principal forms of deviance which they might expect to encounter. This would include principally the criminal deviations such as those found in the area of white-collar crime, criminal violence, gang behavior and patterns of juvenile delinquency. Another major area of deviance frequently encountered by police, courts, and corrections is the so-called status offense, which includes drunkenness, drug abuse, and homosexuality. The area of deviation often encountered by the police under the title of vice includes the "victimless" acts such as abortion and prostitution.

For agents to acquire knowledge concerning the principal types of deviance they are likely to encounter, it might be suggested that they study those sociological concepts which provide knowledge and understanding of the following:

1. The meaning of the sociological concept of deviance.
2. The principal forms of criminal deviance.
3. The meaning and types of "status" deviances.
4. The meaning and types of "victimless" social deviances.
Psychological Factors

The particular forms of deviance which are commonly observed may be grouped into categories on the basis of the act or aberration involved; thus, it is possible to categorize bums, murderers, the insane, etc., into groups. However, at the same time these categories are composed of individuals each of whom has a similar behavior pattern which may be simply responses to individual, personal stress factors (19). Although groups of deviants constitute a social problem, in many cases it may be that their behavior is a response to the interplay between the psychological make-up the individual and his endomorphic and exogenic presses.

In addition, when a person is observed to be engaging in some type of overt deviant behavior, the focal point of attention is normally on the actor and the cause or basis of his deviant behavior. Much deviant behavior is clearly the product of a disturbed mind. For example, the bizarre actions characteristic of the person suffering from a hebephrenic reaction type of schizophrenia might include shallow and inappropriate emotional responses, silliness, mannerisms, bizarre delusions, stereotypies, and unpredictable giggling (7, p. 318). This highly deviant behavioral pattern would be adequate to permit classing the subject in with others who manifest similar characteristics, yet the symptoms described reflect a gross deterioration of the individual's
personality. The cause for this deterioration must be sought not simply in the social context in which it occurred but also in terms of the psychological composition of the individual.

Not all cases of deviant behavior are the product of an active psychotic condition. Perhaps more frequently agents of criminal justice will come into contact with persons who are suffering from personality disorders. People in this category might be reacting because of inadequate or unstable personalities, or they might be considered to manifest sociopathic personality disturbances. Other categories of personality disorders include sexual deviations (among the most common of which are the overt homosexuals, exhibitionists, voyeurs, transvestites and sadomasochists) and those suffering from either drug or alcohol addiction.

The fact that individuals who suffer from similar disorders tend to exhibit common symptoms or classes of symptoms should not obscure the individual nature of the pathology. If the agents of criminal justice have as a role the task of making decisions regarding the propriety of the conduct of fellow citizens it then becomes important for them to recognize the broad classes of aberrant behavior by etiology in order that the most appropriate remedy or referral can be made. An understanding of the social factors involved in deviant behavior provides a partial basis for such decision making, but in order to complete the picture agents of
criminal justice must have at least a rudimentary knowledge of the nature of psychological disorders so that they can assess the gravity of the deviant behavior in terms of its immediate or future threat to either the subject or those in his environment. Also, an understanding of personality pathology may in itself contribute significantly to an understanding of the rationale of certain offenses and the manner in which they were carried out.

An understanding of psychopathology is in itself a far more complex task than a simple memorization of diagnostic categories. In order to understand personality pathology it is first necessary to understand the basic principles of personality development.

There is no unified, systematic theory of personality subscribed to by all experts in the field. Various theorists have defined personality in various ways, and there are a number of major personality theories (14). An appreciation of the more commonly accepted theories of personality may be had through an examination of the classical analytic theory first proposed by Freud and later modified by numerous other theorists (14, 28). Theories of personality also include the approaches of the learning theorists as well as those who subscribe to the holistic and organismic approaches. The combination of these theories set forth the most commonly mentioned facets of the development of the human personality.
Personality, however, may best be understood when, in addition to the foregoing, attention is directed towards the ancillary conditions which may exert considerable influence on personality, including an understanding of physiological drives, social motives, theories of motivation, emotion and the basic principles of human growth and development (2). With such a background, a student would be in a satisfactory position to examine the principal forms of abnormal psychology.

The disorders of psychogenic origin may in general be divided into the following categories: (a) transient personality reactions to acute stress, (b) the psychoneurotic disorders, (c) the psychosomatic disorders, (d) the functional psychoses, (e) the personality disorders, and (f) the addictions (7).

An understanding of each of the areas presented above should enable agents of criminal justice to assess the most significant psychological factors involved in a situation in which they must make a decision regarding the propriety of the conduct of another person. It might therefore be recommended that agents of criminal justice study the following specific components of psychology:

1. The basic psychological definitions of personality.
2. The basic principles of the psychoanalytic theories of personality.
3. The principal holistic and organismic approaches to personality.
4. The basic nature of physiological drives.
5. The nature and significance of social forces in motivation.
6. The psychological ramifications of the nature of motivation.
7. The basic principles of human growth and development.
8. The nature and types of common transient personality reactions to stress.
9. The basic dynamics of the psychoneurotic disorders.
10. The basic dynamics of psychosomatic disorders.
11. The basic dynamics and types of functional psychoses.
12. The basic dynamics and types of the more common personality disorders.
13. The basic dynamics and types of addiction.

Summary
The common roles of criminal justice activities have been examined in terms of academic concepts which might provide a sound academic basis in support of role performance. These concepts, taken from sociology, psychology, and political science, suggest a degree of knowledge which should enable police officers, court officials, and corrections personnel to better understand their common roles and to perform them with a greater degree of effectiveness. The specific concepts presented are suggested by the roles which they support, and do not necessarily constitute an inventory
inclusive of all concepts which would be of value to the practitioners of criminal justice roles. The items listed below constitute a tentative inventory of academic requirements for a broad, general criminal justice education:

1. The significance of the elements of class structure and social stratification.

2. The meaning and significance of the birth and death rate.

3. The significance of population size and distribution.

4. The composition and significance of the sex ratio.

5. The nature of the racial distribution of society.

6. The ecological distribution of the members of the society.

7. The nature of formal organizations.

8. The functional composition of formal organizations.

9. The functions of formal organizations.

10. The fundamental processes of communications.

11. The principles of managerial control.

12. The meaning and significance of social institutions.

13. The composition and roles of the family.

14. The role of education as a social institution.

15. The role of economic institutions in society.

16. The role of religious institutions in society.

17. The role of political institutions in society.
16. The development and use of symbols as a medium of communication.

19. The broad meaning of "culture."

20. The meaning and application of "folkways" as a means of social control and regulation.

21. The meaning and application of "mores" as a means of social control and regulation.

22. The meaning and application of the criminal law as a means of social control and regulation.

23. The meaning and significance of the concept of "subculture."

24. The relationship between social norms and conduct.

25. The nature and types of social sanctions which may be applied at the various levels of social organization.

26. The organization of federal, state and local governments.

27. The process of legislation.

28. The source of the lawful power of the state.

29. The manner in which the police powers of the state are used to provide for the common welfare.


31. The role and limitations of the executive branch of government.

32. The role and limitations of the legislative branch of government.
33. The role and limitations of the judiciary.
34. The structure and functions of American municipal governments.
35. The basic principles of public administration.
36. The meaning of the sociological concept of deviance.
37. The principal forms of criminal deviance.
38. The meaning and types of "status" deviances.
39. The meaning and significance of "victimless" types of social deviance.
40. The basic psychological definitions of personality.
41. The basic principles of the psychoanalytic theories of personality.
42. The principal holistic and organismic approaches to theories of personality.
43. The basic nature of physiological drives.
44. The nature and significance of social forces in motivation.
45. The psychological ramifications of the nature of emotion.
46. The basic principles of human growth and development.
47. The nature and types of common transient personality reactions to stress.
48. The basic dynamics of the psychoneurotic disorders.
49. The basic dynamics of the psychosomatic disorders.
50. The basic dynamics and types of the functional psychoses.
51. The basic dynamics and types of the more common personality disorders.

52. The basic dynamics and types of additions.
CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY


The preceding chapter set forth a tentative inventory of academic requirements constructed in support of criminal justice roles. The present chapter will describe the procedures used to validate that inventory and will present the outcome of that process.

Validation of the Inventory

The tentative inventory of academic requirements thus far developed represents a theoretical-philosophical approach to the role of higher education in criminal justice. In order to determine whether or not the content of the inventory might actually be considered to be valid, it was decided to present it to a panel of experts for their assessment. It was felt that if a group of experts could be defined and if each member could independently agree (at a specified level of acceptance) that a given academic concept was in fact necessary as a basic educational task for criminal justice education, then the collective body of tasks meeting with group acceptance would be a valid inventory of academic requirements for criminal justice education.
Description of the Sample

The body of experts selected for the validation of the inventory of academic requirements was composed of a select group of members of the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences (formerly the International Association of Police Professors). The Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences is a professional association, the general purposes of which are to

... promote education and research in the administration of Criminal Justice in institutions of higher education; to bring together persons actively engaged, retired, or persons once actively engaged in teaching in criminal justice programs,

... to encourage understanding and cooperation among those engaged in teaching and research in criminal justice, and practitioners in the law enforcement field and allied pursuits; to serve as a clearing house for the collection and dissemination of criminal justice research and information; to promote the expansion of professional criminal justice education at the university and college level; to actively engage in the elevation of the ethical standards and personnel standards of the criminal justice field (1).

Only certain of the members of the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences were selected, and selection was limited to persons able to meet the following criteria:

1. Active Membership. Only persons holding active membership in the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences were eligible for selection. This means that those selected had to be either an administrator or faculty member holding a full-time appointment at an institution having either a two year, four year or a graduate level criminal justice program, and which institution must be fully accredited by one of the
six regional accrediting commissions of the Federation of Regional Accrediting Commissions of Higher Education. It also means that the individual respondent's respective institution must be qualified by the state board of higher education or its equivalent to offer degrees in the field of criminal justice. It was the intention of this qualification to exclude those persons whose academic experience with criminal justice has been limited to instruction at such facilities as municipal police academies, Council of Governments workshops, and spurious institutions.

2. Education. No respondent was selected who held less than an earned master's degree or a professional law degree (LL.B. or Juris Doctor). It was the intention of this provision to eliminate those persons actively teaching at an institution of higher education who had been employed on the basis of experience in lieu of the more traditional academic foundations. It was felt that such persons would be less likely to appreciate or understand the meaning and significance of certain educational concepts if they had not themselves had a reasonable opportunity to have been exposed to them.

3. Experience. No respondent was selected who did not have some measure of active work experience in one of the major phases of criminal justice. It was the intention of this limitation to exclude those persons with sound academic backgrounds but who might be unable to appreciate fully or
understand the roles of criminal justice agents as perceived by those who had actually performed those roles.

All respondents thus selected were persons involved in legitimate academic activities, persons with substantial education, and persons who had the benefit of practical work experience. It was assumed that through the use of such controls a minimum of bias would be allowed to influence the validation of the inventory of academic requirements for criminal justice education. It was further felt that those selected would have had sufficient contact with traditional academic subjects to appreciate and understand their value (or the lack thereof) when applied to an occupational context.

A review of the most current directory of members of the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences revealed seventy-eight members who met all of the selection criteria.

**Procedures**

Due to the fact that the individuals involved in this study resided at widely scattered locations within the United States and its possessions and territories, it was determined that the most suitable vehicle for the gathering of data would be a questionnaire of some type. The tentative inventory of academic requirements for criminal justice education was accordingly prepared as a fixed alternative or closed questionnaire. The questionnaire presented each item
as a separate element for consideration (see Appendix B),
and three response categories were used. The opinionnaire
was attached to an appropriate cover letter (see Appendix A)
setting forth the nature and purposes of the study. The
use of the opinionnaire as a means of gathering data fur-
ther presented the advantages of furnishing each respondent
with the same material phrased in the same way. It was
also anticipated that the opinionnaire would enable the
respondents to answer with greater uniformity along the
specific dimensions sought. This would provide for a means
of establishing an index of group consensus on the basis of
the summed individual responses.

Each respondent was requested to indicate which of the
fifty-two concepts listed in the tentative inventory of
academic requirements for criminal justice education he
felt would be a fundamental contribution of higher educa-
tion for a person interested in a career in criminal jus-
tice. The respondents were asked to respond on the basis
of the following categories:

1. Should be understood by a person being educated
   for a career in criminal justice.

2. Undecided.

3. Not necessary for a person being educated for a
   criminal justice career.

Inasmuch as the sample selected to validate this in-
ventory was itself non-randomly selected, and because of
the criteria established for being a respondent, it was
arbitrarily decided that a minimum response of 65 percent would be a sufficient return upon which to base a reasonable cause for inferring group consensus. All opinionnaires were attached to a cover letter and a stamped self-return envelope and were air mailed to the individual respondents. It was decided that a three week period would be allowed to lapse, and if at the end of that period less than 65 percent of the respondents had not returned their opinionnaires, a follow-up letter would be sent asking for their cooperation. If, at the end of a five day waiting period, the minimum number had not been returned, then a telephone call would be placed with those who had not responded requesting that they return the opinionnaires. At the close of the three week period a total of fifty-nine (77 percent) of the opinionnaires had been returned thus eliminating the need for follow-up action. The findings of this survey are based on those fifty-nine returns.

Analysis of Data

Each item in the inventory was examined on the basis of the response to the item. In order for a given item to be considered valid, it was decided that it must receive a favorable response by a minimum of 75 percent of the respondents (by indicating the choice "Should be understood by a person being educated for a criminal justice
career"). Of the fifty-two items in the inventory, forty
(77 percent) met or surpassed the minimum level of accept-
ance. Those items were thus retained and constitute a
valid inventory of academic requirements for criminal jus-
tice education. Those items, together with the percentages
by which they were accepted, are as follows:

1. The meaning and application of the criminal law
as a means of social control and regulation (100 percent).

2. The principal forms of criminal deviance (98 percent).

3. The principal provisions, and their meanings, of
the United States Constitution (98 percent).

4. The fundamental processes of communications (97
percent).

5. The source of the lawful power of the state (97
percent).

6. The manner in which the police powers of the state
are used to provide for the common welfare (97 percent).

7. The significance of the elements of class struc-
ture and social stratification (95 percent).

8. The nature of the racial distribution of society
(95 percent).

9. The meaning and application of "folkways" as a
means of social control and regulation (95 percent).

10. The role and limitations of the judiciary (95 per-
cent).
11. The meaning and significance of the concept of "subculture" (93 percent).

12. The structure and functions of American municipal governments (93 percent).

13. The meaning and significance of social institutions (93 percent).

14. The meaning and application of "mores" as a means of social control and regulation (93 percent).

15. The organization of federal, state, and local governments (93 percent).

16. The relationship between social norms and conduct (91 percent).

17. The basic principles of public administration (91 percent).

18. The meaning and significance of "victimless" types of social deviance (91 percent).

19. The nature and types of social sanctions which may be applied at the various levels of social organization (90 percent).

20. The role and limitations of the executive branch of government (90 percent).

21. The principles of managerial control (90 percent).

22. The nature and significance of social forces in motivation (90 percent).

23. The process of legislation (90 percent).
24. The basic dynamics of the more common personality disorders (88 percent).

25. The nature of formal organizations (88 percent).

26. The functions of formal organizations (88 percent).

27. The role of political institutions in society (88 percent).

28. The role and limitations of the legislative branch of government (88 percent).

29. The basic psychological definitions of personality (88 percent).

30. The meaning of the sociological concept of deviance (84 percent).

31. The nature and types of common transient personality reactions to stress (84 percent).

32. The basic dynamics and types of addictions (84 percent).

33. The psychological ramifications of the nature of emotion (81 percent).

34. The meaning and types of "status" deviances (81 percent).

35. The broad meaning of "culture" (80 percent).

36. The functional composition of formal organizations (80 percent).

37. The composition and roles of the family (78 percent).
38. The basic nature of physiological drives (76 percent).

39. The significance of population size and distribution (76 percent).

40. The basic dynamics of the psychoneurotic disorders (75 percent).

An item was considered to be rejected specifically if 30 percent or more of the respondents indicated the response "Not necessary knowledge for a person being educated for a criminal justice career." Two items were specifically rejected:

1. The meaning and significance of the birth and death rate (-39 percent).

2. The composition and significance of the sex ratio (-30 percent).

A total of ten items (19 percent) received at least 20 percent of the responses in the undecided category. These include the following:

1. The composition and significance of the sex ratio (30 percent).

2. The principal holistic and organismic approaches to theories of personality (34 percent).

3. The role of religious institutions in society (32 percent).

4. The meaning and significance of the birth and death rate (30 percent).
5. The development and use of symbols as a medium of communication (25 percent).

6. The basic principles of the psychoanalytic theories of personality (25 percent).

7. The basic dynamics of the psychosomatic disorders (25 percent).

8. The basic dynamics and types of functional psychoses (22 percent).

9. The basic dynamics of the psychoneurotic disorders (20 percent).

10. The role of economic institutions in society (20 percent).

Included within the group of items which received 20 percent or more responses in the undecided category were the two items which were also specifically rejected by at least 30 percent of the respondents. None of the items retained in the inventory (those which received at least 75 percent favorable response) were also included within the group of items in which 20 percent or more of the respondents were undecided. On this basis it may be concluded that those items which were in fact accepted were well accepted by the group as a whole. The mean rate of acceptance was 89 percent, and is indicative of strong group consensus. On the other hand, the two items which were rejected each had between 30 and 35 percent of
their total responses in the undecided category. The ten items having 20 percent or greater responses in the undecided category yielded a mean response rate in that category of 26.7 percent.

Summary and Discussion

The tentative inventory of academic requirements for criminal justice education was expressed as an opinionnaire and submitted to a body of experts for their opinion as to whether or not each of the items was in fact a necessary element of knowledge.

The experts were selected from among the membership of the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences. A total of seventy-eight judges were selected, and each was selected on the basis of academic qualifications, educational background, and prior work experience in the field of criminal justice. It was determined that a minimum response of 65 percent was necessary to constitute an adequate sample of this population of experts, and it was further determined that for an item to be accepted as valid it must have received a favorable response of no less than 65 percent of the respondents.

The opinionnaires were mailed out, and at the end of a three week waiting period a total of fifty-nine responses (77 percent) had been returned. The findings of this survey are based on the data contained within the fifty-nine responses.
Forty items on the tentative inventory were seen by an average of 89 percent of the experts as being necessary for a person seeking an education for a criminal justice career. Two items were rejected as unnecessary by an average of 32 percent of the experts, and ten items (including the two rejected ones) were placed in the undecided category by 20 percent or more of the experts.

One source (4, p. 19) has pointed out that respondents will more frequently endorse a statement than disagree with its opposite, producing a source of variance known as "acquiescence set." It is believed that the high level of consensus on the accepted items (\(\bar{X} = 89\) percent) indicates a reasonably certain degree of content validity of the accepted items. In support of this assumption, it was noted that Miller has said that in the use of questionnaires there is a high degree of self selection leading to a comparatively low response rate: the most interested or highly educated are the most likely to respond (3, p. 51). Those who feel the least qualified or able to answer the questions or respond to the concepts would, according to Miller's view, not respond. Although this might tend to limit the total number of responses received, it would also tend to enhance the general quality of the answers which were received.

As Young (5, p. 195) has pointed out, the respondent's frame of reference will influence his answers, and in this survey the experts selected represented a fairly wide range
of competencies, including penologists, attorneys, educators, and law enforcement specialists. This should result in some degree of aggregation. Blalock has discussed problems of aggregation and has noted that difficult problems of aggregation may arise in instances where persons with different backgrounds may assign different weights to different areas (2). In the case of this study, there may have been some degree of aggregation, particularly in areas away from more sophisticated concepts on sociological theory or personality theory. However, on the basis of the data available, it is not possible to either confirm or refute this.

In spite of the limitations noted, it is assumed that the forty items which did meet the level of consensus are in fact valid educational requirements for criminal justice education.
CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Constitution of the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, Article II. (Mimeographed.)


CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This study was the result of an interest in the recent rapid growth of criminal justice programs in institutions of higher education. Between 1968 and 1970, for example, there was a 226 percent increase in the total number of such programs in American colleges and universities.

The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice has noted that there has been too little analysis made of the needs of law enforcement personnel either by the persons actively involved in law enforcement or by the colleges and universities. As a result of this lack of analysis, much of the growth in criminal justice education at the higher education level has had a tendency to follow a model based on training rather than on education, and the question of the role of higher education per se has been left largely moot.

The purposes of this study were threefold and were directed at the problem of developing a concept of higher education which would be responsive to the needs of those wishing to enter some aspect of the field of criminal
justice. First, the study sought to determine what the component areas of criminal justice (police, courts, and corrections) have in common, at least in terms of interacting with man and his institutions. Second, the study sought to identify those fundamental areas of knowledge which support the common roles of criminal justice agencies. The third purpose of the study was to formulate the findings of the first two into a unified, valid inventory of academic requirements for criminal justice education which could thus be used to define the role of higher education in meeting the common requirements of criminal justice activities.

The first phase of the study involved an examination of the literature of criminal justice, including both popular and professional sources. This was done in order to identify the specific roles, both de facto and de jure, of the police, the courts, and systems of corrections. After the specific roles of each of the component areas of criminal justice were determined, they were examined from the point of view of obtaining broad, common roles which covered the full spectrum of the criminal justice system.

After ascertaining the common roles of criminal justice, the second phase of the study sought to examine the contribution of traditional academic concepts in support of those roles. The common roles of criminal justice were thus approached through the perspective of the traditional offerings in the social and behavioral sciences. Those nuclear concepts
which were seen as being fundamental in nature were identified and in their aggregate labeled a Tentative Inventory of Academic Requirements for Criminal Justice Education.

The third phase of the study involved the validation of the tentative inventory. The procedure used to accomplish this consisted of the selection of a group of experts in the broad field of criminal justice (representing all main areas) and asking them individually to determine whether or not the items on the tentative inventory were actually necessary for a person seeking higher education in support of an anticipated career in criminal justice. The experts were drawn from the active membership of the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences and consisted of seventy-eight persons who (a) held at least an earned master's degree or a professional law degree, (b) had actual work experience in some substantive area of criminal justice, and (c) held a full-time academic or administrative position in an accredited institution of higher education which was authorized to grant degrees in criminal justice. The rating of the items on the inventory was sought on a closed response type of opinionnaire.

Of the seventy-eight names selected for membership in the group of experts, it was decided to set a response level of fifty-one returns (65 percent) as a minimum acceptable level of return in order to assume adequate representativeness of the population. In order for any given item on the
inventory to be considered as valid, it was required to achieve a group consensus of not less than 75 percent of the responding group. All items meeting the minimum level of consensus were retained and were considered to constitute a valid inventory of academic requirements for criminal justice education.

Findings

Each of the main subcomponents of criminal justice was found to have a variety of specific roles, both defacto and dejure. However, three broad, unifying roles were seen as existing among the police, the courts, and corrections agencies:

1. The maintenance of social order.
2. The official application of the sanctioning power of the state.
3. Decision-making with regard to the propriety of the conduct of others.

An examination of the fundamental concepts in higher education (in the behavioral and social sciences) disclosed some fifty-two concepts or academic elements which were perceived as providing necessary academic support for the three common criminal justice activities. These fifty-two items, composing the Tentative Inventory of Academic Requirements for Criminal Justice Education, were assessed by the group of experts, and a total of forty items met the minimum level of group acceptance (these items met a mean acceptance
rate of 89 percent). Those items specifically accepted are as follows:

1. The meaning and application of the criminal law as a means of social control.
2. The principal forms of criminal deviance.
3. The principal provisions, and their meanings, of the United States Constitution.
4. The fundamental processes of communications.
5. The sources of the lawful power of the state.
6. The manner in which the police powers of the state are used to provide for the common welfare.
7. The significance of the elements of class structure and social stratification.
8. The nature of the racial distribution of society.
9. The meaning and application of "folkways" as a means of social control and regulation.
10. The role and limitations of the judiciary.
11. The meaning and significance of the concept of "subculture."
12. The structure and functions of American municipal governments.
13. The meaning and significance of social institutions.
14. The meaning and application of "mores" as a means of social control and regulation.
15. The organization of federal, state, and local governments.
16. The relationship between social norms and conduct.
17. The basic principles of public administration.
16. The meaning and significance of "victimless" types of social deviance.
19. The nature and types of social sanctions which may be applied at the various levels of social organization.
20. The role and limitations of the executive branch of government.
21. The principles of managerial control.
22. The nature and significance of social forces in motivation.
23. The process of legislation.
24. The basic dynamics of the more common personality disorders.
25. The nature of formal organizations.
26. The functions of formal organizations.
27. The role of political institutions in society.
28. The role and limitations of the legislative branch of government.
29. The basic psychological definitions of personality.
30. The meaning of the sociological concept of deviance.
31. The nature and types of common transient personality reactions to stress.
32. The basic dynamics and types of addictions.
33. The psychological ramifications of the nature of emotion.

34. The meaning and types of "status" deviances.

35. The broad meaning of "culture."

36. The functional composition of formal organizations.

37. The composition and roles of the family.

38. The basic nature of physiological drives.

39. The significance of population size and distribution.

40. The basic dynamics of psychoneurotic disorders.

A total of twelve items on the Tentative Inventory failed to achieve the minimum level of group consensus. The items thus deleted from the inventory were:

1. The meaning and significance of the birth and death rate.

2. The composition and significance of the sex ratio.

3. The ecological distribution of the members of society.

4. The role of education as a social institution.

5. The role of economic institutions in society.

6. The role of religious institutions in society.

7. The development and use of symbols as a medium of communication.

8. The basic principles of the psychoanalytic theories of personality.
9. The principal holistic and organismic approaches to theories of personality.

10. The basic principles of human growth and development.

11. The basic dynamics of the psychosomatic disorders.

12. The basic dynamics and types of functional psychoses.

Conclusions

The conclusions drawn from this study must be viewed with the understanding that the academic area of criminal justice, together with its administrative responsibilities, is still emerging. Definitive data are not yet available and will probably be forthcoming over a period of several years as additional research as well as improved evaluation techniques expand our base of understanding. Bearing this caveat in mind, and in light of the findings of this investigation, the following conclusions are presented:

1. Although the three main constituent areas of criminal justice have a number of unique roles, they share in common the roles of (a) maintaining the social order, (b) applying the sanctioning power of the state, and (c) making decisions regarding the propriety of the conduct of others. It is not anticipated that emphasis on these roles will decline in the foreseeable future.

2. Although the routine tasks of criminal justice agents require training in specific job skills, their broad
occupational requirements also demand a certain degree of academic preparation in order to have a viable understanding of the nature and ramifications of their respective roles.

3. Although training needs and academic requirements are not synonymous, they are mutually supportive; indeed, it would seem that for optimal conditions to exist, the two are interdependent. The response of the group of experts confirms the thesis that there is a definite role for higher education in criminal justice and that this role may at least in part be met through application of traditional academic concepts in the social and behavioral sciences.

4. The overall response by the experts to the items contained within the tentative inventory of academic requirements reflects the possibility that present academicians with prior work experience in criminal justice may perceive academic requirements from a more pragmatic (and less theoretical) point of view. The exclusion of the twelve items from the inventory, together with the rough ranking of the items selected, tends to indicate an orientation consistent with that reported by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice. Specifically, the items selected indicate a propensity to seek active solutions to crime-related problems as opposed to seeking an etiological or epidemiological type understanding.

5. The validated inventory of academic requirements for criminal justice education, as developed in this study,
represents a nucleus of concepts about which curricula may be developed. It defines a significant role to be played by higher education, and by inference sets forth several requirements which must be included within the overall priorities of higher education for the near future. These requirements include the development of programs designed not only to meet the needs of students, but which also involve the establishment of appropriate administrative controls for such programs. This latter requirement includes the necessity of setting forth standards for administrative and teaching personnel.

Implications

The findings of this study suggest several implications which, although not fully supported by the data developed, are still of sufficient interest to warrant mentioning.

1. Criminal justice curricula based on the validated inventory of academic requirements may easily be adapted for use in the community college setting. Such programs could assist in providing the type of programs which are increasingly being demanded by the complex nature of the society in which we live. Carefully constructed, balanced programs should be able to furnish the quality of working level agent required by a society which is acutely aware of the need for a more viable and responsible type of public official.
2. The effects of higher education on the overall quality of criminal justice may be expected to play an increasingly important role in the future. Well educated, intelligent policemen, court officials, and corrections officers cannot avoid infusing innovation and flexibility into their work areas and thus bringing about a substantive qualitative enhancement of the entire field of criminal justice. Increased effectiveness of criminal justice personnel through education might well result in an escalating positive acceptance of their role society-wide, thus effecting a positive cycle of growth. It might be reasonable to anticipate that the old law enforcement model based on the use of force in an atmosphere of quasi-secrecy will give way to a professional model based on application of the findings of the social and behavioral sciences.

3. The area of criminal justice as an academic field is as of yet so new that there may be a gap between the thinking style of those presently teaching and the actual perceptual requirements needed to approach criminal justice from a more detached, empirical standpoint. That is to say, there is a need to develop more qualified academicians who are oriented toward the problems of law enforcement and corrections not so much from the current practitioner's viewpoint but rather from a more purely theoretical position. This theoretical position should incorporate a sound, advanced preparation in such areas as clinical and social
psychology, sociology, political science, public administration, and education. It may well be assumed that the demands of the future will call for a high degree of specialization in theoretical aspects of criminal justice, based on research and model building. Such an approach might then serve as an academic adjunct to the applied side of criminal justice.

Recommendations

In view of the findings, conclusions, and implications of this study, the following recommendations are made:

1. That additional research be conducted to more fully develop an understanding of the administrative requirements involved in interfacing criminal justice education needs with institutions of higher education (particularly at the community college level).

2. That additional research be conducted to determine the most desirable types or combinations of requirements necessary for persons who will either teach in or administer criminal justice programs within higher education.

3. That research be conducted to assess current programs in criminal justice, particularly those involving juvenile and adult institutions, in an effort to bring together data concerning innovative and successful programs.
The enclosed opinionnaire is being sent to a number of carefully selected members of the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences. The recipients have been selected on the basis of their educational background and professional experience. The results of this study will be used in an effort to ascertain, at least in part, the role of higher education in criminal justice.

Criminal justice is a highly complex and demanding profession, and it is apparent that the role of higher education in this field is still emerging. This study is not concerned with those areas which have traditionally been considered within the realm of training, nor is it concerned with specialized curriculum requirements for specific sub-specialties within criminal justice. This is an effort to determine which of a number of traditional academic concepts might be considered to be among those which would build the basic foundations required by persons wishing to enter careers in criminal justice.

The contribution this study will make depends in large measure on the interest and generosity of each respondent. It will take only a few minutes of your time to complete. This opinionnaire is completely confidential, and no one will see it other than those directly involved in this project.

A stamped envelope is enclosed in order to provide for your convenience and to assist us in meeting a very demanding time limit. Your assistance and consideration are very genuinely appreciated.

Respectfully yours,

C. P. McDowell
Instructor
Listed below are a number of academic topics and concepts. They do not necessarily represent specific courses; in fact, several of these topics might be covered in a given course. Please indicate which of these topics or concepts you feel would be a fundamental, basic contribution of higher education for a person interested in a career in the area of criminal justice. Please refer to the following scale:

1. Should be understood by a person being educated for a criminal justice career.

2. Undecided.

3. Not necessary knowledge for a person being educated for a criminal justice career.

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|   |   |   | The ecological distribution of the members of society. |
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RESPONSE BY JURY OF EXPERTS TO ITEMS PRESENTED IN THE
TENTATIVE INVENTORY OF ACADEMIC REQUIREMENTS
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