

VOL. III, No. 3

JULY, 1930

THE POLICE JOURNAL.

*A Quarterly Review for the Police Forces
of the Empire*

ISSUED UNDER OFFICIAL PATRONAGE

NOTICE TO CONTRIBUTORS

THE POLICE JOURNAL is published on the first day of January, April, July and October.

The Editor will be happy to consider articles suitable for publication in THE POLICE JOURNAL. Contributions should be typewritten (double spacing) and *must* bear the name and address of the sender on the first page. Articles can be signed with a *nom de plume* if desired. All contributions should be addressed to "The Editor of THE POLICE JOURNAL, 69 Great Russell Street, London W.C.1." A covering letter is desirable.

Unaccepted contributions will be returned if accompanied by an addressed envelope and stamps. All reasonable care is taken of MSS., photographs and other material submitted, but the Editor cannot hold himself responsible for any loss or damage.

The Editor will be happy to receive for review books and other literature likely to be of interest to readers of THE POLICE JOURNAL.

Publishers and Distributing Agents:

PHILIP ALLAN & CO., LTD.

69 GREAT RUSSELL STREET, LONDON, W.C.1

Telegrams and Cables—"AQUALICOR, WESTCENT., LONDON"
Telephone—MUSEUM, 9576 and 9577

Advertising Offices:

CHARLES SELL

5 AND 6 RED LION SQUARE, LONDON, W.C.1

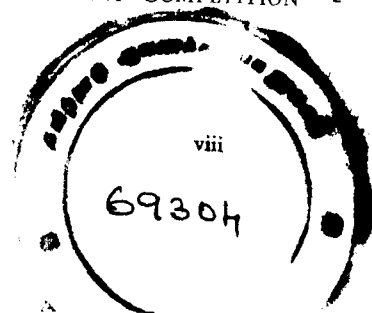
Telephone—HOLBORN 0292

3L
y:4:61m2,N28
N28.3
69304

The
POLICE JOURNAL

CONTENTS

INJURIES FROM FIREARMS. BY DR. SYDNEY SMITH	PAGE
ADDITIONAL DUTIES IMPOSED ON THE POLICE. BY G. C. VAUGHAN	321
THE NEW YORK POLICE COLLEGE. BY GROVER A. WHALEN	334
FORENSIC CHEMISTRY: PAST, PRESENT AND FUTURE. BY H. T. F. RHODES	342
CRIME IN THE PORT OF CALCUTTA. BY C. E. S. FAIRWEATHER	359
THE CO-OPERATION BETWEEN THE POLICE AND THE PUBLIC IN THE DETECTION AND PROSECUTION OF CRIME. BY INSPECTOR JOHN PEAKE	370
SCOTTISH POLICE ADMINISTRATION IN TOWN AND COUNTRY. BY DONALD A. ROSS	383
THE PROBLEM OF THE ARMED CRIMINAL IN SINGAPORE. BY R. H. ONAERT	412
THE POLICE FORCES OF SOUTHERN RHODESIA. BY LT.-COL. H. MARSHALL HOLE, C.M.G.	425
TRAFFIC CONTROL IN PARIS. BY M. CHALLIER	435
A REBELLION IN BURMA. BY W. H. A. WEBSTER, C.I.E.	447
THE QUARTERLY RECORD	461
JUDICIAL DECISIONS	469
REVIEWS	473
POLICE GOLD MEDAL ESSAY COMPETITION	476
	480



THE
POLICE JOURNAL

*A Quarterly Review for the Police Forces
of the Empire*

ISSUED UNDER OFFICIAL PATRONAGE

NOTICE TO CONTRIBUTORS

THE POLICE JOURNAL is published on the first day of January, April, July and October.

The Editor will be happy to consider articles suitable for publication in THE POLICE JOURNAL. Contributions should be typewritten (double spacing) and *must* bear the name and address of the sender on the first page. Articles can be signed with a *nom de plume* if desired. All contributions should be addressed to "The Editor of THE POLICE JOURNAL, 69 Great Russell Street, London, W.C.1." A covering letter is desirable.

Unaccepted contributions will be returned if accompanied by an addressed envelope and stamps. All reasonable care is taken of MSS., photographs and other material submitted; but the Editor cannot hold himself responsible for any loss or damage.

The Editor will be happy to receive for review books and other literature likely to be of interest to readers of THE POLICE JOURNAL.

Publishers and Distributing Agents:

PHILIP ALLAN & CO., LTD.

69 GREAT RUSSELL STREET, LONDON, W.C.1

Telegrams and Cables—"AQUALICOR, WESTCENT., LONDON"

Telephone—MUSEUM, 9576 and 9577

Advertising Offices:

CHARLES SELL

5 AND 6 RED LION SQUARE, LONDON, W.C.1

Telephone—HOLBORN 0292

vii

Injuries from Firearms

By SYDNEY SMITH, M.D., D.P.H.

Professor of Forensic Medicine, University of Edinburgh

IN the investigation of cases in which firearms are suspected of having been used, many important questions arise. In the first place a decision must be arrived at as to whether the wounds are caused by firearms or by some other form of violence; and although this is usually simple, it occasionally presents a problem of extreme difficulty, especially if the body to be examined is in a decomposed state.

Assuming that the wounds are really due to firearms, important questions arise about the kind of weapon used, the distance from which it was discharged and the direction of fire, the two latter having considerable importance in deciding whether the injuries were likely to have been homicidal or suicidal in nature.

In the later stages the question of the identification of the weapon or ammunition may arise. In all these investigations a close relationship between the police, the medical officer and the laboratory offers the best chance of success. In these, as in fact in all criminal investigations, the greatest care must be taken to lose nothing during the early stages. Of course no police officer is likely to lose sight of the necessity of securing such things as a spent bullet, or part of it, a fragment of wad, a cartridge case, or so on, but in addition the possibility of finding fragments of the discharge about the clothes or wound must be remembered. In automatic pistol wounds there is little or no burning and not much discoloration from the powder, and roughness in handling the clothing or the body may disturb or lose a few adherent flakes of smokeless powder, the preservation of which would have conclusively proved the distance from which the shot was fired. Wounds should always be examined as rapidly as possible, and microscopic and

The
POLICE JOURNAL

CONTENTS

	PAGE
THE INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION OF CRIMINAL POLICE. BY MAJOR M. C. VAN HOUTEN - - - - -	482
THE EDINBURGH CITY POLICE. BY RODERICK ROSS - - - - -	498
THE PRESS AND THE POLICE. BY LT.-COL. J. F. C. CARTER - - - - -	509
CRIME IN NORTHERN RHODESIA. BY LT.-COL. A. STEPHENS - - - - -	519
POLICE DOG TRAINING. BY P. L. CECIL-GURNEY - - - - -	526
NARCOTIC CONTROL IN CANADA. BY C. H. L. SHARMAN - - - - -	535
THE ETHICS OF PUNISHMENT. BY SIR REGINALD CRADDOCK - - - - -	550
THE POLICE AND DANGEROUS DRUGS. BY A. H. SIRKS - - - - -	560
THE BROADER OUTLOOK. BY SUPT. F. NAYLOR - - - - -	573
FRAUD IN VARIOUS FORMS. BY DET.-INSPECTOR R. MORRISH - - - - -	589
PREVENTION OF JUVENILE CRIME. BY DONALD C. WRIGHT - - - - -	601
A NAME OF TERROR. BY 'THEOPHILUS' - - - - -	611
SOME JOYS AND SORROWS OF A COUNTRY POLICEMAN. BY R. McL. - - - - -	617
COURSE OF LECTURES ON POLICE SUBJECTS - - - - -	629
JUDICIAL DECISIONS - - - - -	630
REVIEWS - - - - -	633
POLICE GOLD MEDAL ESSAY COMPETITION - - - - -	640

Injuries from Firearms

By SYDNEY SMITH, M.D., D.P.H.

Professor of Forensic Medicine, University of Edinburgh

IN the investigation of cases in which firearms are suspected of having been used, many important questions arise. In the first place a decision must be arrived at as to whether the

The police Journal vol. III nos 1 & 2
January and April 1930----Missing.

suicidal in nature.

In the later stages the question of the identification of the weapon or ammunition may arise. In all these investigations a close relationship between the police, the medical officer and the laboratory offers the best chance of success. In these, as in fact in all criminal investigations, the greatest care must be taken to lose nothing during the early stages. Of course no police officer is likely to lose sight of the necessity of securing such things as a spent bullet, or part of it, a fragment of wad, a cartridge case, or so on, but in addition the possibility of finding fragments of the discharge about the clothes or wound must be remembered. In automatic pistol wounds there is little or no burning and not much discoloration from the powder, and roughness in handling the clothing or the body may disturb or lose a few adherent flakes of smokeless powder, the preservation of which would have conclusively proved the distance from which the shot was fired. Wounds should always be examined as rapidly as possible, and microscopic and

chemical examination of the wound and of the clothing should be undertaken with the minimum of delay.

Before discussing the distinguishing features of firearm wounds, we must have a clear idea of what takes place when a weapon is discharged. At the moment of fire there is immediate evolution of gases at high pressure which force the projectile out of the barrel together with the wads of different kinds, smoke, unburnt particles of powder, and flame, each of which produces some effect which may be of use in investigation.

The only difference of importance to us between shot-firing and bullet-firing weapons is that in the former the barrel is smooth and in the latter it is rifled (cut with a series of spiral lands and grooves). When a projectile is fired, the surface of the bullet is forced into the grooves and therefore must turn in a spiral manner in its passage along the barrel, and this action causes certain marks on its surface.

The reason for cutting the inner surface of the barrel with such spiral lands is to impart a spinning movement to the bullet which keeps it point forwards, and this minimises the effect of air friction. The rate of spinning depends on the initial velocity of the projectile and also on the pitch of the spiral lands, and in the case of a bullet leaving the barrel of a modern rifle it is spinning at the rate of about 2,000 revolutions per second.

As with all gyrating bodies, there is an initial tendency to wobble, and if the tissues are struck by a projectile gyrating in this manner, a considerable amount of smashing results. These wounds often appear to have been caused by explosive bullets, and are best observed in rifle wounds at ranges within two or three hundred yards. Such effects are rarely seen with the short bullets used in revolvers and pistols.

When the velocity due to impact of the released gas is diminishing, the rotation of the projectile is insufficient to keep it in the axis of flight and the nose and base of the bullet gyrate about the trajectory.

If a body is struck at this stage, the wound is likely to present an irregular form owing to the bullet striking sideways on, and bones are liable to be broken rather than to be cleanly perforated.

The wounding power of a bullet depends on its momentum and the facility with which the potential energy can be converted into work.

The momentum is a product of the mass (m) and velocity (v) of the bullet, and its energy is expressed by the formula

$$E = \frac{m v^2}{2}$$

As the velocity rapidly decreases, the momentum of the bullet, which is relatively great at short ranges, rapidly diminishes with increase of range.

Apart from the momentum we must also consider the area of striking surface. It is obvious that the same momentum is obtained with a heavy body moving with low velocity and with a light body moving with high velocity, but the effects are entirely different.

In the former case the deformation of the object struck takes place over a large area and there is great diffusion of the force. In the latter case the whole of the force is concentrated at one point, and unless the resistance is too great the tissues at that point only will be affected. Thus a high-velocity bullet impinging on the skull punches out a clean hole without fractures, whereas a blow from a heavy body of low velocity will cause fractures and deformation over a wide area.

The damage done also depends on the resistance of the body struck. Thus if a bullet travelling at high velocity strikes a very resistant structure which stops it, the whole of its energy is converted into work and severe damage is inflicted. Conversely, when the resistance is less, the bullet may pass through with little loss of energy and with comparatively little damage to the part.

A further effect of projectiles has to be considered, namely, the effect of hydrostatic pressure. When a bullet strikes a fluid-containing cavity, the force of impact is distributed over the whole structure in all directions and thus may cause widespread and severe injuries instead of the localised wounds which we are accustomed to see.

There are, therefore, a considerable number of variables to be taken into consideration when dealing with wounds caused

by projectiles. The diagnosis of a firearm wound is made from:

- ✓ The characters of the inlet and exit wounds.
- ✓ The character of the track.
- ✓ The presence of certain special substances, such as traces of the projectile, powder, etc.

Now let us examine in detail some of the effects of the discharge of a firearm. When the ignition of the powder takes place, the projectile and wads, a wave of compressed gas, smoke, flame, and unburnt particles of powder are all discharged with approximately the same velocity, and if the shot is fired close enough to the body, each one of them will affect the surface, producing effects of value in diagnosis.

The gases produced by the explosion pass out of the barrel in front of and behind the projectile, and by their expansion after they pass into the tissues may cause considerable laceration. This laceration as seen in the skin or clothes usually takes the form of a cross-shaped tear and is most characteristic of a firearm discharged in contact with or very close to the surface. The smoke causes blackening of the surface, which can as a rule be wiped off, and the unburnt particles of powder are driven into the skin for varying distances according to the distance of fire. The latter discoloration is known as tattooing and cannot be washed off. A fine ring of blackening about the wound may be due to fouling from the surface of the bullet (metallic or greasy) and to the bruising of the tissues. These latter discolorations give no indication of distance, although they are often mistaken for powder marks. As the distance increases, the blackening, tattooing and scorching disperse over a gradually-increasing area until they disappear altogether.

In a typical close discharge, therefore, we get not only a wound from the actual projectile but certain effects from the gas, powder, wad, smoke and flame which are highly characteristic. They are not only diagnostic of firearm wounds, but also give us considerable information about the distance and direction of fire, the kind of weapon and ammunition used.

As the distance from which the weapon is fired increases, the whole of these aids disappear, and we must be able to distinguish the wounds caused by the projectile alone.

Suppose we take as a type an ordinary revolver or automatic pistol, which cause most of the injuries likely to be encountered in practice. We have to consider the appearances typical of a firearm wound as regards the entrance, the track and the exit. We must then consider the different appearances produced by firing at different ranges and at different angles, and finally we must carefully consider these injuries which are due to projectiles and may be wrongly attributed to some other form of violence, and wounds due to other causes which simulate firearm wounds.

In a typical entrance wound from a revolver or automatic pistol at point-blank range there is usually a cross-shaped wound of the skin, with ploughing up and blackening of the tissues beneath, singeing of the hairs and blackening and tattooing of the skin in a circumscribed zone about the wound, some of the particles of unburnt powder being deeply embedded. If the weapon is discharged into the mouth, great destruction and laceration may result.

At a distance of a few inches the entrance wound shows as a clearly-punched hole with contusion of the margins, denudation of a collar of epithelium around the periphery and inturning of the tissues. Blackening from smoke or tattoo marks from embedded powder are seen over a fairly circumscribed area around the wound, and up to a range of five or six inches with a heavy calibre revolver there may be slight singeing of hairs. From the distribution of the powder marks and the depth of their impaction an approximation to the distance of firing can be made. At ranges beyond 2-3 feet little or no trace of the powder can be observed. As a rule automatic pistols cause less discoloration than revolvers owing to the fact that the powder is less in quantity and is more completely burnt. As a rule there is little or no singeing with smokeless powder.

Examination with a lens will show the typical denuded area around the orifice, the bruised periphery, the turning-in and compression of the tissues, and may show particles of embedded powder not visible to the naked eye. A fine ring of blackening around the margin of the hole is often seen at greater distances. This is due to grease and metallic fouling

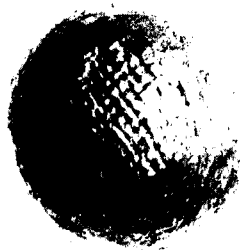


FIGURE 3
Bullet handed to the Police by the victim, showing imprint of clothing at top.



FIGURE 4
Bullet fired through the clothing of the victim for purposes of comparison, showing the same marks.

(see page 330)

same laminated manner. It is not due or not entirely due to the frictional pull of the bullet, for it is seen on the outer table when no emergence of the bullet takes place. In one case a .32 automatic bullet was fired through the right parietal bone making a cleanly-drilled hole, and after passing through the brain struck the inside of the left parietal bone. It caused a slight indentation inside and at the same time produced a splintering of the outer table and the shelling-off of a circular piece of bone the size of a sixpence.

If the projectile is found or if it passes through a part, its track, assuming that the difference between exit and entrance wounds can be made out, gives a fairly accurate idea of direction. The projectile usually takes a straight course between entrance and exit, and a line drawn through these gives the line of fire. The possible deflection of the bullet must of course be remembered, and this is most likely to occur when bone is struck at a tangent or where there is considerable resistance. It is possible, for example, when a person is struck on the front of the chest with a revolver bullet to find the bullet in the tissues of the back without any penetration of the thorax, the bullet completely passing round the outer side of the ribs. By following the track of the bullet the observer may readily decide whether deflection has occurred. It is essential, of course, to know which way the bullet is going, and this can be deduced from the difference between entrance and exit wounds which I have already described. The track itself may give definite information on this point, for there is always a tendency for particles of clothing and different tissues to be displaced and to be driven along the track with the bullet. The observation of these particles affords definite proof of direction. If the body has not been completely traversed, the presence and site of the projectile gives the required information.

In the case of shot-gun injuries little difficulty can be experienced. The characters of a close discharge are similar to those described above, but are greatly exaggerated. Up to about a yard there will be found a single wound with irregular edges about an inch in diameter surrounded by a zone of intense burning, blackening and tattooing. Beyond this and

on the surface of the bullet and gives no indication of the range. It may be of the greatest value, however, in proving that the wound is due to a bullet. A dotted appearance of this margin can sometimes be seen from which the number of rifling grooves may be deduced. This eroded zone above referred to soon dries, becomes parchment-like and extends somewhat on the cadaver. It looks like a burn and is often mistaken for burning by the inexperienced observer.

When the bullet strikes normally point on at right angles to the surface, the hole made is usually circular and is smaller than the bullet, while the area of erosion is about the same diameter as the bullet or a little greater. When a bullet strikes the tissues obliquely instead of perpendicular to the surface, the hole tends to be oval instead of circular, there is more compression at the acute angle and more shelving and scaling on the inner side in the direction of flight. Powder marks, if present, are concentrated on one side of the wound on the near side of the line of fire. From these indications an idea of the direction of fire can be obtained from an isolated wound. With greater obliquity of fire the wound becomes more elongated until eventually a longitudinal furrow or abrasion is produced. When the velocity is very low, the entrance hole is often slit-like, and when the bullet is practically spent it may cause a mere bruise without perforation.

Exit wounds in the skin are almost always torn or are puckered and turned outwards, and the tearing increases with diminishing velocities. There is an entire absence of blackening, tattooing or burning.

If bone is penetrated a fairly typical picture is presented. At the point of entry there will be a clean-cut hole without much splintering and without shelving or scaling, while the point of exit will be marked by a cone-shaped excavation (as seen in Figures 1 and 2).

This shelving is due partly to the loss of velocity of the ball during its passage through the bone and the dispersion of its force of impact in a fan-like manner, and partly to the bulging outwards of both tables of the skull. It is not due to the greater brittleness of the inner table, for when a bullet passes from within outwards, the outer table becomes splintered in the



FIGURE 1
SHOWING CLEAN-CUT HOLE OF ENTRY OF A .45 REVOLVER BULLET

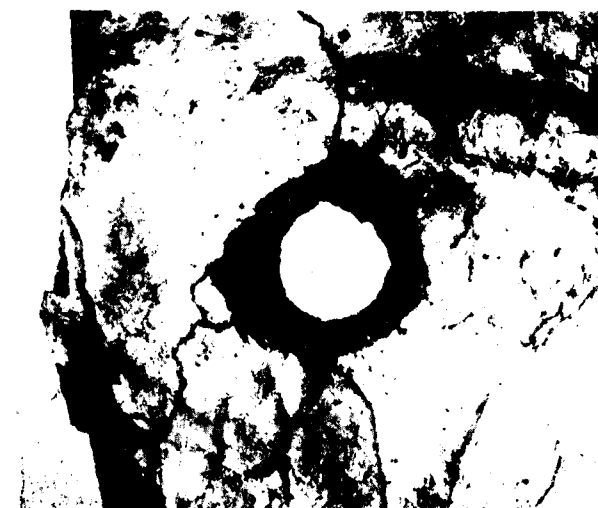


FIGURE 2
THE INNER SIDE OF THE SAME SKULL, SHOWING CONE-LIKE
EXCAVATION AT THE SITE OF EXIT

up to about three yards the burning and tattooing disappear and only a few discrete marks of tattooing may be found. Around the central hole where the mass of shot enters, there may be a few individual holes made by separate shot. At greater distances than three yards dispersion occurs in a fairly regular manner, and from the total area covered a moderate idea of the range can be obtained. In all cases, however, experiments must be made with the actual weapon and the same make of cartridge.

Occasionally two shots are fired which enter about the same area, and this is liable to cause confusion unless the possibility is kept in mind. In one such case in my experience there was an entrance wound about one inch in diameter, with blackening and burning, showing that the shot was fired within about a yard, but around this central hole there was a wider area of dispersed shot such as you would expect in the case of a weapon discharged from about ten yards. As a matter of fact two shots were fired, the first from ten yards, which brought the man down, after which the murderer advanced and delivered a 'coup de grâce' at point-blank range.

The difference between inlet and exit wounds of a shot-gun is so marked that it need not be discussed; as a matter of fact pellets are almost invariably left in the tissues.

Ordinarily, therefore, wounds from firearms can be readily diagnosed and identified. In the case of shot-guns the ragged irregular hole, with burning or blackening at close ranges and the regular dispersion of shot with increasing distances, leaves little room for doubt.

In the case of bullet-firing weapons, the clean punched appearance of the inlet, the track through the tissues and the torn exit hole form an equally easily recognisable picture. Should there be no exit hole, then the presence of the projectile must be observed either by dissection or by X-ray examination.

It is, however, not always so easy to be sure that injuries are due to firearms, and I am now going to describe a few cases to illustrate the difficulty.

For example, when a projectile strikes the surface obliquely, it may inflict a glancing wound which at first sight may be

assumed to be an incised wound from a sharp instrument; a laceration from a blow from a stick, or scratches from a sharp-pointed instrument. In one such case the ear was cleanly cut. If, however, the injury is carefully examined, the edges show contusion and there is definite grooving with actual loss of substance.

In another case there appeared to be a series of scratches on the inner side of the arm below the elbow, running from behind upwards and outwards, without any corresponding holes in the clothes. This led the medical officer to certify that the man had fabricated the injury with the object of making a false charge. However, the appearance of the grooved lines were characteristic of a shot wound, and the position and direction of the injuries and absence of marks on the sleeve of the shirt could be explained by the fact that the man had his arm bent at the elbow, carrying a stick across his shoulders.

Occasionally a projectile which enters the tissues leaves a most deceptive entrance wound. In one case, the victim had an apparent stab wound in the chest with clean-cut edges as though made with a dagger. X-ray examination, however, showed a projectile in the thoracic cavity.

When a projectile strikes a bone at an acute angle, a linear or gutter fracture is produced, and this in the case of the skull is commonly associated with bevelling of the inner table exactly as if something had entered the skull. In these cases, however, nothing is found in the brain except fragments of broken bone, and the erroneous conclusion that the injury was caused by a blunt-cutting instrument might be drawn. In these cases very careful search must be made in the tissues and in the brain for fragments of the projectile.

In other cases a bullet at very low velocity may strike the body without penetrating and cause a superficial laceration or a bruise. In one such case a person accused another of firing at him. The bullet struck him on the abdomen, inflicting a bruise, and remained embedded in the clothes. This story was not credited, and it was assumed that the bullet had been placed in the clothes by the man himself. Examination of the bullet markings, however, showed that it had been fired from the

seized revolver, and on the tip the imprint of clothing could be seen. Another bullet was fired into the victim's clothes and the texture markings were exactly reproduced (as shown in Figures 3 and 4).

Let us now take a case where the body has actually been penetrated, can we be sure that the injuries were produced by a projectile? It can readily be understood that a hole in the tissues can be made by any sharp-pointed instrument, and if the instrument is rounded, it may produce a wound which bears a very close resemblance to a bullet wound. Such an instrument, however, must completely traverse the body, for if there is no exit wound the projectile must necessarily remain in the tissues.

Suppose the body or skull has been completely transfixated, then the weapon must be withdrawn, and the backward pull leaves definite indications of such withdrawal in the tissues and in the entrance and exit holes. The bevelling of bone will be altered and splintering on both sides is the rule. There are also different effects due to the greater velocity of firearm projectiles.

If a person is struck on the head with a pointed instrument and the skull is penetrated, the injury may closely simulate a bullet wound, as happened in the case of a boy who was struck on the head with a pitchfork. In that case there was a clean-cut hole in the bone, rounded and free from cracking or splintering, while on the inner side the bevelling was similar to that found in bullet wounds.

It may be said that if there is no exit hole and no bullet within the skull, these facts are sufficient to exclude a firearm wound.

There is, however, a risk of error, especially if the examination is not precise, for occasionally a bullet strikes the head causing a typical entrance wound of the skull and does not enter. This was well shown in a case in which the bullet was broken into numerous small fragments without one particle entering. Nevertheless, the typical bullet wound of entrance is produced. It is evident, therefore, that in certain cases where there is a definite entrance and no exit hole, and though no projectile is found inside the skull, it may still be due to a bullet wound.

Occasionally two blows are struck, one on each side of the head, which renders the case very confusing unless the examiner understands the difference already described between the entrance and the exit wounds. The conditions may closely simulate firearm wounds, but on examination both wounds will be found to be of the character of entrance wounds.

If a person is shot through the eye, nose, mouth, etc., the bullet may pass out of the skull and the exit wound be mistaken for an ordinary fracture, no projectile being found. The entrance wound in the orbit in such a case, provided the eyeball is not ruptured, is very easily missed, especially if there is much comminution of the skull at the exit.

In looking for projectiles by the X-rays, considerable care must be used. I remember a case in which an individual was certified to have a bullet wound of the leg because a foreign body was observed in the tissues. The wound was an old sinus and the foreign body a mass of bismuth and iodoform paste which had been injected for curative purposes. Again, it must be remembered that a projectile may take an irregular course in the body and may be extremely difficult to find. One has on numbers of occasions been puzzled by the eccentricities of bullets. For example, in a certain case a bullet struck the hand at the base of the thumb, and it was only on account of the statement of the victim that he felt pain in the elbow that we were led to examine there for the bullet.

In another case an individual stated that he had been shot in the leg just above the knee. He was examined by palpation and by X-rays, and as no projectile was found, and as there was no exit hole, it was assumed that the man was telling a lie. However, the injury appeared to be so like the entrance wound of a bullet that the limb was X-rayed from top to bottom and the bullet was found embedded in the tissues about the thigh joint. The reconstruction of the case showed that the victim was shot from a wall above him.

In the murder of the Governor-General of the Sudan, the bullet which caused the death entered the body about the right buttock and was found embedded in the tissues above the heart.

Cases sometimes occur in which more than one injury is

caused by a firearm, and one should be very careful in reviewing all the possibilities before giving an opinion. For example, on one occasion a policeman fired at a thief who managed to get away. The following day the body was discovered in a field, and on post-mortem examination a bullet wound was found in the lumbar region, passing through the right pelvic bone and making its exit down on the left side of the abdomen. Another wound was found in the front of the left leg, passing from the front backwards and downwards, and a bullet was extracted from the tissues at the back of the leg. The doctor who examined the body gave the opinion that the man had been first shot through the leg whilst facing the policeman. This shot brought down the man, and after he had fallen the policeman had fired another shot at shorter range which perforated the body. The policeman maintained that he had fired one shot only and that it was fired whilst the man was running away. The case was sent for opinion, and on examining the exhumed pelvis of the victim I found that the shot had certainly passed through the pelvis from behind forwards. An examination of the clothing showed that the ball had passed from the abdominal wound into the leg, and on reconstructing the affair it was found that the victim was bending down to get into cover of a wall when he was shot. In this position, with the leg raised in running, the direction of fire ran directly from the back to the front of the abdomen and into the front of the leg. Thus two separate injuries, one fired from behind forwards, and the other from before backwards, were both due to the same shot.

Another case that may be interesting in connection with reconstruction was that of a man who had a fracture of the forearm at the wrist, a fracture of the upper part of the humerus, and fracture of certain ribs, all caused by one shot. The case was a little puzzling on account of the different statements of alleged eye-witnesses, but, as the arm was raised to defend the face when the shot was fired, the whole of the injuries were found to be in one straight line.

Finally, there is a case in which the decomposed remains of a man were found in a well. The skull was fractured at the base and there was a large hole in the top of the skull. No

bullet was found, and it was assumed that he had fallen into the well and struck his head on the projecting stone. The hole was rather large for an ordinary bullet, but showed most of the characters of a bullet wound. A search was made amongst the debris of the body and a round 16-bore bullet was discovered embedded in the breast bone, where it had entered from the upper border. The victim had apparently been shot whilst lying asleep.

To show the difficulty which may arise in such cases when neither the projectile nor any trace of the discharge can be found, there is the case of the skull of a man who had been struck by a hammer. The wound was by no means unlike that seen in the previous case and indicated the care which must be exercised before giving any distinct opinion.

Those atypical cases are useful in reminding us that fire-arm wounds present considerable variability and that great care is necessary before coming to an opinion. I might in conclusion again refer to the necessity of a minute and careful examination of the clothing, for this is frequently omitted or at least performed perfunctorily. More information can be obtained from the examination of the clothing than from the examination of the body in many instances. Further, if bones are found to be fractured or comminuted, every particle should be kept for examination by an expert, for precise and accurate information can frequently be obtained after the reconstruction of the part.

Additional Duties Imposed on the Police

By GEORGE C. VAUGHAN

Chief Clerk, West Riding of Yorkshire Constabulary, England

WHEN Sir Robert Peel introduced in 1829, during the administration of the Duke of Wellington, his system of an organized constabulary, it was received with much antagonism in many quarters, the popular belief being that the scheme for an improved police service was really an official attempt to interfere unduly with the liberty of the subject. This erroneous impression doubtless sprang from the fact that the system gave certain powers to the forces the significance of which the people were not yet able to appreciate. This hostile attitude is rather difficult to reconcile with the facts that the necessity for such an organization had exercised the public mind from the beginning of the nineteenth century, and that for some years crime of all kinds had been gradually increasing. The new order of things was introduced mainly for the prevention and detection of crime, and, as a logical consequence, the preservation of the peace. It is thought, and in fact put forward as the truth by more than one writer, that the ingrained jealousy of the people of this country of placing in the hands of government powers which, under an arbitrary administration of affairs, might be turned to their oppression was the real cause of this opposition.

It was some years after the introduction of Sir Robert Peel's measure that efficiently organized police forces were established. Police forces in boroughs were created by the Municipal Corporation Act, 1835, and the first County Police Act, under which the establishment of a county police force was made optional, was passed in 1839. The establishment of county forces was made compulsory in 1856. A perusal of the reports of inspections by the Government Inspectors of Constabulary published annually in the succeeding years show

the state of efficiency which then obtained, although little can be gathered of the ultimate aim of the Authorities. Only in later years has it been clearly apparent what legislature really intended, and the British public now fully realize how earnest have been the steps taken to bring the forces to a state of greater usefulness to the community.

The main duties then (1829) devolving on the police were limited to : (a) suppression of brawls ; (b) capture of thieves ; (c) supervision of common lodging-houses ; (d) impounding of cattle ; and (e) acting as relieving officers for casual poor, *i.e.* issue of workhouse admission tickets, etc. At the present time, when so many Chief Constables throughout the country find that the men at their disposal are numerically insufficient to meet the demands upon them, it will be interesting to trace some of the additional duties, not entirely germane to the preservation of law and order, which have been imposed upon them—not only by legislation, but also by the generally changed conditions of life and customs throughout the country and the gradual development of new ideas and conceptions.

If one is to accept as the real basis of police work the prevention and detection of crime and the preservation of life and property—colossal tasks in themselves in these days—many of the subsidiary duties, to some of which I shall refer, might be regarded as purely public or social services. Were these not dealt with by police organization they would necessitate the setting up of costly systems of enforcement, thereby adding to the heavy rates and taxes of the country about which we hear so much.

A brief survey only of the history of the police service is sufficient to enable one to realize how this admirable organization has grown, from a public utility point of view, until to-day we find 'guardians of law and order' engaged in such peaceful pursuits as restoring lost children to their parents, supervising the dipping of sheep, acting as unofficial intermediaries in domestic differences, assisting with the horse census, verifying dog and other licences, and so on.

It is true that there has been a steady increase in the numbers of men enrolled for constabulary work. This has been necessitated by the great increase in population in recent

times and the naturally attendant growth of local and general civil services of all kinds, the enforcement of which has by common assent been left to the police organization. Such a burden has not only thrown a great deal of work upon those engaged in the police service but has taxed them with a great responsibility, the proper discharge of which is so vital to our daily lives.

Of the many additional calls upon the police the greatest is in connection with the control of road traffic and the consequent enforcement of the many road regulations which it has been necessary to put into force on account of the complete transformation in road transport. It may be argued that such duties properly fall within the category of 'preservation of life,' but the magnitude to which the 'call of the road' has reached was certainly never contemplated, nor even dreamt of when it was originally decided to form an organized constabulary. Some general idea of the work involved can be gathered when legislation affecting transport is considered, the following being some of the Acts of Parliament dealing more or less with road offences :

- The Highways Acts, 1835 ;
- The Railway Passengers Act, 1842 ;
- The Towns Police Clauses Acts, 1847 and 1889 ;
- The Local Government Act, 1888 ;
- The Locomotives Acts, 1861, 1865, and 1898 ;
- The Motor Car Acts, 1903 ;
- The Road Act, 1920 ;
- The Road Transport Lighting Act, 1927, and many local Acts and Regulations.

I am unable to estimate what percentage of the strength of police forces throughout the country will, at the present time, be wholly employed on traffic duty, but according to recent utterances by various Chief Constables it must be considerable. Although many suggestions have been put forward with a view to relieving the police to some extent of this duty, or at least some portion of it, there appear to be many difficulties in the way of finding a really effective substitute service or organization. Auxiliary police (including police pensioners) on differ-

ent rates of pay have been suggested. The Royal Automobile Club has some arrangement with certain police authorities for giving assistance with road scouts, but in the case of the latter there would appear to be a difficulty, for they, as at present constituted, lack power to enforce their decisions by the medium of the law, a difficulty which must apply to any organization not under police jurisdiction.

The latest additions to the ranks are mechanical devices which have been installed in many towns throughout the country. There appears little doubt that these automatic controls electrically worked are proving of considerable value, particularly in places where police strength is at a minimum. They appear to be reliable and compare very favourably with the human element. There is the harmonious observation of the signals necessary to ensure success, and their general practicability (a matter of conjecture at the moment) will, if realized, be of considerable interest to all police authorities.

Certainly the passage of time will not alleviate this pressing question, with roads becoming more and more congested, particularly in large towns, and sooner or later some solution will have to be found, if this has not already been achieved.

Following in the wake of the increase of vehicular traffic comes another important phase of duty in the form of rendering First Aid to persons injured in street accidents and their subsequent removal to hospital or home. So necessary has knowledge of First Aid by constables become that most, if not all, Chief Officers of Police insist on all members of their force passing the qualifying examination of the St. John Ambulance Association. Even this does not terminate the policeman's association with the road, as in all cases of accident he must submit to his superiors a report of all details, measurements, etc., which may be necessary in case of possible police action, where there has been an alleged contravention of the law by the driver, or drivers, of the vehicle, or vehicles, involved ; while insurance companies concerned invariably seek the aid of the police in their endeavour to make satisfactory reparation to their clients.

It is impossible to exaggerate the great importance of proper traffic control in the general interests of the vast army

of vehicle users on our roads to-day. The adoption by police forces of a system of uniform road traffic signals, issued in 1923 and revised in 1928,¹ has gone a long way towards making the work simpler and more readily understood.

To turn from the absorbing topic of road transport, one can point to many instances where police aid is sought by individuals for individual gain, and by companies and corporate bodies in the furtherance of their business. Insurance companies, solicitors, and others frequently appeal to the police in cases of road accidents, fires, and other matters involving private litigation; assessors often rely on the report of the police when insured property disappears in circumstances difficult to explain. These parties, I sometimes think, would fare badly if they were compelled to depend upon other means of satisfying their wants, which, after all, are in many instances more of individual than of public interest.

Many Government Departments also have in recent years thrown much work upon the police, thus obviating the necessity of employment in many instances of additional officials by those Departments, notably the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries and the Ministry of Transport. In a lesser degree the Ministry of Pensions, the War Office, the Air Ministry, in fact most Government Offices, appear to make every possible use of the police organization as a means of obtaining information which presumably they are unable to obtain from any other dependable source.

To enforce the Diseases of Animals Acts and the Orders and Regulations issued by the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries—which, by the way, they must enforce by reason of Section 43 of the Diseases of Animals Act, 1894—is a very big task and takes up a great deal of a policeman's time, particularly when there is any serious epidemic outbreak, such as we have experienced during the past few years, when foot and mouth disease has been rampant amongst cattle. The granting of removal licences, etc., serving of notices, the immediate reporting to the Board of Agriculture, the inspection of all suspected outbreaks of disease and the supervision of such

¹ *Traffic Signals: to be used by the police and drivers of vehicles.* (Issued with the approval of the Home Office and the Scottish Office.) H.M. Stationery Office, 1928.

cases is obviously a very great strain on police strength when life and property must be protected and crime prevented and detected at the same time. Without instancing the multifarious duties involved, it may serve if I quote the titles of some of the Orders made under the Diseases of Animals Acts which directly concern the police expressly or by implication:

Swine Fever Orders, 1912, 1916.

Anthrax Order, 1910.

Foot and Mouth Disease Orders, 1925, 1926, and 1928.

Parasitic Mange Orders, 1911 and 1918.

Sheep Dipping Order, 1928.

Rabies Order, 1919.

Sheep Scab Order, 1928.

Exportation of Horses Order, 1910 to 1927.

Importation of Dogs Orders, 1928.

Epizootic Lymphangitis Order, 1905.

Tuberculosis Order, 1925.

The Orders I have mentioned are the more common ones, but they do not by any means cover the whole field of activity in this connection.

In 1894 a Diseases of Animals Act was passed consolidating the Contagious Diseases (Animals) Acts of 1878 to 1893, and since that time more and more work of this nature has been thrown upon Local Authorities and passed on in many cases to the police organization for eventual enforcement.

In rural areas during the sheep dipping period it is necessary for policemen to spend days away from home supervising the dipping of sheep, to ensure that the dip is of effective strength, and to deal with the necessary notices. In outbreaks of foot and mouth disease, the necessity has now arisen for constables to maintain a guard over the infected premises so that the disease is not spread by unauthorized persons and roaming animals, such as dogs, cats, and others, entering the proscribed area.

Other duties which have in comparatively recent times been imposed upon the police are to be found in legislation affecting the possession and acquiring of firearms and ammunition by the civilian population. The dealing with applications

under the Firearms Act, 1921, imposes additional responsibilities, particularly on the officer detailed to inquire into matters arising thereunder; for not only must he satisfy himself of the truth of the statement made by the applicant, but he must be able to say whether or not the application is justified! Further, under the provisions of this Act the police are required to keep registers of dealers and must issue certificates to legitimate holders of firearms.

There are also, to mention a few other enactments, the Aliens Act, which necessitates the maintenance of registers and the recording of the movements of desirable and other aliens; the Dangerous Drugs Acts, calling upon the police to thwart the civilian population in any attempt at trafficking in certain drugs for purposes other than medicinal; the Cinematograph Acts, under which County and other Councils frame innumerable regulations concerning the use of inflammable films in recognized buildings, the construction of operating boxes and the method of lighting and seating; the Weights and Measures Acts, defining how meat, bread, milk and certain other commodities may or may not be sold, and providing for the inspection, verification and stamping of measures and weights; the Protection of Animals Acts, giving the police power to deal with diseased or injured animals in the absence of the owner or on his refusal; and the Wild Birds Protection Acts and Orders, appointing close seasons for all wild birds and prohibiting certain methods of capture.

Local Taxation work, *i.e.* issue of motor licences, motor drivers' licences, etc., although not universally carried out by the constabulary, adds, in many cases, considerably to the work of the police, whilst many forces have more than a passing interest in the issue of dog, hackney carriage, armorial, game, male servant and gun licences.

A word should be also spoken regarding the exacting requirements in connection with statistics, correspondence, etc., thereby increasing very considerably the work of clerical staffs. With the tremendous growth of social services and the consequent enlargement and variety of the policeman's daily task, administrative staffs have, quite naturally, found the old time methods inadequate to cope with the changed conditions,

and the past few years have seen big strides in the direction of the efficient housing of criminal records (*i.e.* detective and finger-printing services), book-keeping, accounting and the forming of specialized branches by police authorities. Although there is not yet the complete uniformity in these matters one would like to see, much progress towards that end has been made, and a constant, if gradual, advance towards the administrative millenium will be of considerable benefit to the police service generally.

These additional duties, born of the progress of time, have been accepted as inevitable by the only established organization competent to deal with them satisfactorily, and whilst they have added great responsibilities both to administrative and executive police staffs, one must realize that such services rendered in the general interests of the community have been a means of establishing a relationship between the British police and the public which is envied by all other nations, and which plays so important a part in the good government of our country.

From such a brief survey as I have attempted it is possible, I think, to realize the great influence the police service now has compared with former times; and after one hundred years of organized constabulary in this country those in the service to-day have reason to feel proud of its great achievement. We must not, however, forget that, whilst much had been accomplished in later days, to our forefathers is due their full meed of credit. For to them fell the task of laying a sure foundation, upon which we have been able to build—I hope—nobly and well.

school their employees in concepts and methods of efficient work and management.

My analysis of police work led me to organize the Police College, the functions of which are aptly epitomized in the maxim :

‘ ENTER TO LEARN,
GO FORTH TO SERVE.’

The New York City Police College is not the conventional police school.

While such schools aim to equip the prospective policeman with the rudiments of police work, we aim primarily to train those in service for higher levels of police work. We like to remind them that the golden shield of the Chief Inspector may some day adorn their blue uniform.

The New York City Police College has already become an educational institution of distinction.

In the course of time, virtually every member of the New York department of approximately 19,000 policemen and policewomen will have received instruction in the College.

Its course of study and syllabuses have been as carefully planned as are those of the elder subjects in any college curriculum.

In fact, distinguished members of the Faculties of the College of the City of New York, New York University and Columbia University have collaborated with us in defining our procedure.

Moreover, these institutions of learning have been most generous in providing both faculty advisers and lecturers.

INSTRUCTION

The training of the policeman and the detective should, of necessity, be practical. It should be based as closely as possible upon organized experience, interpreted in the light of present-day applications of scientific principles. Superior officers must be called upon to teach the lessons which they themselves have learned through years of trial and error.

Experience is a bitter and costly method of learning. It is not and should not be necessary for the younger men to pay

the high price of learning through personal experience. The learning process can be shortened through well-planned instruction.

It was not difficult to discover men experienced in actual police and detective work who were competent and willing to become teachers of police theory and practice. The story of police success and failure, when told by experienced police officers, makes an interesting and valuable body of information. To insure this practical quality of instruction, the Police College has as members of its faculty the ranking officers of the Department of the grades from Chief Inspector to Sergeant who have distinguished themselves by their intelligence, industry and leadership. All have responded most cheerfully and effectively to the new demands made upon them.

GUIDANCE IN SOUND TEACHING

The members of the Faculty of the College were given their assignments in July 1929. Each instructor submitted an outline of the case material he proposed to present to his classes. Subsequently, many of them appeared before their colleagues and the members of the Advisory Board and they made presentations of their respective subjects. Constructive suggestions were then made and the differences between effective and ineffective teaching were made clear. Unorganized telling was gradually changed into teaching conforming to the requirements of the modern classroom. Discipline has presented no difficulties because of the superior rank and interesting presentation of the instruction.

This conference work has been supplemented by frequent classroom inspections by the Inspector who acts as the Dean of the College and by members of the Advisory Board. The consensus of opinion of those having opportunities to observe the instruction, including the writer, members of the Advisory Board, the Dean of the College, a representative of the Board of Regents of the State of New York and high administrative and executive officials of other departments, is that most of the work has been done intelligently and effectively. The attitude of the officers selected as instructors has

been very fine indeed. Their work has been characterized by diligence, intelligence and enthusiasm.

STUDENT BODIES

In selecting the student bodies to attend the various schools of the College, the primary object has been to assign members of the force who co-ordinate the various functional activities of the Department.

Courses are being given to the following groups: probationary and qualified patrolmen, foot and mounted; members of the detective division, comprising commanding officers of squad units, and detectives operating on general and specialized detective work; members of the force assigned to the regulation of traffic; members of the force assigned to the operation of motor vehicles for patrol and detective work; members of the force assigned to safety work; superior officers of the force engaged in the supervision of subordinates; members of the force assigned to aviation; and those in specialized service, including, among others, police emergency service and clerical work.

The eighteen hundred students passing under instruction week by week are inclusive of the following groups:

Superior Officers	-	-	-	-	160
Probationary Patrolmen	-	-	-	-	500
Detectives	-	-	-	-	240
Operators of Motor Vehicles	-	-	-	-	300
Operators of Motor Cycles	-	-	-	-	30
Traffic Policemen	-	-	-	-	300
Aviators	-	-	-	-	40
Members receiving Pistol Instruction					230

PROGRAMME MAKING

The preparation of programmes for all these groups presents a very complicated and difficult problem. Due regard must be had to the fact that these men are in different types of police service. As far as possible it is deemed inadvisable to encroach unduly upon their periods of active service.

In arranging for the attendance of members of the Detective Division it was found necessary to secure their attendance on a day on which there would be slight likelihood of appearance in court or on special duties. It was found further that, to maintain the peak of strength in this branch of the service, the sessions for commanding officers of detective units should start at 10.30 a.m. and end at 1.30 p.m., and the sessions for detectives should begin at 1.30 p.m. and end at 4.30 p.m. In like manner, it has been found advisable to withdraw men from the field forces regulating traffic only during those hours of the day when traffic is lightest. Therefore, instruction to traffic men starts at 10.30 a.m. and ends at 3.30 p.m. The sessions for the Motor Transport School start at 12.30 p.m. and end at 3.30 p.m.

During the current year, the Third Grade Detectives attend a three-hour session weekly for thirty-two weeks. The Motor Transport Course covers a period of ten weeks of three hours weekly. The Traffic Control and Street Safety Course covers an instruction period of fifteen hours. Assignments to the Officers' Training School, the Horsemanship School, the Aviation School, the Motor Cycle School and the Specialized Training School are for a period of thirty days, students attending classes daily, except Sundays, from 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.

AIMS OF THE SEVERAL SCHOOLS

The School of Law:

The aim of the School of Law is to teach by pedagogical methods the basic principles of criminal jurisprudence applicable to the orderly and proper presentation of evidence in the prosecution of criminal cases; and also the origin, development and subsequent derivative legislative enactments of common law concepts intended to insure the protection of life and property.

This range of study includes the principal phases of criminal law and evidence. Through the systematic arrangement and grouping of material by the instructor and diligent application by the student, it is proposed to develop habits of

legal thinking, as an aid in the detection of crime and presentation of evidence.

The case system in use is similar to that employed in the leading law schools. It is assumed that the student grounded in the knowledge of appropriate legal principles will reason, from a given set of facts, to a logical conclusion or decision; and also that in the performance of his duties he will exercise proper legal discretion.

Moot courts function under the direction of the Faculty. Their purpose is to give experience in the arraignments, pleadings, adjournments and trial of cases. Trials are conducted in accordance with the established procedure of the various courts.

The School for Detectives :

Expert detective work is a prerequisite to the control of crime. The course of instruction aims to give the student ability to apply legal principles to concrete situations; to understand and appreciate people, normal and abnormal; to examine with a high degree of skill every detail connected with a crime; to spare no pains in searching for the slightest clue; to make effective use of traces left by criminals; to preserve exhibits and to consult experts; and to master the technique of criminal investigation in various fields according to their relative importance.

The course embraces methods of police administration; criminal investigation; criminal identification, including finger printing; statistics; pertinent subjects in sociology and psychology; other related sciences as scientific identification of firearms and bullets, explosives, poisons, handwriting, typewriting, etc.

Modern methods of efficient administration, crime detection and criminal apprehension are stressed. Criminal Law, the Code of Criminal Procedure and the Law of Evidence are taught. The search for and the recognition of clues which tend to prove crime and guilt; the correct formulae for giving descriptions and also the organization and the safeguarding of evidence are emphasized.

Partly because of changed economic and social conditions,

and partly because of new forms of wrong-doing evolved by the inventive genius of the twentieth-century malefactor, the pattern of each crime and the procedure of each type of criminal must be given fresh consideration.

Careful study is therefore made of the different criminal types and the factors underlying the geographical distribution of professional criminals, gangsters, gunmen and racketeers, together with the nature and technique of their organization. Emphasis is placed on the unification of police and detective work.

There are helpful presentations by expert psychiatrists of fundamental principles underlying human behaviour, and also the conduct disorders which give rise to crime.

In the near future we will have attached to the School a laboratory equipped with modern devices used in the art of detection. Advanced and capable students will make a study of chemical analysis, microscopic examinations, the identification of handwriting and documents, ballistics, and the relation of these applied sciences to the detection of offenders.

The School of Horsemanship :

The aims of the course of instruction are : to standardize the methods of horsemanship and the etiquette of the mounted service; to increase the efficiency and the usefulness of both man and horse; to perfect the rider's knowledge of the capacity, care and limitations of the horse; to familiarize the student with the proper fit and adjustment of riding equipment; and to train recruits to acquire proficiency before assignment to duty.

The course extends over a period of sixty days for applicants for admission to the mounted service, and over a period of fifteen days for the existing personnel of the mounted service. Records of the proficiency attained are kept.

The Motor Transport School :

The course of instruction gives, to members of the Force assigned to this branch of police work, valuable information regarding the construction and the operation of motor vehicles;

350 THE POLICE JOURNAL

laboratory and shop experience to aid them in efficiently caring for and maintaining departmental equipment ; and practical demonstrations and road tests in the driving and handling of motor cycles, automobiles and motor trucks.

The Training School for Recruits :

Four courses of instruction are given. Course One includes discipline, deportment, civics, rules and regulations, elements of various crimes, crime prevention, *modus operandi* of criminals, ordinances, code of criminal procedure, arrest, summonses, court procedure and evidence, assemblages, parades, strikes, fires, accident and first aid cases, patrol, observation, inter-departmental and extra-departmental co-operation, reports, forms and records. One hundred and forty eight hours of instructions are given.

Course Two deals with physical instruction. It consists of setting-up exercises, gymnastics, swimming, posture and military drills, boxing, wrestling, calisthenics, jiu-jitsu, rough and tumble fighting and games. The course covers a period of twelve weeks of one hundred and thirty hours.

Course Three gives instruction in the use of firearms. The topics include the construction, the care and use of pistols and revolvers, the aiming and shooting for class qualification. Eighteen hours are devoted to this instruction.

Course Four includes physical education, hygiene and first aid. Ten hours of instruction are given in physiology, anatomy, hygiene and sanitation, first aid and personal hygiene.

The School for Patrolwomen and Policewomen :

The course of instruction for patrolwomen and policewomen approximates that which is given to patrolmen. Emphasis is laid on protective patrol work ; inter-departmental and extra-departmental relations ; interviewing ; investigating complaints having to do with women and children, including lost, run-away and missing persons ; preventive protective work ; adolescent problem girls ; cases of domestic difficulty and immorality ; shop-lifting ; drug addicts ;

juvenile delinquencies and offences ; crime prevention ; psychology ; professional ethics.

This course also deals with the organization and administration of the Police Department ; the rules, regulations and procedure of the department ; the fundamentals of criminal law ; the supervision and attendance of women held in custody ; first aid, physical education and hygiene.

The School of Traffic and Street Safety :

The aims of the course of instruction are : to impart to the student the fundamentals of the mechanical phases of the regulation and control of vehicular and pedestrian traffic ; to standardize physical and mechanical posture, signs and signals ; to teach the student to gather and analyze, quickly and accurately, the elements involved in accidents ; to develop in the student tact, initiative and civility ; to give the student the required knowledge of Traffic Regulations, the Criminal Law, the Code of Criminal Procedure and the Law of Evidence ; and to give instruction in physical education, hygiene and the mechanics of first aid.

The Training School for Teachers :

This school aims to develop instructors by giving them courses in teaching methods, under the supervision of the Dean and the members of the Advisory Board. We expect to supplement this work by class attendance in the School of Education of the College of the City of New York, where teaching methods are especially emphasized. The present methods of instruction include lectures, demonstrations, debates and discussions.

The Training School for Officers :

The ultimate object of all police training is to fit police officers to render effective police service. To police successfully a city like New York requires capable police leaders and efficient field units. Therefore, the Officers' Training School is chiefly concerned with the development of leaders and with the development of the field force unit.

We like to believe that outstanding characteristics of the American people are intelligence, initiative, self-reliance and tenacity of purpose. Accepting these as fundamental, our training is based on the principle that these characteristics must be developed and moulded not only in individuals but also in the various police units so that they will be responsive to the lawful direction of a superior.

These objectives imply a well-balanced intellectual training which will insure an alert, intelligent conformity instead of a slow moving, unintelligent compliance. Abundant case material is used to show how the most frequent causes of police failure are unintelligent leadership and uncoordinated, inefficient action.

The course of instruction aims : to develop between local commanders, lieutenants and sergeants and the public a better understanding of problems and relations ; to develop the morale of the police force ; to develop initiative, resourcefulness, leadership and efficiency ; and to fit superior officers to understand the economical administration of their respective units.

The Specialized Training School :

In this school are given courses of instruction in subjects allied to the administrative and executive functions of the Department.

Course One deals with Police Emergency Service. Members of the force are trained for service in situations incident to strikes, riots, fires, the collapse of buildings, street and pavements and various other catastrophes which occur from time to time in large cities. Included also are gas attacks on criminal gangs. The service is a trying and hazardous one requiring initiative, zeal and a high degree of courage.

The instruction includes : physical education ; first aid ; skill and agility drills ; the use of tear gases ; and the construction, care and use of firearms, motor equipment and other paraphernalia, necessary for an effective emergency service.

The instruction also covers the rules, regulations and procedure of the department, and the laws and rules of evidence applicable to the problems that have to be confronted.

Actual field work affords opportunity for practice in the application of the principles and methods taught.

One hundred and ninety-two hours of instruction are given during an assignment of thirty days.

Course Two is intended for members of the Department engaged in clerical work, including stenography, typewriting, telephone operating, correspondence, filing, records, reports, statistics and office routine. The aims are precision, correctness, dispatch, unification of system, and economical administration.

The course covers a period of thirty days. One hundred and seventy-two hours of instruction are scheduled.

School of Aviation :

The aim of the School of Aviation is to acquaint the members of the force assigned to the Air Service Division with the principles and mechanics of the engine, the aeroplane and the art of aviation. The Aerial Policemen, however, are charged with responsibilities which hitherto have never been faced by police officers. They have a two-fold responsibility :

- (a) To safeguard the law-abiding citizen from all dangers from the air, whether he is flying or using the streets of the city.
- (b) To protect the citizens' property, whether it be in the form of an airship or a home.

Members of the Air Service Division, in order to perform efficiently their new duties,

- (a) Must familiarize themselves with flying regulations adopted by the United States Department of Commerce, by the State of New York, and by the City of New York ;
- (b) Must maintain constant watch for the reckless or incompetent flyer who violates these laws ; and
- (c) Must co-operate fully with all other units of the Police Department in carrying out their specific duties.

The nature of aviation work makes imperative the strictest

discipline on the part of the members assigned to the training unit. This discipline is effective from the date of the student's assignment to the School of Aviation.

Students assigned to the School of Aviation for Pilot Training located at Roosevelt Field, Long Island, must be young men under thirty years of age, vigorous and healthy, and must possess, to an unusual degree, intelligence, alertness, aptitude, decisiveness, resourcefulness, retentiveness and co-ordination.

Students assigned as Engine and Aeroplane Mechanics are required to pass a practical test in order to acquire a certificate of proficiency for permanent assignment.

Training in Flying consists of two courses, namely: Ground School Work and Flight Instruction.

School of Pistol Instruction :

While the policeman is essentially a peace officer, experience in this country has shown the necessity of providing him with certain equipment including billy, nightstick, handcuffs and especially a revolver. The modern methods of local crime, embracing holdups at the point of pistols, and the later escape or 'get-away' in automobiles, have brought the pistol into great importance as a means of control and self-protection.

The aim of the Course is to train all members of the Force so that they will be able to use their revolvers effectively in all lawful emergencies. Eighteen hours instruction are given recruits and six hours instruction to members of the force during each year of their service.

College Laboratory :

Police technique has borrowed its methods from many sciences ; but principally from biology, chemistry and physics. Under biology falls the fingerprint system, and certain examinations of blood and of hair. Even disguised and imitated handwriting is to be regarded as the automatic expression of biological processes of mind and body. Under chemistry fall such matters as the examination of stains, dust, poisons, counterfeit coins and notes.

Under physics are included all sorts of measurements and methods of comparisons, and physical aids such as spectroscopic analysis, photometry, luminescent analysis, etc.

In police investigations it is often necessary to work with very small quantities of material. In such cases spectroscopic analysis and other refined physical methods offer the possibility of determining the character of the material. Police laboratories are becoming increasingly important in criminal investigation and identification. It is proposed to install the following apparatus in the College Laboratory :

1. A microphotographic apparatus with complete optical equipment and a special optical arrangement for the illumination of objects by means of oblique light, as in the examination of intersecting ink lines or in the photography of bullets.
2. A microscope, equipped with dry objectives, magnifying from 800 to 8,000 times.
3. A comparison microscope consisting of two objectives from which the light is cast through a series of prisms to a common eye piece.
The instrument is used in the identification of bullets and cartridges and gives exceedingly rapid and accurate results.¹
4. A spectrophotometer or a Zeiss *stufenphotometer*, for the determination of the absolute shade of colour in the examination of ink, stamps, etc. This apparatus is indispensable in many investigations.
It permits the construction of accurate filters in the photographic process when it is necessary to distinguish between or to remove colours.
5. An ultra-violet ray lamp for luminescent analysis in filtered ultra-violet light. This is a quartz lamp from the light of which all visible rays are removed by means of a special filter, and through which only ultra-violet rays pass. Different articles show a

¹ See in *The Police Journal*, Vol. II, p. 376, the illustration of the comparison microscope.

fluorescence in different colours under exposure to ultra-violet rays.¹

The lamp is an excellent and speedy operating aid in the examination of counterfeit bills and the bringing forth of otherwise invisible spots in woven material, etc. It is furthermore useful in certain photographic processes.

6. A spectrograph for the photography of both the visible and ultra-violet spectrum. This apparatus is of great value in the analysis of dust and powder stains and in certain examinations of objects of art.
7. A polarizer. This to be inserted when needed in the microscope. This apparatus is of great help in the examination of hairs, fibres, textile material, etc.
8. A reproduction camera for plates.
9. A magnifying apparatus with a condenser, magnifying negatives up to thirteen by eighteen inches.
10. A complete set of filters.
11. A chemical balance.
12. Chemical glass, such as test tubes, retorts, micro-filtration apparatus, etc.
13. Various chemicals, such as reagents for ink testing, filters, etc.
14. A thick, welded steel pipe for use in the firing of trial bullets.

Some types of criminals are quick to take advantage of the latest developments in science. For this reason, the police who are perpetually fighting them to protect society, should have a greater incentive than the criminal to keep in step with the development of science and to apply such knowledge to the prevention and the detection of crime.

PROGRESS ACHIEVED

Within the short space of slightly under twelve months a well equipped and efficient educational institution was

¹ See 'The Fluorescence Test' in *The Police Journal*, Vol. III., p. 235.

brought into existence. This would be no mean accomplishment even in an educational system organized to promote such service, and it is an extraordinary accomplishment for a Police Department.

Only those with considerable experience in educational administration can appreciate the many problems that had to be solved, and the fine co-operation that was necessary in order to carry the intricate plans to successful completion.

The splendid response of the Commanding Officers of the Department, the officers selected as instructors, and the appreciative attitude of the men under instruction have contributed greatly to the success of the College.

While it is probably too early to attempt to prove the value of the instruction by means of accident and crime statistics, there is not the slightest doubt, as evidenced by the attitude of the students as well as the improved morale of the members of the force, that the instruction has done much to increase their knowledge, their efficiency and their enthusiasm in the performance of their daily duties.

The members of the force realize that a great educational opportunity has been afforded them to learn through the skilful exposition of their superior officers, the technique of police work that ordinarily would be acquired only after many years of arduous toil in the costly school of experience.

While at present the training courses are confined largely to special groups, such as Squad Commanders, Officers in training, Third Grade Detectives, those in Motor Transport, Traffic, Aviation, Mounted Service and the Recruits, it is planned to extend the curriculum to reach all the other branches of the force, especially the patrolman.

It is most desirable to give special attention to those in the uniformed ranks whose ability and ambitions lead them to seek advancement within the Department. This extension of service, however, will require time and careful development. Indeed the chief difficulties encountered to date have been due to the extensive and the rapid growth of the College, which has almost outgrown its physical equipment and teaching staff.

The foregoing summary gives the main features of the educational institution for those in service, by means of which

I hope to raise the police service to higher levels of effective performance. Year by year, not only do the changes in the *modus operandi* of criminals, but also the additional functions imposed upon us such as traffic, safety, and crime prevention, compel the department to revise its technical knowledge and to reorganize its equipment and its practices. Only through professional study, and promotion based upon such knowledge and superior service, can the department meet successfully these growing responsibilities. Does not the professional training gained through the Police College justify the prediction of our distinguished Mayor, the Hon. James J. Walker :—‘ From a Police Department that is equal to the best, to a Police Department that will be far ahead of the best, is the result we will achieve through the establishment of the Police College.’ ? I am confident it does. True to the ideal of the institution, the men go forth to the problems of their daily assignments not only better informed but also inspired by friendly contact with their superior officers who have extended to them helping hands to enable them to climb to higher positions of service and responsibility.

Forensic Chemistry : Past, Present and Future

By HENRY T. F. RHODES

Editor of *The Chemical Practitioner*

1. *The Past*

IT is important to remember of chemistry that it is a comparatively young science. Before Harvey discovered the circulation of the blood the medical man, in spite of the grosser sort of superstition that coloured his views in matters relating to disease of the body, was still not without some rudimentary scientific principles. With chemistry this was not so. Prior to the classical work of Boyle, chemistry was literally all superstition ; for, so far as theoretical principles were concerned, such facts as the chemist had to deal with were twisted to fit whatever philosophical speculations concerning the ultimate nature of the visible universe happened to be fashionable at the time or the favourites of the chemist himself. There is no sound reason for believing that the men of the middle ages or of the seventeenth century were greater fools than we are. Indeed, on the contrary, they were interested in many matters with which we have ceased to be preoccupied, to our loss ; but a passion for abstract speculation caused it to be overworked in the service of causes which the twentieth century would not expect it to champion. Much that we to-day describe as superstition was nothing more than knowledge misdirected and misapplied.

In no case is this point of view better exemplified than in the evidence taken in the matter of the murder of Sir Thomas Overbury in 1615. The action of poison was in general regarded as something mysterious and unholy, as the history of the trial testifies. Anne Turner and Richard Weston, the first two prisoners, were found guilty and executed for administer-

ing poison to Sir Thomas Overbury, although the evidence that the victim had in fact died by poisoning was very far from conclusive. In this connection, however, the Lord Chief Justice remarked that 'The devil had taught divers to be cunning in poisoning so that they can poison in what distance of space they please by consuming the calidum or humidum radicale in one month, two or three or more as they list, which they four manners of ways do execute (1) *gustu* (eating), (2) *haustu* (drinking), (3) *odore* (smell), (4) *contactu* (touch).' James Franklyn, who had been the chief witness against Turner and Weston, was next tried and confessed that Overbury had not died by poison, though some had been administered to him. After the trial of the minor prisoners, that of the Earl and Countess of Somerset followed.

It is impossible not to view these proceedings with amazement since at least two people, even if their records were not stainless, were executed upon evidence that would not to-day hang the proverbial cat. The word poison had been breathed and with it the inevitable witchcraft. That was sufficient even for the Lord Chief Justice.

It is remarkable, however, with what rapidity the theories of Boyle, who wrote his *Sceptical Chymist* in 1677, began to effect a change not only in speculation but in practice. Belief in witchcraft and the mysterious action of poison died hard, but as legal evidence it became quickly less popular. In the case of Mary Blandy, tried in 1752 for the murder of her father by poisoning, the expert evidence given was such as would almost suffice now. The poison used was arsenic, and the doctor who gave evidence was able to convince the jury that the comparative tests he had made of the white powder found in the gruel which the victim had eaten, with a known sample of white arsenic, proved the two to be identical. The tests he employed were doubtless crude when compared with modern practice, but the scientific principles were there. After her execution a written confession of guilt came to light.

This marked the real beginning of forensic chemistry as a science. It is of importance to note that the evidence advanced impressed the jury not by reason of any superstitious presupposition, nor because of the learning and expert knowledge of

the witness. They were convinced by the explanation of a procedure the principles of which they were clearly able to understand, by the scientific facts themselves. Juries desired then, as now, the common-sense explanation, and an exposition of procedure not overloaded with technical detail. This has been, and remains, one of the problems of legal chemistry.

Forensic chemistry thus triumphantly took the field and its career since that time has been a succession of storms and calms. During the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries increasing demands were made upon it, and ones with which improvements in its technique have not always been able to keep pace. During the eighteenth century the evidence of the medical man was generally the only evidence heard on chemical as much as upon medical matters, but fairly early in the nineteenth century the chemist as such began to be recognized. There is, for example, the French case tried in 1838 which probably represents one of the earliest examples of the scientific examination of a weapon. A chemical examination was made of a knife blade which had upon it some dark stains supposed to be those of blood. They proved, however, to be citrate of iron, and there was therefore strong presumptive evidence that the stains had been made not by blood but by lemon juice. This confirmed the declaration of the prisoner, who was acquitted. This is purely chemical evidence, and it is interesting to note that the test was made in the presence of the examining magistrate.

The going, however, has not always been so smooth; and it is of importance to consider in some detail two cases, that of Palmer tried for murder in 1856, and that of Smethurst, also a capital charge, in 1859.

The difficulty of the Palmer case arose out of the inherent difficulties in connection with chemical technique itself. Palmer was accused of administering strychnine to his victim but the accused, who was himself a doctor, had deliberately used a mixture of drugs with the intention of confusing the expert evidence. In this he was successful. The medical evidence was to the effect that strychnine had in fact been administered but Taylor, the Home Office Analyst, failed to detect it although he found antimony. Upon this there followed the

unprecedented spectacle of a controversy in the public press while the trial was still in progress. The expert evidence for the defence endeavoured to show that if strychnine had been present it could have been found, and the evidence for the prosecution was a good deal shaken. The ingenuity of Palmer's defence, however, did not avail in the end, for he was convicted.

The difficulty turned upon the fact that the methods for the isolation and detection of strychnine were not then so refined or so certain as they are now. The accusation of incompetence made against Taylor was probably without foundation. It would be more correct to say that the circumstances demanded of the chemist more than chemical science was able at that time to fulfil.

The case of Smethurst tried for murder in 1859 is in quite a different category. In this case, as before, the prisoner laid a trap for the analyst into which he incontinently fell. A bottle of liquid was found among Smethurst's effects which was examined by Taylor and declared to contain arsenic. A subsequent test, however, proved that the arsenic had been obtained from the copper used in the test. The prisoner was aware that potassium chlorate, which the bottle contained, made the test unreliable, and had deliberately left it among his other medicines in the hope that it might cause difficulties. It did.

Taylor made a frank explanation of the mistake at the trial, and Smethurst's conviction was secured, but the conviction was afterwards quashed since after a review of the scientific evidence it was decided to give the prisoner the benefit of the doubt.

These very interesting cases have at least one point in common, namely, that the technical errors in connection with them could hardly arise to-day. Chemical methods for the detection of even the rarer alkaloids have greatly increased in refinement, and in the matter of arsenic less than one part per million can be detected and estimated with ease. From other points of view the cases are in contrast. In the affair of Palmer, Taylor's contention that chemical processes for the detection of strychnine did not at that time justify a precise verdict was probably quite legitimate. In the case of Smethurst, however, it was with arsenic that the analyst had to deal. This was

genuinely a case of error discovered and corrected by the analyst himself. The mistake was really of very little importance. If the bottle of potassium chlorate had contained arsenic, it meant only a small addition to the prosecution's case. The fact that it did not, lent a weight to the whole incident out of proportion to its real importance.

At this period difficulties often arose in regard to the inclusive nature of the chemical evidence. The trial of G. H. Lamson in 1881 provides a good example. Lamson, who was a doctor, was accused of poisoning his brother by means of aconite. The defence made a great point of the lack of satisfactory chemical evidence. There is no doubt that Lamson's knowledge caused him to employ this poison knowing the difficulties in connection with its detection. Here was a case where chemical evidence was not called for at all. The physiological effects of aconitine are so characteristic that the alkaloid cannot be mistaken, and the physiological tests upon mice were accepted by the jury as sufficient evidence.

These examples suffice to show that forensic chemistry in the nineteenth century was still in a transitional stage, but it is nevertheless remarkable that in a hundred years its practical importance should have developed so rapidly.

2. *The Present*

In the twentieth century forensic chemistry became very much more firmly established. At the trial of Seddon in 1911, for example, the quantitative Marsh test for arsenic was first employed and described in court. Since that time although theories have, sometimes successfully, been advanced by the defence to account for the arsenic found or to throw doubt upon the fact as to whether the quantity present was sufficient to cause death, the technique of analysis itself has never, I believe, been questioned at any twentieth century trial. Having regard to the prevalence of this kind of poisoning, the methods in use have survived a long and severe trial, and it may confidently be asserted that they have approached perfection. Advances, however, in this direction are not out of the question and will receive consideration hereafter.

The trial of Crippen in 1910 is a further indication of the advances toxicology has made. It must not be forgotten that the experts were assisted in their investigation by the fact that a quantity of hyoscine, a most unusual drug, had been found in the possession of Crippen, and the difficulty of tracing it might have been much more formidable without this information; but it remains true that Sir William Willcox was able to demonstrate to the court that the alkaloid found in the body was, in fact, hyoscine, and despite the well directed efforts of a brilliantly expert defence the evidence was never seriously questioned. It is of great interest in passing to recall the fact that Crippen's very precautions were his own undoing. He endeavoured to destroy the body of his victim with lime. Not only did this fail but the presence of the lime prevented the decomposition of the hyoscine which probably would not have been detectable in the body, as such, had it been buried without the precautions Crippen took. The most important consideration is, however, that if we look back to the case of Palmer who gave the experts considerable trouble by the use of strychnine, we find chemistry, less than sixty years later, able to give incontrovertible evidence as to the existence of a much rarer drug in the body of a victim. In 1850 such evidence would have been unobtainable, or so unreliable that no competent court would have accepted it.

The greatest advances, however, of modern forensic chemistry have been the widening of its sphere to include many other branches of criminal investigation besides toxicology. First in importance are probably the discoveries made in connection with the examination of blood. Before 1900 the difficulties relating to evidence as to the origin of stains upon clothing and weapons were very great. Before 1850 it was possible in the case of fresh blood to decide by means of microscopical examination and other methods if blood were of human or animal origin or if it were not blood at all. But as the trial of Nation in 1857 shows, the courts were at this time very wary of accepting scientific evidence on this point. The scientific evidence in regard to blood-stains was in fact of greater importance at that time than it was given credit for, but on the whole the instinct of the judges and juries was sound.

It was not until the discoveries of Bordet in 1898, of Wassermann and von Rigler in 1900, and the extension of these discoveries by de Nobel and others in 1902 that it could safely be asserted that any reliable test existed for the identification of different kinds of blood in all circumstances. The precipitin reaction, however, first employed in France in 1902, constituted a notable advance. By means of this test it is possible to distinguish human blood from that of the animals, the blood of the anthropoid ape providing a doubtful exception. Long trial upon the continent has proved this test to be infallible, so that it is the more remarkable that it was not until 1910 that it was employed in this country. It is even now regarded as something of a novelty, although, of course, evidence on this point is now always accepted.

There is, secondly, the application of chemistry to the examination of writing materials, inks, and documents. In this direction chemistry has not been applied to the extent it might have been for reasons not very easy to understand. Inks are chemical compounds of which a great deal is known. Writing in pencil is amenable to chemical examination, and paper can be chemically tested. A great deal has been known about these subjects for many years, but the fact remains that the number of cases where chemical evidence has been employed in connection with disputed documents, forgery, and allied matters could be counted upon the fingers. Chemical evidence was not employed in a case of forgery at all until 1910 when Dr. Ainsworth Mitchell gave expert evidence in regard to the age of the inks on the will in the case of Colonel Pilcher. The scientific evidence was vital at this trial. Previously, however, there had occurred the trial of Wood for murder in 1907. It became of importance to decide the authorship of a charred note found in the grate of the room where the victim was murdered, and it was proved by comparative chemical tests that the indelible pencil used to write the note corresponded to that found upon the prisoner. Wood afterwards confessed to being the author of the note. He was acquitted on other grounds.

These are probably two of the most important cases in which chemical evidence relating to questioned documents has

been employed, and in both it supplied information obtainable in no other way. Others, of course, exist though they are few and far between; but their infrequency is due not to the fact that chemistry could not have supplied important evidence but that it was not sufficiently recognized that it could thus be applied. The war, however, did bring into prominence the value of a scientific examination of suspicious documents; and although for obvious reasons these problems were not ones for the civil courts, and therefore received little or no publicity, they gave to forensic chemistry an increased prestige by demonstrating in a convincing way that chemistry could be employed to detect other types of criminal besides the poisoner.

The examination of clothing is another modern development of forensic chemistry. Lucas quotes the case of a waistcoat discovered in the neighbourhood of the Suez Canal during the war which upon chemical examination was found to be impregnated with chlorides of sodium, magnesium, potassium, and calcium, indicating that it had been immersed in sea water. In the pockets were found some grains of sand which proved on microscopical examination to be uniform grains of rounded quartz corresponding to dune sand. From these facts it was deduced that the wearer had left a vessel by swimming and had landed in the neighbourhood of sand dunes. Some important evidence concerning a suspicious character was thus obtained. Technical knowledge of chemistry is not required to recognize the importance of the development of forensic chemistry in these directions.

In this summary sufficient evidence has been advanced to show that in a number of ways legal chemistry is very widely extending its activities, and has entered new highways and by-ways of criminal investigation. Little more remains to be said in the concluding section than to indicate, first, how existing technique can be improved and, secondly, how new fields of development can be more fully explored.

3. The Future

Forensic chemistry as it related to the examination of poisons has reached so high a degree of proficiency that it is

sometimes assumed that perfection has been reached, but in analytical chemistry as with other branches of science new discoveries are always being made. The technique of analytical chemistry bids fair in the future to be revolutionized by the development of that branch of it known as micro-analysis. Shortly, the principle of micro-analysis depends upon the employment of instruments for weighing and measuring a thousand times more delicate than those employed in ordinary analytical procedure. This means that the operations of weighing and measuring, upon which all sound analytical procedure depends, are being enormously refined, and that the comparative methods at present in use in the case of the examination of some poisons may be greatly improved. This is not to say that these methods, which depend upon the comparison of, say, a mirror of arsenic or antimony with a standard mirror prepared from a solution containing a known quantity of these metals, are inaccurate; but they are at the same time less satisfactory than actually weighing the minute quantity of poison isolated.

Scarcely less important are the developments taking place in the technique of micro-chemistry as it relates to the examination of dusts. This subject has already been interestingly discussed by Locard (*Police Journal*, vol. i. p. 177). This distinguished criminologist insists in that article upon the importance of a perfected technique of micro-analysis if the analysis of dust is finally to emerge from the experimental stage. Lucas in his book upon Forensic Chemistry provides a great deal of valuable information regarding the analysis of cigarette ash. There is no difficulty at all in distinguishing the principal tobaccos from each other if sufficient ash is available for analysis. When micro-methods are sufficiently developed a few milligrams will suffice to obtain results in every respect satisfactory.

As with cigarette ash so with other dusts. It is proved beyond all doubt that dust of all kinds can provide evidence of first rate importance when no obvious clues are available. A perfected system of micro-analysis will clearly therefore greatly strengthen the technique of detection.

Further to discuss the future of forensic chemistry in this

respect would involve technicalities out of place in an article of this kind, but it will be interesting in conclusion to consider another aspect of the future of forensic chemistry.

No special organization exists in England which confines its activities to forensic chemistry and technical questions allied to it, and it is no exaggeration to assert that the future of the science depends upon the establishing of a department similar to the Police Laboratories to be found in France and elsewhere in Europe. Not only can practical work and research be carried on in these circumstances under the most satisfactory conditions, but also there is always available for the assistance of the police a band of experts whose co-operation can only be really effective if it is continually in touch with the Criminal Investigation Department.

It has recently been suggested that an international criminological laboratory should be set up under the auspices of the League of Nations, a recommendation which has received a great deal of support in France and Germany. It is recognized on all hands that the select minority of criminals who work on a large scale use thoroughly scientific methods. The science of detection, it is true, is always a little ahead of the law breaker, but it would be rash to assume that it automatically enjoys this privilege. Although the percentage of undetected crime is low, it remains true that mail robbery, forgery, and even murder can be so scientifically performed as to make possible the escape of some or all of the authors. And if they do not escape, detection may be considerably delayed. This factor is of great importance. In the case of large scale robbery and forgery where large financial interests may be involved, it is imperative that the solution be arrived at with least possible delay. This is especially true in regard to forgery. Here it may not become evident for some time that a crime has been committed at all, but with every day it passes undetected, increasing injury is done to the community. Forensic chemistry has made great strides in this direction, although its practical application has not received sufficient attention in England; but it is for the forensic chemistry of the future to make forgery, if not impossible, at least less popular a crime than it is at present.

The value of international co-operation to accomplish these things cannot be exaggerated. Without co-operation between individuals and nations all scientific advance would of course be impossible, but it is particularly vital in the case of a branch of knowledge which is concerned with the very roots of the social life of all civilized nations. The problem of crime, whether of detection, prevention, or cure, cannot be grappled with fundamentally until it is considered from an international point of view. That ideal could not be better realized than by the foundation of an international headquarters where physiologists, psychologists, and chemists of all nations could work together for the advancement of a science upon which civilization so much depends.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- C. AINSWORTH MITCHELL, D.Sc., *Science and the Criminal*, 1911, London; *The Expert Witness*, 1923, Cambridge; *Documents and their Scientific Examination*, 1922, London.
- A. LUCAS, *Forensic Chemistry*, 1921, London.
- HANS GROSS, *Criminal Investigation* (translated), Madras, 1906.
- FRITZ PREGL, *Quantitative Organic Microanalysis*.
- R. A. REISS, *Manuel de Police Scientifique*, 1911, Lausanne.

Crime in the Port of Calcutta

WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE CARGO PILFERAGE QUESTION

By C. E. S. FAIRWEATHER

Deputy Commissioner of Police (Port Police), Calcutta

IN the January 1929 number of the *Police Journal* (vol. ii. p. 132) there was an article entitled 'Cargo Pilferage and the Police,' written by the Chairman of the Pilferage Committee of the Chamber of Shipping of the United Kingdom. I found this article of absorbing interest as at that time I had been engaged for over a year in similar inquiries. In the present article I shall endeavour to outline some of the results.

The first warehouse in the Port of Calcutta set up in 1690 by Job Charnock was soon followed by others. From the very beginning the necessity for protection must have been obvious, and in 1696 the merchants obtained from the Moghul Nawab 'the right to defend themselves.' Their first step was to build the first Fort William, and their second to institute a kind of police under a 'deputy zemindar' (landholder). They were afraid both of 'pillage' and of 'pilferage.' Neither measure was a complete success, for both apprehensions were fulfilled. The deputy zemindar, according to Holwell (of Black Hole fame), committed sundry abuses and depredations, and the pillage of the Port was perpetrated by the Nawab himself when, in 1796, he sacked Calcutta.

In 1829 Lord William Bentinck appointed a Committee to consider the question of the improvement of the Police in Calcutta and in this report we find the first reference to a River Police. The main crime complained of was petty theft 'carried out by the River Police in collusion with servants of boat owners.' The implied sequence in agency is interesting.

Matters apparently did not improve very much; for in

1845 another inquiry was held by order of Lord Dalhousie. In this report it is mentioned that the main trouble on the river was petty pilfering and thefts by the agents of the owners in collusion with the river thieves. The Committee were of opinion that the remedy lay as much with the merchants as with the police. This pronouncement is interesting from the fact that it mentions a distinct class of criminals whose field of operations is confined almost exclusively to the river, and as raising the question of the responsibility of the police, a question which was dealt with very fully in the article 'Cargo Pilferage and the Police,' to which I have alluded above. Again in 1864 Colonel Bruce in his report on the Police states that the River Police had been unchanged for a long time and had become an effete, ineffective institution. From this it is evident that serious complaint had been made and that he did not absolve the police from responsibility.

These brief references are mere straws which indicate the direction in which the wind was blowing. It is obvious that from the earliest period of the British occupation merchants using the river have had their cargoes stolen or pilfered and that the policing of the river has been a matter of increasing difficulty. Since 1860 the trade of the Calcutta Port has increased by leaps and bounds. Jetties, docks, warehouses, sheds, are continually being extended to cope with the ever increasing volume of merchandise. The number of cargo boats and barges on the river has increased to such an extent that the regulation of traffic on the river constitutes by itself a serious problem at the present moment.

Pari passu with this development the complexity of the duties of the Port Police has also increased. The force is now divided into the following sections under the control of a Deputy Commissioner :

A head office situated at the police headquarters in the centre of the City and near all the big shipping offices.

A special detective staff working directly under the Deputy Commissioner. This force has been in existence only since November 1927 and its functions form the main theme of this article.

Two police stations for ordinary police inquiries and routine work.

A jetty guard which does patrol and sentry work in the sheds and at the jetty gates.

A dock guard for the old Kidderpore Docks. This guard also includes five European sergeants who control traffic at the lock gates.

A similar guard for the newly constructed King George V Docks.

River Traffic Police.—Their duties include the clearing of cargo boats from the moorings when sea going ships arrive or depart; checking passports; checking crew lists of foreign steamers; dealing with deserters and other offenders against the Merchant Shipping Act.

A Mohammedan Pilgrim Department which controls the annual pilgrimage to Mecca from the Port.

A special staff of Traffic Police for the Howrah bridge (over the Hooghly River) and approaches, and a guard for the bridge itself.

A guard for the petroleum depôt at Budge-budge, thirteen miles down the river.

A ferry pontoon guard which polices the pontoons used by the Port Commissioners' ferry steamers.

The jurisdiction of the Port Police extends over about twenty-five miles of river, with the towns of Howrah and Calcutta almost in the centre on opposite banks. Boats can land passengers or cargo almost at any spot, as the banks are unfenced in any way. The Deputy Commissioner of the Port Police must therefore keep in close touch with all departments of the Port Commissioners who control the working of the Port; with shipping firms (regarding repatriation of sailors, deserters, and stowaways); with Consuls regarding foreigners offending against the Passport Act and the Merchant Shipping Act; with the Customs and Excise, for mutual assistance; with the Shipping Master (for the discharge of crews); with the Port Health Officer; and with Marine Insurance Companies (regarding claims for the sinking of cargo in the river, etc.). He must also co-operate closely with the police of riverine Districts (Counties), as receivers of goods stolen on the river find a useful asylum just outside the port limits.

It will therefore be apparent that the Port Police have an enormous number of interests to serve. The difficulty is that



THE PORT OF CALCUTTA
THE FLOATING BRIDGE OVER THE HOOGHLY RIVER AND THE JETTIES

these various interests hitherto, as pointed out by the Chairman of the Pilferage Committee of the Chamber of Shipping of the United Kingdom, have not formulated their demands. Such diversity of interests requires in the police a strong central control which can be gained only by the personal contact of the Deputy Commissioner with the various interests involved. This contact was particularly lacking in his relations with business interests and had to be sought. A beginning was made in 1928 when the Port Police started exhaustive inquiries regarding certain claims for the insurance of certain boats reported to have been sunk with valuable cargo, and regarding complaints of pilferage, principally from the Japanese Chamber of Commerce, from cargo shipped in Calcutta.

The alleged 'aloofness' of the police may be due to various factors. As compared with ordinary crime there is a remarkable lack of any personal touch. In ordinary theft—burglary or robbery—there is always a hint of some person outraged and indignant; some one wants immediate redress of his wrongs. In these port cases an intimation is made that some particular package or consignment is missing. No one in particular comes forward to say that he has suffered the loss. All parties are preparing to push the loss on to some one else. After an inquiry, usually protracted, on the vessel, docks or jetties, the police may be informed that the goods have been stolen. After such a lapse of time any police inquiry is almost certain to be fruitless.

I would say here that, where such cases form part of a series involving pilferage over many years, departmental inquiries are worse than useless, as they must finally devolve on members of the staff, some of whom must be concerned with the system of pilferage. Such an inquiry usually ends up by some Insurance Company paying for the loss, so that no *individual* is a penny the worse. There is thus no individual to worry the police out of their alleged aloofness or indifference. When a system of thieving and receiving has been firmly established for years, my experience is that there are strong grounds for the suspicion that some ranks of the police are also involved. The servants of the port authorities, taking advantage of the 'safeguarding-from-liability clauses' in the by-



SHOWING THE RIVER SIDE BERTHS COMPLETED IN 1923 AND ENTRANCES TO KING GEORGE'S DOCKS APPROACHING COMPLETION IN DECEMBER 1925

laws, will see that the port authorities are saved from liability, while some police subordinates will see that no information leaks through to their superior officers. Inquiries in London or Japan take months and simply die of inanition.

I have said that Port Police require a strong central control, and I am equally convinced that business interests concerned with pilferage require a similar centralization of effort. There should be representative committees for the suppression of pilferage in all big ports; and the chief officer of the Port Police should be on any such committee. I cannot see how any body of business men can hope to detect organized gangs of thieves without the assistance of a trained and reliable detective staff *with all the resources of the police department behind them*. It is my experience that crime of the description under discussion is the most difficult of all crime to detect, as the information as regards tallying is very often given incorrectly, with the intention of misleading. Moreover, such huge sums of money are involved that bribery can be practised on a large scale.

For reasons that I need not enumerate, I am against any increase of the ordinary uniformed staff. A criminal organization acting in collusion with the employees of a port authority can easily hoodwink them. It requires a secret organization to cope with a secret organization. I now come to the application of this principle to the Port of Calcutta. The results were sufficiently startling and disclosed the state of affairs in existence since the inauguration of the Port until matters were tackled systematically. That the effort was successful is due in no small measure to the great personal interest taken by the Chairman and Traffic Manager of the Port Commissioners.

In the article entitled 'Cargo Pilferage and the Police,' by the Chairman of the Pilferage Committee, we get the problem from the point of view of the business man. I shall now proceed to narrate police activities in connection with identical circumstances in the Port of Calcutta.

At the end of 1927 a small staff was transferred to the Port Police for the detection of arms smuggling. This consisted of an inspector, two sub-inspectors, and six constables. For some time I had had serious misgivings about the state of

affairs in the Port but could get no definite information. I asked this new staff who were working directly under me to make some inquiries. They were not long in getting to work. In January 1928 they arrested red-handed a notorious receiver in the act of receiving goods just pilfered from cargo in the river. In this arrest they were assisted by the police of the adjoining administrative District with whom we had been working in close co-operation. Several confessions were made by members of the gang, and many incriminating documents were discovered in the accompanying house searches. In the charge placed before the Magistrates seventy-five accused were named but several absconded. The documents seized disclosed that the gang had been dealing for years with the following commodities pilfered from cargoes lying in the river: betel nuts, chillies, paraffin wax, stick lac, jute, turmeric, sago, pulses, cinnamon, catechu, tea, potatoes, oil cake, cloth, wheat, rice, flour, and many other articles.

These documents also disclosed the fact that large payments were being made to certain police officers as hush money. In connection with this inquiry and with subsequent discoveries, a large number of officers and men had to be dismissed. This vicious system of police connivance with the river thieves must have been in existence for many years, because I find a reference to it in a report drafted in 1906 by the then Deputy Commissioner of Port Police.

The *modus operandi* of the system is as follows. Commodities of all kinds are stolen during transit on the river of export and import cargo. Three sets of people are involved in the conspiracy: (1) dishonest boatmen who are the carriers of cargo, (2) river thieves, and (3) receivers. Goods are stolen mainly by a process of 'bleeding.' A merchant loads his goods on a cargo boat or barge on which they are to be conveyed to a sea-going ship for export. Bags or packages are counted and a 'boat note' is given to the chief boatman showing the number consigned to his charge. On the way the boatmen are met by the river thieves. Quantities are taken from each bag and transferred to the small country boats in which the thieves move about. In this way enormous quantities of goods are collected and taken at night by the thieves to the warehouses

of the receivers which are located on the banks of the river outside the city boundaries. Early the following morning the stolen goods are conveyed by road back to Calcutta either in carts or in motor lorries to another set of receivers who place the goods again on the market. A most ingenious system, intended to defeat interference by police outside the ring, was employed here. The carts or lorries conveying the goods from the riverside receiver to the town receiver carried notes showing that the goods were being *returned as unsatisfactory*. This completely covered up the trail as to the origin of the goods, which according to such notes had apparently been purchased in the town. The consignments from which such goods were stolen would be placed on board ship and the NUMBER of bags or packages would be correct. It is only months later that the consignee weighs what he has received and claims for shortage from the shipping company. A certain number of bags are weighed when placed on board the ship. This is the work of the Licensed Measurers Department. As far as I could understand during the inquiry, their figures produced very little result, or satisfaction to the consignee; so much so that the Japanese Chamber of Commerce were threatening to have nothing more to do with the Port of Calcutta.

As regards import cargo, there is a system of 'overside delivery' by which cargo is delivered straight from the ship to barges. Collusion between tally clerks and boatmen ensures that more goods are placed on the boat than are shown on the boat note. During transit on the river the excess is made over to the river thieves. There is again a shortage declared for which a claim is made against the shipping company. It is clear therefore why no great excitement is produced among merchants about this shortage; they get paid for what they send and for what they receive. There is thus an absence of any *local* interest, and this explains why the police are rarely informed of such losses. In running the conspiracy case against this gang, we had to make difficult and exhaustive inquiries from many firms to find out where and when the goods in which the receivers had been dealing had been pilfered. This fact speaks for itself.

When I say above that the police are rarely informed of

such losses, I mean in the regular way, that is, by lodging a complaint. I do not hesitate to say that a system such as is described cannot exist without the active connivance of some members of the police and of toll officers on the river bank.

The gang concerned in this case was convicted in June 1929 for 'habitually dealing in stolen property' and received sentences ranging from 6½ years' imprisonment with a fine of 1,000 rupees, downwards. The labour involved may be judged from the fact that the arrests were made in January 1928 and that there were over 400 witnesses. There was a preliminary inquiry by a magistrate before the case was finally tried in the Sessions Court.

The next species of crime to be dealt with was the theft of whole bales and cases of piece goods from the jetties. These bales are very valuable and are readily marketable, as can be easily understood when it is realized that hawkers of cloth are as numerous in Calcutta as sparrows in an English town. The first gang to be dealt with was an outside gang headed by an individual I shall call A. A. had acted as agent for a firm of merchants and took delivery of goods shipped to the firm from the jetties. He was thus acquainted not only with members of the jetty staff, but with the rather complicated procedure of the jetties and with the various forms that have to be filled up. He had three expert jetty coolies in his pay and also certain members of the gate staff. It was an easy matter for him to find out where and when bales of valuable cloth had been landed. His coolies removed the bales pointed out by him in the particular shed. He selected a gate where the gateman was in his employ and his coolies took the bales out there on a hand cart. In case any officer stops that cart before it gets out, A. has a cart ticket prepared and this is handed over at the gate and afterwards destroyed by the gateman. The theft is not discovered until some days later when the consignee reports to the shed master that some bales of his consignment cannot be found. Property stolen in this way is kept until disposal in some room hired in any part of the town for a short period.

The detection of this case was very interesting. Information was received that a certain individual was offering cloth for sale. The detective inspector was actually able to purchase

some that tallied exactly with samples of the goods stolen. The trouble was to find out not only the actual thieves, but where they had kept the stolen property. One of our officers was introduced to the person offering the goods as a prospective purchaser. Another officer was detailed to watch the meeting and to follow up in case assistance was required. The first officer was taken along to a distant part of the city where he was to inspect the goods. The second officer followed. He was taken a certain distance and then his guide, after talking with a man they encountered, refused to go any further. The whole thing fell through, much to our disappointment. We afterwards learnt that our second man had been watched in his turn by another member of the gang. Up to this time we had not come in contact with any of the actual thieves.

Some time later information was received by one of the Port Commissioners' officials from one of his staff that he had been approached by a man who was obviously A., the leader of the same gang, and asked to assist in removing bales from the jetties. Under the instructions of the detective inspector, he pretended to fall in with the suggestion, and several meetings were arranged until the various members of the gang were spotted by our watchers. Another purchase was arranged, and this time our officers followed up in a taxi and were in time to see the leader of the gang disappear into a room where he was caught red-handed with the proceeds of several 'coups' which he had brought off on the jetties. This was one of the finest detections I have ever known and entailed long spells of secret watching. The gang was convicted, and the High Court Judge passed very complimentary remarks about the investigation. I would say here that if, as often happens, the tally clerk had been in the conspiracy, these bales would never have been shown as landed. When they were finally missed, responsibility would have been repudiated and a long inquiry would have been started at London or Liverpool. I fear that the shipping company would have had to pay.

The next case with which we had to deal was one in which the jetty staff alone were concerned, at least until the goods were outside the jetty boundaries. Under this system goods imported through a Bank are stolen. Such goods as soon as

discharged from the steamer are not kept in the jetty sheds (nor can they be delivered from there), but are removed to the Port Commissioners' warehouse and are released only on an order from the Bank. The warehouse, it must be noted, is outside the jetty gates, and the goods delivered have not to run the gauntlet at any gate. It is all ridiculously easy.

The conspiracy starts with the clerk who tallies bales as they come off the steamer. For instance a consignment of seven bales is landed. He will show two or three under wrong numbers and have them put aside in some corner of the shed, or he may omit to show them at all in the tally book.

When the consignment of the remaining bales is being sent by railway wagon to the warehouse, he will show on the *wagon label* (showing contents of the wagon) that only those which he has tallied correctly are sent. In the 'removal loading note' for the warehouse he will only show that number of packages. Along with the packages noted he will also send the two or three that he has omitted from his tally. As soon as the wagon is opened at the warehouse, his confederates there have the excess packages removed at once by the receiver's men. When the hue and cry gets up some days later all the papers are in order and there is no trace whatever of the bales ever having been in the country.

Another means of removing goods is by using the dock or jetty railway, but this necessitates taking men of a lower or menial class into confidence. Heavy goods removed from the sheds are placed in one of the empty wagons of a train being shunted from one yard to another. On the way the train is stopped by the riverside, or at some place convenient to the receiver, and the goods are unloaded.

I now come to the subject of pilferage, pure and simple, with all the hall-marks of pettiness and meanness. There is no mystery about it, as our informers have given us the fullest details of the various methods. The persons concerned are, first, the importer's jetty agent who clears the goods and is in a position to know when any specially valuable cargo arrives, such as medicines, drugs containing morphine, etc., thermometers, harmonium reeds, liquor, etc.; secondly, the tally clerk who tallies the unloading from the steamer; and, thirdly,

the lockfast clerk. The tally clerk shows the goods marked for theft as 'damaged' when landed. The case is then put into the lockfast, opened and part of the contents removed and hidden. After survey they are put back in the case, which is closed up and taken out of the jetty under a proper pass by the importer's agent. Once outside the gates the case is again opened and the goods handed over to the receiver. The importer gets only the residue which the surveyors saw. The importer thus suffers no loss, and either the shipping company or some insurance company have to pay. The Port Commissioners are not liable as the case was marked 'damaged' on landing. Sometimes cases of liquor are broached by driving a long nail into the case. The liquor runs out and is drunk on the spot.

Another important type of crime has been in vogue for many years and its existence was never brought to light until recently when the detective staff got to work. It has entailed serious loss on Marine Insurance Companies. A merchant loads a cargo barge with say 20,000 rupees' worth of jute to be conveyed by river to a ship lying in the docks. This cargo is insured. On the way the cargo is landed on shore and removed by receivers as previously arranged. The boat is then sunk or reported to have been sunk; very often a hole is actually made in the boat and it is sunk in a place where it may be salvaged; one or two bales of jute are left in the boat and the others are supposed to have been swept away by the tide. The merchant gets full value from the insurance company for his jute; the boat crew get about 10,000 rupees for the jute from the receiver, who may also be the merchant who owned the consignment and thus reaps a double profit. The police subordinate who inquires into the accident may get anything for reporting it as genuine. So every one is happy. It is not so easy to understand the silence of the insurance companies, but they are very chary of making complaint in case they get a reputation for being 'stiff' about the payment of claims, and they are also reluctant to advertise their losses. In studying lists of such claims during 1928 and 1929 which I got from the Marine Insurance Department of the Calcutta Chamber of Commerce, I noticed that one man who specialized in this form of fraud had 'tapped'

different companies, in case a company, once bitten, might become suspicious. This also explains why a company would be reluctant to complain on a solitary instance, especially when there was a police report purporting to show that the accident was genuine. This ring of dishonest police officers, as I stated before, has been broken up by dismissal.

I have since arranged through the Insurance Department of the Chamber of Commerce that all claims for boat accidents should be reported at once by telephone to the Deputy Commissioner of Police direct and not to any subordinate officer. Lists of all parties concerned are sent as soon as possible so that we can see whether any known men are concerned, and so that we can make inquiries about their antecedents.

In a recent case in which there was a conviction, the chief culprit wrote to the insurance company, threatening civil proceedings for libel. The company were rather agitated until it was pointed out that *all* cases of claims were, under agreement, reported to the Deputy Commissioner, who under the law had the power to order an inquiry wherever he suspected the commission of a cognizable case, and that in this instance they were not the complainants. The Deputy Commissioner of Police *suo motu* was the complainant. This I think should effectually dispel the libel bogey.

There are, of course, many other forms of crime on the river, but these are outside the scope of this article. The subject we have been dealing with has been described as 'pilferage.' This simple term is rather misleading; and, basing my opinion on actual cases that have passed through my hands, I would classify them as follows. There is in reality very little connection between them.

1. Pilferage from cargo barges on the river.
2. Boat-sinking frauds for insurance.
3. Thefts of complete bales of piece goods, cases, machinery from the jetties.
4. Pilferage on the jetties (theft of part contents of cases and bales).
5. Theft from the warehouses of complete bales imported through the Banks.

6. Pilferage from cases of medicines containing valuable and excisable drugs and from cases of arms and ammunition.
7. Receivers.

The subdivision of the crime of pilferage into these classes will alone show why, apart from the laxity and other failings of the police and the servants of the port authority, it has been so difficult in the past to detect the 'agency' responsible for the thefts, the shortages and other losses. There is not one agency, but several agencies for which there is a never ending source of recruits, and each has its own *modus operandi*. Tallies, guards, police, gate-passes, and so on, are by themselves ineffective. It requires a skilled organization, with all possible police resources at its command, to ferret out these different gangs and pursue them, often for protracted periods, to their hiding places. Checks, however, are essential in order that it may be possible to trace the point at which leakage commences and so confine inquiries within reasonable limits.

In the Port of Calcutta this skilled organization has been found in the Port Police Special Staff, which after a year's experiment has been made a permanent part of the Force from 1st January 1929. The Port Commissioners pay seven-tenths of the cost and Government pay three-tenths. A great deal, however, remains to be done. A severe check has been given to the forms of crime outlined above; but if this is to be permanent, a strong Pilferage Committee will have to be formed from among the various business interests concerned and the Port Commissioners. The Deputy Commissioner of the Port Police should also be a member. It seems only fair that this Committee should supply funds for obtaining information and for rewards. Such contributions will be far less than bogus insurance claims or salvage expenses.

I would again point out that in the past attention has been focused on the question of who was to shoulder the losses. This made the issue a quasi-civil matter. On the contrary, the investigations of the Calcutta Port Police Special Staff have shown beyond all doubt that there are formidable criminal organizations at work and that the so-called 'pilferage' is essentially a matter for police investigation.

The Co-operation between the Police and the Public in the Detection and Prosecution of Crime

By JOHN PEAKE

Inspector, Sheffield City Police

[This is the Winning Essay of the King's Gold Medal Essay Competition of 1929. The Report of the Council together with the other awards appeared in the issue of April 1930. The Rules for the Essay Competition for 1930 will be found on p. 480].

THE word crime, to the minds of members of the police service and those engaged professionally in its detection and prosecution, has a special significance, namely, that it expresses those more serious infractions of Statute and Common Law for which an accused person has the right to a trial by jury, and which can be referred to as felonies and indictable misdemeanours. Thus, to the professional mind, there is a wide difference between acts constituting crime, and the multitude of minor offences such as street nuisances, motor-car offences, and other similar offences.

To the vast majority of members of the public, the word crime expresses acts which represent revolt against law, the assumption by a wrong-doer of the power to take, obtain, or destroy the property of others, or inflict harm upon fellow-beings even to the extent of death. Thus, in its wider interpretation, crime must be considered as that which cannot adequately be expressed by the term law-breaking.

The standard of a nation in the eyes of the civilised world is judged by the conduct of its inhabitants in matters affecting the safety of persons living or travelling within its borders, and the preservation of the rights of property. In the end, therefore, crime statistics must definitely be regarded as an important factor in the evidence by which a nation must be judged by the world at large, when the claims of that nation are

considered in the light of the march of human welfare. Any such claim by a nation as to the excellence of its culture, its civilisation and morals, may be negatived when the conduct of its people, as revealed by its statistics of crime, is placed in the balance to be weighed.

For this reason it should be apparent to the average British citizen that no factor in the national life is charged with such peril to the well-being of the race, as indifference to, and consequently the toleration of, the will to commit those acts which are covered by the term, crime.

At the outset, it must be assumed that the welfare of the community is the ultimate object of citizenship. Thus the facts mentioned are of paramount importance in considering the subject-matter of this essay; it is primarily for these reasons there is brought into the focus of thought the necessity, so very urgent, for co-operation between the police and the public in the detection and prosecution of crime.

It cannot be stated as a fact that the measure of co-operation at present existing is definitely satisfactory. Many causes operate to impede effective co-operation, and the problem will be to suggest how there may be infused into the national conscience that spirit which will surmount existing difficulties, and unite the trained forces of the law with the powerful influences of public opinion and effort, in order that the safety and security of life and property may be assured.

At this point it may be desirable to attempt to define what the term 'the public' means. Obviously, while the general body of citizens other than the police are for the purpose of this essay 'the public,' it must be acknowledged that there are those who are law-abiding members of this public, and those who are not. It is of importance, therefore, that law-abiding citizens should realise the necessity for their co-operation with the police, and it is upon this section of the public that there devolves the duty of effort to secure improvement in the direction under review.

It is also important that the citizens of the British Empire should realise, as also should members of the police service, that to neglect to co-operate in the suppression of criminal acts is to condone and encourage them. An unchanging law

arranges the consequences of neglect in any sphere, and in the one under discussion this consequence would be, very obviously, that crime must increase. The truth of this statement is capable of proof, and I need mention only one instance from the many that abound.

The historian, Edward Gibbon, whose mind was so material and practical that he never has been accused of permitting emotion to influence his judgment, advances the belief that the decay of the wonderful Roman Empire, an Empire which comprehended the fairest part of the earth, as then known, and the most civilised portion of mankind, began in the days when Roman society hugged the delusion that peaceful security could be maintained other than at the price of eternal vigilance. He says, 'The long peace and uniform government of the Romans introduced a slow and secret poison into the vitals of the Empire. The minds of men were gradually reduced to the same level, the fire of genius was extinguished.'¹

The free citizens of the British Empire, the greatest Empire of all time, will do well to take heed of the precedent. To be lulled into that false sense of security which supposes crime not to be the concern of every reasonable mind in the race, but the entire work of a paid body, is to allow support to disintegrating influences. The situation that would come about by this practice would be so grave, and the ultimate end so disastrous to the well-being of the nation, that men and women in whose nature are the traditions of Empire cannot but be disturbed at its possibility.

Having in mind this possibility, no matter how remote such may appear at present, I venture to submit a programme that may operate to prevent any tendency to drift in this direction. In doing so, I realise the magnitude and difficulty of the subject, and in a field so vast am aware that any submissions I may make are only verified in the persuasion of competent opinion as to their practical value. I wish to emphasise that I shall strive to be as clear as is possible in my conclusions, and guard against any undue tendency to be philosophic or idealistic. If my submissions afford justifica-

¹ Gibbon, *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*.

tion for the supposition that my mind is directed by any philosophy or ideal, I trust such will be recognised as that which has the good of the community as its aim. If in my endeavour there is suggested the channels by which there may be secured a more effective co-operation between the police and the public, again I trust the same aim will be justified. My position is better expressed in the words of Mr. F. H. Bradley in his essay, where he says, 'The welfare of the State and the welfare of its citizens are questions which it is ruinous to separate. Personal morality and political and social institutions cannot exist apart, and in general, the better the one the better the other.'¹

Thus I suggest the following points as the essentials upon which is to be erected the bridge that shall unite the best energies of the police and the public in the required direction.

They are :

(1) An insistent appreciation of the effect of conduct expressed by the term crime upon national character and the well-being of the race.

(2) The national recognition of the necessity for effective co-operation between the police and the public in the detection and prosecution of crime.

(3) The function of the public in furtherance of that co-operation.

(4) The function of the police in furtherance of the same purpose.

(5) The means by which that co-operation is to be encouraged and rendered effective.

(6) The ends to be effected as the result of effort to secure co-operation between the police and the public in the direction under review.

(1) *An insistent appreciation of the effect of conduct expressed by the term crime upon national character and the well-being of the race.*

In dealing with this point I remind myself, and those who may read these words, that the presence of disease in any organism adversely affects the health of the organism. If such

¹ F. H. Bradley, *My Station and its Duties*.

organism is human, and the disease preventable or curable, the one course commended by reason is to adopt suitable means to avoid or eradicate the disease. No rational being would advocate any other procedure.

The body politic may be affected by various diseases ; it is affected by none so pregnant with danger to its health as the parasitical disease of crime. The need is that adequate steps must be taken to rid the national system of the disease.

The first step toward the realisation of this purpose is for an effective appreciation of the effect of crime upon national character and the well-being of the race. If there has been a disposition in the minds of the public to consider that this is not their concern, it is imperative that such disposition be eradicated. The truth must be faced frankly that Britain has its criminal element, and that this element propagates its ideas. The danger must also be recognised that the chief lessons the criminal type of mind has to teach those with whom it comes in contact, are lessons which suggest that a man or woman may contrive to live, and perhaps live well, by lawlessness and dishonest practices instead of by honest effort. This fact is the more thoroughly appreciated in a recognition of the following truth.

It is an accepted premise, according to psychological law, that in the development of mind, and consequently in the natural education of the race, imitation plays a decisive part. The practice of imitating the doings of others grows into the nature of human beings with the progress of age. Just as the gifts of mind of people met with or known are admired, so is there effort made to imitate their accomplishments. The formation of habits, of action or of mind, have their beginning in imitative movements either physical or mental.

Thus it is possible to realise the danger to national character and the well-being of the race, by the presence in an otherwise well-ordered community, of the criminal tendencies of a portion of its inhabitants. It must also be borne in mind that criminal pursuits are capable of appealing to the wills of a still larger percentage of the population, owing to the existence in the complex nature of individuals of this tendency to imitate the doings of others.

It is also necessary to note that in the public press of to-day a generous percentage of space is devoted to circumstances connected with the committal of criminal acts. Headlines and news placards which represent the art of the vendor of news, arranged to attract public attention, introduce the subject-matter of crime to the minds of readers; and newspapers are everywhere. Criminal acts committed locally are undoubted themes of discussion in the districts where committed. Thus the methods employed by offenders are retailed abroad by print and conversation, and convey their appeal to susceptible minds.

The programmes presented to patrons of cinemas and picture houses provide another avenue whereby criminal activities are brought before the minds of adolescents and others of an impressionable type. The danger to the types of mind mentioned, in the portrayal of these activities by means of the silent drama, must not be ignored, in that frequently a false glamour attaches to criminal exploits as the result of their fantastic and fascinating interpretation on the screen.

In addition, though statistics of crime may not be read and studied by the general body of citizens, very concrete evidence is at hand of the dominance of crime as a national scourge. Prisons, Borstal Institutions and Reformatories, the Courts of Assize and Quarter Sessions, together with the Police service and in some degree the Legal profession, find the main justification for their activities in that one word—crime. Thus, while this word represents practices which have a deteriorating effect upon a certain type of mind, it has the added effect of imposing taxation upon the community generally.

The facts emerge, therefore, that in the complex of national life there exists a poison which in effect one may liken to the suppuration given off by loathsome sores. In such cases the discharge often sets up similar sores in previously unaffected places. The remedy lies in the cleansing of the national system. This will not be accomplished successfully in the absence of co-operative effort on the part of the police and the public. The metaphor used is not one whit too strong. It is necessary that one should have no false sentiment upon the point under discussion, if there is to be valued rightly the

privilege of citizenship in the land of which Shakespeare wrote when he said :

‘ This fortress built by Nature for herself
Against infection and the hand of war ;
This happy breed of men, this little world ;
This precious stone set in the silver sea.’¹

The first necessity, therefore, in the setting of the national house in order in the direction of bringing about that co-operation so essential between the police and the public, appears to be very clear. There must be the definite recognition that crime is a danger to national evolution, and for that reason chiefly, fought by every legitimate method. Infection through, and the silent devastating war waged by, criminal minds against the vitals of the race, must be met by a national self-consciousness determined to counteract such an obnoxious thing. The true patriot is ever mindful of his country's good; the noblest form of patriotism demonstrates itself in consistency. The social evolution of the British Empire is a cause in which the real patriot is called upon to give of his best service. In the effort to meet the insidious attacks of crime the most pacifist of patriots may take part, with honour to themselves, and definite good to their Country and Empire.

(2) *The national recognition of the necessity for effective co-operation between the police and the public.*

In dealing with this point, I suggest first of all that in every instance in the history of Britain where danger has threatened national or Empire existence, either by threat of war or the ravages of disease, salvation has been achieved by the unity of the race in face of the danger. When the danger has been appreciated sufficiently to arouse in the affections of the people that sentiment which always is demonstrated in loyalty to the ideal of their own land, its institutions and physical health, then has followed the necessary concentration of forces in furtherance of a common aim. That such should be the case occasions no surprise, for among the world's peoples the standards of civilisation and freedom of Britain

¹ Shakespeare, *King Richard II*, Act II.

have long been recognised to be foremost by competent observers. I will use but one illustration in support of this statement.

It is a matter of recent knowledge, proved by statistics, that deaths from cancer have increased enormously during the past several years. The danger to the physical health of the people has been appreciated quickly by the best minds in the realm of medicine and surgery—the custodians of national health—who have taken the one course necessary. Calling to their aid those who best could assist, these have responded with gifts of wealth, time and knowledge, while the masses have been roused to a sense of a new danger. Thus the Cancer Research Fund was inaugurated, and to-day information is possible as to the course of conduct by which the people may help in fighting and preventing this dread disease. In the laboratories of the nation, brilliant minds are concentrating upon the supreme aim of combating one of the most insidious terrors that threatens the bodies of men and women. Yet the most satisfying progress made by the scientist in his laboratory will be ineffectual without the co-operation of those whose support must be given outside the laboratory. A simple analysis reveals the following situation.

Only the medical and surgical professions can diagnose successfully the disease and its course. The general body of the people must believe in and trust those in whose hands is their physical health, and in demonstration of that belief and trust, co-operate with their guardians in effort by which the success hoped for will be achieved. Granted this, it may be that in the days to come history will record in adequate language how the British peoples led the way in achieving one of the noblest victories in the war against disease.

The analogy of the illustration when applied to crime is apparent. There is definite evidence at hand that crime, in its sphere, is quite as virulent and harmful as cancer. Its fibres have spread so that all parts of the body politic suffer from its ravages. At present the machinery of the law wages a continual warfare—often in the face of difficulties—against this evil. The great mass of the public, the large majority of whom are splendid people at heart, are spectators who pay to watch

the proceedings. I think it is possible to outline what appears to be the attitude of mind of various sections of the public with reference to crime and its treatment.

First, there is a large body of the public who are prepared to assist the police in combating crime. These people of necessity follow their professions or conduct their businesses, and belong to all classes of the community. In the daily round of life, however, they realise that to achieve a definite national service, and to keep the name of Britain one worthy of respect, effort on their part is required. And they give this assistance in the matter of dealing with crime, not because they benefit as individuals, but for the purpose that is served in the endeavour to conform with the ideal of citizenship. Apart from the co-operation with the police afforded by this section of the people, it must be acknowledged that the present success achieved by the police in dealing with crime would not be possible.

On the other hand, it does appear that criminal activity is viewed by a vast majority of the people as a normal element in the constitution of the race: that it takes all kinds to make a world is an accepted belief. Such a belief may be an annoying mental experience, but to counteract this annoyance there is the relief that in the existence of the police service the State possesses an arm endowed with legal powers sufficient to keep the annoyance within proper bounds. Thus it is felt by many law-abiding citizens that their duty has been discharged when provision has been made to supply the taxes which support the machinery of the law.

Every police officer of experience is aware of the aversion that exists in the minds of the majority of the people to be associated in criminal proceedings, unless such of them as are individual sufferers are concerned. Even then there is to be discerned an abhorrence of the duty and privilege of assisting to keep the King's Peace. People say that business pursuits are interrupted, while time spent at the Courts, or in taking some observation which would be of incalculable value to an absent police officer, can be spent better to one's own advantage. Therefore, by all means compatible with this attitude of mind, these people agree that the war against crime must

tion of truth in its most easily understood form. Therefore, if life has nothing higher to offer human society than that the demands of the hour justify the exercise of the baser impulses in criminal pursuits, then the doctrine of *laissez faire* in relation to the toleration of criminal conduct might be justified. But is this the truth of the matter? I submit it is not, for the following reasons.

It is agreed by psychologists that action implying the intelligent use of mind implies also the assent of the will to the action. In the perpetration of criminal actions by sane persons, it is safe to accept that these actions are willed, while it cannot be doubted but that they are opposed to the well-being of the greater number. It follows, therefore, that in a community desiring to evolve in the direction of a higher type of life, there can be no excuse for, or justification of, conduct on the part of those whose wills are exerted in directions which retard the legitimate desires of the greater number. It is only in the acceptance of this principle that the duty of each member of the race can be rightly understood, and render possible the execution of that duty in dealing with crime. No person can be denied the right to have his or her own opinion upon any matter; but upon the question of the well-being of the whole, it is submitted that intelligent collective action in support of a worthy ideal is the mark which stamps the best minds.

With regard to the view that improvement in the matter of crime will eventually take place, being consistent with the improvement in social conditions, and that in the meantime action to suppress crime will inflict harm upon the wrong-doer, I submit that such a view is an erroneous interpretation of the facts. It must be remembered that the detection and prosecution of crime is not for the purpose of doing harm to the criminal. This is not the motive that operates in the administration of the punishment which follows conviction. It is rather, in the main, remedial and reformatory, and otherwise to restrain those whose liberty is proved to be injurious to the safety of the community. The clear purpose of the prosecution to conviction of a criminal is to vindicate the law which exists for the good of the community, and which has been broken

to the detriment of that community. Such prosecution, therefore, is not vengeful, but in the interest of public safety, and the punishment which follows is intended primarily to be deterrent and to prevent others from emulating the actions of the offender. If this deterrent effect was not possible, the obvious probability is that crimes, particularly against the person, would multiply. Thus the safety and security guaranteed by a law which exists for the good of all would tend to be violated, and this is the great danger attendant upon the spread of any false sentiment regarding the punishment of criminals.

It can be no satisfactory answer to this submission, to state that a margin of safety is assured with regard to crime so long as a measure of efficiency is possible in the police. The margin of safety is not evidence of racial progress; and this progress, which is a characteristic of the race determined to advance, necessitates the shedding of erroneous ideas regarding crime, and the administration of the law which deals with crime.

With reference to the problem of those who are definitely in sympathy with the criminal, while it is to be remembered that Nature is wasteful in her generations, the hope of bringing about the change so desirable in the mentality of these people, will assume reality only in the successful co-operation between the police and the public in the direction under review.

In commenting upon those well-disposed citizens who, at times, are apt to view unfavourably police action in the matter of light offences, I would mention that real freedom for the citizen is consistent only with the recognition of the claims of properly constituted authority. The laws made by this authority—the State—are in the interests of the whole body of citizens, so that obedience to them becomes a privilege pertaining to citizenship. The right to observe minor laws and regulations which make for the good of the community is that of the community; and in carrying out the administration of those laws the members of the police service are but the agents of that community who, in the ultimate, are the law makers. To view these facts in their proper perspective is the duty of the public, a duty which will tend to the encouragement

of that spirit which discourages any attempt to foster the idea that the police exist to suppress the legitimate freedom of the public. The obvious result will be that the police service will respond gladly to the end that the law will be administered without any tendency to bitterness on the part of the public, or vindictiveness on the part of the police.

With these points in view, it is possible to suggest the essentials that must be the dominant factors in the functions of the public in the detection and prosecution of crime.

To be fearful of incurring the hatred of the criminal consequent upon co-operation with the police must not be tolerated by members of the public. Co-operation alone is the one safeguard against the consequences of such a possibility. Fear is a tyrant that imagines terrors which to sane vision do not exist. The result of the indulgence of such a fear need not be stressed except to mention the condition of Ireland prior to the granting of self-government to the two parts of that country. In the absence of that co-operation which might have existed in Ireland between the police and the public, there existed the conditions which illustrate a possibility worth noting. This is that the criminal elements of a country will ever exploit political situations to the detriment of the good name of a nation. Whatever improvement has taken place in Ireland in the matter of crime, has been possible chiefly as the result of the support afforded by the Irish public to the forces of law and order.

It is necessary also for the public of Britain to recognise that the police exist as a body to be co-operated with. This implies a definite trust in the police service as a body. The vast majority of members of the British public are clean-living and honest, and the same truth applies to the members of the police service, who are of the same blood and possessed with the same ideals as that great body whose guardians they are. Confidence demonstrated by the public in the police will merit its own reward: this confidence will be reciprocated by those in whom it is placed, while its mutual character cannot but improve the relations between the police and the public. To assure the police of this confidence is a duty which the public owes to this body who administer the law, and this can be

given in a manner consistent with a regard for the accepted impartial standard of the police, also in that form which will preserve the dignity of the great British public. It is well to remember at this point, that it is only in the demonstration by the public of consistent interest in the efficiency of national services that these maintain the standard which accords with national ideals. To endeavour to understand and appreciate the difficulties which attach to the performance of police duty, is a need that the public must consider; for this is an essential step in the direction of cultivating that consistent interest so necessary to ensure a satisfactory co-operation between the police and the public.

It is necessary also that an atmosphere of frank relationship should exist between the public and the police in their common life. This essential should be transmitted by heads of families to their children, and in this direction adult members of the public have a definite duty which cannot satisfactorily be delegated to others. Education received in other places by the future citizens of the nation, as to the part the police service should play in the life of the nation, must be supplemented in their own homes. It may be that this duty has never yet been appreciated to the extent that it should be.

It is necessary also that the public realise the importance of private judgment in an analysis of the problems affecting the question of dealing with crime. In the mass there is the definite danger that sympathies may be misplaced, and harmful influences encouraged. When a person asks what the police are doing, that person might with profit ask also, 'What am I doing?' It is fatally easy for individuals to attempt to transfer personal obligations by handing them on to an organised body, but in the matter of crime this cannot be done with success.

At this point it may be profitable to quote from the report on 'The Treatment of Crime' presented to the Conference on Christian Politics, Economics and Citizenship, held at Birmingham, April 5th-12th, 1924. The organisations represented at that Conference need no qualifying, for it is accepted that they stand for the best things in national life, and their conclusions may be regarded as being actuated by a desire to

encourage the development of high ideals in the matter of the duty of citizens with respect to crime. The report says:— 'Thus in a moral State, such as that in which we live, there can be no neutrals nor mere observers. Each and all are vitally concerned, for what damages or hurts any one part of the whole damages and hurts every other part: what affects the well-being of the whole affects every part, and what affects any part affects the whole. In this way the responsibility of each individual for the well-being of others is a fundamental principle, which can only be ignored or violated by anyone to his own loss. It thus follows not only that the true citizen will not do anything that may hurt another or cause him loss or suffering, but in virtue of his very goodness, must actively concern himself in doing his utmost to remove all cause of loss or suffering or hurt either in himself or in others, or in the condition of things. If, *e.g.*, he sees anything wrong, he is bound to report it, or if he sees anyone in a state of mind or body likely to do what is wrong or in the act of wrong-doing, he is under obligation to take immediate steps to prevent the wrong-doing being done, or to report the matter to those in authority, so that the wrong may be put right. If anyone knows or is aware of causes working out harm to the community and takes no steps to prevent the harm, or fails to report the state of things, he becomes by his acquiescing in an evil condition as guilty as those who are actually causing the wrong. It is unfortunately too often true that the authorities do not get the assistance of the public that they should.'¹

These words convey their own message, and the responsibility of responding is that of each member of the community. Thus while it is remembered that the Common Law requires the public to assist the police in time of need, yet I would point out that between co-operation and the assistance which needs to be compelled there can be no comparison. Co-operation means the cultivation of that mutual confidence which inspires the energy necessary to secure a desired end, and when the individuals who comprise the public recognise the value of the privilege rightly, they will afford this co-operation in increasing volume.

¹ Copec Reports, No. 6, *The Treatment of Crime*.

To sum up the functions of the public in the co-operation between themselves and the police, there must be the courage to act without fear; trust in the police service; the realisation that the police are anxious for co-operative effort; a consistent interest in and endeavour to understand the purpose of police duty; a refusal to entertain the idea that the police service exists to oppress the community; a state of frank relationship with the police, the influences of home life being directed toward securing in the minds of young persons a similar outlook; the preservation of private judgment free from passion upon the activities of the police in dealing with crime; and finally that in the spirit of co-operation there is possible the giving of that splendid assistance which will tend to preserve the rights and privileges of a liberty-loving people.

To work and think upon making this programme the duty of each reasonable citizen of the Empire, is an ideal worthy of effort. The realisation of its necessity will be the first step in the direction of appreciating the ends sought for, and render welcome the means by which these ends may be attained.

(4) *The functions of the police in this co-operation.*

In considering this point, it is possible to affirm that the police need not to be educated in what their attitude to crime should be. Each member of the police service, for whom that service stands for something considerably more than a means of livelihood, has no mistaken view with regard to crime. To them it is the pestilence that walketh in darkness and the destruction that wasteth at noonday. The worthy policeman, however, is not obsessed by a hatred of the criminal, though he can do no other than hate crime. Undetected crime is an ominous term that he fain would not hear. To welcome the advance of effort which will tend to reduce this disturbing factor is, without a doubt, the predominant hope in the mind of every thorough police officer. To use a metaphor, I believe he is looking towards the horizon of public opinion to see if there is the sign of a cloud—though it be but the size of a man's hand—that shall herald the awakening of individual responsibility in the matter of crime and its effect in national

life. How might this awakening be encouraged by the police themselves?

I believe first of all this will be hastened by a realisation on the part of the police of the innate courtesy and readiness to respond to service, which exists in the constitution of the vast majority of members of the public. The police must not be repelled by mere surface traits of seeming non-friendliness. Beneath any seeming surface traits, the British public appreciates fair play and possesses the ability to respond to the team spirit. Therefore, the police must play the game in the only spirit that invites success, if they are to win the confidence of the public in the effort to improve the co-operation between that public and themselves. Enthusiasm for the ends desired, patience in endeavour to secure those ends, and a manner that puts on no airs and above all does not patronise, will rarely fail to achieve beneficial results. The putting of the case for co-operation ought always to be the study of each police officer; for the education of the public in the required direction must commence with and be continued by him. He is the modern embodiment of our forefathers who kept the King's peace in the land before the establishment of the professional police service. The oath which the police officer of to-day takes, is in spirit that which has been the basic principle of the preservation of the peace throughout the most enlightened period of British development. Thus by the constitution of his oath, the police officer is the servant of none, but of the State. He is responsible for seeing that the law is kept, and responsible to that law for any neglect of duty, or excess in the discharge of his powers.

It is to this standard, therefore, that a police officer must aspire if he would thoroughly impress the public, and win their regard in the direction of securing their co-operation.

It follows that he must make himself acquainted with the limits of his powers and duties: it must be his dominant interest to make himself the possessor of information affecting the rights and liberties of the subject, in addition to that which affects his responsibilities as the agent of the law. The successful police officer of to-day is the one who is never tired of improving his knowledge of men and things. A cultured

mind is the better able to adapt itself to the needs of the times than an uncultured one. An educated public is one great need to ensure effective co-operation between the police and the public; obviously the corresponding need is that of an educated police service. An educated mind does not infer a superiority which refuses to bend to the needs of others. The richest minds in the history of the race are those who because of their excellence have served it.

Thus I suggest that the police officer will compel a measure of support from the great public of the Empire in the display of a personality graced by educational fitness.

To educational excellence I would add character; for intellectuality without integrity is dangerous. I submit this to be true for the reason that there exists in the heart of the British public a respect for undeviating manliness displayed in the discharge of the duty of a public official. There is in character the quality which commends and encourages co-operation. It is, therefore, in personal excellence on the part of the individual police officer that the hope will always be of engendering the spirit of co-operation in the minds of the public. It is along this line that in the past success in the way of co-operation has been achieved. Unless there is the ideal present in the mind of each police officer as to the purpose of his work, it cannot be expected that he will encourage such an ideal to be cultivated in the minds of members of the public with whom he is in constant touch.

Thus in the carrying out of his duty in the administration of the law, it must be the definite purpose of each police officer so to act as to convey the fact that he stands for the best in British manhood. In his administration of the law generally, he cannot act on principles that are psychologically unsound if he would serve the best interests of his profession. It follows that he must be a student of what is termed 'human nature,' but what in reality is the mentality of those among whom he labours. Where he is called upon to exercise his powers, this can be done so that the majesty of law is demonstrated, and admiration for his office increased. It is not a platitude to say that he must be gentle and yet strong, frank and yet not blunt, explicit but avoiding dogmatism, uniformly

20

56
 7:4:61m 21, N28
 N28.3

69304

just and impartial, a trusted confidant, and one possessed of confident honesty of purpose. If the qualities outlined become typical of the men who join the police service, then I suggest that a magnificent advance in the co-operation between the police and the public will have been achieved.

The police officer who has cultivated that affection for his country which enables him to realise how closely the efficient discharge of his duty is related to the improvement of the race, will respond with the offer of the best in himself. He must not be impatient of results: progress often is slow, but in every sphere of human relationship it cannot be assured apart from co-operative effort. To ensure this effort, he must not fail in doing those things that are his part. He must be moved and inspired by the conviction that the nation and the race will suffer if he fails to do those things which none other can do for him.

- (5) *The means by which the co-operation between the police and the public is to be encouraged and rendered effective.*

In presenting my ideas upon this point, I realise that the inauguration of a programme capable of practical application must be my aim, and this I purpose to suggest.

The outstanding need is that the public mind must be rightly directed, if enthusiasm for the ends desired is to be fostered and maintained. There exists in the mental life of the British race a sentiment of pride in, and attachment to, the Empire, and a love for its institutions. This sentiment is the product of a strong desire to preserve national standards, and ensure national progress.

It is necessary, therefore, that the foremost figures in national life should consider the duty of leading the citizens of the nation to think upon the important question of crime, its detection and prosecution. Crime, like cancer, is a non-party problem, and as in the case of the latter, must be made the subject of constant attention by leaders in the worlds of Politics, Science, Economics, Eugenics, Journalism, and Religion. It is the business of accepted leaders in national affairs to direct attention to national needs. The urgency of

crime and the necessity for co-operation between the police and the public in effort to deal with it rank among the most insistent needs of the times. In Parliament, in the constituencies, in important industrial centres, are audiences to whom must be conveyed by word of mouth and by print the truth of the evil that follows from condonation by indifference of criminal acts. To this end, the intensive propaganda which must be an initial step towards the effective realisation of the purpose under discussion, involves the co-operation of national leaders. The chief subscription is that of wealth of mind directed to the service of a great purpose. Who can measure the response to such an effort as indicated?

The State, through public authorities, must also include in its activities provision for the education of the adult population in a knowledge of what they can do to co-operate with the police in furtherance of the ends desired. At present there are no recognised institutions where lectures upon the obligations of citizenship are available for the general body of the public. The ideal of to-day becomes the practical of to-morrow; therefore I urge the provision of adult instruction upon such important matters as those which conduce to the improvement of national standards. Consistent with the definite need for preserving the confidential nature of police enquiries, there are a number of subjects available for public knowledge, the possession of which would enhance trust in the police, render co-operation with them more easy of accomplishment, and make crime capable of being understood by the public in the light consistent with the ideal of good citizenship.

In this direction Local Authorities can, with advantage, arrange for the supply of trashy and sensational novels, through public libraries, to be curtailed. While literature may supply welcome entertainment, its real value consists in its ability to educate the mind on right lines. It must be admitted also that it is possible for literature to educate the mind on lines the reverse of right. Therefore, the wisest policy for Local Authorities with regard to public libraries, is to advertise and encourage the reading of literature which has for its purpose the stimulation on healthy lines of the mentality of the reading public.

In his evidence given before the Royal Commission on Police Powers and Procedure in December 1928, the late Chief Constable of the West Riding of Yorkshire, Colonel J. E. d'E. Coke, advocated some form of propaganda by which the public could be informed of the importance of their notifying the police of material facts concerning a case which might come to notice. While such a step would be welcome, I suggest that the State, through Local Authorities, should provide a thorough education for the public in what in reality is their Common Law duty. In this education there could be given to the public information as to the best means of securing assistance in time of need; how information concerning criminal acts can best be conveyed to police authorities; the noting of the presence and movements of suspicious characters; and not least the giving of those few minutes in the taking of observations—so valuable an aid to the subsequent investigation of a crime by a police officer. A programme which would tend to encourage the development of such public assistance would be more than valuable, for in this direction every police officer of experience will recall instances where the co-operation so afforded by members of the public has been of great value in establishing the case against a wrongdoer. The timely actions of many engaged in various businesses in the skilful noting of conversations held with those whose purposes were suspected, the possession of property by them, or their behaviour in certain circumstances, have frequently supplied the important link in an intricate case. Altogether, the whole history of the police in dealing with crime is punctuated with the record of the invaluable co-operation contributed by members of the public in serving the common good.

In the wireless programmes submitted to the public, there exists also a splendid instrument available for the spread of information upon the lines suggested. The choice of topics and their presentation would not be difficult of arrangement, and the results would justify the innovation.

The enormous influence of the cinema can also be directed toward the improvement of co-operation between the police and the public. In these days all right-minded people realise the value of the cinema as a means of education, and in the

main it is an instrument which, in the life of the race, moves along the lines of mental and moral healthiness. With care in the choice of subjects on the part of film-producing agencies, a great advance will be made in the direction of preventing the presentation of unhealthy or suggestive films dealing with criminal activities. Such a progressive step will have effect, not only upon the minds of patrons of the cinema in Britain, but in the wider sphere of the Empire will serve to restrain the presentation of misleading and dangerous suggestions in the form of an entertainment which often is educative.

The public press also can effect much good in encouraging the co-operation between the police and the public. It is recognised that newspapers, in the main, are organs of public opinion. With the aid of national sentiment everything is possible; without it, nothing. Thus in the matter of crime, while it is the function of the press to inform the public of outstanding events and occurrences, yet this can be done without in any way making crime an attractive thing, or the criminal a character worthy of emulation.

It may be accepted that public opinion no longer appears to demand sensational news, or news of a degrading type, and the omission of such would do much to raise the tone of a certain but by no means small section of the press. It is well to note that the present low standard of certain newspapers is due to the fact that, in order to enhance their sale, there are advertised and published articles by convicted criminals and other unconvicted persons, which deal with sordid circumstances. In addition, old crimes, which it would be far better for mankind to forget, are raked up together with all their horrible details and purveyed for public consumption. Such a policy is subversive of the best interests of the nation, and is not condemnatory of criminal pursuits.

On the other hand, with a healthy press much improvement in the direction of co-operation can be effected. In co-operation with police authorities, valuable information as to wanted persons, criminal activities and practices, could be authoritatively conveyed through a healthy press to the millions of newspapers readers; and a definite policy become distinctive of the nation's press which had for its purpose the

cultivation of a higher standard of citizenship. Then would ensue the education of the reading public as to the obligations consistent with this standard, and its demonstration in co-operation with the police. Thus a healthy public opinion with regard to crime, its detection and prosecution, could not but be encouraged.

Another avenue, and one of the most important, along which the education of the race would ultimately be assured in the matter of our subject, is the recognition of the value of the national system of education, elementary and otherwise. The manhood and womanhood of Britain, in the main, pass through the nation's schools and colleges. For that reason there should be introduced into the curriculum of education a programme that will present crime as a menace to national character, and impress upon the minds of juveniles the purposes for which the police exist. With these principles as a guide, the educationists of the nation could arrange a time-table upon these important subjects. The race marches forward on the feet of little children, and no words are needed to anticipate the results possible in their mental life, both as children and adults, that must follow such teaching as suggested. The police and the public of to-morrow are the children of to-day; and knowledge early begun to be acquired will tend to become the wisdom that shall prove the strength of citizenship in the coming days, in relation to the question of crime. The police service of Britain has been in existence as a professional body for one hundred years, and during this period the percentage of criminals in its population has been reduced from one in twenty-two, to one in three hundred, and this despite a vastly increased population. What the next fifty years will produce in this direction if child education in the matter of crime receives sympathetic and systematic treatment, may exceed the fondest hopes of the greatest idealists. In the taking of definite action on the lines suggested, there will be liberated one of the most powerful agencies for good in the continuity of national life. The need for this action is more than apparent: the results no man can measure.

To exhaust every avenue whereby co-operation may be effected would be difficult, but several other essentials must

be mentioned. Thus members of the public can make themselves acquainted with the positions of police stations and police boxes, the telephone numbers of these, and seek for advice from police officers as to the use of the telephone, or for other necessary information as the case may be. Above all to make their walks abroad an opportunity for taking mental notes will prove a valuable habit. Undue suspicion need not be cultivated, while reasonable suspicion will secure thorough investigation on its communication to the police.

There must be borne in mind, however, that whatever steps may be taken to encourage the co-operation between the police and the public, the *will to co-operate* is the essential upon which success depends. Here is reached the point which cannot be stressed too strongly. This is the responsibility that devolves upon each individual member of the police service and the public. To the common purpose each individual must add his or her contribution. In the will to co-operate is the guarantee of the wise use of each opportunity as these are presented, whereby the spirit which makes for success may be cultivated. Upon this point the report submitted by the members of the Royal Commission on Police Powers and Procedure is very definite. Commenting upon the vital importance of mutual confidence and co-operation between the police and the public, the report says that apart from this, 'no laws however well conceived, no regulations however well drafted, will ensure the maintenance of law and order, and the very bases of our social fabric will be exposed to disintegration.'¹

There remains the duty of encouraging and supplementing the spirit of co-operation by those from whose hands this duty is expected. Persons who need to earn their daily bread must receive adequate compensation for time spent in assisting to maintain the law. The Legislature must make provision to ensure that the Courts have power to order that no person suffers loss as the result of exercising the privileges of citizenship. Those who act in a judicial capacity may add a further contribution to the success of co-operation between the police

¹ Report of the Royal Commission on Police Powers and Procedure, Chapter XI, *The Police and the Public*.

and the public, by safeguarding the feelings of those members of the public who may appear as witnesses in the Courts. Words of encouragement and commendation, when necessary, will tend to stimulate the mind in what often may be an experience the reverse of agreeable.

In the programme outlined, there are, I suggest, the essentials that will serve to make the co-operation between the police and the public a practicable thing. In this programme details can be fitted as they become apparent. Granted the spirit which makes co-operation desirable, minor difficulties will disappear as the snow before the heat of the sun, to the consummation of those ends which, having the eradication of crime as their objective, will tend toward a strengthened security and prosperity in Empire existence.

(6) *The ends to be effected as the result of effort to secure co-operation between the police and the public.*

Under this heading it is my purpose to outline the ends which should be the more efficiently reached, consequent upon the observance of the programme described.

Obviously, the first feature of importance will be the effect that co-operation in action will have upon the minds of those with criminal tendencies. The untiring efforts of the police and the public in the detection and prosecution of crime cannot but affect the confidence of the criminal, and must eventually result in a diminution of criminal activity. In this matter the race is not to the swift but to the strong; and co-operation spells strength.

There will also become apparent the evolution towards a racial consciousness fully alive to the menace of crime. This will result in the introduction to the minds of British citizens of that common purpose which unifies action to secure its achievement; and this united action will be intelligent, educated, and based not upon impulse, but upon the resolute qualities characteristic of the British race.

I suggest also that there will come about the knowledge whereby an adequate idea of the functions, powers, and responsibilities of its members regarding crime, its detection and prosecution, becomes part of the mental life of the race.

This knowledge will be diffused by the activities of citizens in their daily work and lives, with the result that the sentiment will be cultivated which desires the best in national affairs.

A respect for law will, in consequence, become insistent, while there will become impressed upon the minds of the police and public alike, customs and habits in dealing with crime that will render co-operation between them the reasonable issue. Any false sentiment regarding the view to be taken concerning the detection and prosecution of crime will tend to disappear. It will, instead, be recognised that any such sentiment would be more demoralising to national character than any deterrent punishment inflicted upon the criminal.

It follows that relations between the police and the public will tend toward that condition which is the safeguard in those matters which affect the rights and liberties of the subject, and the interests of justice. This condition is that, with increasing knowledge on the part of the police and the public as to what citizenship demands, there will come the understanding born of enlightenment. Wrong conceptions of the obligations of citizenship will tend to disappear, while the difficulties of the police in dealing with crime, and the doubts of the public as to the necessity for their co-operation in that direction, will be viewed in the perspective of a healthy public opinion. The machinery of the law will come to be looked upon not as an annoying necessity, but as an assurance of national evolution on progressive lines. The public will come to realise that, in assisting to keep the King's Peace in co-operation with the police, they are assisting to preserve their own heritage. No slow and secret poison will then destroy the vitals of the British Empire, the minds of citizens will not be reduced gradually to the same level, the fires of genius will not be extinguished. The Courts of Justice will not be looked at askance, but will be considered as the temples where Justice is truly vindicated, and where a free people and a clean police may leave with confidence the result of their co-operative effort.

The Legislature of the nation, in turn, will react to the reality of effective co-operation between the police and the public. The Parliament of Britain gives effect to the will of

the people, and legislation does not lag behind the expression of a healthy public opinion. This opinion is the highest Court of Appeal before which every act performed in the name of the nation must justify itself. Realising this, I submit that the programme outlined will result in the education of public opinion to regard crime as a national menace, to that degree where co-operation in furtherance of national ideals will express itself in support of Parliamentary measures designed to encourage the suppression of crime.

Thus will follow the raising of the moral standard of the nation. The individual will come to understand more powerfully that the moral standard of the nation depends upon him or her for its maintenance. National character, in consequence, will tend to be fortified by the strengthening of the self-regarding sentiment, which will refuse to entertain dangerous philosophies. Interaction of ideas among the public concerning criminal acts will foster a realisation of the fact that to tolerate or condone them is demoralising. National progress, as a result, must be definite. As Professor McDougall finally observes, 'It will be a progress whose direction will be determined by the desire of an ideal end, present to the consciousness of all, and striven after by the collective deliberation and volition of the nation.'¹

The history of England and her sister and daughter Nations is the history of their co-operation in effecting mutually important purposes. This may be realised particularly in recalling the united effort in defence of Empire institutions from the threat of annihilation in the circumstances of the Great European War of 1914 to 1918. The purpose of preserving Empire existence then became so dominant, the need for co-operation so insistent, that the lead of the Mother-country was accepted without question by the Empire beyond the sea, with the results which now are matters of history.

In the direction of the co-operation between the police and the public, the Mother-country must provide the example for the remainder of the Empire to follow. By this means the standard of Britain will tend to become the standard of the Empire, in the pursuit of a purpose which is of definite mutual

¹ William McDougall, *The Group Mind*.

importance. Thus will Britain come to be regarded as the Nation which, by the co-operation between its people and its police, first attacked the problem of crime on right lines, and in so doing proved that men and women can rise to higher levels than they have yet known, and become the outstanding agents of human progress.

And, in conclusion, there will become rooted in the minds and affections of an increasing multitude, that insistent desire for the continuity of National and Empire existence which is founded in a love of Justice and Equity, and in a realisation that the co-operation under review is an integral factor in any scheme or arrangement which has this existence as its aim. For these people it will mean much when they say with the English poet¹ :—

'O beautiful, our country !
Round thee in love we draw ;
Thine is the grace of freedom,
The majesty of law.
Be righteousness thy sceptre,
Justice thy diadem ;
And on thy shining forehead
Be peace the crowning gem.'

And this multitude will hand on to succeeding generations who shall inhabit Britain and the Empire beyond the sea, a heritage of freedom worthy of that name. This freedom is the liberty which is loyal to properly constituted authority, and in obedience to that authority co-operates with it to defend and preserve those privileges common to all citizens.

Such is co-operation *in excelsis* : it is the mark of progress in National and Empire existence in the years that have gone by ; it is the hope of the future in National and Empire affairs. In the matter of crime, it will prove to be the rock upon which shall break those influences that would defile and destroy the good name of a civilised people.

¹ Frederick Lucian Hosmer.

Scottish Police Administration in Town and County

BY DONALD A. ROSS

Chief Constable, Argyllshire Constabulary, Scotland

AT the present time, when the whole system of Local Government in Scotland is undergoing so many radical alterations, the question of Police Administration is one of absorbing interest, not only to those actively engaged in this important and difficult task, but to the general public, who are vitally affected by any changes adopted by the police in carrying out the very responsible and onerous duties imposed upon them in connection with all those matters concerned with the preservation of order and good government. In this connection, it may be of interest to indicate briefly the principal difficulties which, in my opinion, confront the administrator of a Police Force in Scotland, and also to point out the differences which exist between the government of a county force as compared with that of a city or large burgh.

The first decisive step towards the establishment of a proper system of county police administration appears to have been taken in 1724, when an Act was passed for 'the more effectual disarming the Highlands in that part of Great Britain called Scotland, and for the better securing the peace and quiet of that part of the Kingdom.' This appears to be the first indication of anything in the nature of a police assessment in the county areas of Scotland, as the Act states:

'And whereas, for want of a sufficient fund for defraying the charges of apprehending criminals in North Britain, and of subsisting them when apprehended until prosecution, and of carrying on the necessary prosecutions against them, it often happens that criminals there escape the punishment due to their offences; for the preventing of which inconvenience for the future, be it enacted by the authority

aforesaid, that it shall and may be lawful to and for the Freeholders of every shire, county or district in North Britain, to assess the several shires or stewartries where their estates lie, at their meetings at any of the head courts yearly, in such sums as they shall judge reasonable and sufficient for the purposes aforesaid; and, that such monies so from time to time to be assessed, shall be collected, received and accounted for by such person and persons and in such manner as such Freeholders shall from time to time appoint, and shall be applied for defraying the charges of apprehending of criminals, and of subsisting of them in prison until prosecution, and of prosecuting such criminals for their several offences by due course of law, and to or for no other use or purpose whatsoever.'

By virtue of the powers conferred upon them by this Act, the Freeholders in the various counties and districts in Scotland made appointments of persons to carry out somewhat similar functions to those of the present day 'Police Committee,' until, in 1832, an Act was passed 'to amend the representation of the people in Scotland.' This Act transferred to the Commissioners of Supply the authority for disposal of the funds raised by the Freeholders, and known as 'Rogue Money,' for the maintenance of some form of police service. This body of Commissioners, which was instituted by the Act of Convention in 1667 for the purpose of levying the land tax, was well fitted for this additional duty, as it was empowered to take valuations of landed estates in the counties for the purpose of assessing taxes. These Commissioners were for a long period appointed by statute, but after the year 1855 they retained their positions by a property or ex-officio qualification only. The Local Government Act of 1889 transferred most of the powers and duties of the Commissioners of Supply to the County Council, but continued certain of their powers as Commissioners of the Land Tax and gave them a right to representation on the Standing Joint Committee of the County. This Committee consists of an equal number of Commissioners and County Councillors, and, since 1889, one of its principal duties has been, with the co-operation of the Sheriff, the control of the County Police Force. Under the recent Local Government (Scotland) Act of 1929, this Committee is now abolished, and the control of the County Police Force will in future be undertaken entirely by a Committee of the County

Council, under the supervision of the Secretary of State for Scotland.

In the burghs and cities, on the other hand, various systems of policing, or 'Watching and Warding,' as it was termed, were operative until the year 1833, when an Act was passed 'to enable Burghs in Scotland to establish a general system of police.' Sections 74 to 78 of this Act deal with the appointment, as Constables, of the men then known as Watchmen of the cities or burghs. Sections 74 provides:

'That the Watchmen and other officers of Police appointed under the authority of this Act shall, in virtue of their appointment, and so long as they hold the same, and no longer, be subject to all the regulations, and possess and exercise all the powers applicable and belonging to the office of Constable by the law of Scotland, and shall, before acting, be respectively sworn in as Constables by the Chief Magistrate of the Burgh or Sheriff of the County.'

Sections 75 to 78 deal with harbouring, bribing or assaulting Constables, also with Constables accepting bribes, and other corrupt practices, and these sections would appear to be the foundation of our present Police Discipline Code.

There are at the present time more than two hundred burghs of various denominations in Scotland, many of these known as police burghs having been constituted since 1850 under the various Burgh Police Acts. The trend of all modern Local Government legislation is towards larger units of administration, and one of the principal provisions of the recent Local Government (Scotland) Act is to transfer the powers hitherto exercised by these small burghs to the authority of the counties in which they are situated or to that of larger burghs adjoining. The control of their police forces, therefore, will be undertaken in future by the police committee controlling the force of the surrounding county or adjoining burgh. Section 3 (3) of the Local Government (Scotland) Act, 1929, provides that:

'Section seventy-eight of the Burgh Police (Scotland) Act, 1892 (which relates to the appointment of a Chief Constable and of Constables), shall not apply except to:

(a) a large burgh which at the date of the passing of this Act maintains a separate Police Force; or

(b) a burgh with respect to which it shall at any time be proved in accordance with the said section that it has a population of not less than fifty thousand;

and every burgh other than as aforesaid shall be supplied with Constables by the county in which it is situate under the provisions of the Act of 1889, and shall cease to maintain or to be entitled to maintain a separate police force . . .'

The term 'large burgh' in (a) is defined as a burgh containing a population of twenty thousand or upwards, and it will be readily understood, therefore, that a considerable number of our smaller burghs are rendered practically non-existent from the point of view of police control, when this Act came fully into operation in May 1930.

The administration of police matters in burghal areas has always been in the hands of a popularly elected body, and the ratepayers who contributed to the maintenance of their police service practically controlled its administration. In county areas, on the other hand, the greater proportion of the population, up to 1889, had no voice in the direction of the police service or the administration of police funds, and even after that date the general public in a county area elected only one half of the controlling body. This does not seem so unreasonable, however, when consideration is given to the conditions of life in burghal areas as compared with those in the rural districts many years ago. While the burghs and cities were populated mainly by those employed in manufacturing trades and other commercial undertakings, the working classes in rural districts were principally engaged in agriculture, and were still more or less in a state of dependence on the wealthy landowners. Until comparatively recent times, they took little or no interest in affairs of local government, and especially was this the case in the Highlands of Scotland, where the scattered and barren nature of the land was not conducive to the democratic form of self-government which prevailed in the more populous districts.

It will be readily appreciated that, in the practical administration of a county police force as compared with that of a city or large burgh, entirely different methods require to be adopted. One of the principal difficulties in the case of a

county force is the question of distribution, and this was not rendered less difficult by the Police (Scotland) Act, 1857, Sections 58, 59 and 60 of which empowered the Commissioners of Supply to divide a county into police districts, and to declare the number of constables to be appointed to each, thereby practically deciding the allocation of the force independently of the Chief Constable. Such a distribution could only be altered by the Commissioners, and the matter had also to be referred to the Secretary of State for his approval. In a case of emergency, any temporary transfer from one district to another necessitated the accurate allotment of expenditure in respect of the constables transferred, in order that the districts might be properly assessed for police expenditure. The Sections of the Act referred to are fortunately repealed by the Local Government (Scotland) Act, 1929, and the separate classification of general and local expenditure for police purposes in county areas will no longer be necessary.

In a compact city or burgh, the area is generally divided into equal police divisions, sections and beats, with due regard to population, prevalence of crime, value of property, and the class and condition of inhabitants. In a rural area more difficulty is experienced in defining district beats for constables, in selecting suitable sites for district police stations, and in arranging divisions to secure adequate supervision with the minimum of expense and inconvenience. In the early days of the police service, the position of a district station was generally chosen with an eye to its proximity to the licensed premises in the area, as a constable's principal duty in those days was considered by the public to be the apprehension of intoxicated persons. There was then some foundation for such an idea, as the majority of crimes and offences had their origin in too frequent visits to the village tavern; but in the present more enlightened age, when drunkenness has very largely decreased, it will be realised that the average county police station is not ideally situated for the efficient performance of a modern constable's exacting duties.

In a city, the arrangement and distribution of a force may be altered at any time to suit changing conditions. A large

body of men may be rapidly paraded and transferred to the scene of any outbreak of crime or disorder, without interfering seriously with the routine of the force, or having an appreciable effect on expenditure. In the county forces, such alterations cannot be carried out without great difficulty and expense, although it must be admitted that the necessity does not so frequently arise in rural areas. In the past, it was generally found necessary in the Highland forces, owing to the lack of means of communication and conveyance, to decentralise a force as far as possible, and to give to divisional officers, and, in some cases, even to sergeants and constables in charge of isolated and almost inaccessible districts, powers which in a city or burgh force would be vested only in the Chief Constable or his senior officers. In modern times, however, when motor transport has brought all parts of the country into closer contact, there is a movement towards the centralising of even the most remote and scattered of our county police forces.

In city forces centralisation was almost universal until recently, when the introduction of the Police Box System, involving the increased provision of motor vehicles and telephones, has effected much greater mobility and decreased cost of maintenance. In many cities, the practice is now adopted of a constable reporting for duty by telephone from a police box on his beat and keeping in touch with headquarters by the same method, while, in the event of his being urgently required, a signal light from the box attracts his attention very quickly. This system has much to commend it. A constable takes up duty directly on his beat, and is ready at once to deal with any incident occurring within its limits. There is therefore no weakness of beat supervision at the time of change of duty, which has always been a matter of grave concern under the old system.

In a rural district, no such schemes can meantime be deemed practical, and it is doubtful if the district constable and his lonely police station with two or three cells attached will ever be replaced by a police box system, or, as has been frequently suggested, by a mobile unit patrolling a number of districts. Some scheme, however, might be advantageously

adopted for joining two rural beats and providing accommodation at one station for both district constables. Such a scheme would provide a long-felt want in the ranks of our county police forces, as the great difficulty in obtaining corroborative evidence in cases where a constable is stationed alone in some sparsely populated district, and the lack of a reliable witness, are the most serious obstacles which a county district constable has to face. In a city or burgh, the officer on the adjoining beat is generally available at short notice to assist or act as a second witness. In addition, the constable is regularly visited by his sergeant, inspector and superintendent, so that should anything of a serious nature transpire, he has several sources of assistance and advice at his disposal. The county constable has no such opportunities. He must use his own discretion and in the main rely on his own powers in the majority of cases, since his nearest source of police assistance may be as far as twenty miles distant. He may also be frequently cut off by storms, and, in the Western Highlands and Islands, communication is sometimes impossible for considerable periods during inclement weather.

Under such conditions, it is not surprising to find that the county constable is inclined to depend much more on assistance given him by the law-abiding section of the community than is his fellow-officer in the densely populated centres. It is therefore essential in the interests of efficient county police administration that the officer in charge of an isolated county station should command the respect and goodwill of the respectable members of the general public; otherwise the majority of his enquiries would be fruitless, his search for corroborative evidence unavailing, and his opportunities of discovering and counteracting criminal activities would be few indeed.

Every member of the police service, of course, finds it necessary at times to rely on the assistance or evidence of civilian witnesses, and there is no doubt that of the two, the witness in a rural area is more likely to be in a position to give helpful information. In this respect the county constable has a distinct advantage over his colleague of the busy streets. A resident in a county area, on account of the unhurried nature

of his existence and peaceful surroundings, has a much better opportunity for close observation of any stranger in his neighbourhood, or any unusual occurrence in his immediate vicinity, with the result that he is of more assistance to the police officer in search of information. On the contrary, a person in the city is moving daily among masses of people who are generally unknown to him, and it is therefore practically impossible for him definitely to single out any particular person as being a stranger, or to observe any peculiarity of habit or dress in any one of the thousands of people with whom he comes into daily contact. An incident must be of unusual interest or unprecedented importance to claim his attention in the rush of city life, and in consequence the city constable has sometimes considerable difficulty in tracing witnesses of accidents and crimes which are so common nowadays in densely populated centres.

In certain respects, the police officer performing duty in a burgh or city has greater powers than a county officer through the passing of the various Burgh Police Acts during the nineteenth century. In connection with the prevention and detection of crime a notable example, which is worthy of mention, is that contained in Section 409 of the Burgh Police (Scotland) Act, 1892, which provides that—

‘ Every known or reputed thief, or associate of known or reputed thieves, who is found in any house or building, or part of any house or building or other enclosed place, or who is found frequenting any street, court, house or building or place adjacent, with intent to commit any crime, or who is in possession of any picklock, key, crow, jack, bit or other implement usually employed in housebreaking, or who is found in possession of any money or article without being able to give a satisfactory account of his possession thereof, may be apprehended, and, on conviction, be committed to prison for any term not exceeding sixty days; and it shall not be necessary to prove the intent to commit a crime to show that such person did any particular act or acts tending to show his purpose or intent, and he may be convicted if from the circumstances of the case and from his known character as proved to the Magistrate it appears to such Magistrate that his intention was to commit a crime. . . .’

This is one of the important statutory provisions confer-

ring on burgh constables powers which are of great assistance in the prevention of crime, yet no similar enactment is in force outside burghal areas. It must be borne in mind, however, that the majority of criminals live in populous districts where their identity is more easily concealed, and that such buildings as would attract the attention of housebreakers are to be found in greater variety and number in the towns. Occasion does arise, nevertheless, when the deficiency of such powers on the part of the County Constabulary is a serious handicap in dealing with wrong-doers, particularly in those industrial areas which, though thickly populated and harbouring many undesirables, have not the status of a burgh within the meaning of the Burgh Police Acts.

In the practical administration of a police force by the Chief Constable, one of the most important considerations, in my opinion, is that of discipline. A police force, no matter how outstanding in ability and education its individual members may prove themselves to be, is of little or no value to the community it serves without an adequate measure of respect for authority and prompt obedience to orders. It is these qualities, emphasised in the Police Discipline Code, which are so much admired by foreign travellers who have come into personal contact with the British Police. It is obvious, however, that the rigid enforcement of the Discipline Code, which is imperative in a city or burgh force, is not required to the same extent in a county. In a city or large burgh, a higher standard of discipline is found to be essential to efficient police administration. In supervising a large and compact force of men, the superior officers must invariably exercise firm control, if they are to successfully maintain the reputation of the force. It is generally agreed that many more temptations are placed in the path of the city constable than that of his brother officer in the county, and in a large force where the members are in close daily contact the bad example of one man may influence the conduct of many of his comrades. The position of a county constable, on the other hand, does not offer him so many opportunities for contravening the Discipline Code. He must, if his position is to be rendered tenable, command the respect of the law-

abiding public in his district, and his own behaviour, therefore, must be beyond reproach. He is personally known to the majority of the people in his area, his family affairs are a matter of common knowledge, and the responsibility imposed on him by the innumerable and varied phases of county police duty tends to prevent unbecoming conduct on his part. The city or burgh constable generally performs his eight hours' tour of duty continuously, after which he is at liberty to associate with his fellow-men in sport or social enjoyment. He may, and frequently does, reside in a locality miles removed from his usual place of duty, and he can daily leave the cares and trials of duty behind him, with little prospect of being recalled before his fixed period of rest and recreation expires. Not so the county officer, whose whole time is usually spent in, or near to, his station. He is practically never 'off duty,' particularly if he is in sole charge of a station, and he never knows when he may be called upon to exercise his powers in anything from a case of drunkenness to one of murder. Although his ordinary duties do not impose on him the same physical or mental strain as those of the city constable, the dangers which beset the county policeman in his one-man station are amply illustrated by the recent brutal murder of a constable by motor bandits in one of the southern counties of England. The county officer, unlike the city constable, is unable to take an unofficial part in local social functions, his vocation being so well known as to have a dampening effect on any exuberance of spirits on such occasions, and he is generally unable, while among those people to whom he is responsible for the maintenance of good order, to throw off his mantle of officialdom and enter into the enjoyment of the moment. His comings and goings are unerringly recorded, and should he in the slightest degree overstep the mark of good conduct, or neglect some small detail of duty, there is every possibility that an exaggerated account of the incident will be passed to his superiors.

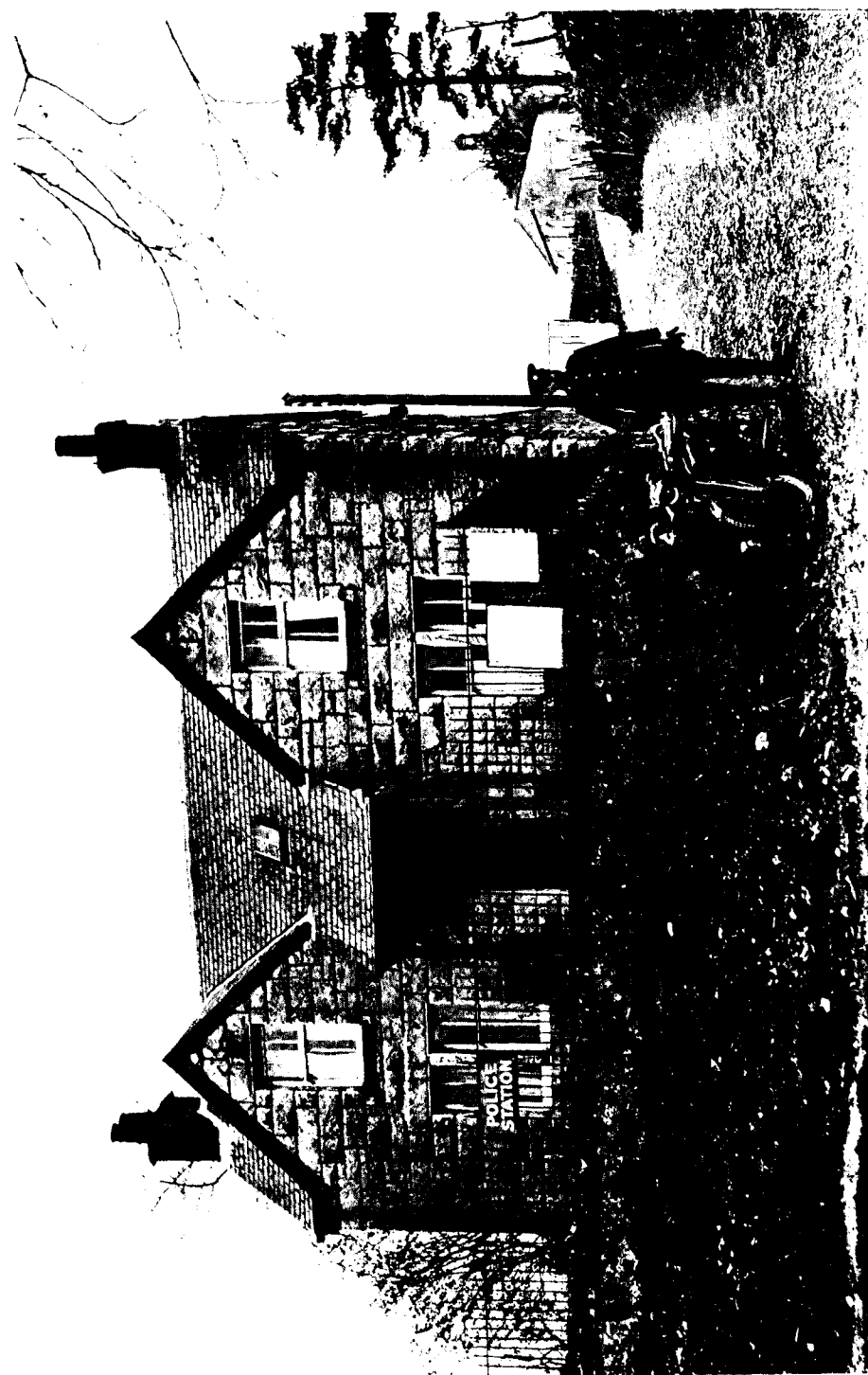
Rigid enforcement of discipline is, therefore, not so indispensable to the maintenance of efficiency in a county force. A city constable is principally engaged in routine duties, and is constantly under the supervision of authority.

He reports all matters to his immediate superiors at short intervals, and he has, therefore, no prolonged period of personal responsibility. The writing of reports is usually undertaken by station sergeants or clerks, while in the case of serious crime, the matter is immediately dealt with by specially trained officers of the Criminal Investigation Department. He does not come into personal contact with the Procurator-Fiscal¹ to the same extent as a county officer, and in most cases his knowledge of his chief is purely official. The county district constable, on the contrary, has frequently to deal personally with the Procurator-Fiscal, and, in some cases of urgency, to carry out the instructions of that official, especially where the constable's place of duty is a considerable distance from his headquarters or divisional headquarters. He is thus placed in a position of greater general responsibility than the officer of the town, and this naturally tends to render him all the more zealous for the good name of his force and the reputation of his own particular district. He takes a personal interest and pride in everything pertaining to his beat, of which he is generally in sole charge, whereas the city officer is periodically relieved by others. Acting alone in a county district, he is on his honour to carry out his duties without regular supervision, as this is practically impossible in most areas owing to transport difficulties, and to his credit it must be recorded that he rarely violates the confidence placed in him.

In many stations where a sergeant and constable reside and work together, it is impossible for strict disciplinary relations to be maintained for any length of time. In many problems, the sergeant is often as grateful for the constable's suggestions as the latter is for his sergeant's directions, and a spirit of comradeship is thus engendered which, while it does not undermine good discipline, tends to obviate the necessity for strict disciplinary conditions and the outward signs of respect for superior rank.

The personal affairs of the members of a large city force are not, as a rule, matters of interest or importance to the force to which they belong, and the Chief Constable, or his senior

¹ See *The Police Journal*, Vol. I, p. 543.



RURAL POLICE STATION
ABOUT 1910



SUMMER UNIFORM



WINTER UNIFORM

ARGYL AND SHIRE CONSTABULARY

officers, seldom, if ever, know anything of the private and family affairs of the rank and file, so long as these do not conflict in any way with the efficient performance of duty. In rural areas, however, where it is essential that a Chief Constable should frequently visit the outlying stations, he comes into personal contact with the wives and families of his subordinates. He finds that it is necessary that the wife of a district constable should also be fitted for the duties she is generally expected to perform, such as the searching of, and attendance on, female prisoners, and dealing with telephone messages and other police business during her husband's absence from the station. In many cases the constable's private dwelling-house is the police station, and it is therefore almost impossible for a superior officer to avoid being familiar with the family affairs of the district constable. Such an arrangement, however, is an advantage rather than otherwise in a county force, as it assists the Chief Constable to a better understanding of the man with whom he has to deal, and enables him to exercise such tactful supervision as will induce the constable to give of his best services in carrying out his difficult and responsible duties.

As has been pointed out in the 'Desborough Report,' the advantages and disadvantages of city or burgh police work, as compared with those of county police work, are practically equal. The Chief Constable of a city area has perhaps a more strenuous existence than that of one holding a similar position in a county; but at the same time, the former has more opportunities for social enjoyment, and, generally speaking, he is in receipt of greater pecuniary rewards for his services. This is counterbalanced in the case of the latter by a healthier environment and a somewhat less exacting, though none the less important sphere of duty. The conclusion arrived at by Lord Desborough's Committee, after comparing the work of the police in burghs with that of the county police, is given in the following extract from their report (Part I, Section 22) :—

'Having carefully considered the evidence . . . we have come definitely to the conclusion that the duties of a Policeman are fundamentally the same in character throughout the Forces' . . .

and the same may be said to be true of those entrusted with the task of controlling the different types of police force.

Our Police System in Town and County has grown up naturally, adapting itself from time to time to changing conditions, and in the future there will no doubt be further developments arising in the same natural way. It is a system well suited on the whole to the conditions of the country and to the national character.

The Problem of the Armed Criminal in Singapore

By R. H. ONAERT

Director, C.I.D., Straits Settlements

SINGAPORE should be a policeman's paradise—that is if he is looking for work and variety. Yet, contradictory though it may sound, the incidence of crime, except by fits and starts, is normal when compared with that of other towns in the East. The work and variety are due to the collection of races which, each with its own religion, customs and interests, have made Singapore their home.

The Singapore police is a semi-military force; the uniformed members are armed with, and trained in the use of, rifles and revolvers, while the detectives (plain clothes men) are armed with revolvers only. Side by side with duties of a semi-military character, the police carry on the duties of an ordinary civil force.

It is doubtful if any other town in the world counts within its population so many nationalities. There are Chinese from South China, from the several provinces and districts of which are immigrants who are not only unable to understand each other but are often inimical to each other. There are similar differences and hostilities between members of the various tribes and sects from Northern and Southern India; between the Javanese, Boyanese and other miscellaneous stock from the hundred and one islands of the Netherlands East Indies; between the Tamils and Singhalese from Ceylon; and between the Arabs from South Arabia. Add to this already heterogeneous collection Malays, Japanese, Filipinos, Koreans, Formosans, Europeans from every part of Europe, and a very large Eurasian population, and it is easy to imagine Singapore as a town the policing of which would, even in

normal times, give a force enough to do to learn about and keep in touch with.

But this is not all ; for there is a river population and a harbour population presenting peculiar difficulties and running into many thousands ; and, as a final and far more baffling complication, there is the fact that the truly resident population is perhaps only fifty per cent. of the 600,000 people of Singapore, inasmuch as each and every one of the races mentioned above is subject to continuous change due to immigration and emigration, unrestricted and unregistered. Chinese immigration figures have averaged about 300,000 for the last few years ; sometimes the average for a month has been as high as 1,200 a day. This tremendous influx and exodus is responsible for a floating population which, together with the fact that alien recidivists after a career of crime are banished, forms a criminal class which renews itself continually and one which accounts for seventy-five per cent. of the crime of Malaya : the percentage of traced finger impression inquiries has stood between twenty per cent. and thirty per cent. for many years. When, therefore, there occur the inevitable periodic disorders and crime waves, police work is increased tenfold and subsequent anxiety a hundredfold. The seriousness of these periodic disturbances is best exemplified by a brief survey of the last ten years.

In 1919 there occurred the first local anti-Japanese riots—a repercussion of the twenty-one demands. Certain areas of Singapore were threatened with rioting and serious damage. The trouble assumed so grave a character that the police were, alone, unable to cope with it. The military were called out and martial law proclaimed. The danger of violence lasted about a week, but the situation had to be watched for months, as a boycott of things Japanese was declared, and this was as tinder to any likely spark.

The Chinese society clan fights of 1922-1923 involved the Teochiu and Hokkien clans in a murderous feud ; each attack lasted several weeks and was the occasion for conflicts between gangs armed with poles, spears and knives, and for individual pistol duels.

In 1924-1925 a housebreaking and theft epidemic was

scarcely suppressed, when, in 1925-1926, an outbreak of gang robbery and murder by gangs of ruffians, almost entirely from the Cantonese clan, taxed the armed patrols and plain clothes police to the utmost.

In 1927 there occurred the trolley bus boycott. This long drawn-out boycott was of a political nature, its immediate cause being a clash which took place, as the result of an assault on a trolley bus, between an unruly Chinese procession and the police. The mob, thoroughly worked up, attacked a police station and were only repulsed after six of their number had been shot. The mediate and hidden causes which led to this grave affair were the same as those that came to light in 1928, namely, Communist propaganda from Canton among the Chinese of Malaya. Those chiefly affected were the Hylam Chinese, and from January to September, when the evil was finally subdued, there occurred a series of rowdy demonstrations, incited by a campaign of seditious and subversive propaganda issued by the Communist cells established within the local labour unions. These cells took advantage of every occasion to create trouble, giving, for instance, to a purely economic strike of shoemakers a revolutionary character by introducing the use of pistols and bombs to intimidate men who had gone back to work.

All these occurrences have added to police knowledge and experience and go to show that comparatively quiet times do not mean that the elements of crime have been rooted out, but that these elements are merely quiescent. All the ingredients of disorder and crime are ever present, and among the worst are those that go to the make-up of the Singapore gunman, who, whether he appears as a solitary highwayman, or in gangs, or as a hireling, has come to stay.

It may be of interest to trace the evolution of this last-named criminal, now armed with modern weapons.

Our local highwayman and robber bands, as opposed to the petty thieves, bag-snatchers, pickpockets and house-breakers who are recruited from all the various tribes in Singapore, are Chinese and generally Cantonese Chinese.

Previous to 1921 the use of firearms in the commission of crimes was unknown. Robbery and gang robbery was the

work of a sportsman, seldom now met with, who was armed with a knife or a spear, sometimes with a cut down shot-gun, and though he often got away with quite as much as the present-day gentleman of the same profession, never quite obtained such notoriety. The *modus operandi* of the old-fashioned gang robber had, necessarily, to be based on his equipment—knives and bare feet, as compared with the revolvers and motor-cars of his successor. His efforts were, moreover, limited by distance and the urgent need of numbers. One man with a knife was an insufficient guard over a number of victims, so that, as most of the gang were occupied in mounting guard and only one or two were available for searching and looting, the business in hand took a dangerously long time. The old gangster was generally a countryman, a miner or a fisherman, and though almost invariably of good physique, his schemes were not complicated.

In the Colony (Singapore, Penang and Malacca) he never became a bandit, living concealed in the hills, as did the notorious Federated Malay States gangs. On the contrary, he was a man with a fixed job, was probably on a pay-roll, and only joined in a raid at the instigation of a leader. He often covered ten to twenty miles between dusk and dawn and was back at his work in the morning, so that in spite of the simplicity of his methods he was extremely hard to trace. He was sometimes caught red-handed and shot down; but as he was generally unknown in the district where he fell, the police derived no help from his dead body.

A good specimen of the old-time gang robber was shot dead at Ara Kuda, some twelve miles out of George Town, Penang, when a gang of Chinese who were suspected to have been fishermen from Gertak Sangol, ten miles away as the crow flies, raided the house of a rich Chinese farmer.

Country houses, village pawnshops, or the houses of farmers who were known to have sold their stock previous to leaving for China, were the usual quarry of this old type of gang robber. He sometimes swooped into the town on a sudden raid and was miles away before the alarm was given. He still exists and still commits robberies in the old way but, except in distant country places, is becoming rare, and in towns

and suburban areas has been supplanted by the modern gunman.

The gunman is a product of the town. The gun, and not a willingness to take risks or exert physical strength, has evolved him. He supplements his poor physique with the low cunning of a sneak and a coward, although some fight desperately when cornered. The natural advantages of the gun and the lack of spirit of the ordinary Chinese citizens suggest his *modus operandi*; almost invariably he works within town limits, where he is not more noticeable than any other wayfarer. He or his accomplices spy out a likely 'crib' and walk quietly in; alone he can keep the collected members of the household in subjection and so allow his companions time to search and loot. The business is quickly done and they walk out, often in broad daylight, and are swallowed up in the crowded thoroughfares.

The ease of his success attracts men who would never have had the courage or the strength to be the old type of gang robber. He is, however, more easily traced, for even if he does not give himself away by the use of his money in the town, it sometimes happens that some of his less loyal hangers-on give him away for the sake of reward.

Experience has taught that, generally, a solitary hold-up man looks for an admirer or an accomplice to spy for or act with him. The greater their joint success the more associates they collect. The gang leaders have found this necessary because of more important raids undertaken and more property to dispose of. They have also found it flattering, because of more company and admirers, and protective, because of the fear engendered by their numbers and greater notoriety. This fear of reprisals on the part of those who know or suspect, but are not in the gang, added to the pride on the part of those in the gang, will not as a rule permit of any information or leakage reaching the ears of the police.

But invariably as the gang becomes larger their profits become proportionately smaller, and consequently a split into two or three gangs, each with a leader, takes place. The old spirit and discipline die down, and once one of the leaders is

caught or betrayed, the others give up the life, at least temporarily, and the gangs break up.

Disintegration may also come from within through jealousy or carelessness, but, as a general rule, it is only when a successful gang disintegrates into several gangs that the police obtain information on which rounding-up work can successfully be carried out.

A factor that promotes the formation of these gangs and keeps them from discovery is the existence of Chinese secret societies which make use of them in their inter-society feuds or for the purpose of extortion. Most societies¹ are made up of bands of men who, through similarity of work, form themselves into associations for charitable, protective, or aggressive purposes. It is not unknown for each of these associations to provide a man apiece for criminal gangs, the idea being that no one association will betray the doings of the gang to which their own men belong, but will, on the contrary, help with every means in their power—with money if there is a Court case, or with terrorism to prevent the arrest of those concerned. It is a common police experience, after a member of an extortion or robbery gang has been captured, for the victims to refuse to identify him on account of their fear of retaliation from the associations to whom he or his fellows belong.

This active warfare against the public is also carried on against those whose duty it is to detect and arrest the armed criminal—a duty fraught with a considerable amount of danger. Plain clothes policemen have been shot dead in cold blood, and in stand-up fights with armed gangs whose boldness in recent years has undoubtedly been increased by immigrants accustomed to service in regular or bandit armies in disturbed districts of China. It is certain that a great many ex-soldiers and others, trained to the use of firearms, have drifted down to Malaya to find a far less suspicious population and a government which does not deal out the summary justice they would have met with in their own country. Unless actually convicted for murder, these men know that they have a good chance of escape by not being identified, or, if identified, of being, at worst, imprisoned and banished to the country of their origin.

¹ See 'The Secret Societies of China' in *The Police Journal*, Vol. I, p. 277.

Gambling dens in the Colony are another source for these gangs, who form themselves into a kind of private police, extorting from one set of gambling promoters with the understanding that they will keep off informers and other would-be extortioners. This form of extortion is carried on to a degree unimaginable in Europe and its suppression forms one of the most trying duties of the police. It is not unknown for a whole street of shops, under threat of reprisals, to submit to being bled rather than risk calling in the police. Improved intelligence work and a better sense of citizenship among the older residents is slowly but surely putting an end to this form of extortion.

It has been found necessary, in order to give more confidence to the public as well as to protect the police themselves, to increase the number of police box guards and special patrols armed with rifles, and to arm part of the police on street duty with revolvers; it may be due to this, or to the gradual weeding out of the more notorious gunmen, that the boldness of the gunman had decreased in the last two years.

Several notorious gangs have risen and fallen. The first big gang to be rounded up in Singapore, and the one responsible for the first cold-blooded murder of a Chinese D.P.C., finally barricaded themselves in a hut near a saw-mill and, armed with mausers, defied the police; it was a case of Sidney Street all over again. After one of them had been shot and their ammunition had run out, they surrendered.

A dangerous gang of seven men armed with five automatics and four daggers was trapped in a room in the heart of the town, but were not arrested before they had shot a European Inspector in the spine, a wound from which he never recovered. He was invalided out of the service, paralyzed for life.

Half of another gang was caught in a disorderly house and, while being led away the other half, screened among the crowd that was watching the proceedings, had shots at the police. Fortunately a bullet intended for the police lodged in the body of one of the arrested robbers and killed him.

Two of another gang were caught coming out of an opium smoking room; one named Ho Kuan succeeded in drawing

his automatic, a heavy .38 of German make, but was not quick enough for the Malay detective, who jumped on him from behind and succeeded in pinning his arms to his side. This man was a notorious blackguard. Once he and his gang were robbing the inmates of a house of a well-to-do Chinese situated within 200 yards of a town police station, when the son-in-law of the house, a boy of nineteen, came in from the street by the door over which this robber stood guard. The other robbers at this moment were coming downstairs preparatory to leaving, when, without any reason, unless to cover their retreat, Ho Kuan shot the boy through the head and they all decamped. After he had been convicted and sentenced to be hanged, this man put up a tremendous bluff of bravado. On the evening before his execution he made a small model of a man out of some of his bread ration and, tying a piece of cotton round the model's neck, hung it to the bars of his cell and laughingly pointed it out to his warders. At 2 a.m. he fainted away and, practically in a comatose state, was taken out of his cell to the execution room. He seemed either to have willed himself into a hypnotic state or to have collapsed from fear.

Apart from the crimes of members of Chinese secret societies or gangs for the sake of robbery or extortion, cases have occurred in which gunmen have been used as hired assassins by people with family feuds, or against persons whose disappearance might benefit a third party. The victim is pointed out and the rest is left to the gunman. A bad case occurred in January 1927, when a quiet and elderly Chinese gentleman, while returning from a Sunday visit to his country estate, was waylaid by two hired gunmen. He was at the time accompanied by a Chinese maidservant, his three young sons and two grandchildren aged 15 and 19. The two assassins stopped the car and emptied their automatics at the occupants. The old man and a child of nine were killed while all the others with one exception were wounded.

Quite recently the gunman has made his presence felt in politics. Dr. C. C. Wu of the Kuo Min Tang Nationalist party, while passing through Singapore, was shot at after holding a meeting at the Chinese Chamber of Commerce. His assailant was arrested and proved to be a Red from Canton.

For many years the licensing of arms in Singapore has been very thoroughly carried out. All import and export sales or purchases, whether retail or wholesale, must be declared. The gunman has therefore to rely on smuggled or stolen weapons. Arms are generally smuggled in by sea. One has only to witness an expert gang searching a ship to understand the extreme skill necessary to detect small packages of arms which may be concealed in coal bunkers, engine rooms, behind wooden panelling, or in the hundred and one odd places into which a small package can be slipped. That arms are smuggled in and sensational discoveries made are facts known to all.

The port of Singapore is divided into wharves and into inner and outer roads. Supervision of the wharves is carried out as thoroughly as possible, but unless detailed information is obtained that will definitely identify certain individuals or packages, it is rare that seizures are made on persons or vehicles passing in and out of the wharf area. As regards the inner and outer roads, difficulty arises from the innumerable small craft of every kind which come and go in every direction, and though supervision is exercised at authorized landing places there are many places where a landing can be effected without being detected.

The ingenuity of the smuggler is best exemplified by a few typical cases. Two immigrants appeared to be bringing all their belongings to their new home; included in the collection of odds and ends were two Chinese stools and a round Chinese table: a dozen pistols and several packets of ammunition were discovered in the hollowed out legs of the table and stools. On another occasion a fully loaded automatic was discovered in the inside of a roast duck, and on another occasion in the clay of a charcoal brazier.

Good prices are paid for smuggled arms, Japanese and European sailors on foreign ships being amongst the chief offenders in disposing of them for the sake of gain. Generally the arms are of Belgian or German make.

Information comes in strange ways and is encouraged by the offer of good rewards. Information was once obtained from the smuggler himself who arrived from Europe by a ship

previous to the one on which his smuggled arms were concealed: he was evidently tempted by the high reward prevailing at the time to give away his own consignment. Of course we only found that out afterwards.

The informer is a most difficult person. He will as often as not take both sides into his confidence: he will plant the goods to pay off old scores or lead the police on a false trail, and there is always a danger that he might lead police officers into a trap.

The year 1929 was singularly free from any of the troubles narrated above.

The Police Forces of Southern Rhodesia¹

BY LIEUT.-COL. H. MARSHALL HOLE, C.M.G.

Formerly Civil Commissioner of Bulawayo. Author of *The Making of Rhodesia*, etc

I. HISTORICAL

THE British South Africa Police, the backbone of the defence system of Southern Rhodesia, has maintained a continuous record of good work, through many vicissitudes and with certain changes of name, for just forty years, having been originally formed to assist in the occupation of Mashonaland in June 1890. In those forty years it has seen an unusual amount of active service in the field, and the history of the Corps, of which only the barest outline can be given here, is as full of picturesque incidents as that of many regiments of the regular British Army. Its pedigree is really rather longer; for it is practically a lineal descendant of earlier frontier corps raised, in the eighties of the last century, to preserve order in the territories which skirted the old Cape Colony and the Transvaal Republic—territories little known in those days to the outside world, though they were the scene of constant broils and disturbances. A few words as to these corps may not be amiss, for they established traditions which have had an enduring effect in moulding the character of the present highly trained police force of Southern Rhodesia.

In 1884 civilisation had hardly laid a finger on any part of South Africa north of the Orange River and west of the Transvaal. The vast territory known as Bechuanaland was sparsely inhabited by a number of native tribes who were constantly at loggerheads among themselves, and these con-

¹ See also 'The British South Africa Police in Southern Rhodesia' in *The Police Journal*, Vol. I, p. 553.

ditions provided an opportunity for parties of lawless and irresponsible Boers from the Transvaal to enter under the pretext of settling the differences between the various factions. They began to establish small colonies, which they dignified by the name of 'Republics,' in the neighbourhood of Vryburg and Mafeking; and their presence there, besides increasing the unrest among the natives, threatened to cut off Cape Colony from any hope of the Northward expansion which Cecil Rhodes was so anxious to achieve in the interests of the Empire. Through Bechuanaland lay the only open road to that rather mysterious region between the Crocodile and Zambesi rivers, known only to a few hunters, explorers and missionaries, but reputed to contain gold reefs of fabulous value and to possess a fertility and climate rendering it eminently suitable for British colonisation. Access to this desirable field for enterprise depended on the retention of a corridor from the Cape, and eventually the Home Government, in view of the growing encroachment of the Boers, was moved to send up a strong expedition under Colonel Sir Charles Warren to reinstate the natives in their own lands, to expel freebooters and to safeguard the route to the interior. A British Protectorate was then proclaimed, and, on the withdrawal of Warren's force a number of his officers and men were retained as a permanent unit to watch the frontier and preserve order.

The Bechuanaland Border Police, as it was styled, was commanded by Sir Frederick Carrington, and was largely instrumental in enabling Rhodes, a little later, to push up, on behalf of the Chartered Company, a pioneer expedition into Mashonaland, a country whose tribes had for fifty years been regularly raided by their formidable neighbours, the Matabele, and had been reduced to a state of abject serfdom. The British South Africa Company's Police, formed in the first instance in 1890 as an escort for the expedition, was modelled on the pattern of the B.B. Police, and indeed drew on the latter for some of its personnel. Among those who served in the Warren expedition, or the B. B. Police, or both, were Major (now Colonel) Frank Johnson, who commanded the Pioneers, his partners, Heany and Borrow—the latter one of the gallant

band that were shot down to a man with Allan Wilson at Shangani—and at least two who, having risen from the ranks in Bechuanaland, afterwards attained the command of the Rhodesian Force. The uniforms of the two corps were the same—tunic and breeches of corduroy of a bright yellow, resembling the hue of curry powder, a wide-brimmed hat of the 'smasher' variety, with a distinctive pugaree for each troop and the brim pinned up on one side (a fashion afterwards copied by dozens of British units in the Boer war), blue serge puttees, and bandoliers. They were armed with Martini-Henry rifles and had several maxim guns—a weapon which had not then been tested in action.

The occupation of Mashonaland was achieved without a shot being fired and the local natives appeared mild and friendly, but the police had plenty of duties to perform in the first year. One of the most severe was dispatch-riding. In the absence of any coach or postal service all mails had to be conveyed by relays of mounted men over the long desolate route to the South, and these journeys were always arduous and often perilous. During the unprecedented rainy season of 1890-91 there were only three intermediate stations on the whole route of 400 miles between Fort Salisbury and the border; the dispatch riders were frequently exposed to drenching storms and held up by swollen rivers, and had to bivouac at night in the open with the risk of being attacked by lions. Fever was prevalent and rations were scarce. It was entirely due to the heroic efforts of these police troopers that with the exception of a short break in January and February, communication with the South was continuously maintained.

Such constabulary duties as the police were called on to perform in those days were always on the grand scale. There was very little criminal work of the ordinary kind. The white population was small and law-abiding, and the officers of the Chartered Company were too much engaged in the spade-work of the new Colony to pay much heed to the thefts and quarrels of the natives unless they affected Europeans. There was sterner work in connexion with the protection of their own borders, and the police had to contend in turn with three attempts at interference by their neighbours.

In the first case there was an armed conflict between a small detachment of the B.S.A. Company's Police, under Captain Heyman, and a considerable body of Portuguese troops—mainly native levies—who attacked a frontier post on the Eastern boundary with machine guns, and were only beaten off after a sharp engagement. A few weeks later a party of some hundreds of Boers from the northern Transvaal made an attempt to invade Mashonaland from the South, but abandoned their intentions when confronted by a couple of troops of the Police with maxims.

The third incident was of a far more serious nature. The passive demeanour of the Matabele, and their apparent acquiescence in the intrusion of white men into their traditional raiding grounds lulled the Chartered Company and the settlers into a false sense of security. In 1892 the numbers of the police were cut down from 650 to 150. They were reorganised as a civilian force and scattered about in small detachments at the various mining camps and embryonic townships. For defence purposes the authorities raised a force of mounted volunteers, but no further armed encounters were anticipated and their training was not taken very seriously. The community had a rude awakening in the following year, when a large body of Matabele suddenly descended on the small mining township of Victoria, near the recognised frontier, and began their old game of burning the villages of the wretched Mashona, murdering all those whom they could lay hands on and driving off their cattle and young women as booty. The story of the war that followed is too well-known to dwell on. Dr. Jameson, the Administrator, raised a body of 700 settlers, including the reduced police force and many of the members of the original corps, one of whom, Major Forbes, was placed in command. With this handful of men Jameson marched boldly into Matabeleland, and after successfully beating off two determined attacks by the natives, occupied their chief town, Bulawayo, from which their King, Lobengula, made a precipitate flight.

Matabeleland and Mashonaland were then united under the name 'Rhodesia' and the corps reconstituted as the 'Rhodesia Mounted Police,' which, in 1895, numbered about

350 of all ranks. The authorities also made the rather hazardous experiment of forming, out of Lobengula's fighting men, a body of native police for constabulary work in the districts, while for purely defensive purposes they raised a new volunteer regiment with divisions in both provinces.

Towards the end of 1895 the majority of the regular police were withdrawn from Rhodesia and placed at Pitsani, a station on the Bechuanaland-Transvaal border, ostensibly to protect the new railway construction works. Just after Christmas the world was startled at the news that Jameson, the Administrator of Rhodesia, with a column composed of these and 200 of the B.B.P. which had been transferred to the Company, had made an unauthorised incursion into the Transvaal, and within a week received a further shock when it became known that he had been defeated by a superior force of Boers in an attempt to reach Johannesburg, where a plot was on foot to overthrow the Republican Government. Jameson was compelled to surrender and his officers and men were made prisoners. They were sent to England, but only the leaders were brought to trial, the remainder being released and allowed to return. The immediate result of this escapade was that the control of the police was taken from the Company and placed in the hands of the High Commissioner, but the effect of the Boer victory was seriously to injure the prestige of the Rhodesian troops in the eyes of the natives, who, three months later, broke out into open and bloody rebellion and massacred some hundreds of isolated white men, women and children before the local forces, disorganised by the withdrawal of their first-line troops, could be rallied for defence. Though the identity of the Police was for a time lost among the various irregular volunteer regiments raised to crush the revolt the members of the old corps were back from England in time to play a worthy part in the hostilities, and many of them distinguished themselves in a campaign which was marked by an unusual record of instances of individual gallantry. Mention may be made of one act of exceptional courage on the part of a police officer, Captain R. Nesbitt, who got together a few volunteers and dashed out to the rescue of a party of settlers surrounded by rebels at Mazoe, near Salisbury. For this he was re-

warded by the Victoria Cross—one of two conferred in the campaign.

After the suppression of the rebellion the police were once more reformed in three divisions for service in Bechuanaland, Matabeleland and Mashonaland respectively, with an Imperial officer in command.

Just before the Boer War Col. Plumer (now Field-Marshal Lord Plumer) was sent up to raise the Rhodesia Regiment for active service, and when hostilities began this was placed on the Southern border with a strong detachment of the British South Africa Police, one of whose squadrons was actually the first body of British troops to cross into the Transvaal. Plumer's force was afterwards moved into Bechuanaland, and co-operated with Colonel Mahon's column in the relief of Mafeking. Another body of the Police joined Lord Methuen's column operating from Bechuanaland. Two squadrons were maintained on active service throughout the war and earned a splendid reputation as fighters and scouts. In recognition of their conduct the regiment was honoured by receiving the King's Colour at the close of the campaign.

The outbreak of the Great War found the Police in a high state of efficiency and well fitted to sustain their reputation as a fighting force. Small bodies were at once dispatched to the German Fort of Schuckmansburg, in the Caprivi strip near the Zambesi river, which they captured. Many men were subsequently transferred to the newly formed native regiments either as officers or N.C.O.'s. The British South Africa Police Column (a body composed of European members of the Corps) won distinction under General Northey in German East Africa and on the borders of Northern Rhodesia. Among those transferred to the native contingents was Trooper (afterwards Captain) Booth, who was the second member of the Police to gain the Victoria Cross. About half the Corps were necessarily retained for police work in their own Colony, and with the assistance of a number of supernumeraries (mostly old members of the force unfit to fight in the active units) were able to control the native population and to maintain law and order during a period of great stress.

From the above record it will be apparent that the



AN ESCORT PARTY



ON PATROL
BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA POLICE

(See p. 440)

Rhodesian Police, though primarily a civil force, have as honourable a war record as any irregular unit in the Empire.

II. PRESENT CONSTITUTION AND DUTIES

The present strength of the European personnel of the Corps is about 500 of all ranks, of whom 360 are employed in the country districts, about 100 exclusively engaged on town work, and 40 specially trained for criminal investigation. In addition to these nearly 1,000 native constables, who do not carry arms, are attached to the various branches. When we consider that the area of Southern Rhodesia is about 150,000 square miles we cannot fail to be struck with the heavy responsibility resting on so small a body, but of course a good deal of the country is broken and mountainous, and the population, both white and native, is unevenly distributed.

The duties of a town policeman, though nominally of the usual description, are, in practice, complicated by the presence in stores, hotels and private houses of large numbers of native employees of various tribes, speaking many dialects, and with a fairly constant proportion of shady characters. A rigid system of passes is enforced and the movements of the resident natives, especially at night, carefully controlled, while a highly organised finger-print bureau enables the activities of the criminal elements to be kept under close surveillance. The work of this branch of the force is greatly facilitated by the engagement of educated and well-conducted natives, both for constabulary and detective duties. The white constables are also encouraged by a system of bonuses to acquire a working knowledge of one or more of the ordinary dialects, and their promotion to non-commissioned rank is made dependent on qualification in this respect.

The polyglot character of the population necessitates the constant employment of interpreters in the Magistrates' courts. For the more common languages of the country permanent interpreters are attached to the courts, but the Rhodesian community contains a sprinkling of orientals and settlers from different parts of Europe, besides natives from widely distant districts of Africa, including some from such far off countries as Uganda and Kenya. Consequently the work of interpre-



WEDZA POLICE CAMP



BARRACK ROOMS, HEADQUARTERS, SALISBURY
BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA POLICE

tating is often of a complicated and laborious nature. The writer remembers trying a case as magistrate where an Indian market-gardener was charged with assaulting one of his employees—a Swahili from East Africa, whose witnesses were a number of fellow-workers of various tribes. The Swahili's evidence had first to pass through an interpreter who could speak his language and the local Chisona tongue; and then, simultaneously through two others—one speaking Chisona and English, the other Chisona and the language of the Indian defendant. Similar devious methods were used for the other witnesses, and I think altogether six interpreters were at work during the trial. The difficulty of extracting the undefiled truth after it had filtered through so many channels may well be imagined.

The police engaged in the country districts have to deal with a scattered European population, mainly occupied in farming, and also with the indigenous natives, who far outnumber them. There are certain special crimes peculiar to the latter and more or less persistent in spite of the efforts made by Government to stamp them out. Such are the custom of destroying twins at birth and various other objectionable practices arising from superstition and connected with witchcraft. The bringing to justice of those guilty of offences of this type would often be impossible without the aid of native detectives, who have, however, themselves to be carefully supervised, lest they should be tempted, through excess of zeal, to adopt high-handed methods in the repression of crime. A gruesome case reported in a recent number of *The Outpost* which is the official organ of the Southern Rhodesian forces illustrates both the elusiveness of native criminals and the necessity for close control of their fellow-tribesmen employed to round them up. A native detective had been sent out to investigate the murder of twins. He had strong suspicions that the grandfather had committed the murder, and eventually the latter agreed to show him the spot where the twins were buried. On digging at the place indicated, without result, the grandfather confessed that he had made a mistake, and proceeded to take the detective many miles to another spot. This game went on for a period of nearly ten days, at the end of which time

the decomposed bodies were found in an ant-bear hole within half a mile of the kraal from which the search originally started. The native detective was so incensed at the way he had been treated that, having saved the heads as exhibits, he made the grandfather eat the remains! The facts were disclosed at the inquest, and thus ended the career of a zealous and promising policeman.

Taken as a whole, however, the native constables are a most valuable adjunct to the B.S.A. Police. They have an aptitude and special liking for the work and there is keen competition for vacancies in the force. The following letter from an 'educated' native is reproduced in facsimile in another issue of the same journal:

SELUKWE.

SOUTHERN RHODESIA,

Sir I have the honour to beg the apply If there is vancancy under in you Employment. As I wast at Gwelo Football Club. Since being thereby 1926 until 1928 at Sept. now as I like work of constable Police. I longing for starting This year If Sir allow me applied under in him.

Sir I have the Diploma To hoping to reply me my application.

Sir I have the honour to Get Stop this writing.

I am Humble

native Servant

H. C. K.

Apart from the detection of witchcraft and more ordinary offences the District Police are called upon to perform a great variety of extraneous tasks. The duties of Postal Agents and Pound Officers are commonly carried out by members of the Force. The inspection of licences, supervision of cattle dips and magazines, issue of permits for the movement of stock, compilation of jury lists and voters' rolls, escorts for specie, assistance in the collection of agricultural and other statistics, and of census returns are in their hands, while the vaccination of natives and the maintenance of smallpox and cattle disease cordons are undertaken by them when occasion requires. A recent invasion of locusts called for unusual exertions. Gangs of natives under police supervision were employed to deal with the pests in their early stages, hurrying from swarm to swarm and spraying them with arsenic.

Recruits for both branches of the police are engaged in the first instance for three years, at the expiration of which they may re-engage for continuous duty subject to three months' notice. Southern Rhodesia's small white population—about 50,000—cannot supply all the requirements of the Force, and fresh blood is periodically obtained from England through the office of the High Commissioner at Crown House, Aldwych. The rates of pay, which include ration allowance, rise from £150 per annum in the case of a newly-joined trooper to £240 after 10 years' service. Town constables are paid at a somewhat higher rate. N.C.O.'s receive from £260 (corporals on appointment) to £350 (Sergeant-Majors). Quarters, arms and equipment, saddlery, horses, forage, bedding, medical attendance and approved dental treatment are provided free; a liberal issue of clothing is supplied on attestation and an allowance made for renewals in subsequent years. All commissions are given by promotion from the ranks.

The newly-joined recruit spends the first few months at the depot at Salisbury, where, if destined for district duty, he receives instruction in horsemanship, animal management, bayonet fighting, mounted rifleman training, machine gun and revolver shooting, first aid, and law and police duties generally. Special attention is bestowed on musketry. Competitions on Bisley lines are held periodically and liberal money prizes offered for the winners. The depot training is supplemented by patrol work carried out by armed mobile detachments of from 50 to 80 men, which are sent out annually through various parts of the country accompanied by their own transport. By this means the recruit acquires a practical knowledge of *veld* conditions, and gains self-reliance. These patrols are also intended to remind the natives of the existence of a military force in their midst, for although a repetition of the native rising of thirty-four years ago is, now that the Matabele and other tribes have made such strides in civilisation, unlikely to occur, experience has proved that with South African natives one should always be prepared for contingencies, and such incidents as strikes, if not firmly handled at the outset, might assume serious dimensions and become a threat to life and property.

For patrol work, which often extends away from beaten tracks, the horse is still essential, but the rapid improvements in road construction enable more use to be made every year of the motor cycle as a means of transport. Motor lorries will probably play a corresponding part in the near future for the speedy mobilisation of bodies of police with their arms and equipment. There are still certain parts of the country such as the Zambesi valley whose rugged nature precludes the use of motors and where the prevalence of tsetse fly makes it impossible to take horses. Patrols in these districts have to be performed on foot, with native porters to carry provisions and kit. But these conditions are exceptional.

III. THE POLICE AS A CAREER

If service in the police of Southern Rhodesia is regarded as a career in itself it must be recognised that so small a force does not provide opportunities for more than a few to rise to the higher ranks—Inspectorships and the like. But regarded as a stepping stone to the Civil Service, or as a preparation for remunerative openings in independent walks of life in this young and progressive colony, the value of a few years spent in the ranks of the police—especially in the district branch—can hardly be over-estimated. Without cost to himself, and under the protective influence of discipline—a real safeguard for young men on first contact with colonial conditions—the police trooper has exceptional facilities for acquiring the experience essential to his future success as a permanent settler. His life is one of constant movement and activity. He is thrown into close association with established farmers, mine managers, the native population and the Civil Service, and has, ready to hand, the means of gaining an intimate understanding of the conditions of the country and of the ways and feelings of the people in it. If he can master a fair acquaintance with one or more of the native languages, and pass a qualifying examination in the local laws—for the practical study of which his daily duties give him every advantage—he has a good chance of admission to the civil establishment of the Government as a probationer in one of

the district offices. If his tastes incline him to an open air life he will find opportunities for cultivating the friendship and benefiting by the experience of the European farmers, most of whom welcome the chance of giving a helping hand to one who can in many ways assist them. Quite a number of the more prosperous men on the land in Rhodesia to-day have served their apprenticeship in the ranks of the police and these especially are ready to give encouragement and support to a novice who shows a desire to adopt farming as a means of livelihood.

Some will elect to remain in the force and qualify for promotion to a commission. They have the prospect of an attractive career in a corps of honourable traditions, composed of the best type of young Englishmen and Colonials. Their duties will be carried on in a healthy climate amid pleasant social surroundings and with ample opportunities for sport of all kinds. They will be entitled to regular periods of leave; and when they ultimately retire on pension they will not be too old to settle down on the land or engage in business, with all the advantages of mature experience behind them.

Traffic Control in Paris

By M. CHALLIER

Special Commissary, Traffic Department, Municipal Police, Paris

[Translated]

'TRAFFIC Control' includes the business of competent authorities to post on the public highway officers whose duty it is not only to look after the observance of police traffic regulations, but to intervene, apart from any actual violation, for the purpose of ordering, co-ordinating and regulating the flow of vehicles. It can therefore be claimed that this 'Control' is quite of old standing. As regards Paris, at the time of the creation of a Police Corps in March 1829, 20 (out of an actual total of 71) were appointed to carry out, under the orders of a Commissary and a senior constable, traffic duty at the twelve principal cross-roads of the capital.

A complete history of the traffic control systems employed would risk being too lengthy; and so, in order to bring the treatment of the subject within practical limits, I will confine myself to the examination of certain systems. I cannot do better than choose those which William Phelps Eno, in his recent book *Simplification of Highway Traffic*, has considered as the principal ones:

- (1) The Block System.
- (2) One-Way Traffic (*Le Sens unique*).
- (3) The Gyratory System ('Round-about').

I shall take up the first two, making only a rapid study of the universally known One-Way Traffic. I shall deal at greater length with the Block System in endeavouring to explain clearly the successive forms in which it has been applied to Paris.

THE BLOCK SYSTEM

The Block System, according to Mr. Eno, consists in alternatively stopping and starting vehicles at a street junction in such a manner that the traffic develops in turn in each of the roads. Partial stoppage—which is employed at a particular spot or at the moment when absolute stoppage is not necessary—consists in retarding individual vehicles or signalling to them to advance by means of hand signals, in order to facilitate their movement with the least possible danger and delay.

This temporary hold-up method is in its essence the French system. More than any other, it calls for intelligence and initiative from the man, but it offers more flexibility. It is the one which in view of the topographical irregularities of our City, has up to the present given the best results. The fact that it depends above all on the initiative left to the constable on point duty, is by no means in contradiction to the additional control provided during recent years by mechanical processes. When, with the main object of reducing the number of constables on point duty, the question of the establishment of apparatus destined to replace the command signals formerly given by hand or staff came up for consideration, the following general principles appealed to the administration.

In the first place, the signals whether visible or audible should be designed in such a manner as to reproduce the movements of the staff wielded by the point-duty constable with the help of a cycle of three movements, having for their object the alternative guidance of vehicles at a cross-roads. In the second place, no system of pure mechanical control should be employed, it being the duty of the manipulating constable, to regulate according to circumstances, the sounds and the times of lighting or extinguishing the lights.

It was in 1911 that the idea of mechanical signalling was first mooted at the Municipal Council of Paris. In a written report Councillor Emile Massard recommended this form of signalling on the following grounds.

1. Because there was not always a sufficient number of police officers on point-duty in the streets.

2. Because, lost in the middle of the stream of vehicles, they are not always sufficiently visible.
3. Because, finally, their movements are not always concerted.

He envisaged a system of automatic signals, actuated by a clock mechanism. (This automatic method was discounted by some because it would not allow for sufficient flexibility). He proposed, above all, that the signalling should consist of the mechanical production of the movements formerly made by the constable provided with the staff-signal.

This new idea did not materialise for a long time. In July 1913 a constructor submitted a project of an apparatus 'intended to signal automatically to drivers of vehicles the times of stopping and transit provided at cross-roads to facilitate traffic.' This proposal was not approved. About the same time 'Semaphore' trials were made and abandoned after a very short trial. In the month of February 1922 the 'Permanent Traffic Committee' expressed a view in favour of a trial of electrical or automatic signalling.

On the 8th December 1922 the first luminous signal was installed. It was an apparatus of the type of 'Beacon Light' (*Phare Eclair*) bearing the notice 'no road' (*Sens Interdit*) but having no method of illumination. I shall refer later to this apparatus in the section on One-Way Traffic.

As regards the 'Cross-Roads Lights' the first post, worked by electricity, was put into use on the 5th May 1923 at the cross-roads Boulevard Saint-Denis—Boulevard Sebastopol. It was an assembly of four 'Quantinet' type of apparatus, mounted on posts at the junction of each of the roads; each apparatus consisted of a luminous and a sounding signal.

The luminous post was double-faced and 35 centimetres (13½ in. approx.) in diameter. It was furnished with two bulbs of 300 candle-power and fitted with mirrors and red plate-glass and a parabolic silver-plated reflector. A warning gong completed the apparatus together with a mechanical-electric device with mercury balance and commutator fitted with spring stop-fingers. Though based on the general

principle of signals which had become public property for some time past, it was constructed in accordance with the Prefecture of Police (actually after the design of M. Guichard Director of the Municipal Police), this apparatus had its own special advantages.

As I have already stated, the essential point was to reproduce the movements of the staff wielded by the constable on point duty. To attain this object, there had been contrived a single combiner or commutator, revolving in only one direction, and bringing about the perfect execution of the three movements required for the alternate guidance of through vehicles without the slightest liability to error on the part of the human agent. The operator pushed a single lever across a dial plate; this lever had always to move in one direction as it could not be turned backwards.

First period. The red lights 1 and 3 are lit at places near to the corners of the roads forming the crossing North to South. The vehicles are stopped one metre behind the alignment of the fixed posts of the transverse road. Traffic is free on the road East to West. The traffic follows one of the three courses indicated. First of all, those turning to the right are ranged on the right-hand file; those turning to the left, on the left-hand file. All pass to the right of the central point of the cross-roads. (Figure 1.)

Second period. The ringing continues for some seconds. It is a warning signal. The vehicles engaged on the moving way which have not yet arrived at the crossing must slow down. Those stopped behind the barriers of the North to South road should be ready to start. The ringing having ceased, the red lights 2 and 4 are lit, but lights 1 and 3 are not extinguished. The vehicles are held behind the barriers 1 and 3 and are stopped at barriers 2 and 4. Vehicles in motion complete the crossing. (Figure 2.)

Third period. Lights 1 and 3 are extinguished. Lights 2 and 4 remain. Traffic is resumed in the Road North to South. It is interrupted in the road East to West. (Figure 3.)

These times correspond to a sequence of the following movements: Two red signals for one line of traffic; then four

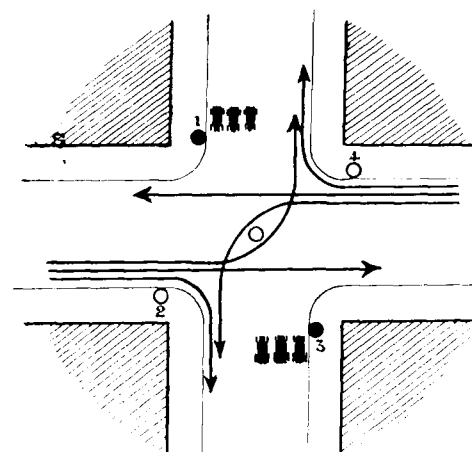


FIGURE 1

FIG. 1.—First period. East and West traffic in motion while North and South traffic is halted.

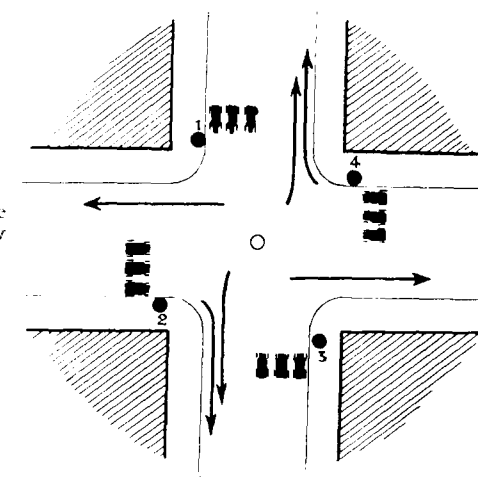


FIGURE 2

FIG. 2.—Second or intermediate period. All traffic temporarily halted.

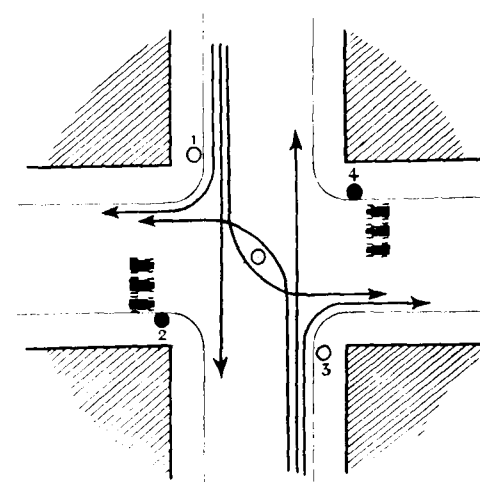


FIGURE 3

FIG. 3.—Third period. North and South traffic in motion, while East and West traffic is halted.

red signals accompanied by the gong ; then two red signals for the other line of traffic.

The essential characteristic of the system has never been modified. Some modification in detail has been made since 1923 in the apparatus, but the actual principle of the 'Control' at cross-roads has remained the same ; the same periods of movements, the same alteration of lights.

In the same way, up till the present, the other directing principle of the installation of 1923 has been preserved intact, namely, that of the non-automatism of the apparatus. In 1928 however a luminous automatic apparatus was introduced which was intended to ensure the alternative passage of pedestrians and vehicles at certain points of the public highway where no constable was stationed. The flexibility of this apparatus suggested to the technical officials who examined it the possibility of employing it equally at a cross-roads post on secondary crossings from which the presence of the officer was not excluded, but where it would be rendered less indispensably permanent.

Once the idea of signalling was admitted, a programme was elaborated, which permitted the survey, with the aid of apparatus, of the principal cross-roads throughout the great boulevards and of certain other important roads.

The basis of the projected installation was the independence of the posts in relation to each other. It was the logical preservation of a principle of which the application—as far as it concerned the control of traffic by one point-duty officer alone—had up till then given satisfaction. It was admitted that it was not intended to modify the movements formerly prescribed for users of the streets ; the mechanical signal would merely replace the gesture of the hand or staff. It was demonstrated on the other hand that the conditions of Paris were too diverse to apply exactly the same method to all the cross-roads.

However, experience has showed for some long time that, in the case of a small number of crossings very near to each other, a co-ordination in the execution of the movements was necessary in the common interest. That is why the idea came naturally, when the question of equipment of crossings with

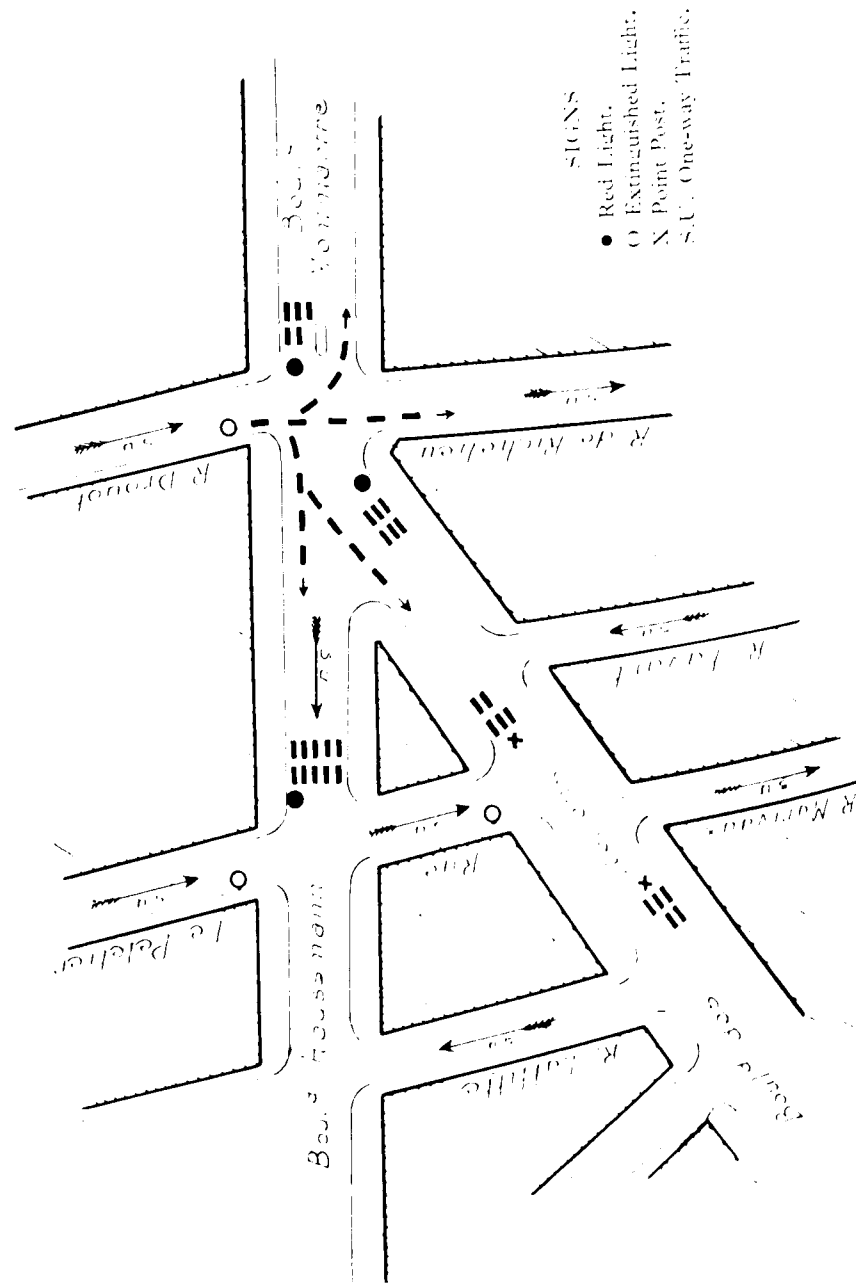


FIGURE 4
(see p. 453)

signalling apparatus arose, of connecting them, of coupling them. A plan instituted in December 1922 provided for a dozen posts. The most important of them, that of the Place de l'Opéra, was to be joined with that at the cross-roads Chaussée d'Antin—Louis-Le-Grand. Another coupling was provided, others were proposed. The first alone was put into practice. It was laid down that this connection should entail no interdependence; the post at the Chaussée d'Antin must be capable of being put out of gear without reference to that at the Place de l'Opéra and of preserving the freedom of its own working. The inter-connection of the two posts was not to come into effect except during the hours of peak traffic.

Even with these limitations the system rapidly revealed itself as too rigid and it was abandoned, the post at the Chaussée d'Antin regaining its own absolute and permanent automatic workings. It was in point of fact an experiment in partial synchronisation.

More complete tests of synchronisation were ultimately made.

The System of synchronisation was at that time in operation, and appeared to be giving satisfactory results, in various foreign cities. Members of the Municipal Council recommended that the experiment should be tried in Paris. A preliminary trial was made on the grand boulevards between the Place de l'Opéra and the cross-roads at the Chaussée d'Antin in the month of July 1925. Another was made in May 1927 at the cross-roads Boulevard Sebastopol—Boulevard Saint-Denis coupled on the one hand with the Rue Saint-Martin. Finally a third—and the most decisive—was made at the end of the year 1927 at the neighbouring cross-roads Boulevard Haussmann—Rue Drouot and Boulevard Haussmann—Rue Le Peletier.

OUTLINE OF A SCHEME FOR A TRIAL OF SYNCHRONISATION

The roads are divided into two groups according to their direction: (1) Boulevards Haussmann and Des Italiens; (2) at right angles to these roads. The stopping-times are regulated by the requirements of the most important crossing, the cross-

roads Drouot—Boulevards. The number of vehicles in motion during a given time at these cross-roads is four times as much as the number moving at the cross-roads Le Peletier—Haussmann and Le Peletier—Italiens. (Figure 4.)

The system of synchronisation implies that both one and the other of these roads (Le Peletier and Drouot) are, at the nearest cross-road, locked for equal periods. This means, that at a given moment, the number of vehicles situated in the upper reach (*bief*) of the Rue Le Peletier and the number situated in the upper reach of the Rue Drouot to the North of the Boulevard Haussmann, are in the proportion to each other of 1 to 4.

The experiment commences at zero hour.

At the end of sixty seconds the situation is as follows:—The vehicles have just finished clearing the cross-roads Drouot. At Rue Le Peletier, the cross movement is completed in fifteen seconds. The inference from this is that for forty-five seconds the traffic has been uselessly interrupted at the crossings Le Peletier—Haussmann and Le Peletier—Italiens. The same has occurred at the intersection Boulevards—Rue de Marivaux, at the end of which a stoppage has had to be made to ensure the clearance of certain vehicles arriving by the Rue Le Peletier.

Those vehicles stopped at Marivaux could have proceeded as far as Richelieu. A large portion of the highway has been momentarily unoccupied. The slowing down of the traffic is reflected as far as the Opéra and even beyond.

At the cross-roads Le Peletier—Haussmann and Le Peletier—Italiens, the vehicles would have been able to continue their route towards the 'Printemps' on one hand and the 'Opéra' on the other.

Finally, vehicles leaving the Rue Drouot to turn right are held up at the traffic points Le Peletier—Haussmann and Le Peletier—Italiens. For fear that the stoppage may be prolonged they return to the cross-roads Drouot—Boulevards, which they obstruct.

From these trials nothing has emerged beyond the acquired conviction that this system—which is actually falling into disuse in the very countries which were the first to adopt

it—could not be adapted to our irregularly constructed City, consisting as it does of unequal sections of roads bearing, according to the time of day, traffic streams of varying density. The 'Permanent Traffic Committee' definitely condemned the system at its sitting of the 23rd February 1928.

Among the experiments with which I have dealt, one was made under peculiar conditions, that at the cross-roads Sebastopol—Saint-Denis—Saint-Martin. The first of these crossings alone was equipped for mechanical signalling. Synchronisation was established between the apparatus on one hand and the officers on duty on the other, the latter regulating their movements from the lights and sounds, to ensure the guidance of traffic in agreement and simultaneously with the direction post :

It was ascertained :

1. That this agreement between the intersections of neighbouring streets must be indispensably assured, inasmuch as the facility of traffic guidance depended on it.
2. That the simultaneousness of movements ensured by a central post could not be effected ; that the release of traffic varied according to time and circumstances from one cross-roads or another.

It is on this basis that a system has been established and is in operation at many points in Paris between cross-roads whether mechanically equipped or not. It must not be thought that delays are synchronised by this system, as these delays are not always of the same duration ; it is a system of co-ordination. Moreover, as I have already indicated, this idea of necessary co-ordination occurred before the establishment of signalling. If I dwell on it unduly it is :

1. Because it is assisted and rendered easier by signalling.
2. Because it helps to give as exact an idea as possible of our method of traffic control at cross-roads.

To sum up. I consider that the principal characteristics of this process are :

1. Equality of movements executed at all cross-roads,

whether organised for signalling or not ; an equality due to the fact that the signalling apparatus has been devised to express exactly by the aid of red lights and sounds, the times of the staff-signals.

2. Independence of cross-roads in relation to each other ; co-ordination (but not interdependence) of some of them.
3. Non-automatism of signalling apparatus.

I indicated at the beginning of this article that our system could be embodied amongst those which Mr. Eno has studied under the title 'Block System.' (This name is not really used in France ; it is replaced there by the term *Coupures alternées* or 'Alternate Stoppages'). To classify it exactly I should say that it belongs to the category of the sub-system 'Independent' mentioned by Major H. E. Aldington in his interesting article on 'Traffic Control' which appeared in the number of *The Police Journal* for April 1929 (Vol. II, p. 193).

The first cross-roads signalling apparatus which was put into use—as we have seen—in May 1923 at the crossing Boulevard Saint-Denis—Boulevard Sebastopol, was an apparatus of the 'Quantinet' type, worked by electricity.

Some weeks later another apparatus of the 'Milde' type operating on somewhat the same principles as the preceding was established at the cross-roads Rivoli—Sebastopol. Other models were proposed and tried on the public highway. The differences existing between these various types depended mainly on questions of detail, particularly on the outward appearance of the lights. These differences soon manifested themselves unfavourably. Signalisation, in order to be well understood and observed, must be clear. The multiplicity and diversity of signals could not but embarrass the drivers. It consequently became necessary to proceed to standardisation.

In the month of January 1924, the proposal was made to abandon all the apparatus other than that which had been constructed to the specification of the Prefecture of Police, and a few weeks later this uniformity was achieved.

An official note dated 21st March 1925 relating to the

employment of signals, contained the following on the subject of cross-roads apparatus :

' Cross-roads apparatus has for its object the automatic regulation of the alternative passage of streams of vehicular traffic as well as vehicles and pedestrians at the cross-roads.

' They consist chiefly of beacons illuminated with red lights and electrically controlled by a combiner manipulated by a single Police Officer.

' The working apparatus is regulated so that the operating officer can never commit an error in the execution of the movements. Only the speed of the frequency can be varied. Under the eyes of the officer, a repeating apparatus showing the features of the cross-roads and the position of the lights, reproduces the successive lighting and extinction. The red light indicates a stop, the extinction opens the road.

' Interruptors connected to each beacon allow them to be isolated from the whole of the system in order that they may be able, according to the requirements of the moment to close or to open permanently one or several roads, all the others continuing to be alternately opened and shut by the operating apparatus.'

Since the establishment of uniformity of which I have spoken, the City of Paris has ceased to rely upon private industry for the furnishing of signalling apparatus. Arrangement have been made for the technical services to study and construct the designs which are now in operation.

For cross-roads lighting a modification was made in 1928—the original principle remaining the same ; the command post operated by a manual switch has been replaced by a press-button acting directly on a system of mercury balances. Further, the inscription ' Halt ' which appeared on the luminous beacons has been abolished. At the end of 1929 the City of Paris possessed 12 cross-roads post of light and sound signals, comprising 47 lights.

All systems of ' Control ' of traffic at cross-roads involve the necessity for the officer in charge to be in such a position that he should have as clear a view as possible of the cross-roads and the bordering roads. To provide for this requirement various processes have been employed, or are still in use.

I will not enumerate them and will only deal with concise points relative to the ' Mirador ' at the Place de l'Opéra, as this is both an observation and a command post.

In the year 1924 the Committee for the Utilization of Signalling Apparatus pressed for the raising of that part of the ground at the Place de l'Opéra occupied by the operating officer. In the following year, a proposal was made for a platform to be affixed to one of the lamp standards at a spot adjoining one of the central open spaces. The first trials were made in October 1927. The actual installation was effected a year later, having been delayed on account of aesthetic and other reasons. I shall not describe this apparatus, which compares with the ' Crow's Nest ' now being used, particularly in the United States.

ONE WAY TRAFFIC (*Le Sens unique*)

The first street used for One-Way Traffic in Paris was the Chaussée d'Antin. An experiment was made there during the course of the summer of 1909. The results having proved favourable the system was approved and put into operation by an Order of the 28th July 1910 which, according to Article 31, extended it to a certain number of other roads in the centre of the City.

I do not propose to make a critical study of the ' One-Way ' System. It would be equally superfluous to recall the reasons for its establishment or the results which it has produced.

I shall simply—for the reason that it enters into the scope of this study—examine rapidly what methods have been employed in Paris since their installation until the present time, to indicate to users of the streets the roads which they were prohibited to use. Originally prohibited roads were very few, being limited to an officer being placed near the entrance of the road, whose duty it was to send back drivers to the neighbouring parallel streets.

Developments made some years later through the idea of signalisation inevitably brought about the search for a more practical and economical method. In fact, the first signalling apparatus installed in Paris was an apparatus indicating a

prohibited road. We have already seen that it was installed on the 8th December 1922 at the angle of the Rue de Richelieu and the Rue Montpensier. It was a 'Beacon Light' (*Phare Eclair*) apparatus consisting of a box in the shape of an upright parallelepiped, the upper casing being composed of transparent glass. One of the lower panels was made of sheet-iron removable, or furnished with a closing shutter¹ bearing in sharply-defined letters the notice 'Road Prohibited' (*Sens Interdit*), behind which a sheet of glass streaked in red, received from a mirror placed in the box and inclined at an angle of 45 degrees, either daylight or artificial light from the lamp standard supporting it.

As in the case of cross-roads lights, a multiplicity of models of 'Road Prohibited' signals soon made their appearance.

Since the beginning of the year 1923, three other apparatus have been constructed. One, in the form of a hemisphere was operated by acetylene gas; the second, shaped as a half-cylinder, was lighted by electricity; the third, formed by a lenticular disc, also used electricity. All three carried an intermittent light illuminating the notice 'Road Prohibited' on a red background. The first was used in the Rue des Capucines at the angle of the Boulevard des Capucines in the month of April 1923. The following 26th May the second was installed at the Place Lafayette at the angle of the Rue d'Hauteville. At the end of the same year the number of one-way roads having been increased, they were provided, whilst awaiting apparatus, with a rapid and economical means of signalling, consisting of the fixing of a disc of red paper gummed on the panes of all the lamp standards on the side of the prohibited road.

It was not long before the 'Beacon Light' attracted criticism. Its insufficiency of lighting and of visibility was proved; and its abandonment was demanded at the end of the year 1924, the proposal being to replace it with one of the intermittent signal light systems already in use. This change was effected some months later; but, for financial reasons, a

¹ As the restriction of traffic originally existed only from 8 a.m. until 8 p.m., it was necessary to blot out, outside of these hours, the notice 'Road Prohibited.'

certain number only of the 'Beacon Lights' were replaced by 'Intermittents.' In most cases their places were taken by red discs mounted on posts, which were more easily seen and less liable to be broken. Many of these discs bearing the notice 'Road Prohibited' are still in use, but must disappear in the course of time.

From the beginning it was desired, in order that they might function with the best results, that the intermittent light apparatus should reach a frequency of 120 beats to the minute; 60 lights and 60 extinctions. The different types put forward were not capable of satisfying this condition.

On the other hand first one and then the other did not work well. As in the case of cross-roads lights, their uniformity was decided upon during the year 1924, and their construction was entrusted to the municipal officials. A model was created which consisted principally of a lantern of semi-cylindrical shape with red glass and bearing an engraved notice 'Road Prohibited.' This lantern was surmounted by a small red beacon which was lit and extinguished at intervals of a second.

Two years later, this model was replaced by another. This is the type of apparatus most recently installed. It is likely to be the sole type in use in the future. The mechanical system operating the intermittence is more strongly made and, especially in its arrangement, much more certain. It sets itself in motion if, from any cause whatsoever (such as short-circuit at the sub-station or contra-vibration to the pendulum movement) the clock should stop. But the greatest progress has been effected in the optical system. The glass or lens placed before the lamp is replaced by a red-tinted transparent glass, in the shape of a cupping-glass. The resulting signal is of great luminosity and above all can be seen very distinctly even when approached from the side. The good visibility of this apparatus and the fact, on the other hand, that drivers have become accustomed to signalisation, have resulted in the disuse of the luminous sign 'Road Prohibited,' which would have occasioned the doubling of the intermittent lights.

Towards the end of 1929 there were in use on the public highway :

1. 96 Intermittent Light apparatus ' Road Prohibited.'
2. 521 provisional ' Road Prohibited ' discs coloured red.

I cannot close this general description of the signalling adopted for One-Way Roads without pointing out that recently the suggestion has been made that the system might prove to be inadequate. All the signals which I have referred to are placed near the corner of the road on the side where access is prohibited. It has been thought necessary to place at the other end of the road a notice showing the driver the particular part of the road on which he may travel.

With this in mind trials of ground signals have been carried out. They have not shown up till the present any favourable result, the paint employed having lasted only a very short time.²

¹ The signalling system also comprises :

- (i) 6 Intermittent light apparatus ' Slow ' coloured green.
- (ii) 160 ' Slow ' discs coloured green.

² Trials have been made with instructions painted on the roadway, a method employed successfully in London and the United States. Their failure is mostly due to the erasure of the paint by metal tyres, which are much more numerous in Paris than in England or America.

A Rebellion in Burma

By W. H. A. WEBSTER, C.I.E.

Formerly Commissioner of Police, Rangoon

SINCE the annexation of Upper Burma in 1885 the Administration has had to face, from time to time, risings against British rule. Most of them have been pretty feeble affairs and easily crushed, and the one I am going to relate proved, in this respect, no exception.

To any one conversant with Burmese history and the character of the people it will be readily understood why such uprisings occasionally occur. The Burman is full of racial pride and is personally vain and credulous. There has never been a princely or ruling caste in the country ; indeed there was very little difference socially between the king and the peasant, and the historical tales of ancient days—part truth, part fable—in which every Burman is steeped by reason of the fact that they form the basis of the countless *pwees*, or dramatic performances, of which he is inordinately fond and which are acted in almost every village at times of pagoda festivals, teach him that the humble villager of to-day may be the successful usurper of the throne to-morrow and the founder of a new dynasty. The Buddhist religion, too, or at least that form of it which is commonly accepted by the mass of the people, teaches the doctrine of reincarnation. Finally, in the year 1910 of which I write, memories of the days of King Theebaw were comparatively fresh in men's minds ; and the absence of good roads and other means of quick communication permitted rumours to get a long start and a serious situation to develop before the powers that be became aware of what was happening.

One evening towards the close of the year 1909 in the little village of Pegu in the Sagaing District of Upper Burma a young man named Maung Than, accompanied by a friend, went

out at bachelors-wandering-time—to use the Burmese phrase—that is to say, about eight o'clock in the evening, to woo the maiden of his affections. The little village houses are built on piles, and the practice is for the lady to sit on the verandah or at a window and talk in low tones, lest the parents should hear, to the youth who stands on the ground a few feet below her—quite in the Romeo and Juliet manner. Well, on this evening Maung Than and his friend were whispering and giggling with the girl, smoking the while the *saybawlaik*—the whacking big cheroot of Kipling's poem—when a stray spark from the cigar set fire to the sleeve of Maung Than's cotton jacket. Laughingly they put out the fire, the friend remarking *let yo ga mee touk de*—'fire came out of his arm'—a quotation from a well-known *zat* or historical story, the *Zat* of King Kyanyittha, a famous king of Pagan in the long ago. The *zat* tells of a prophesy made at the death of this king that he would one day be reincarnated and that his reincarnation would be recognized by fire coming out of his arm. Jokingly Maung Than was teased by the girl and his friend and hailed as *Kyanyittha Winsa*—the reincarnated king.

Maung Than appears to have been a more than usually vain and credulous Burman—my own opinion of him when I met him afterwards was that he was not quite all there. Anyway, instead of dying a natural death the story got abroad in the village. Maung Than began to give himself airs, and a cunning old uncle of his, scenting profit to himself and the family, began to exploit him. The miraculous appearance of fire from his arm was dilated upon and other miraculous portents were hinted at. First the uncle and then the villagers began to pay exaggerated deference to Maung Than, who swallowed it all as to the manner born, behaving with more and more arrogance and addressing the villagers in the terms used by a king to his subjects, a form of address in which he was well versed through his attendance at pwes.

The next thing was to rope in the pongyis—the Buddhist monks of the yellow robes. There are thousands of these in Burma and every village has its monastery and its band of monks who may be seen every morning, begging bowls in hand, making their house-to-house visitation for the alms of

good Buddhists on which they subsist. Many of these pongyis are most worthy men who lead holy and ascetic lives and do much good, both by example and by teaching the children the scriptures and how to read and write. Many, however, are anything but good, and there has never been a rebellion in Burma without a pongyi or two being mixed up in it. In the country villages they still wield much influence, and through their study of the scriptures and the old historical writings they are steeped in the legends of the past.

Maung Than's uncle soon found a pongyi, sufficiently unscrupulous or credulous or both, for his purpose, and with the pongyi's blessing the movement gained impetus and the fame of Maung Than spread to surrounding villages. Offerings poured in and the family were on velvet. Weak-headed Maung Than became more and more above himself, and with the help of the pongyi, or rather pongyis, for more than one eventually became involved in the movement, *shwe pe hlwas*, or royal proclamations, began to be issued in which Maung Than styled himself *Minlaung*—embryo king—and made demands for adherents to his cause, with lavish promises of rewards to those who would assist him and threats of dire vengeance on those who failed. Many pongyis dabble in alchemy, and a belief that one can be rendered invulnerable against bullet or sword is very widespread among the ignorant peasantry; so before long many adherents flocked to Maung Than's camp to drink the *thit sa yay*—the water of allegiance—and to be tattooed by the pongyis and so rendered invulnerable against death or wound in battle.

The next step was to arm his followers against the Government, and Maung Than's advisers decided to attack the armed Police Station of Myinmu, some twenty miles away, where in addition to the usual Civil Police there was a detachment of some fifteen Military Police whose rifles they proposed to seize. A favourable date was fixed by the pongyis for the assault, and adherents to Maung Than's standard flocked in from far and near, quite a large contingent coming from the adjoining district of Monywa.

On the appointed day the 'army' set out and the progress was really royal. Maung Than, mounted on a pony,

was more arrogant than ever. Frequent halts were made and more and more villagers 'joined up.' Venerable pongyis were led away, and approaching the royal person with becoming deference were greeted with *Nga shwe myetna poo bo la thu la*—'have you come to worship my golden face'? Territories were allotted to the faithful to rule over when the victory was won; and, incredible as it may appear, the deluded Minlaung and his followers quite thought that with the capture of a few rifles there was nothing to prevent them driving out the British and setting up a new and Burmese kingdom.

The more loyal and level-headed *thugyis* (headmen of villages) were horrified at what was going on, and at the, to them, amazing disregard of the reports sent in that was being shown by the authorities. Fortunately the news of the advance on Myinmu was taken more seriously and the District Superintendent of Police managed to get to the Police Station before the 'army' attacked. This they did at dawn one morning and as by then they numbered over a thousand strong, armed with spears and *dahs*, with banners waving and heralded by the beating of war drums, they must have looked a pretty imposing sight to the fifteen or so Indian Military Police and handful of Burmans who formed the garrison.

Happily a volley or two from the Police Station, followed by a few casualties in the rebel ranks, begat a doubt in their minds as to the efficacy of the charms against bullets, and before long the 'army' had scattered to the four winds, leaving Maung Than and a devoted band of four or five in an unpleasant predicament. Hue and cry was made for them, they were proclaimed as outlaws, and rewards of 1000 rupees (£75) were offered for their capture. They dared not return to their villages and disappeared into the blue, and all trace of them was lost.

This was the position when on return from leave at the end of 1910 I found myself gazetted as placed on special duty to effect the capture of the Minlaung Maung Than. A twenty-four hours' journey brought me to Sagaing where after a consultation with the Commissioner and Deputy Commissioner, I was provided with an escort of Mounted Military Police and the services of certain Civil Police Officer

for whom I had asked, and pushed on to Myinmu, which for the time being I made my headquarters.

Off went my Civil Police Officers seeking news and, after many weary days of sifting information and of wild-goose chases, news at last came in which seemed more credible, and my party and I moved over the border into the neighbouring district on the south, Myingyan. There, not far from Sameikkon, a rumour was brought in of strangers hiding in a large tract of indian corn, and being fed from a small hamlet near by. A council of war was held and I determined to search the crop.

But it was in places ten feet high and covered many acres. To look for four men in it was like looking for the proverbial needle in a bundle of hay, and the noise of a search party would very soon reach the fugitives, if it was really they, and cause them to move. Eventually it was decided to summon the men from several villages, to the number of 800 or more, to surround the tract by night and at dawn to go in and search it thoroughly. Maung Than and his lieutenants were by this time in possession of firearms and it was expected that they would put up a fight. Plans were drawn up for all eventualities, and away went the headman to put them into execution.

Just before dawn I and a couple of *sowars* and a guide rode off to the rendezvous. All was still, and as I approached the cordon of villagers nearest me and saw beyond them the high and dense stalks of the corn I wondered to myself what would happen: whether the quarry would make a fight of it, and I loosened my mauser pistol in its holster in case they did, or whether they would bolt, and if so whether the villagers would stand their ground and prevent them escaping till I could get to them.

Alas! as I got nearer the stillness was broken by a confused hubbub from the far side. Dashing through the crop I emerged eventually to find a mob of excited villagers and to learn that five men—the fugitives without a doubt, and all armed with firearms—had suddenly appeared out of the crops and bolted through them. The direction they went in was pointed out; and dividing my forces we searched in every

direction throughout that long and weary day but without any success.

At last, tired and hungry and very disconsolate, my *sowars* and I reached at dusk a little village where we elected to stay for the night. The *thugyi* did his best for us and found paddy and straw for the ponies and a curry and a shake-down for me. In the morning at crack of dawn I prepared to set out again on my quest, but before doing so I summoned the *thugyi* and asked how much I owed him for his hospitality. With true Burmese politeness he protested that it was nothing and that I was welcome to it, but I insisted, and producing a ten rupee note told him to take it out of that. Seeing another way of escape, he vowed he had no change, to which I retorted that surely someone in the village had some money.

As we were arguing a voice came from the knot of villagers, who, muffled in blankets against the chill of the morning, were watching my departure, to say that one Maung Gyi had just arrived from the bazaar at Myingyan—the county town some twenty-five miles away—and doubtless he could change the note. Off went the *thugyi* to find him while I completed my preparations for departure.

On returning the *thugyi* gave me my change and added: 'Thekin (Sir), it may interest you to know that when I asked Maung Gyi for change he inquired what all the fuss was about and why there was a white man in this very out-of-the-way village. I told him you were seeking the Minlaung and thought he might have come this way. He said he knew nothing of any Minlaung, but that last night as he was driving along in his cart from Myingyan he met five men who stopped and asked him how far was it to Myingyan, and to his surprise he recognized one of them as Maung Pyu, an acquaintance of his from a village in the Sagaing District.'

Now Maung Pyu was the name of one of Maung Than's lieutenants; so, in great excitement, I sent for Maung Gyi a stout old Burman of forty-five or so, and made him repeat his story.

'Come on,' I said when he had finished, 'we will make for Myingyan,' and I ordered one of my *sowars* to dismount and give his pony to Maung Gyi.

'But, Thekin, I can't ride,' he demurred.

'There's a 1000 rupee reward on the head of each of those five men,' I replied, 'and if we get them through your information the reward is yours.'

Nothing loath, on hearing this, up he got and away we went on our twenty-five mile ride, I revolving in my mind what might be Maung Than's plans on reaching Myingyan. It was railhead, I reflected, and the more I thought of it the more sure I became that the fugitives would make first for Rangoon, where in a big city they could lie doggo till the hue and cry had weakened and they could move out with changed names to one of the innumerable villages of the Irrawaddy delta with their ever-changing population.

I knew there was only one or, at most, two trains a day from Myingyan to the south but had no idea of the hours of departure. 'Faster,' I cried, and disregarding the plaintive protests of Maung Gyi that he was bleeding to death on the hard Government saddle, we galloped on and at last reached Myingyan Railway Station only to find we were an hour late for the last train.

Here was a predicament, and I racked my brains as to what should be the next move. At last I decided to gamble on my belief that the fugitives would make for Rangoon and demanded from the stationmaster the numbers of all the third class tickets issued for Rangoon that day. He gave them to me, about a dozen in all, and I composed a wire to the Commissioner of Police asking him to detain the holders of tickets number so-and-so and so-and-so, and saying I believed the Minlaung to be among them. Then I went off for a bath and a change and to try to possess my soul in patience till next day when the reply would come.

In due course it came, to say that the Commissioner had complied with my wishes; that the holders of the tickets appeared to be most respectable men and included a pongyi; and that I was to send a man at once to identify as he couldn't hold them much longer. I sent off by the first train Maung Gyi and an officer who could identify the Minlaung, and then ensued another most tedious twenty-four hours of waiting. When at last a wire came I could scarcely bear to open it, and

when I did and found it was to say that the Minlaung had been identified and had split on his pals, my whoops of delight could be heard from end to end of the civil station.

In a day or two back came my captives, huge crowds escorting us, as, heavily manacled, the pretender and his misguided lieutenants were marched across the sandbanks to the steamer which was to take them to Sagaing, where, after a lengthy trial, they were eventually condemned to death. This sentence was duly carried out and several of the more prominent of the Minlaung's followers, including, I am glad to say, the wicked uncle, were at the same time sentenced to lengthy terms of imprisonment for their share in the conspiracy.

So ends this account of a Burmese rebellion. I have called my tale 'A Rebellion in Burma,' but my readers may think that 'Honesty is the best policy' would be a more appropriate title; for, if it be admitted that Maung Than's exploit was hardly of sufficient importance to merit its being styled a rebellion, it is also true that had I not insisted on paying the *thugyi* for my ponies' fodder the chances are that the Minlaung would have evaded capture.

THE QUARTERLY RECORD

PRESENTATION OF THE KING'S MEDAL

ON the 15th April (1930) The Secretary of State for Home Affairs, the Right Honble. J. R. Clynes, M.P., presented to Inspector John Peake of the Sheffield City Police, on behalf of His Majesty the King, the Gold Medal for the winning essay in the Police Gold Medal Essay Competition of 1929. The presentation took place in the Deputation Room of the Home Office, Whitehall, before members of the Council of the Essay Competition and some of the Police Council. The Right Honble. Sir John Anderson, G.C.B., Permanent Under-Secretary of State, Mr. A. L. Dixon, C.B., C.B.E., and others of the Home Office were also present.

The Home Secretary, in congratulating Inspector Peake, referred to the number of entries that had been received in the first year of the Competition from all parts of the Empire and to the satisfaction that he felt that these also represented all ranks of the police.

The Medal was designed by Mr. Langford Jones of the Royal Mint. A description and an illustration appeared in the January 1930 issue of *The Police Journal*.

The winning essay is published at p. 383 of the present (July 1930) issue.

LECTURES AT THE CRIMINOLOGICAL INSTITUTE AT VIENNA

ON the subject of the higher training of police officers, an indication was given, in *The Police Journal* of April 1930, of the nature of the instruction given at the University of Turin to advanced students in Criminology. Similar classes have been held at the Criminological Institute of the State Police in Vienna during the session 1929-1930. The following list of the subjects of lectures may be of interest to police officers elsewhere:

- (1) Criminology: symptoms and diagnosis of criminology, general and special characteristics, the technique of crime, the science of detection.
- (2) Anthropology, with special regard to forensic problems.
- (3) Finger-prints.
- (4) Study of handwriting.
- (5) Criminal tactics.
- (6) Biology of criminals.
- (7) General chemistry.
- (8) Technical chemistry for criminologists.
- (9) Photography and micro-photography.
- (10) Commercial knowledge and technique from the standpoint of criminologists.
- (11) Discourse on forensic medicine.
- (12) Psychology of the criminal.
- (13) Forensic psychiatry.
- (14) Economics: theory of banking and of book-keeping from the standpoint of criminologists.

PERSONAL RESPONSIBILITY OF POLICE OFFICERS FOR THEIR ACTS

THE mutual relationship between police officers and the authority responsible for the administration of the police force of which they are members has been much discussed in recent years. The very interesting judgment of Mr. Justice McCardie, delivered on the 11th of April last in the case of *Fisher v. Mayor, etc., of the Borough of Oldham*, has rounded off this discussion with a conclusion which is of great importance to all concerned—and amongst those concerned we include police and police authorities in other parts of His Majesty's dominions. The main question in the case was whether or not a borough police authority could be held responsible in damages for a tort committed by a constable belonging to the police force of the borough. McCardie J. decided this question in the negative. The facts were that the plaintiff who brought the action had been arrested and handed over to the Oldham police on a charge of false pretences. After he had been detained for several hours in a police station it was discovered that a mistake had been made and that the plaintiff was not the wanted man. He thereupon brought his action against the Oldham Corporation as police authority, claiming damages for wrongful arrest and false imprisonment. It was alleged that the Oldham police in causing and continuing the arrest and imprisonment of the plaintiff were acting in the course of their employment for and on behalf of the Oldham Corporation. It was this allegation which raised the real point in the case. Were the Oldham Corporation the 'employers' of the individual members of the borough police force for whose administration they were responsible?—in other words, did the relationship of master and servant exist between the police and the police authority so as to render the latter liable to an action of this kind?

In his extremely interesting judgment McCardie J. examined the evolution of the police force of Great Britain and traced the gradual development of the modern system of police forces, which, as he said, 'has closely evolved from the succession of officers of police who have, at different times and under various titles, maintained the internal peace of the Kingdom.' As the learned judge stated, it is clear from *MacCalley's* case (1611) 9, Coke's Reports, 68 (B) that a constable, watchman, or the like person, was regarded as a servant or minister of the Crown. He also referred to the oath which is taken before a justice of the peace by each constable of a borough force pursuant to section 19 (2) of the Municipal Corporations Act, 1882, and pointed out that this oath is not an oath to act as a servant of the Corporation but an oath that the deponent will faithfully discharge his duties as a constable for the preservation and enforcement of the law. Every constable possessed powers and duties which were exercisable by himself by virtue of common law or statute on his own responsibility, and in regard to the exercise of those powers the police authority administering the force to which he belongs had no legal right to control or direct his action. The following passage from the judgment of Mr. Justice McCardie will illustrate this point:

'Suppose,' he said, 'that a police officer arrests a man for a serious felony. Suppose, too, that the Watch Committee of the Borough at once passed a resolution directing that the felon should be released. Of what value would such a resolution be? Not only would it be the plain duty of the police officer to disregard the resolution but it would also be the duty of the Chief Constable to consider whether an information should not at once be laid against the members of the Watch Committee for a conspiracy to obstruct the course of criminal justice.'

Thus the police of the borough, though appointed by the local police authority and paid (in part) out of local funds and subject in other respects to local supervision and regulation, are not under the control of the local authority in the same way as a servant is under the control of his master. McCardie J. stated his conclusion thus:

'I hold that the defendants are not responsible in law for the arrest and detention of the plaintiff. The police in effecting that arrest and detention were not acting as the servant or agents of the defendants. They were fulfilling their duties as public servants and officers of the Crown, sworn to "preserve the peace by day and by night, to prevent robberies and other felonies and misdemeanours and to apprehend offenders against the peace."'

The learned judge also observed that if local authorities are to be liable in such circumstances for the acts of the police with respect to felonies and misdemeanours then it would indeed be a serious matter, and it would entitle them to demand that they ought to secure a full measure of control over the arrest and prosecution of all offenders. To give any such control would, in the view of the learned judge, involve a grave and most dangerous constitutional change.

This is the first English judicial decision clearly laying down the principle—based on the independent character of the office of constable under the common law—that a police authority is not responsible in law for the negligent or 'tortious' acts of officers belonging to the force which the authority administers. The decision shows that this is and always has been the law of England, and certain decisions of the Australian, Canadian and South African Courts—cited in the course of Mr. Justice McCardie's judgment—show that the same principle is recognized under the law of those Dominions; see *Enever v. The King* (1906) 3 Commonwealth Law Reports, 969; *McCleave v. City of Moncton* (1902), 32 Canadian Supreme Court Cases, 106; *Crickmore v. British South Africa Co.* (1921) Supreme Court Cases, 107.

Some police officers may think that the law casts upon them an undue burden of responsibility; but it is a burden which the police, to their great credit, have borne with dignity and patience. It has given them the status and authority due to the holders of an honourable office under the Crown.

INTERNATIONAL LAW AND THE DEPORTATION OF ALIENS

This is the age of International Conferences. Nevertheless, apart from certain important international meetings which raise big political issues or questions of national safety (as for example the recent Naval Conference), international discussions and conferences almost entirely fail to attract public attention. Few people are aware that for some five weeks during the early spring of this year a Conference on the Codification of International Law was held at The Hague in which as many as forty-seven nations participated. This Conference, convened under the auspices of the League of Nations, was the first of its kind ever held. Three subjects were discussed—nationality, territorial waters, and the responsibility of states for injuries to foreigners. The object of the Conference, which had been preceded by years of careful preparatory work, was to secure some measure of agreement as to what are the rules of international law governing these matters. The subject is not one which, generally speaking, police officers have any concern at all. Nevertheless, there are certain points of interest which may be mentioned. For example, in connection with the subject of nationality the obligations and duties of states towards one another in connection with the deportation of

aliens was a matter which came under discussion. Many police officers have had some experience of the difficulty which arises in cases where, after a deportation order has been made, it has been found impracticable to carry out the order because, on application to the consular authorities of the country to which the alien originally belonged, it is found that the alien has lost the nationality of that country and is a 'stateless' person. The loss of nationality may have resulted from continued residence outside his original country or from the issue of a certificate of discharge from the nationality of that country, or as the result of some more or less arbitrary deprivation of his nationality by the foreign state concerned.

An attempt was made at The Hague Codification Conference to agree upon some method of overcoming this difficulty. It was argued that, as every state is under a duty to receive back its nationals, international law should prohibit states from arbitrarily depriving persons of their nationality after those persons had entered another state. In the absence of some such rule it is obvious that states might (as in fact some states have done in the past) get rid of this duty to receive back nationals by a mere stroke of the pen. There was much divergence of opinion on this question, but ultimately a protocol was drawn up to the effect that if a person after entering the foreign country loses his nationality without acquiring another, the state whose nationality he last possessed is bound to admit him at the request of the state in whose territory he is if he has been sentenced in the latter state to not less than one month's imprisonment. The extent to which this protocol will remove the difficulties which have been experienced where it is desired to deport a stateless alien will, of course, depend upon the number of states who may be willing to sign the protocol.

CIRCUMSTANTIAL EVIDENCE

The conviction of Podmore on a charge of murder at Winchester Assizes, on March 8th last, naturally aroused immense public interest by reason of the methods by which, step by step, the circumstantial case for the prosecution was built up. The facts are so well known that we need not repeat them here. The special point of interest on which we propose to comment is the attitude of the public towards a conviction of murder secured by circumstantial or 'presumptive' evidence. The general public has a strong appetite for detective fiction and delights in the logical inferences, when presented in that form, which an ingenious author invites his readers to accept as a proof of guilt. Yet, when a foul murder has actually been committed, a certain section of that public shrinks from accepting the logic of circumstances presented in a court of law, however complete and convincing the circumstantial case may be.

The courts—we include juries as well as judges—have more faith in the value of circumstantial evidence. It is indeed a special characteristic of the administration of justice in England and throughout the British Empire that more weight is often given to circumstantial evidence than to direct evidence. This fact is one which reflects special credit on the police. Evidence such as that given in the Podmore case depends almost entirely on the police, and it is they who put before the court the facts and details which may ultimately establish (without directly proving) the case against the prisoner. It is the business of the police to be careful and accurate, and everyone with experience of serious criminal trials realizes that police evidence in such cases is more reliable and trustworthy than the evidence of casual witnesses who may be called to give direct evidence.

The general rule is that it is only when the direct and positive evidence of eyewitnesses cannot be supplied that circumstantial evidence is admissible. But circumstantial evidence should be 'such as to produce nearly the same degree of certainty as that which arises from direct testimony, and to exclude rational probability of innocence' (*Tichborne Case*, April 30th 1873, cited *Stone's Justices' Manual* 61st Ed. 236). That there are possible risks in relying upon evidence of this kind cannot of course be denied, but the risks such as they are can be avoided. It is the business of the presiding judge to warn the jury against those risks and in particular to be on their guard against accepting a theory as to the means by which and the person by whom a crime has been committed, if some of the facts proved (however unimportant they may appear to be) are inconsistent with that theory. Again, as everyone concerned with the administration of criminal law knows, there are certain elementary principles always to be kept in sight—such principles as those wise rules simply and cogently stated 250 years ago by Sir Matthew Hale in his famous 'History of the Pleas of the Crown':

'I would never convict any person for stealing the goods of a person unknown merely because he would not give an account of how he came by them, unless there were due proof made that a felony was committed of these goods.'

'I would never convict any person of murder or manslaughter unless the fact were proved to be done, or at least the body found dead.'

Through succeeding generations our system of criminal law has been developed under the influence of simple and common-sense ideas such as these; and loyalty to such principles has secured for it an unrivalled reputation for efficiency and fairness.

JUDICIAL DECISIONS

OBSTRUCTION OF THE POLICE IN THE EXECUTION OF THEIR DUTY

THE question of what amounts to unlawful and wilful obstruction of a constable in the execution of his duty, contrary to Section 2 of the Prevention of Crimes (Amendment) Act, 1885, is often one of considerable difficulty. In the recent case of *Webb and Johnson v. Chantrey*, which was heard in the Divisional Court in November 1929, some interesting observations bearing on this subject were made. The case was one in which a man and woman were charged with dangerous driving, and the man was also charged with obstructing the police in the execution of their duty. The Magistrate decided that although the driving was obviously dangerous, the fault could not be attributed to either of the defendants, as they had acted as they thought best at the time, and it was by a series of unfortunate events that the accident had occurred. He further held that, as no offence had been proved, there could be no obstruction of the police.

The alleged obstruction in this case was that the man had misled the police and pretended that he was the driver of the car when, in fact, the woman was the driver and he had only attempted to take control just before the accident.

The Lord Chief Justice, after quoting the remarks of Mr. Justice Darling in the case of *Bastable v. Little*, 1907, 1 K.B. (59), where he said, 'In my opinion if a policeman who is seeking information which might lead to the conviction of the perpetrators of a crime was wilfully misled by false infor-

mation, he would be obstructed in the execution of his duty,' went on to say, 'I think it is not possible to say that the learned Magistrate came to an incorrect determination, but I am bound to add that one of his reasons seems to me a reason very difficult to support; the reason is that upon the view he took the respondent could not do an act amounting to an obstruction of the police in the execution of their duty unless in fact an offence has been committed. I think it would be very unfortunate if a distinction were to be drawn between what a police officer is doing in making inquiries when an offence in fact has been committed and when, although the prosecution ultimately leads to an acquittal, there are grounds for believing an offence has been committed. When a police officer is making inquiries about the commission of an alleged offence it seems to me he is acting in the execution of his duty just as much in the one case as in the other. The question whether he is doing his duty cannot be remitted to an inquiry, How is this prosecution likely to end.'

Mr. Justice Avory, giving judgment to the same effect said that he agreed that 'the learned Magistrate was wrong in saying that there cannot be an obstruction of the police in the execution of their duty unless an offence has in fact been committed. I think the police may be obstructed in the execution of their duty when they are inquiring or endeavouring to ascertain whether an offence has in fact been committed: but on the facts of this case I cannot say that anything that was done by the respondent in this case amounted to an obstruction of the police; certainly an omission to volunteer information although, as the Magistrate says, it might be a failure to assist the police, did not, in my opinion, constitute obstruction.'

ROBBERY AND POSSESSION

The recent Judgment of the Court of Criminal Appeal in *R. v. Harding* (21 C.A.R. 166) is interesting on the question of the meaning and consequences of 'possession.' In that case the appellant was convicted of house-breaking, wounding with intent to disable, and robbery with violence. He and another man broke into a house, attacked and severely injured a servant maid and then demanded money and clothes. Under these circumstances the girl handed over a mackintosh belonging to her employer. It was argued that the conviction for robbery could not stand upon the ground that the stolen mackintosh was not the property of the person from whom in the indictment it was stated to have been stolen, namely the servant girl. The Lord Chief Justice in the course of his Judgment said: 'The question of law which arises in this case is whether it is true to say that this girl, being at this time the only person in the house, had a special property in this mackintosh so as to render it possible that by violence she could be robbed of it.'

He went on to refer to the case of *R. v. Deakin and Smith* (1800 East 2 P.C. 653) in which the property in spoons stolen from the boot of a coach was laid in the driver and in which it was decided that 'although as against his employers the masters of the coach, he, as mere driver, can only have the bare charge of the property committed to him, and not the legal possession of it, which remains in the coachmasters, yet, as against all the world, he must be considered to have such a special property therein as will support a count charging them as his goods, for he has in fact the possession and control of them.'

The Court of Criminal Appeal held that upon the facts of the present case it was correct to allege that the prisoners robbed the maidservant of the mackintosh, as she had at the time custody of it and a special property in it.

CROSS-EXAMINATION ON DOCUMENTS NOT PRODUCED IN EVIDENCE

In *R. v. Anderson* (21 C.A.R. page 178) the appellant, a practising medical man, was convicted of stealing stamps sent to him on approval. At the trial his character was put in issue and he was cross-examined as to whether he had not signed a statement upon dissolving partnership with another doctor in which he admitted dishonesty. He denied that he had ever made such an admission. The document referred to was expected to be brought into Court at any moment, but it was in fact never brought into Court. The Court held that counsel must not convey to the jury by suggestion or otherwise that there is in existence a document prejudicial to the defence unless he is in a position to produce that document in due course. They referred to Section 5 of the Criminal Procedure Act which provides: 'A witness may be cross-examined as to previous statements made by him in writing, or reduced into writing, relative to the subject-matter of the indictment or proceeding, without such writing being shown to him, but if it is intended to contradict such witness by the writing, his attention must, before such contradictory proof can be given, be called to those parts of the writing which are to be used for the purpose of so contradicting him: Provided always, that it shall be competent for the judge, at any time during the trial, to require the production of the writing for his inspection. . . .'

The Lord Chief Justice went on to say: 'Without such writing being shown to him' the Act says, not "without such writing being capable of being produced," and still less may anything be done which is likely to suggest to the jury that the writing is capable of being produced if it is not. Here it would seem, both from what was said and what was done, that it might well appear to the jury that there was in existence a producible original document in which, over his signature, the appellant had admitted dishonesty, when in fact no such document could be produced and when the appellant denied that his admissions, whatever they had been, included an admission of dishonesty. That state of affairs, on being established, would be sufficient to make it necessary to quash this conviction.'

The Lord Chief Justice went on to deal with a further point of interest that arose through the jury being ordered to retire from Court when he said:

'After a controversy had arisen in regard to this document, it was suggested that the jury should leave the box and that matters relating to this document should be discussed in their absence. That suggestion was not made on the part of the defence; on the contrary it was strongly and repeatedly objected to on the part of the defence. Nevertheless, the jury were requested to leave, and did leave, the box, and various statements were made in their absence. In other words, the matter was enveloped with an air of mystery and suspicion, from which it was at any rate possible that the jury might draw the inference that they had been asked to leave the Court because circumstances of a character damaging to the accused were to be discussed. It is difficult to imagine any circumstances in which, except at the request or with the consent of the defence, a jury can possibly be asked to leave the box in order that statements may be made during their absence.'

In the result the conviction was quashed.

REVIEWS

STRANGE COMPANY. By S. THEODORE FELSTEAD. 1930. 12s. 6d (Hutchinson).

HERE we have yet another book of criminal exploits gathered, so the author tells us, from various C.I.D. officers of his own acquaintance. The stories do not differ very much from others of the same type except that they cover a wider sphere of criminal activities, ranging as they do from confidence tricksters to the more spectacular 'Secret Service' adventurers so beloved by all who read sensational literature.

Although it is the latter stories which are the most spectacular—if one may use such a word—the tales about the doings of minor rogues who work confidence tricks on the unsuspecting public are by far the most entertaining, and, let it be said, the most convincing.

On the whole the book is very readable, but it is not very likely that a police officer will find much to instruct him therein unless he is making a study of contemporary criminological literature.

THE TRIAL OF COUNT KÖNIGSMARCK. Edited by the Hon. EVELINE GODLEY. 1930. 7s. 6d. (Peter Davies, Ltd., London.)

IN the right transept of Westminster Abbey, and at the back of the organ, there is a memorial of a recumbent figure with a cherub pointing to an inscription which states that Thomas Thynne was barbarously murdered on Sunday 12th February 1682. Below the figure is a plaque showing a coach and pair with three horsemen round it, one of whom is thrusting a blunderbuss through the open window.

The trial was of considerable interest at the time, owing to the strained relations between King Charles and his son. Some favour was shown towards the principal defendant, Count Königsmarck, which cast discredit upon Court circles. The Count, who was only twenty-four years old at the time of the crime, came of a famous Protestant family well known for its bravery and gallantry in Europe. He had the distinction of being a Knight of Malta, an honour never before granted to any one not professing the Catholic faith. He had boasted of furthering his fortunes by marriage with the greatest heiress in England, Lady Elizabeth Ogle, who was, however, married off to the unfortunate Mr. Thynne, a country gentleman with great possessions but no title. Three retainers of Count Königsmarck waylaid, and fatally wounded, Thomas Thynne in Pall Mall at Waterloo Place. Not long before the Duke of Monmouth had been in the coach with Squire Thynne.

The evidence of the various witnesses reveals a curious picture of the criminal underworld of the seventeenth century. Although the guilt of the Count was morally certain, it was not from a legal point of view clearly established; and his retainers may have gone beyond their instructions.

Interest in the case is furthered by the part played by the Duke of Monmouth in causing the arrests, and two of his 'officers' arrested the Count, who was only overcome after a struggle and, as one of the officers deposed, 'narrowly escaped being lynched by a crowd of water-side roughs.'

Although the three retainers were found guilty and afterwards executed, Count Königsmarck was acquitted, which served to avoid an awkward

situation and had the satisfaction of annoying the Duke of Monmouth and irritating the anti-Court Party.

The account is not presented from a legal or controversial point of view, and the historical and dramatic side is emphasized.

THE GREAT PEARL ROBBERY. By G. HUMPHREYS. 1930. 12s. 6d. (William Heinemann, London.)

THIS book justifies its claim to make a record of fact as entrancing as detective fiction. *Dramatis personae*: Grizard, criminal organizer, well known to be amassing ill-gotten wealth, but unassailable by the law: his burglar henchman: two unpleasant Austrians: a detective. *Mise en scène*: Hatton Garden with its reputable and disreputable dealers, and the seemingly unbusinesslike methods of both. Time, July 1913. The dealer, Max Mayer, has returned to him by registered post from his Paris agent his famous necklace of sixty-one rosy-coloured pearls: insured for £135,000, less than their value: he receives eleven lumps of French sugar. European interest aroused, but for one month no result. Enter two amateurs, lured by the £10,000 reward: their adventures and vicissitudes, first alone, afterwards supported by Scotland Yard and otherwise. Eventual arrest of the four miscreants but without the pearls: their trial and conviction, with two problems left unsolved—How exactly was the opportunity created whereby the Austrian, Silverman, abstracted the necklace?—Why six days after the committal of the accused were fifty-eight of the pearls in a match-box deliberately thrown away in an Islington gutter?

Mr. Justice Humphreys in his preface refers in particular to this second problem. What, he asks, is the explanation of the throwing away of the match-box containing the necklace? There is an explanation. Was it not possible that at the bus-stop where the match-box was found there were in fact a couple of patrols on pickpocket detective duty? Was it, further, not possible that these men were mistaken for those detectives who might be looking for the person who had the match-box; and that in sudden panic it was thought desirable to get rid of the incriminating evidence? Thus, in Hamlet's words, conscience doth make cowards of us all.

The book naïvely demonstrates the unwisdom of stealing pearls instead of diamonds, and the need that a liar, when dealing with crooks, should be an accomplished liar, besides the utility on occasion of offering a huge reward, the assistance the professional detective can derive from the clever amateur, and the advisability that the latter should call in the professional before the waters become too deep.

DRAMAS OF FRENCH CRIME: BEING THE EXPLOITS OF THE CELEBRATED DETECTIVE, RENÉ CASSELLARI. 1930. 18s. (Hutchinson.)

M. RENÉ CASSELLARI was for twenty years a Commissary of the Sûreté Générale, and enjoys an international reputation for brilliant detective work. He has set down here the record of a score of his cases, providing varied fare which includes bank and hotel robberies, train thefts, blackmail, motor bandits, the famous theft of the Mona Lisa from the Louvre in 1911 and a couple of excellent spy stories. The son of an English mother, he is proud of his ability to speak English almost as fluently as French, and one of his best stories is the tale of the 'Sinister Marquis,' an international crook, whom he defeated by assuming the rôle of a 'Piccadilly Johnny' in a tweed suit, with, as he says, no French worth mentioning beyond *merci beaucoup*—with emphasis on the 'boko.' There is no indication that the book is a

translation, and apparently M. Cassellari has written his stories himself in English. In any case, his literary style is clear and vivacious. Reading his recollections is like listening to a clever Frenchman talking of interesting things in excellent English whose charm is enhanced by traces of a French accent and idiom.

M. Cassellari tells us little directly regarding his methods, but he does not mention finger-prints, and he is evidently not one of those detectives, common in fiction, who get down on their hands and knees with a magnifying glass and a measuring tape directly they arrive on the scene of a crime. He says in his first story that without luck no detective ever achieved a successful career, and he refers more than once to 'what the English call the long arm of coincidence.' But he admits that he has a logical mind, and it is clear that he possesses also a lively ingenuity and a quick apprehension which little escapes. In addition his sense of humour and his appreciation of the comedy of life have enabled him to write a book which will give real pleasure to all his readers, quite apart from the light it throws on the mentality of the French criminal and the working of the French detective system.

REVUE INTERNATIONALE DE CRIMINALISTIQUE (Organe officiel de l'Académie Internationale de Criminalistique). 1929. 1930. (Joannès Desvigne et ses Fils, Lyon, France.)

THE International Academy of Criminology was founded in 1929, with Professor Siegfried Turkel, the Director of the Police Laboratory at Vienna, as Secretary. The medium for the publications of the Academy is the International Review of Criminology, of which Dr. Edmund Locard, the well-known Director of the Police Laboratory at 35, rue Saint-Jean, Lyons, is Editor-in-Chief. This periodical, which is now in its second year, has technical articles of a high standard and of value to the police officer. It also contains reviews of the contents of various journals dealing with criminology in Germany, Belgium, France, Spain, and elsewhere. These indicate how widespread are the periodicals dealing with medico-legal subjects. The Articles of Association of the International Academy of Criminology, which are published in full in the second number for 1930, should prove of interest to police officers in connection with international co-operation in the contest against crime.

UNIFORM CRIME REPORTS FOR THE UNITED STATES AND ITS POSSESSIONS. Vol. I. No. 1 for January, 1930, and subsequent Monthly Bulletins. (Committee on Uniform Crime Records: 261, Broadway, New York City.)

It goes without saying that criminal statistics based on a uniform system are essential to the police official in order to interpret the past, realize the present and make provision for the future. It is therefore interesting to find that it was only in January 1930 that the extent and incidence of known offences were for the first time compiled on a sure foundation for the United States as a whole. The first Bulletin for January covered 400 cities in 43 States with a population of 20 millions: in the March issue the registration area was increased to 541 cities in 44 States.

The movement to procure and analyse criminal statistics dates in America from 1871. The Bureau of the Census prepared, in 1927, with the assistance of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology, its 'Manual of Instructions for Compiling Criminal Statistics.' This formed the basis for a tentative Set of Instructions for 'Uniform Crime Reporting,'

prepared in June 1929 by the Committee on Uniform Crime Records working under the 'International Association of Chiefs of Police.' The starting point is the number of offences known to the police, and the object is to enable the real incidence of crime to be determined and reliable comparisons to be made. The term 'offences known to the police' include all crimes occurring within the police jurisdiction whether known through reports of police officers, or from information given by the public or by prosecuting or Court officials or otherwise. It is noticeable that motor-car theft forms one of the seven classes of serious offences to which the statistics are confined, the others being homicide, rape, robbery, assault and burglary. It is hoped that they will provide a satisfactory index to the volume, geographic distribution, and periodic fluctuation of crime. It is contemplated that at a later date annual compilations of persons charged with crime will also be collected, together with data from rural districts.

It should be remembered, however, in this connection that, as Sir Leonard Dunning, H.M. Inspector of Constabulary for England pointed out in his latest report for 1928-29, while formerly criminal statistics used to provide a general gauge of the sufficiency of a police force, nowadays much of the time and energy of the police are directed to matters which do not appear therein.

The International Co-operation of Criminal Police: Its History and Aims

BY MAJOR M. C. VAN HOUTEN, M.B.E.

Royal Dutch Maréchaussée

[Translated]

IN former days, crime and its prevention bore a local character. Neither the criminal nor the police could move quickly over very great distances, so that the struggle between the two was confined to a relatively limited area. The improvement and increase in traffic facilities during the last forty years have not only enabled the criminal to extend the area of his activities but have also given him the opportunity of more easily escaping after committing the crime.

The railway, telegraph, telephone, automobile, aeroplane, and wireless have not only revolutionized social life, but have also changed the nature and the methods of the criminal. The criminal has, however, certainly not failed to take the fullest advantage of the possibilities which these traffic facilities have offered to link up and maintain relations. Thus there has come into being a new class of criminal—the international criminal—who has even amalgamated into bands.

Though the frontiers of the various countries no longer constituted an obstacle to the criminal, the pursuing police were brought, however, to a halt there, and were requested to take any further steps through diplomatic channels. It is true that in urgent cases this rule was not, in practice, strictly adhered to; yet the rule was a serious obstacle to the international criminal. It is, therefore, perfectly natural that critics should have pressed for the greatest direct co-operation between the police authorities of the various countries.

As early as 1905, the 'Struggle against International

INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION OF POLICE 483

Crime' was taken up as Communication 4 in the Programme of the Tenth Session of the 'Union Internationale de Droit Pénal,' held at Hamburg in the third week of September 1905.

At the first Congress of the French Section of the 'Union Internationale de Droit Pénal,' held at Paris in June 1905, 'Practical Means to Assure the Repression of International Crime and Misdemeanour' was taken up as point three of the agenda, and an exhaustive report was made on the point by Monsieur Feuilloley, Solicitor-General to the High Court of Appeal, Paris. This Congress thereupon passed the following resolutions on this question:

POINT 1. Any criminal action against common law shall be regarded as international crime or misdemeanour, which shall have been prepared, facilitated, accomplished, or which shall have produced effect in different countries, even though the various actions which are the constituent elements of the infraction shall have been accomplished in different countries.

POINT 4. The French Section of the 'Union Internationale de Droit Pénal' suggests that an international conference be convened for the purpose of formulating the basis of a convention tending to the suppression of international crime and misdemeanour.

On the occasion of the Tenth General Assembly of the 'Union Internationale de Droit Pénal,' held at Hamburg in September 1905, speeches on this subject were made by Herr Lindenau, Berlin, Herr Hopff, Hamburg, Monsieur Feuilloley, Paris, and Monsieur Honnorat, Paris; whereupon the meeting passed the following resolutions:

1. As a result of the modern development of international relations, there has come into being a class of international crime, for the investigation and combating of which measures extending to all countries are necessary.
2. For this international action against crime, it is necessary to establish, in all countries of the world, central services; these services
 - (a) to be attached to the police authority of the capital of the country;
 - (b) to collect all information on international crime and to make a permanent mutual exchange of this information, not

Police Gold Medal Essay Competition

RULES FOR THE 1930 COMPETITION

1. The Competition shall be held annually and shall be open to serving members of regular Police Forces within the Empire or mandated territories. Any question as to the eligibility of any competitor shall be determined by the Council.

2. His Majesty's Gold Medal and a cash prize (of 30 guineas) will be awarded for the essay which is adjudged to be the best, provided it is considered of sufficient merit, and second and third prizes (of 20 guineas and 10 guineas respectively) will be awarded under the same conditions for the essays adjudged to be next in order of merit.

3. (a) Essays must be the original work of the competitor.

(b) Essays must not be less than 7,000 or more than 11,000 words in length, and must be typewritten and submitted in triplicate.¹

(c) Where a reference is made to any published work the title must be quoted in a footnote.

4. Essays must be submitted anonymously. Each essay must be accompanied by a sealed envelope bearing on the outside a *nom de plume* or a motto, and containing the competitor's name and address.

5. The Council may at their discretion appoint such persons as they think fit to act as Referees or Judges of the Essays under such conditions as they may prescribe.

6. The award of the Council shall be made public in such manner as the Council shall think fit, and any essays submitted for the Competition and adjudged of sufficient merit may be published by the Council in *The Police Journal* or otherwise.

¹ Note alteration from the 8,000-15,000 limits in the 1929 Rules.

SUBJECT OF THE ESSAY FOR 1930

The Training of Police ; the progress made in this direction in the post-war period, with suggestions for the future.

Essays must be submitted on or before the 1st November 1930, to—

THE SECRETARY TO THE COUNCIL OF THE
POLICE GOLD MEDAL ESSAY COMPETITION,

HOME OFFICE,

WHITEHALL,

LONDON, S.W. 1

EDITORIAL NOTE

WITH this number the editorship of *The Police Journal* passes into new hands. Sir John Cumming, who, in a honorary capacity, has so ably filled that position since the commencement of the *Journal*, three years ago, has had to relinquish it for reasons of health. We are glad to state, however, that he will continue an active interest in the affairs of the *Journal*, and that we shall have his advice to guide us in the future.

We have received from time to time suggestions and friendly criticism from police officers, for which we are grateful, and much of which we hope to carry into effect. From the January number onwards we shall endeavour to include a larger proportion of articles dealing with matters of interest in present-day police affairs, particularly in regard to questions which concern the Force in Great Britain. We shall welcome contributions of this kind, for it is obvious that, if this feature is to be emphasized, such a development must depend largely on the articles which our readers send us.

We shall continue to include articles of interest, dealing with forces overseas, not only because a considerable proportion of our subscribers are overseas readers, but also because *The Police Journal* is essentially an imperial, as well as a British periodical. And we believe that all our readers will wish to see retained a certain number of this type of contribution.

The January number will mark, accordingly, the beginning of a new stage in the history of *The Police Journal*. We have no intention of cheapening the appearance or the general character of the *Journal*, for we are convinced that it is necessary to maintain a standard which is in keeping with the prestige of a publication representing the police forces of the British Empire. But we appeal to our present supporters to bring *The Police Journal* to the notice of many more of their friends. We have done our best to make our existence known, by despatching prospectuses to those Chief Constables, Superintendents and Inspectors who undertook to distribute them. But a great deal more in this respect can be done personally by our readers. We still receive complaints from police officers that the *Journal* has hitherto remained unknown to them. And in this connexion we would point out that there is a form at the end of each number which can be torn out and sent to the publishers, so as to provide the fullest facilities for ordering the *Journal*.

We shall do all in our power to increase the circulation of *The Police Journal*, and to make it still more worthy of support. But we ask our friends for a special effort on their part to aid us in this work. We feel sure that this appeal will meet with a generous response.

only for the prevention of crime, but also in the interests of the aims of the suppression of crime; and

(c) to have the right of direct correspondence with each other.

(This latter facility would be equally desirable for the principal authorities charged with the pursuit of the criminal in each country.)

3. The material thus collected by the central police services would form the subject of a current scientific work, which will provide a broad basis for the future development of the action against international crime.
4. The 'Union Internationale de Droit Pénal' puts forward the suggestion that an International Conference be convened to the end of formulating a convention tending to the suppression of international crime and misdemeanour.

In December 1912, a German police conference was held at Berlin. Although the primary aim of this conference was to effect improvements in the German Empire, the question of international co-operation was also discussed. A speech was made on this subject by Dr. Harster, Munich. The conference finally agreed to a number of fundamental principles, of which para. 1 was as follows: 'Efforts shall be made for the attainment of an international agreement by which the large police authorities shall be given the right of direct intercourse with each other in cases of searching for dangerous criminals and in other important police matters.'

The first International Police Congress followed at Monaco in 1914. This Congress was attended chiefly by representatives of the French legal authorities and police, while Italy and Russia were also officially represented. England was not represented. At this Congress, the following problems were (*inter alia*) discussed:

1. The introduction of direct co-operation between the police authorities of the various countries.
2. The introduction of an international warrant for arrest.
3. The establishment of an international police H.Q. and an international flying squad.
4. The establishment of free postal and telegraphic facilities for police authorities in international intercourse.

5. The publication of an international police gazette.
6. The means of protection and defence for police officials.
7. The introduction of an international language for the police (Esperanto).
8. The utilization of the film for police purposes.
9. The introduction of an international personal identification form.
10. The collecting of personal descriptions, photographs, and finger-prints in a central office.
11. The introduction of an international register of criminals.
12. The introduction of an international police code for extradition.

In addition, the various methods of identification (Bertillon *versus* Finger-print) were exhaustively discussed. A detailed report of this Congress is to be found in the *Archives of Criminal Anthropology and Criminology*, vol. 58, 1914, edited by Dr. Robert Heindl (Germany) who attended the Congress.

The war brought a halt to these efforts towards international police co-operation. My endeavours in the autumn of 1919 may, perhaps, be regarded as a renewed effort in this direction. As the aftermath of the war resulted in a serious increase in crime, it struck me that it might be possible to reconsider the matter, although I fully realized that post-war international relations were not then favourable to my project. In December 1919, I sent the following confidential letter to the most important police authorities of the world:

EINDHOVEN, 10th December 1919.

DEAR SIR,

I wish to draw your attention to the following details.

Although one meets many people who are profoundly sceptical concerning the League of Nations, and even some who regard it as a Utopia, it seems to me that it might be well from now onwards to consider just how far this League—regarded as a great organization, having for its object the regulation of everyday life in time of peace—

would be capable of forming the starting point for international collaboration as regards the maintenance of order and security by the police.

If in some countries diametrically opposed interests hamper the institution of international regulations, it is safe to assert that this will not be the case as regards the establishment of the Police. That is why it is desirable, for, in my opinion, it is of first rate importance that the question of the Police should figure prominently among the many important problems which will be submitted for the consideration of the League of Nations.

It is, indeed, an undeniable fact that crime in general has increased. Moreover, this phenomenon has been equally noticeable in the past after every war. Many people have become depraved in spite of themselves as a result of having lived like savages during the war. Many a former soldier has abandoned himself to murder and homicide, brutality, theft, and loot. Even among those who have not taken an active part in the war, the number of criminals and offenders has increased in a marked degree. Many people who formerly held the law in respect have ended by coming into conflict with it, because they transgressed the laws and ordinances which were laid down as a result of the war, and have continued to follow devious and uncertain paths. Moreover, the increase of salaries for the duration of the war has created for some of them certain needs which have forced them to commit crimes and offences.

This has been particularly noticeable among those young men who, owing to the shortage of labour, have become familiar with pecuniary resources to which up till now they had been strangers. Moreover, the children of Service men have been obliged to pass several years without parental authority, the consequences of which cannot fail to make themselves felt. The war has given the criminal element the opportunity of learning foreign languages and of getting to know its way about foreign countries. All this has furnished many interests in common between different States, especially in relation to questions concerning the Police.

Frontiers nearly always constitute a difficult barrier in all police inquiries and investigations. Usually the collaboration of another country can only be obtained through diplomatic channels, which entails a great loss of time. Needless to say, malefactors do not fail to take advantage of this.

I feel justified in agreeing with the suggestion of the possibility of establishing an organization which would smooth away difficulties and at the same time favour collaboration.

I have no intention of outlining the complete scheme for such an organization, nor of visualizing all the problems which would have to be

solved. That would be looking too far ahead. I will content myself with giving a rough outline of a system which, in my opinion, seems feasible. A small beginning, based on a solid foundation of strict principles, would inevitably result in the full development of a good international police organization, and the collaboration between police organizations in different States.

It is to be remembered that, at Paris on the 18th May 1904, the Plenipotentiaries of the different States signed the International Convention which had for its object the ensuring of efficient protection against White Slave Traffic and on the 4th May 1910 they signed the International Convention regarding the repression of White Slave Traffic with a vote of closure.

By this means not only was an international organization created with the object of combating a special kind of crime—an organization with the obligatory task of reciprocal collaboration—but, by international agreement, rules were laid down to determine what cases were liable to punishment.

It is this organization that I should like to develop, so as to include all the crimes and offences which form the subject of the Extradition Treaties. Taking the first article of the above Convention as a basis, in the same way in every country an authority could be appointed responsible for collecting all the particulars, which might serve to prevent a crime or offence; in short, it would be necessary to establish a National Police Bureau in every country, charged with the duty of co-operating with similar bureaux in the other States and at the same time with furnishing to the International Bureau, described hereafter, all information required by them concerning the cases with which they are dealing.

In order that the collaboration should be as complete as possible, I would suggest that an International Police Bureau be attached to the Council of the League of Nations, forming a kind of supreme court, to which the national bureaux, already mentioned, should be subordinate.

In my opinion, among duties of the International Bureau should be:

1. To study the general situation in all countries.
2. To submit to the Council proposals having for their object the establishment of international provisions for the prevention of crime and the detection of criminals, in such a way as to ensure effective co-operation.
3. To give advice to the Council regarding future international regulations which do not directly concern the police, but on which it might be well to have their opinion.

4. To collect clues, descriptions, photographs, notices of convictions, etc., concerning international criminals.
5. To co-operate in tracing criminals who have probably left the country where they committed their crimes. To this end, the Bureau could publish a periodical International Police Journal.
6. To furnish information to the police authorities when required, either by drawing upon material already collected, or by making investigations elsewhere.

Perhaps it will be possible to take steps to bring into effect the scheme which I have already described. Before going any further in this direction I should be glad to learn the opinion of the principal Police authorities of the world, and I should be much obliged if you would let me have your views on the subject.

I beg to remain, Sir,

Yours very truly,

M. C. VAN HOUTEN.

Although I regard the answers received as confidential, I nevertheless now feel at liberty to state that my idea was given a sympathetic reception, especially by the Police authorities of the British Empire. The District Conference of Chief Constables of the North Eastern District in England, at its meeting held at Harrogate on the 12th March 1920, passed a vote of confidence in the ideas expressed by me. Nevertheless, my efforts would have remained a voice in the wilderness, had not Police President Schober of Vienna taken the initiative by calling together an International Police Conference.

At last, then, the idea expressed by the ' Union Internationale de Droit Pénal ' was to be fulfilled. Police authorities from many countries accepted the invitation to attend this Congress. Many important problems were discussed, a number of interesting speeches were made and various resolutions in favour of international police co-operation were passed. Thanks to the masterly guidance of the chairman of the Congress, Police President Schober, something permanent was finally achieved ; for the most important decision may be said to be the establishment of an International Criminal Police Commission.

The object and the statutes of this Commission are laid

INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION OF POLICE 489

down in the first decision of the Congress which reads as follows :

In the realization that the fight against international crime can only be conducted successfully by means of the close co-operation of the police authorities of all civilized countries, the International Police Congress, sitting at Vienna in September 1923, resolves to set up an International Criminal Police Commission, which shall commence its duties immediately.

It further resolves on the following Standing Orders for this Commission :

PARA. 1. The aims of the International Criminal Police Commission shall be :

- (a) the guaranteeing and development of mutual most far-reaching official assistance of all police authorities within the limits of the laws of the individual countries ;
- (b) the creation and development of all institutions suitable for the carrying out of a successful fight against crime.

PARA. 2. The seat of the International Criminal Police Commission shall be Vienna until such time as another city shall have been chosen for this purpose in plenary sitting.

PARA. 3. The members of the International Criminal Police Commission shall be elected by the present Police Congress, sitting at Vienna, in such a manner that each country shall be represented by at least one delegate.

The Governments of those countries not represented at the present Congress shall be invited to nominate their delegates.

In addition, all those candidates may be admitted to the Commission, from whom an effective furtherance of the aims of the Commission may be expected. The admission of such candidates shall be decided by the members of the Commission by a majority of votes.

PARA. 4. The leadership and representation of the International Police Commission shall devolve upon those functionaries to whom the leadership was transferred, either as Chairman or Vice-Chairman, at the last Congress or at the last sitting of the Commission.

PARA. 5. For the management of affairs, the Chairman shall be given a Committee of Management consisting of five delegates and a secretary. Two of these delegates, as

THE POLICE JOURNAL

well as the secretary, shall be taken from the police authorities of that country to which the Chairman of the Commission belongs.

The Committee of Management shall be elected from the members of the Commission by a majority of votes and shall carry out its functions until the next meeting of the Commission.

The Chairman shall have the right, in special circumstances, to appoint further delegates.

PARA. 6. For the purpose of business intercourse with the Chairman, the members of the Commission shall elect one correspondent for each country, provided that each country is not already represented on the Committee of Management.

PARA. 7. Proposals from members on subjects falling within the sphere of activity of the Commission shall be addressed in writing to the Chairman, who shall submit them, if necessary, to the Management Committee for action.

Decisions with regard to such proposals shall follow at a plenary sitting of the Commission.

PARA. 8. The Chairman shall summon the Commission to an ordinary sitting once a year. Simultaneously with the written invitation to the sitting, the proposed agenda of the sitting shall be specified.

PARA. 9. Resolutions can only be passed by a majority vote of at least one half of the members of the Commission.

In urgent cases, when the Commission is not sitting the Chairman shall have the right to take a vote in writing.

PARA. 10. Amendments and additions to these Standing Orders shall be made by the International Criminal Police Commission by a majority of votes.

A detailed verbatim report of the proceedings of this Congress has been published in book form in German and is to be obtained from the Police Directorate in Vienna at the price of fifteen Swiss francs.

According to Para. 8 of the Statutes, the Commission shall meet annually. At its first meeting which took place at Vienna in 1924, a beginning was made with the calling into being of institutions for the practical combating of the international criminal. Thus, for instance, what might be called an International Bureau of Criminal Identification and Detection,

INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION OF POLICE 491

with its various subsidiary departments, was founded. In addition, an international police journal was established under the title of *International Public Safety*.

This international police journal originally appeared in German, French, English, and Italian. Owing to the lack of English and Italian subscribers, these two languages were allowed to drop. It is to be hoped that the future will bring about a change in this state of affairs, and also that subscribers will be forthcoming from the British Empire, in which case publication in English will undoubtedly be resumed. In this journal are published: (1) Official announcements of the Commission; (2) articles on Criminal police matters; (3) announcements regarding 'wanted' criminals, with photographs, finger-prints, etc. These announcements are published gratis. The journal, which appears fortnightly, is to be obtained from the editorial offices of the "International Oeffentliche Sicherheit," Deutschmeisterplatz 3, Vienna 1, at the price of 55 Swiss francs per annum.

In the matter of the repression of counterfeiting, the proposal was put forward by one of the Dutch representatives, Mr. Broekhoff,¹ at the Congress in 1923, to establish in every country, a so-called 'Counterfeit Money Centre.' The same member also put forward a proposal for the foundation of a special paper for the purpose of combating counterfeiting. This now appears regularly in French and German.

Owing to various circumstances no meeting was held in 1925; but the occasion of the International Police Exhibition, held at Karlsruhe, was seized by the members of the Commission there present for a mutual discussion without any resolutions being passed. Nevertheless these discussions were of a very fruitful character.

In April 1926 another meeting was held at Vienna. At this meeting the International Bureau was extended by a number of new institutions (branches). Amongst other things, the International Telegraphic Code was definitely adopted, the composition of which had already been decided upon at the 1923 Congress. By means of this code, which has been very

¹ See 'The League of Nations and the Suppression of Currency Counterfeiting,' in *The Police Journal*, vol. ii. p. 10.

simply arranged, not only has a great saving in expense in international telegraphic communication been achieved, but secrecy has been guaranteed. It must, of course, be translated, but after translation is at once ready for use with any other country and within the area of each police authority. This code has already been adopted by 454 police authorities in Europe and by its means they are able to communicate with each other.

At the termination of the April meeting in Vienna, it was decided that an International Police Congress and also a meeting of the Commission should take place on the occasion of the great International Police Exhibition to be held at Berlin in the autumn.

In September 1926 the International Police Congress was held at Berlin and was attended by representatives from a large number of countries, within and beyond Europe. The Congress noted with great interest the activities of the International Criminal Police Commission and the resolutions already passed were unanimously approved. New proposals and ideas were debated and a number of resolutions were passed. The minutes of this Congress in the German language may be obtained from the editorial offices of the *International Public Safety*, Berlin. After the Congress the Commission again held a meeting for the purpose of discussing the results of the Congress and of determining the future plan of campaign.

At this time, in 1926, the International Criminal Police Commission was composed of representatives from the following countries: Belgium, Bavaria, Bulgaria, Bremen, China, Cuba, Danzig, Denmark, Germany, Egypt, Greece, Hamburg, Ireland, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Austria, Portugal, Prussia, Saxony, Spain, Czecho-Slovakia, Wurtemberg, Sweden, and Switzerland.

It gave great satisfaction to the Commission that the next meeting, held at Amsterdam in July 1927, was attended by one representative from England and two from France. The former country was represented by Sir Leonard Dunning, His Majesty's Inspector of Constabulary for England and Wales. On this occasion, also, the meeting occupied itself principally with the completion and improvement of the institutions

called into being up to then and in connexion with which a number of resolutions were unanimously passed.

Two of the important matters considered at the Berne meeting of 1928 were—the use of wireless wave-lengths for police purposes, and the systems of distant identification. An account has been given in *The Police Journal*, vol. ii. p. 166.

The large number of resolutions passed at the various congresses and meetings up to the present made it desirable that these should be collected in a handbook in a form easy of reference. This was decided upon at Amsterdam. This handbook has now appeared in German and is obtainable at a price of Mk. 2, from the Secretariat of the International Criminal Police Commission, Deutschmeisterplatz 3, Vienna 1. An edition in French is also being compiled.

Apart from the above-mentioned activities of the International Criminal Police Commission, what has been done on other sides for the furtherance of international police co-operation is also worthy of mention.

In 1925 Police Commissioner Enright, New York City, summoned an International Police Congress. This Congress was attended by a number of representatives from European countries. This Congress also naturally had its use, as it gave the participants the opportunity of establishing personal relations and of interchanging ideas. These meetings were thus a step in the right direction although nothing permanent was accomplished. As regards America, I consider the work of the International Association of Chiefs of Police of more importance for international co-operation. For the past twenty-five years this Association has had a central office, known as the National Bureau of Criminal Identification, established at Washington. On 1st January 1925 this central office was incorporated in the Department of Justice at Washington.

It should not be omitted to mention that in 1925, during the police exhibition at Karlsruhe, on the initiative of Dr. Palitzsch, President of the 'Landeskriminal amt' of Saxony, the German Criminal Police Commission was established in Germany. In this Commission, which meets twice in every three years, every German State has a representative. It would appear from the resolutions passed by this Commission, that by

this the foundation stone has been laid for an efficient co-operation between the police authorities of the various States of the German Republic, which at the same time forms the basis for co-operation with other countries.

In addition, the Ninth Congress of the International Penitentiary Commission was held at London in 1925. One of the questions on the agenda read as follows :

By what means can the struggle against that class of criminal known as the international criminal be rendered more efficient between the various States ?

The Congress passed the following resolution on this point :

The fight against those criminals known as international could be rendered more efficient, if the various States could decide amongst themselves to permit direct communication between the legal authorities and the police of the individual countries, with a view to accelerating means of pursuit regarding certain categories of crime, or with a view to obtaining information regarding dangerous criminals. Each country would have to nominate a central police authority authorized to communicate directly and in the simplest manner, with the authorities of the other countries.

Thus here again we have the same idea of co-operation.

In conclusion, the following may be mentioned : At the meeting of the International Criminal Police Commission, held at Amsterdam in July 1927, the German representative, Dr. Kuenzer, proposed that a special wave-length should be fixed for police radio intercourse and that this matter should be brought up at the International Wireless Telegraphic Conference at Washington in October 1927. The Washington Conference passed the following resolution on this point :

In order to facilitate the rapid distribution of information useful for the discovery of crime and the pursuit of criminals, a wave-length between 3,000 and 8,000 metres shall be reserved for this purpose in regional arrangements.

It may be mentioned here that this question of wave-lengths for police purposes was again considered at the International Criminal Police Conference held at Berne in 1928, to which reference has been made above.

The Sixth Conference was held at Vienna in January of this year (1930). The following countries sent delegates : Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Czecho-Slovakia, Denmark, England, Finland, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Jugo-Slavia, The Netherlands, Poland, Rumania, Spain, Switzerland, and Turkey.

The Conference commenced its labours by introducing a change in the statutes—a change rendered necessary by the altered condition of the ' Commission ' since its inception. The ' Committee of Management ' was increased to ten members. The question of co-operation between the ' Commission ' and the technical committees of the League of Nations was thoroughly discussed in all its bearings and in relation to many subjects. This was particularly the case with the question of measures to be taken against currency counterfeiting. The question was studied in connexion with the findings of the ' International Conference for the Adoption of a Convention for the Suppression of Counterfeiting Currency,' which was held in Geneva during April 1929.¹

The Vienna Conference called the attention of the Governments once again to Articles 12 and 14 and Recommendation IX of the Geneva meeting. These read as follows :

Art. 12. In every country, within the frame work of its domestic law, investigations on the subject of counterfeiting should be organized by a central office.

This central office should be in close contact :

- (a) with the institutions issuing currency ;
- (b) with the police authorities within the country ;
- (c) with the central offices of other countries. It should in each country centralize all information of a nature to facilitate the investigation, prevention and punishment of counterfeiting currency.

Art. 14. Each central office should, as far as it considers expedient, forward to the central offices of the other countries a set of cancelled specimens of the actual currency of its own country.

It should, subject to the same limitation, regularly notify to the central offices in foreign countries, giving all necessary particulars :

- (a) New currency issues made in its country.

¹ See ' The League of Nations and the Suppression of Currency Counterfeiting ' in *The Police Journal*, vol. ii, p. 10.

(b) The withdrawal of currency from circulation, whether as out of date or otherwise.

Except in cases of purely local interest, each central office should, as far as it thinks expedient, notify the central offices in foreign countries :

(1) Any discovery of counterfeit money. Notification of the forgery of bank or currency notes shall be accompanied by a technical description of the forgeries, to be provided solely by the institution whose notes have been forged. A photographic reproduction of, if possible, a specimen forged note should be transmitted. In urgent cases, a notification and a brief description made by the police authorities may be discreetly communicated to the central offices interested, without prejudice to the notification and technical description mentioned above.

(2) Investigation and prosecutions in cases of counterfeiting and arrests, convictions and expulsions of counterfeiters, and also, where possible, their movements, together with any details which may be of use, and in particular their descriptions, finger-prints and photographs.

(3) Details of discoveries of forgeries, stating whether it has been possible to seize all the counterfeit currency put into circulation.

Recommendation IX. That, pending the creation of an international office, as referred to in Article 15 of the Convention, the work of the International Bureau at Vienna, which was fully appreciated by the Conference, should be continued, with the greatest possible co-operation of the Governments : according to the information supplied to the Conference, the International Bureau, by centralizing information as to counterfeiting currency, displays an activity which is directed to the task which might be allotted to the organization contemplated in Article 15.

It was also decided to inform the Secretary General of the League of Nations that the ' Commission ' was of opinion that it was desirable to extend the work of the ' Central Offices for the Suppression of Counterfeiting Currency ' to include other securities such as share and debenture certificates, cheques, bills of exchange, stamps used as instruments of payment, etc. The Vienna Conference also decided on a closer co-operation with the League of Nations in the question of white slave traffic and illegal trade in drugs and narcotics.

It was decided to organize the international police publication in such a manner that announcements and notifications published therein should have full validity in a legal and judicial sense. Endeavours will also be made to discover in how far collaboration is possible with the Union of Jewel Dealers, in order to bring about more efficiency in dealing with international jewel thieves.

The question of the extradition of criminals was again deferred to a special sub-commission for further study and report.

A few changes of a purely administrative character were proposed and accepted by the Conference concerning the exchange of photographs and finger-prints of international criminals between the various countries.

The Conference decided to renew its endeavours to induce all Governments to join the international police wireless system, and this with a particular view to the introduction of the wireless transmission of photographs.

On the last day of the Conference elections took place for the Presidency and the Committee of Management. The Austrian Federal Chancellor, SCHOBER, was unanimously re-elected President. Vice-Presidents were chosen in the persons of NORMAN KENDAL (England), LOUWAGE (Belgium), MATKOVIC (Yugo-Slavia) and MENZEL (Germany).

The Committee of Management was elected as follows : DORNING (Hungary), DUCLOUX (France), Van HOUTEN (Holland), MENSEN (Denmark), LETO (Italy), MORA (Spain), VANASEK (Czecho-Slovakia), WEISS (Germany), PAMER (Austria) and SCHULTZ (Austria). DRESSLER (Austria) was elected as Secretary.

In conclusion, the Conference decided to hold an international Police Congress and the Seventh Congress of the ' International Police Commission ' at Antwerp in October, 1930.

The Edinburgh City Police

By RODERICK ROSS, C.B.E., M.V.O., O.C.B.

Chief Constable, Edinburgh

IT is my intention to confine myself to a broad general survey of the work of the police in the Capital of Scotland, and to endeavour to show how some of the problems, inseparable from the responsible task of protecting the public and their property, are dealt with by the Force under my command. Perhaps it will be desirable, at the outset, if I relate briefly the origin and development of the Force, and then give some particulars of its present composition and of the area over which it operates, in order that the scope and variety of its work may be appreciated.

The old-time police of Edinburgh, in the days before the Force under its present title was instituted by Act of Parliament in 1805, originated as a result of the inhabitants anticipating an English attack after the Battle of Flodden. At that time the Town Council, displaying a public-spirited regard for the welfare of the community, commanded the people to assemble in defence of their city. In this manner a kind of personal responsibility for self-protection was introduced, and each citizen was obliged to take duty in his turn. This system was known as *Watching and Warding*, but with the growth of the town was found inconvenient, and in 1648 the Town Council enacted that a body of sixty men should be specially raised for this purpose, and called the *Town Guard*.¹ Later this number was gradually increased, till in 1682 its strength had risen to one hundred and eight. After the Revolution of 1688, the Town Council, on account of the inefficiency of this Town Guard, re-introduced the old method

of *Watching and Warding*, which, however, became so unworkable that, in 1689, Parliament was approached for leave to raise one hundred and twenty six men for the defence of the city, and for permission to tax the citizens for their upkeep. This request was granted, and the corps continued for many years to perform the duties of watchmen, again under the name of the *Town Guard*. This venerable body, which was latterly composed of old Highland soldiers who, according to local tradition, spent most of their time in sleep, was reduced, on the introduction of the first Police Bill in 1805, to an officer and thirty men, who acted as a guard to the Lord Provost. This last remnant of the *Town Guard* finally disappeared in 1817, on the demolition of the Old Tolbooth, the lower part of which had been occupied as the Guard Room. The Edinburgh Police Act of 1805 established a uniform system of police over the whole of the city and suburbs, and a further Act passed in 1812 laid the foundation of the police system which is now in operation.

Coming to our own day we find that Edinburgh has an estimated population of about four hundred and thirty thousand, which during the summer months is increased to well over half a million. The members of this very important civic community are distributed over a wide area of city and suburbs, and their protection makes it necessary to provide men for patrol duty over a distance of no less than three hundred and forty miles of streets. The total strength of the force is eight hundred and seventeen, and the annual cost of its maintenance amounts to approximately £250,000.

At the present time the administration of the Force is directed from Headquarters, where the Assistant Chief Constable is responsible for the general supervision of the staff. He is assisted by superior officers in charge of departments dealing with criminal investigation, aliens' registration, traffic, lost property, training of recruits, and other branches of police activity. All persons charged with the commission of serious crimes are brought in the first instance before a senior officer on duty in the Charge Office, whose duty it is to make a thorough personal investigation of all the circumstances before any member of the public is deprived of

¹ See 'Scottish Police in Early Times' in *The Police Journal*, vol. iii. p. 86.

liberty. This practice ensures that serious cases, which might present difficulties to subordinates, are always inquired into by an experienced officer of high rank who is directly responsible to me for the manner in which this very important duty is carried out. This officer is also in a favourable position for a personal consultation with either the Public Prosecutor or the Procurator-Fiscal, if that course should be deemed necessary under the circumstances of any particular case. The advantages, to both the police and the public of this procedure in dealing with certain classes of cases will, I think, be obvious to everybody. Orders to departments at Headquarters and to Divisions are forwarded by my personal staff, which is under the charge of the Chief Clerk, who deals with all correspondence relating to the administrative, statistical, and financial work of the Force.

Edinburgh for police purposes is divided into five divisions, officially known as A, B, C, D, and E. Each has several branch police stations, and is under the control of a superintendent, who is responsible to me for the general efficiency of his officers and men. The duties performed by the uniform and plain-clothes officers are varied and exacting, but the primary aim of every constable is the preservation of law and order by the protection of life and property, and the prevention and detection of crime. The five divisions are divided for patrol purposes into districts, and the patrolling by uniform and plain-clothes constables is systematically carried out by an arrangement of beats into which each district is sub-divided. The length of time taken to patrol these beats varies from fifteen minutes to over an hour. In the outlying districts, where the necessity for constant watching is not so great as in the centre of the city, the beats are lengthened. A constable performs forty-eight hours' duty weekly, and obtains one day's rest in seven. In day-time his tour of duty may extend either from 6 a.m. to 2 p.m. or from 2 p.m. to 10 p.m. and at night from 10 p.m. to 6 a.m. It will be readily understood that it would not be in the interests of either the police or the public for me to describe in detail the methods employed in working beats, but every possible provision is made to safeguard life and

property. It would be too big a task to enumerate the duties which a constable has to carry out, but the following will give some idea of the responsible work performed by the uniform rank and file of a modern police force.

The police officer of to-day has to maintain the security of persons and property, to safeguard the public welfare in numerous ways, and to enforce Acts of Parliament, bye-laws, and regulations. He must protect the public against physical dangers; rescue lives in peril from fire and other causes, and render first-aid to persons injured or ill. He must preserve order in the streets and public places; arrest, or report for summons, all persons contravening the law. He must regulate traffic, one of the most responsible and arduous duties the officer in uniform is called upon to perform. Since no separate function of government can exist without co-operation with the others, the police officer must work in conjunction with the officials of other city departments, and he, therefore, reports insanitary conditions of streets, and premises thereon; pavements and roads needing repair; structural alterations to buildings; defective street lighting; burst waterpipes, gas escapes, or any and every irregularity which may be a cause of danger or annoyance to the community. The duties of the plain-clothes officers include inquiries for government departments; the suppression of brothels; and the surveillance over prostitutes and men suspected of living on the proceeds of vice. These officers are also concerned with the detection of offences against betting laws; the supervision of registries for servants and other employment agencies; the maintenance of registers of shops and reporting offences against Shops Acts, Early Closing Orders, Aliens Orders, Firearms Act, and the Dangerous Drugs Acts; and, generally speaking, with all complaints of any kind in which their position in plain clothes renders their service more suitable than that of men in uniform.

I have recently secured the approval of the Town Council for a scheme of re-organisation of the duties of the Force on similar lines to that of the decentralised system of policing which is at present in operation in other large cities. This

51
1/11/10-2, 122
N28.2

69304

sphere of activity to any populous centre. Accordingly, I find it essential to have under my command specially trained personnel to deal with the investigation of crime. In order to show that this department is organized so as to perform its work efficiently, I propose to refer to certain aspects of its activity in some detail.

Crime of every description is dealt with by the staff of the Criminal Investigation Department, and on receipt of a report at a divisional station that a crime has been committed, particulars are at once furnished to headquarters by telephone. A detective officer is responsible for making immediate personal inquiries, in addition to taking the necessary steps to have information circulated to other police forces, and, in cases of theft of property, to have descriptions of the stolen articles supplied to pawnbrokers, brokers, etc. If a criminal is suspected and his photograph is available, copies are forwarded without delay to the police of all those places where it is thought likely he may be found. Photographs, and impressions of the finger-prints of all persons charged with crime in the city are invariably taken. During the past year sixty-five persons were, by these means, identified as having been previously convicted of crime.

It is the practice in the Criminal Investigation Department to keep an exhaustive record of all criminals dealt with, and the General Crime Register now contains well over a million reference cards. This gives some idea of the importance of the record work necessary in this Department. The main object in establishing an efficient filing system is to ensure accurate and speedy localization of records. Nothing creates a worse impression in the mind of a member of the public than to inquire about a particular case which has been reported to the police, and to be told that no trace of the matter can be found at the time. It is not a pleasant experience to be compelled to ring up another force seeking information regarding reference numbers of correspondence, and indicating, incidentally, the absence of a satisfactory filing system. It is disagreeable too, when asking another police force if they desire the arrest of a certain individual, to be answered in the negative, and told that you yourself

should be in possession of a warrant for that person's apprehension under an alias. Fortunately such cases seldom occur but are instances of faulty organization which demonstrate the necessity for a periodical overhaul of filing arrangements and the introduction of up-to-date office methods. The attached diagram illustrates the different registers at present in use here, and it will be observed there is a definite connexion between one and another. This relationship is the key to the success of all record filing. If the numerous registers were not linked up with one another their accuracy could not be easily checked, and the benefit, which accrues from counter-checking by the employment of cross-references between the different registers, would, therefore, be lost.

The success of the system employed here is due to the painstaking care given to the tabulation of all criminal reports from the time they are first received by the Uniform Branch, until they are dealt with by the Criminal Investigation Department. What mainly ensures this success is the fact that all reports of crimes and offences affecting this Department are recorded on a special form which constitutes the basis of the Filing System. This combined form is practically self-explanatory, and the illustrations of the specimen cards show its essential features. Its use has reduced the duplication of record work, and moreover, its introduction has caused the discarding of cumbersome book registers which were difficult to maintain and index.

It will be observed that the form has been designed to enable its being used as a Crime Report, Offence Report, or Occurrence Report, and is issued in books of two hundred sheets, one hundred originals with duplicates. Counterfoils are provided so that divisional officers are in a position to retain particulars of all reports forwarded by their divisions to Headquarters. Each Division has been allotted a colour and the representative letter of the Division is printed distinctly in the top right-hand corner. Each book of forms has an alphabetical index to facilitate reference to counterfoil information. The main particulars necessary are indicated by sub-titles printed on the forms which are furnished in duplicate to the Criminal Investigation Department. The

should be in possession of a warrant for that person's apprehension under an alias. Fortunately such cases seldom occur but are instances of faulty organization which demonstrate the necessity for a periodical overhaul of filing arrangements and the introduction of up-to-date office methods. The attached diagram illustrates the different registers at present in use here, and it will be observed there is a definite connexion between one and another. This relationship is the key to the success of all record filing. If the numerous registers were not linked up with one another their accuracy could not be easily checked, and the benefit, which accrues from counter-checking by the employment of cross-references between the different registers, would, therefore, be lost.

The success of the system employed here is due to the painstaking care given to the tabulation of all criminal reports from the time they are first received by the Uniform Branch, until they are dealt with by the Criminal Investigation Department. What mainly ensures this success is the fact that all reports of crimes and offences affecting this Department are recorded on a special form which constitutes the basis of the Filing System. This combined form is practically self-explanatory, and the illustrations of the specimen cards show its essential features. Its use has reduced the duplication of record work, and moreover, its introduction has caused the discarding of cumbersome book registers which were difficult to maintain and index.

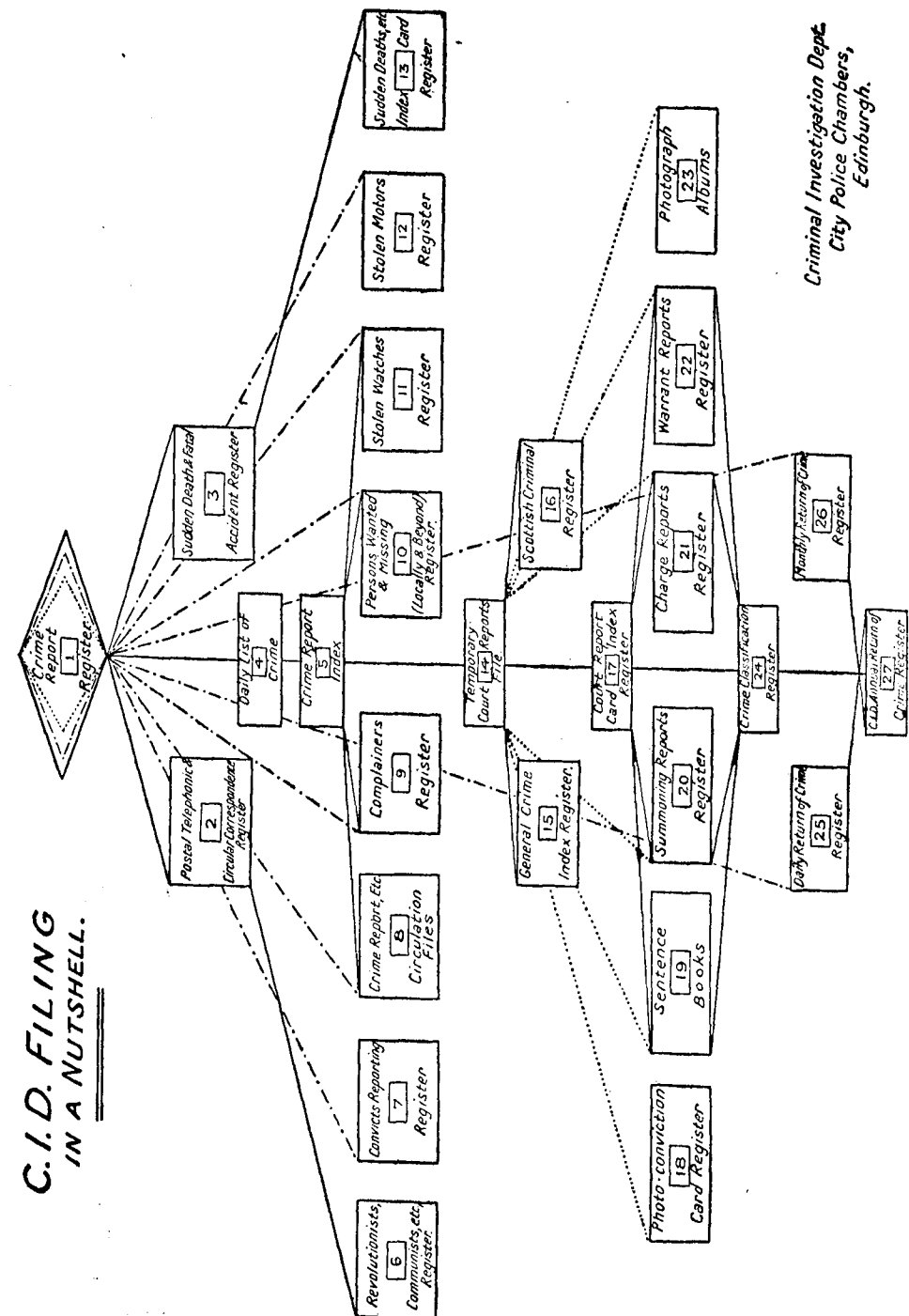
It will be observed that the form has been designed to enable its being used as a Crime Report, Offence Report, or Occurrence Report, and is issued in books of two hundred sheets, one hundred originals with duplicates. Counterfoils are provided so that divisional officers are in a position to retain particulars of all reports forwarded by their divisions to Headquarters. Each Division has been allotted a colour and the representative letter of the Division is printed distinctly in the top right-hand corner. Each book of forms has an alphabetical index to facilitate reference to counterfoil information. The main particulars necessary are indicated by sub-titles printed on the forms which are furnished in duplicate to the Criminal Investigation Department. The

original form is written in copying ink pencil or typewritten. Under the heading 'Particulars of Crime, Offence, or Report, &c.', a description of the offence is recorded in duplicate as briefly as possible, and all superfluous or irrelevant details are excluded, so to render it suitable for circulation by telephone from Headquarters to Divisional Stations. The original form, after the information it contains has been recorded, is passed to the Indexing Staff for classification and filing. It is ultimately filed in its divisional and numerical sequence. The duplicate form is passed to a detective officer, who on completion of his inquiry, records the result of the case in the space reserved for that purpose. In referring to report forms, officers quote :

- (1) the Division and Station at which the information was first received ;
- (2) the consecutive number of the report form, with year ;
- (3) the Division attending to the inquiry.

The various sub-stations of each divisional group have been arranged in alphabetical sequence and consecutively numbered accordingly. A report received at an 'A' Divisional Station regarding a crime committed in the 'B' Divisional district would, for example, be referred to as 'A6/179-26/B.' This crime report reference is used on every possible occasion, for instance, on circulars to other police forces. It has been found useful in leading directly to the original source of the information.

This method of dealing with crime reports works very satisfactorily. It causes the minimum of trouble to the staff, and is of distinct benefit to them by the absence of duplication of work, and the economy effected in time and labour. From the time a report is made out, until it is ultimately filed there is no subsequent duplication of its contents. It is passed from one officer to another, and on it are recorded the initials of all those through whose hands it has gone. It is a complete and self-contained record even to the extent of showing the particulars of a sentence imposed by a court where a conviction has been obtained. This Crime Report Form is the trunk of the filing tree, and supports



practically all the branch registers in the Criminal Investigation Department. It is the constant endeavour of the Detective Department throughout its field of operations to expedite replies to inquiries of every kind, and every endeavour is made to eliminate the possibility of unnecessary delay, by careful supervision and the methodical checking of the different registers. The question of an efficient filing system is very important, and it is incumbent upon every police force, irrespective of its size, to study this subject, forming as it does an essential element in the efficiency of criminal investigation.

I have touched only in a very general way upon many aspects of the work of a police force in a modern city, but I hope I have succeeded in showing that those responsible for the organization and maintenance of the forces of law and order, in this great community of the ancient Capital of Scotland, are fully alive to the importance of providing the public with a well-trained body of professional servants, the modern prototype of the old *Town Guard*, who are capable, as the testimony of many prominent citizens shows, of defending against all attacks the community they are proud to serve.

We have travelled a long way on the road of human progress since the days when the doughty burghers of old Edinburgh manned their city's walls in defence of the liberties of her inhabitants. There have been many changes in the past, and I have no doubt that the future will bring many more, but I am satisfied that the Police Force of Edinburgh will continue to retain the confidence of her citizens in return for its efforts to cultivate and maintain that all-important alliance with the law-abiding section of the public, which is the corner-stone in the edifice of an efficient police organization.

The Press and the Police

By LIEUT.-COL. J. F. C. CARTER, C.B.E.

Deputy Assistant Commissioner, New Scotland Yard

THE problem of maintaining relations with the press has given anxious thought to most senior officers at one time or another. Misunderstandings arise sometimes, and when they do they are frequently detrimental to the police. These misunderstandings are often due to partial ignorance of the obligations of each other; and the public, who can obtain their information only from the press, consequently form wrong impressions. The press is one of the best friends the police can have: every effort should therefore be made to work in close harmony with it, keeping in view the ultimate object of giving satisfaction to the public.

In the ordinary course of their work the police forces examine carefully every item of news which appears in all national and local papers, and note anything which may help them in the prevention and detection of crime or may furnish an indication of the views of the public on police matters generally. When publicity is desirable in the interests of criminal investigation, there is no method comparable with publicity in the press. Judging by the amount of space devoted in many newspapers to matters connected with crime, a helpful police may be of great service to the press. Against this, however, there are times when unsought publicity is detrimental to the course of justice. It is my intention in this paper to discuss the various points of view of both police and press, and to endeavour to remove certain misunderstandings, which are not only harmful to both parties but are damaging to the public interest.

It is the experience of all of us that a misunderstanding with a friend can frequently be cleared up by a heart-to-heart

police have a wider ground of complaint. Undoubtedly the public have a right to know how their life and property are being protected. But the police is a silent service and, as a general rule, cannot express its opinions in the public ear. It follows that if only one side of the picture is presented to the public, whether in the form of adverse criticism or undue praise, the public is bound to gain a more prejudiced impression than if the police were permitted to state their side of the case as well. Police officers sometimes feel that they have been treated unfairly when a newspaper publishes criticism of a professional subject without consideration for the views of the police expert. It is not altogether uncommon, for example, for the police to be discredited in the eyes of the public on matters connected with the administration of the law, when the fault really lies with the law which Parliament has enacted, or with the view of some of the public in regard to the administration of the law. When this occurs, there is a grave risk of shaking the confidence of the public in their police. Clearly the remedy is to represent the matter in its true perspective. The English conception of a constable has an historical background which extends over several centuries. The public, and the press too, are apt to forget that a policeman, when all is said and done, is a person who is paid to perform, as a matter of duty, acts which, with a few exceptions, he might have done voluntarily as a member of the community.

Another frequent cause of complaint of a general nature is that whenever there appears to have been some maladministration of the law or a blunder in the arrest of some person, certain sections of the press not only reprimand the individual failure, but proceed to an attack on the whole police force. On the other hand, when some exceptional crisis has arisen and has been handled by the police as an act of duty, the praise lavished on the police may be fulsome.

Let us all then remember that criticism of police methods may have a far reaching effect. The press can create public opinion. A force whose national or local reputation stands high can face the searchlight of public criticism without much change of attitude towards it on the part of the public. To cause the public to lose confidence in their police, and the

police to lose confidence in themselves with a resultant weakening of law and order, is too high a price to pay for unmeasured criticism; and a moment's reflection will show that such criticism may have a boomerang effect. The police do not resent criticism, and are as zealous of their duty to the public as is the press. No senior police officer will fail to deal fairly with the press when the press need his help in exposing, in the public interest, a service delinquency.

Let us now look at the reverse of the shield; what are the reasonable complaints which responsible organs of the press may have against the police?

In the smaller police forces contact with the local press is generally maintained by the Chief of Police personally; but in large forces something in the form of a Press Bureau is usually established; for many of the problems are frequently of national importance. From a police point of view the object of establishing a Press Bureau is to assist the press by concentrating available information and by elucidating matters upon which the press have misunderstood the police point of view, or have obtained information from irresponsible persons; and also to prevent the publication of information which may assist criminals or hamper the administration of justice, and which might be improperly disclosed by a subordinate officer. If the Bureau and the press are in sympathy with each other, especially on many points on which the police are misunderstood, the public will be better served.

Unhappily it cannot be denied that there are some police Chiefs who adopt an unsympathetic attitude towards the press. They regard the press as being the first people who should be debarred from receiving any information and look upon every representative of the press either as a person whose main object in life is to draw their subordinates away from the path of virtue or else to be deliberately inimical to the police. Sometimes it has happened that this ungracious attitude has been due to a previous breach of confidence on the part of a subordinate. In many cases, however, this suspicion of the press is unjustified and due to a narrow outlook or a misconception of the necessity for secrecy. It is self-evident that an increase in the spirit of mutual co-operation between a

Chief of Police and the leaders of the press would tend to a mutual understanding of each other's difficulties.

If it is granted that in some cases an unsympathetic attitude is adopted by the police towards the press, one explanation may be that this is due to the attitude sometimes assumed by a press representative in his hunt for news. It should be remembered that all police forces have a rule that no information can be given by subordinates without special authorisation from superior authority. From the police point of view such a rule is of course essential, and the penalties attached to any deliberate infraction may mean the ruin of the officer and poverty to his unfortunate wife and family. If a subordinate officer should have been led away to betray his trust, it may do considerable harm to the morale of that force; in any event it can hardly lead to a sympathetic understanding between the Chief of Police and the editor of a paper whose subordinate has resorted to such a method in order to better himself with his organization.

The complaints of the press against the police Bureau system would appear to be as follows. 'The police are too secretive and not sympathetic with the natural desire of the press to furnish the public with news. The police ought to be available to the press during the whole day and part of the night to suit the morning and evening papers and also the news agencies. There is too much tendency to pass on press representatives from one officer to another, either for the purpose of evading responsibility or on account of the apparent difficulty of settling in a police office who is the particular officer responsible for giving the actual details to the press. Frequently when the information is imparted by an authoritative person it is given in such a way that it is difficult for the press to use it as they would like. Police representatives are too frequently lacking in that essential to the press—'news sense.' There should be more co-operation between officers in charge of a Press Bureau and those undertaking the investigation of a case, so that the press are kept directly in touch with the latest developments. Pressmen have frequently to wait about for expected information 'shortly' coming in, and proper accommodation should be provided for them. In sudden emer-

gencies when press reporters wish to be present, as for instance a large fire, the scene of a serious crime, etc., although the press may be provided with press cards, the police on the spot are frequently considered to be unnecessarily obstructive. If press representatives do in fact endeavour to elicit information on their own, the reason why they do so may be an unnecessary secrecy and delays on the part of the police. There are occasions when secrecy is certainly not necessary, as for instance where a person is being charged or where an arrest has been made or where an accident has occurred, and some authority might be given to the local police on the spot to give information and assistance to authorised press representatives in minor cases. The above is, I believe, a fair presentment of the case for the press.

Having now considered the complaints which each side can not unreasonably make, one against the other, let us consider the relation of the press and the police from a detached standpoint. One problem which confronts the police is the rivalry in the press itself, with occasional allegations of preferential treatment. The only solution of this problem is that press and police should remember that the interest of the public is their chief consideration.

Nowadays 'the man in the street' in Great Britain is becoming more and more inclined to leave the police to deal with any wrong-doing, under the impression that 'it is the job of the police, they are paid for it.' This may be considered as evidence that the public are satisfied with the work of the police and are prepared to leave matters to them with confidence; but no police can do without the assistance and full co-operation of the public. The duty incumbent on the press of educating and informing the public correctly is highly important; but the press themselves have their duties as citizens: they are in a privileged position, and if this trust is abused the principal sufferers are the public themselves. It is a double-edged weapon which can react to the disadvantage of the press.

The press and the police are so closely brought together in this country, and indeed in all countries of the Empire, over the question of crime, that the point of view of both sides requires full consideration. The duty of the press subordinate

is to furnish to his superior any information of crimes which are likely to be of interest to the public ; consequently he must obtain as much information as he can at an early date and it must be furnished in a style which is attractive and interesting to the reader. The police, on the other hand, although having to act frequently on suspicion, have always to bear in mind that, if the case is ultimately to be brought to a successful conclusion, they must produce such proof in the form of sworn evidence as will satisfy the magistrate and the judge and jury. If the somewhat cold and uninteresting report of a police officer were printed as it is written, not much interest would be taken in it by the average newspaper-reader. A police report and the writing up of the case for the papers are on quite different lines. The pressman wants a story : facts are of course useful, but not always essential. He is not so fettered that he is prevented from expressing his views on the probabilities and possibilities of the case, except in so far as he must be careful not to render himself liable to an action for libel or the penalties for contempt of Court.

It is an understood thing between the press and the public that the identity of persons giving information to the press must remain anonymous if they so request. The editor has to accept full responsibility for the publication of any information given, and editors regard a pledge of secrecy as strongly as does a doctor in regard to his patient.

A newspaper must please its readers, and the public have a right to know what is happening ; but any fostering of an unhealthy appetite for morbid crime or any weakening of the forces of law and order is much to be deprecated.

In view of the interest taken by the public in matters of crime, it is worth while considering whether a portion of a newspaper might not be reserved regularly for matters on which the police seek assistance. Police forces have their own gazettes which are circulated amongst their own members and other police forces, giving information of people who are wanted, missing, and so on. These gazettes, which were first instituted by one of the early reformers of police administration, are of course extremely valuable ; but they are limited to circulation amongst the police. Whilst it would be impossible

and indeed unnecessary to publish all the material which the police are circulating day by day, there are certain cases which might properly be considered for public circulation through the medium of the press. Commercial firms utilise the press for their needs : why should not the police do the same as a matter of course ?

Rewards are sometimes issued by the press as a stimulus to the detection of a particular kind of crime. Police officers are agreed that in general this is not to be encouraged. Cases have been known in which individuals have preferred to seek the reward rather than go to the police in the first instance. If in any particular case a public spirited citizen or the press considers that a reward would hasten the detection of any particular crime, it is preferable that the proposal should be brought to the notice of the police in the first instance, and that the notification should be issued by the police themselves. Monetary rewards are usually taken to be a sign of inefficiency on the part of the police or of a lack of their sense of public duty. The system of rewards for detecting criminals preceded the organization of the police by centuries, and it arose from the lack of an organized police no less than from the inefficiency of the watch ; but it usually led to more harm than good.

In conclusion I would suggest that if there is to be better co-operation between the press and the police, then certain reforms are required on both sides. The press representative should have more than a superficial knowledge of police duties and of the law ; a little elementary knowledge of the powers of arrest and of the occasions when the police have no power to act ; and some knowledge of the laws of evidence. Two or three weeks' attendance at a police school, with visits to police stations and headquarters so as to get some knowledge of the varied duties which both the uniform men and the detectives have to perform is desirable. A junior reporter would learn enough in this way to know when to avoid danger and when to refer matters to those in a position to advise further.

The police on their part should endeavour to remove the antipathy that is apt to exist against the press. Clear instructions should be imparted to the higher grades of officers to give every assistance to the press in certain classes of offences and

occurrences, and it should be made clear that assistance to the press in many cases is of the greatest value to the police themselves. The press should be treated as a close ally.

The police force is a body of men (and of women) subject to discipline, and slackness and disobedience to orders are promptly dealt with. In the press likewise the subordinates of a newspaper presumably have explicit orders. It remains for the heads of both organizations to see that their respective orders for mutual co-operation and assistance are properly carried into effect.

Crime in Northern Rhodesia

BY LIEUT.-COL. A. STEPHENSON, C.M.G., D.S.O., M.C.

Formerly Commandant, Northern Rhodesia Police

IN a colony of such recent birth as Northern Rhodesia it must be that crime amongst the aboriginal inhabitants shows some features that are absent in older established countries; and it is necessary to preface any remarks regarding crime amongst natives by the statement that Northern Rhodesia was occupied by Europeans only about thirty years ago, and up to about twenty years ago there were very few areas which were sufficiently settled to make it possible for a native to contravene local statutes.

Most of the crimes committed by natives can be divided into three main classes as follows :—

- (a) Offences against local statutory laws.
- (b) Larceny in its various forms, but mostly of a petty nature.
- (c) Offences which are mainly the result of tribal customs and habits.

The first category is one of which it might almost be said that the native sins rather less than he is sinned against, or, at any rate, he is frequently an innocent offender. The very necessary and numerous local laws in reference to such matters as the brewing and sale of beer, sanitation, passes, curfew, cattle movement, etc., have forced those natives who live in urban areas to adopt a standard of living which is foreign to them in many respects. It is therefore inevitable that numerous cases of contravention of these more or less minor laws must occur and thus swell the annual record of crime. It is impossible in the course of a few years to educate the primitive native to such a point that he can realize the importance of proper sanitation and similar matters. Again, from time immemorial he has

drunk his home-brewed beer on every suitable occasion (and practically every day is a suitable occasion!). He therefore finds some difficulty in appreciating any form of prohibition in town areas, though the restrictions are tempered by the provision of properly supervised beer halls and canteens. Again, in an urban area a native must not be out after nine in the evening unless carrying a pass from his employer, whereas in his own village he may be abroad all night with only the fear of wild beasts to induce him to seek the shelter of his own hut.

While the multiplicity of such laws must necessarily be difficult of comprehension to the native mind, they are very essential to the well-being of a mixed community, and they are soon understood by the native. It must be admitted, however, that this class of law does account for a very large percentage of the cases which are brought before the Courts. The punishments inflicted in these cases are usually light and of a cautionary nature.

Under the heading of larceny it would be untrue to say that this crime did not exist before the advent of the white man, but it would certainly be true to state that it did not exist to its present extent or in its present form. In the days of pre-European occupation protection of native property was very difficult and often impossible, as locks were unknown, fields were (and still are) unprotected by fences, and crops were often stored at some distance from the villages. Generally speaking, persons of one tribe would not steal from those of the same tribe; and as a travelling stranger would receive hospitality and food on his journey, there was little need for him to steal *en route*. Property was practically limited to cattle, crops, and minor personal effects such as skins, guns, spears, pots, etc., and as these articles were in actual use or under close observation theft was not easy. Nowadays the labourer returns from the mines and other places with cash, clothing, blankets, knives, cloths and other easily portable effects; and this accumulation of property has certainly resulted in the increase of thefts, which are made more easy by the greater facility for travel now readily available in the form of trains, cars and bicycles. It is probable that the old native custom of refraining from stealing from another

friendly native still holds good to a large extent. Whether this is due to the fear of easier detection or whether it is a survival of native custom it is impossible to say, but it is certain that the temptation to steal from, say, a native garden is far more easily resisted than the temptation for the same native to help himself from a European farmer's crops or grain stack! The fact is clear that the property of the European is not always treated as being that of the 'stranger within the gates' but is fair game to a certain section of the natives who would hesitate to act similarly to members of their own village or tribe.

It must be admitted, on the other hand, that the average European is not particularly careful in protecting his property, and it is the exception, rather than the rule, for the white man to lock up his house or his personal property during short absences.

While not in entire agreement with the views of a well-known authority on criminal matters that there is no such thing as a 'criminal type,' it seems clear that such a type is either rare or is actually non-existent in Northern Rhodesia. There is, however, an increasing number of the 'criminal class' who will, unless checked, become a growing menace to the community. This class consists of a small number of the more intelligent natives who often have some little smattering of education and are able to prey on their more ignorant brothers. They are the card-sharpers and the 'find the lady' gangs of the English race-course, and their methods of making easy money are equally crude. As an example, there is the trick locally known as the 'calabash trick.' In this swindle the principal has a piece of calabash (gourd) rind cut to the shape and size of a sovereign. He then states that he will change shillings or half-crowns into sovereigns, and he obtains payment from a gullible native to whom he shows a real sovereign. By a simple sleight-of-hand trick the sovereign is changed for the piece of gourd, which is carefully wrapped in paper or cloth. The package is handled by the purchaser, who can feel the enclosed 'sovereign,' and it is then placed in a safe place for some hours with instructions from the seller that it must not be touched till the next day. When the packet is opened the conjurer has

usually disappeared or has some plausible reason to put forward to account for the disappearance of the expected sovereign. Other equally simple tricks are played on the raw native, but they are certainly much the same as many of the confidence tricks worked in England and elsewhere; and, as they are somewhat rarely reported, the offenders are not often caught. Unfortunately, those who are brought to book seem usually to return to the same or similar methods of earning their living.

A class of offence which in itself is little more than a mild swindle but which, by its nature, often leads to serious crime is that of the 'doctor' who sells certain 'medicines,' the first of which is guaranteed to make a person invisible, and the second if blown into a room through a keyhole will, it is asserted, make the occupant of a room insensible for hours. Much mystery always surrounds the sale of these drugs, and as they are entirely innocuous this mystery is probably necessary to ensure a market. A robbery which is successfully carried out after using these medicines is ascribed to the drugs and not to good fortune, and a bold criminal has been known to carry on his practices for months with the moral aid of his medicines. It is probable, of course, that the possession of an imaginary charm gives the robber that confidence which is all that is necessary, in many cases, to bring off a successful *coup*. It can readily be realised that the activities of a 'doctor' of this class are very dangerous, but his apprehension is often difficult; for, in the first place, it is almost impossible to discover the possession of the charm when a man is caught in the act of robbery, and, secondly, if the possession of the charm were proved it would be very difficult to obtain information as to its origin.

It is, I think, correct to say that the most serious crimes brought before the Courts are those resulting from generations-old native customs and habits. In some tribes it was, until recently, perfectly legitimate for a man to kill one whom he found committing adultery with his wife; he might also quite properly kill his wife in the same circumstances. It is difficult for such a man to realise that these things which his father did are not now permissible and that the crime of adultery must be dealt with in the proper Courts.

In some tribes it is considered to be particularly unlucky for a woman to give birth to twins, and in pre-European days one or both of the twins 'disappeared' soon after birth. The parents were satisfied that no crime had been committed, and no inquiries were made. It was simply a case of twins not being quite the 'correct thing' and therefore their disappearance cleared up a nasty family scandal. A woman who is now unfortunate enough to bear twins must either put up with the disapproval of her fellows or commit a crime which may be punished with death or imprisonment. What may she do? Is she to conform to custom inherited through generations, or must she abide by the rule of the white new-comer? In either case she is a wrong-doer in the eyes of one or other section, and can she be blamed if tradition wins the day?

Again, in certain tribes, a child who cuts its top front teeth before those of the lower jaw is a 'horror' and a thing to be destroyed. Age-old custom has a powerful influence, but the white man's law says that adherence to these inbred habits will be interpreted as murder. One tribe had—and possibly still has—a belief that the ground-up bones of a freshly-killed newly-born child of certain parentage made the very strongest of powerful medicines, and while such belief is held by thousands of one's fellows, should one be deterred from concocting the 'medicine' by the fear of conviction of murder in the white man's Courts?

Native customs are emphatic that certain things must not be done and certain happenings must not occur, and if they do there must be someone responsible and such person must be punished. From the point of view of European standards the punishment is often drastic enough to result in a murder charge. It will be seen that until native customs and habits of a brutal and revolting nature are entirely eliminated there is bound to be a large percentage of crime recorded in the Protectorate. When one remembers that it was only about a century ago that the last witch was burned in Great Britain, it can be realised that for many years crime which is serious from British standpoints must be expected to continue in this country, and will only show a decreasing tendency as education in all its aspects increases.

The 'murderer'—I think I am justified in placing the word in inverted commas—is no criminal in the eyes of his fellows, and indeed has done the right thing and is therefore shielded and protected by his kinsmen. It is certain that many of the crimes of the class mentioned above have never come to light, and each case so concealed makes it more difficult for the native mind to realise that such happenings must cease.

The breaking down of ancient customs which are repugnant to British ideas of law and decency is largely in the hands of the District Officers who are in direct contact with the native. While this Officer is able, and endeavours, to instil right ideas of living into the native population, it devolves on the Police to investigate such cases as are brought to light. It is often no easy task to obtain a conviction in a case where one starts with the certain knowledge that every obstacle will be placed in the way of investigation and inquiry. Missionaries are doing much to destroy the adherence to the more vicious of native customs, and increasing contact with the European will have the inevitable result of teaching the native that some of his methods and ideas are obsolete and must be abandoned.

While it may be anticipated that certain crimes due to adherence to native customs will disappear with the advance of civilization, it is equally certain that other crimes amongst natives will have a tendency to increase, and such increase will, it is to be feared, be due mainly, or even entirely, to that European influence. The increasing desire of the native for clothing, money and luxuries in such quantities as are quite beyond his means will automatically result in petty larceny on a greater scale than is at present the case. The 'town-bred' native who is largely free from tribal influence and unawed by the authority of native chiefs is on the increase, and his environment is often such as to lead him into the easy ways of crime.

Northern Rhodesia, up to the present, has been remarkably free from crimes of violence by natives on white people and from crime of the 'Black Peril' class; where the latter has occurred it has rarely been more than what is known locally as a 'Peeping Tom' case. It is difficult to fathom the reason of these cases of indecent curiosity, as in his own village a native

is in daily contact with nature in its crudest and most naked form. It would seem, fortunately, that these cases are generally simply and solely the result of curiosity, as actual assaults on white women have been extremely rare and, where they have occurred, there is every reason to believe that they have generally been committed by a sexual pervert. Boys and youths are the principal offenders in cases of this nature.

An unfortunate feature in dealing with suppression of crime in Northern Rhodesia is that fines appear to be no deterrent and imprisonment certainly results in no social degradation. In many cases it is even doubtful if hanging has much effect on the general population. It is only at Central Prisons that capital punishment is carried out, and as these are often remote from the scene of the crime there is only the word of the District Official that the culprit has been duly hanged. For a few months the villagers may believe that the condemned man will return in due course, and before long his absence passes unnoticed and he is forgotten.

The punishment which is both feared and certainly acts as a deterrent is that of flogging. As the laws stand, it is not possible for lashes to be inflicted more frequently and in place of fines or imprisonment for certain crimes: it is definitely the one punishment which is heartily disliked by even the most hardened of criminals and, I venture to assert, the one which while effecting its purpose is less wasteful of man-power than imprisonment and more personally effective than a fine, which is usually paid by means of borrowed money.

It will be realised that as long as the native of Northern Rhodesia is influenced by ancient tribal customs the incidence of crime due to hereditary instincts, training and environment will probably continue; but as the more crude of the customs are rapidly breaking down before the advance of civilization it may reasonably be hoped that no increase in serious crime may occur. Where his habits and customs do not clash with European ideas of peace and decency the native is peaceful and law-abiding, and unless the breaking down of his bad habits results in the birth of newly-acquired wickednesses he should eventually become a model citizen.

Police Dog Training¹

GERMAN PRACTICE

By P. L. CECIL-GURNEY

Late Lieutenant, 8th King's Liverpool Regiment

'... The poor dog, in life the firmest friend,
The first to welcome, foremost to defend,
Whose honest heart is still his master's own,
Who labours, fights, lives, breathes for him alone.'
Byron.

AFTER six months of patient waiting and by extreme courtesy of the Chief of Police in Berlin and Minister of the Interior for Prussia and by the help of many influential friends both in England and abroad, the writer was able to fulfil his long cherished ambition of attending a course of training and instruction at the Police dog training school at Grünheide, and in this respect may claim to be the first Englishman who has been granted this great privilege.

Grünheide itself gives one the impression of being perched up on high ground or, one might say, on the only high ground discernible in a tableland of flatness, between two of the many hundreds of large inland lakes which are navigable with the aid of canals right from the Capital to the Rhine. State-owned pine forests stretch for miles on every side and offer the healthiest of conditions both for the human and canine community. Approximately half way between Fangschleuse, the local railway station, and Grünheide, a distance of a mile and a half, a clearing has been cut in the woods and several acres have been enclosed by iron fencing some eight feet in height; and here we find the school not only the first of its kind in the world but by far the largest and most important.

¹ See also *The Police Journal*, Vol. I., p. 423 and Vol. II., p. 188.

On entering the main gates from the road one arrives at the Administrative block, which contains various offices, orderly rooms and stores; to the left of this block has been constructed during the last two years a semi-circular building which accommodates an extensive veterinary establishment and several research laboratories. On the opposite side of the Administrative block stretch innumerable kennels as far as the eye can see, each kennel having an average size of ten by fifteen feet exclusive of outdoor run, and right in the heart of them one comes upon the kitchens, a model of cleanliness and efficiency.

The control of the school is entrusted to the Prussian Ministry of the Interior who in turn appoints a resident Director. The permanent staff consists of the Director's Chief Secretary and his subordinates; the Chief Instruction Officer with six or more qualified instructors under him; the Pay Officer; the Mess Officer and kitchen staff; the Veterinary Officer and attendants, kennel men and carpenters.

For some years prior to 1900 dogs had been used in the then two available branches of military service, namely as War Dogs and Ambulance Dogs. As very few dogs were required for this service, the German Shepherd Dog Club known as the 'Verein für deutsche Schäferhunde' or abbreviated 'S.V.', which has a membership of over 22,000, advised its members to train their dogs as 'Hovawart' dogs, that is protection dogs. From this beginning evolved the Police Dog School, which is now the head of the service dog movement. The trials of Belgian shepherd dogs in the security service of the police held in 1901 suggested similar trials to the German Police Administration. The S.V. placed itself at the disposal of the authorities with its dogs, experience and means and published certain regulations as to the use and training of police service dogs; in 1903 regular police dog efficiency trials were instituted.

Soon the Police administration of Berlin, the Ministry of the Interior, and the administration of some of the principal towns were convinced of the utility of the dog for service with the police and the Ministry appointed Police Major Klein to inaugurate the work at Grünheide, and similar state-owned schools sprang up at Iserlohn, Grandberg and other places.

The Criminal Investigation Department of the Berlin Police established its own course for the training of police dog handlers and Chief Inspector Leonhardt was placed in supreme command. Grünheide has for the last three years been under the capable guidance of Dr. Hansmann of Berlin. The training of police service dogs was also taken up at several mounted police schools, the one at Wohlan in Silesia being probably the most important.

It may not be out of place at this stage to define exactly what Grünheide aims at accomplishing, which is briefly as follows:—first, by experimental breeding and crossing of various breeds of dogs to improve and strengthen the particular qualities most desired in the various spheres of police dog work, and to eradicate as far as possible any undesirable traits; secondly, to produce and supply to the police force of the whole country properly trained dogs; and finally by periodic instruction courses to train handlers to become proficient in the handling of such dogs. Two courses are held each year of between three and four months' duration, the attendance at the courses varies between 80 and 120, so that one can estimate the yearly output of trained dogs and handlers as 200.

Whilst the school is not in session young dogs of various breeds between the ages of nine and fifteen months are taken on approval and if they pass the tests as to temperament and suitability for training are bought by the school, the price given being anything up to £10, but very rarely more.

The elementary training of these dogs is taken in hand at once by the staff instructors, and at the beginning of each course about 200 dogs are available; and even if their training has not progressed very far, certain useful data has already been compiled and the dogs have settled down to their new conditions and surroundings.

We will now have a look at the procedure as far as the student policemen is concerned. Let us for a moment assume that we are members of the German Police Force, and are desirous of becoming police dog handlers. It is in the first place quite optional as to whether one decides to try to qualify to have a dog with one on duty or not, there being absolutely

no compulsion whatsoever, as it is quite obvious that it would be worse than useless to force anybody who had no sympathy with or understanding of dogs to undertake this kind of work. On one's name being submitted, the divisional Inspector will after inquiries decide as to whether one is suitable, and if so and as soon as there is a vacancy on the allotment list for that particular division one will receive instructions to report to the school to attend the course, all expenses being paid by the State as a matter of course.

Any privately-owned dog considered suitable for the work may be brought to the school; otherwise a dog is allotted to the learner, who usually has a voice in the choice of breed. If during the first week of exercising and acquiring the dog's confidence it appears that dog and handler do not suit each other as is sometimes the case, the former is exchanged for another, or if the dog becomes ill and is likely to remain so for several weeks another dog is immediately provided from the reserve which is kept on hand for this purpose.

Trials and tests are held during and at the end of the course, the object being, in addition to gauging the progress made, to ensure that each handler should have a suitable dog to take away with him at the end of the course. At the completion of the course each handler returns to his division with the dog he has trained: it is bought by the division in question from the school but remains in the handler's possession and can either be kept in his own home or in the divisional kennels. In the case of a dog brought to the school by a handler, he may take it back to duty only if it has passed all the tests and is in the opinion of the head of the school absolutely suitable for the work. The dog in question is however likewise bought from the owner by his division, as no duty dogs are allowed to be privately owned.

The handler when he returns home is allowed the equivalent of 18s. per month towards the dog's keep, and is exempt from paying tax, as duty dogs are tax free. Previously insurance against third party risks was optional, but in the last few months it has been made compulsory by practically every division. In case of serious accident to or the death of the dog, the handler in question has to return to Grünheide in

order to obtain another dog and has to go right through the whole course again, however expert or proficient he may be at training. When back at his station each handler is bound to keep his dog in training and up to the mark, two to three hours per day being allocated for this purpose. At the end of a course the handler receives the dog's pedigree and qualification papers, a record of which is kept at the school, as well as all the necessary tackle, such as leads, muzzle, tracking line and cleaning apparatus.

There are actually six different breeds of dogs used for service in Germany, all of which carry a very strong shepherd dog strain, which are: Deutscher Schäferhund (known in this country under the misnomer of Alsatian Wolf Dog); Dobermann-Pinscher; Airedale Terrier; Rottweiler; Riesenschнауzer; and last but by no means least in point of importance Deutsche Boxer. More than seventy-five per cent. however of the dogs in service are Alsatian Wolf Dogs as it has been found that a far greater average are trainable than any other breed, and they have the essential qualities which are briefly designated a 'one man's dog.' The Dobermann-Pinscher on account of his wonderful intelligence is often spoken of as the dog with the human brain. Although of somewhat of an excitable nature he is however comparatively easy to train, and is usually good at nose work. The third breed in order of merit is our Airedale. They are very useful when trained and have done some really good police work at our docks, but are, generally speaking, none too easy to train.

The routine at Grünheide is as follows:—

8 a.m. Parade and roll call.

8.5 to 8.15. Dogs are let out of kennels with muzzles on.

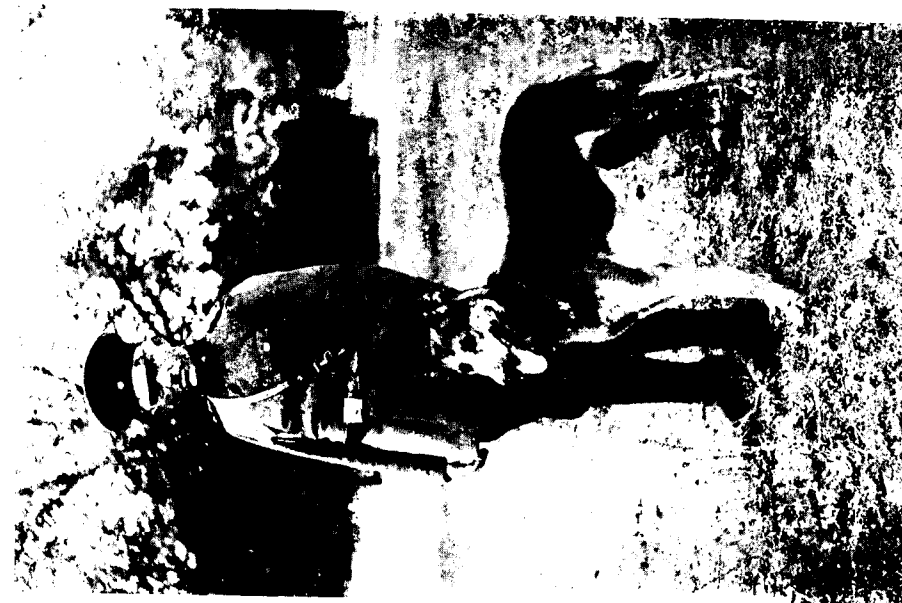
Each section of about 12 handlers has his own exercising ground with a sentry posted between each section to avoid dogs from various sections intermingling.

8.15 to 8.30. Dogs brushed and cleaned.

8.30 to 9.45. Dog training.

9.45 to 10.45. Interval. The dogs are put back into the kennels if training is taking place inside the grounds.

10.45 to 12. Dog training.



(face p. 530)



PART OF THE C.I.D. SECTION TO WHICH THE AUTHOR WAS ATTACHED DURING A PAUSE.
THE AUTHOR IN CENTRE WITH "ROLF"



THE AUTHOR'S SECTION AT WORK, ILLUSTRATING THE "STAND 15 MINS."
EXERCISE HANDLERS BEING OUT OF SIGHT.

12 to 12.30 p.m. Exercise, feed and parade for dismissal.

4 to 4.45. Lecture on each subject of interest, notes having to be taken and home work prepared.

5 to 6. Parade for roll call, exercising, feeding and kennelling for the night.

Parade for next day's orders.

Night work of two to three hours duration takes place for each section approximately twice per week, when patrolling and manwork are practised.

The items practised during actual training are as follows :
Heel work ; this consists of teaching the dog to follow correctly at heel on the handler's left side both on and off lead. Sitting, standing or lying down upon command or signal both when on the move and stationary. Retrieving articles thrown by handler both on the flat and over jumps of various kinds. Jumping fences, gates and hurdles ; loose bar jump up to four feet in height ; scaling wooden partitions or stone walls up to six feet six inches in height (actually many dogs can scale ten feet and over) ; long jump over ditches and water trough from nine up to twenty feet in length. Giving voice upon command both sitting, standing and lying down, and when on the move or upon finding any object of importance which carries human scent. Guarding objects the property of the handler or other persons in the handler's absence, the dog learning to guard either attached or free. Refusing to take food from strangers, however proffered or tempted. Dispatch work ; taking messages between any two persons with whom the dog is accustomed to work ; carrying messages to the police station or summoning help. Swimming and retrieving objects and persons in the water. Systematic quartering of any given area of ground in zig-zag fashion to ascertain if anybody is concealed ; giving voice for an indefinite length of time upon finding any such person until arrival of handler. Guarding and preventing from escape any suspected person in absence of the handler or whilst handler is making other arrests ; escorting to the lock up ; attacking the suspect if he attempts to escape, tries to assault handler or uses or threatens to use firearms that may not have been noticed when being searched (the dog in such cases is taught to attack without any command

being necessary). To go back on the suspected person's track and seek out and retrieve any articles inconspicuously thrown away. Tracking; that is, the systematic following by the dog using his nose of a trail or track on the ground left by any person who has been near the scene of a crime, the dog being allowed to take the scent if possible from any article left behind by the person in flight, or, failing that, from any footprints in the vicinity which are believed to be those of the wanted person.

I should like to explain that I have only given a bare outline of the work, as it would be possible to write at great length on the subject of tracking alone.

Great precision and military smartness are exacted at Grünheide, some of the work being done in mass formation; and one has only to see twenty dogs and handlers working as one upon every command of the instructor to appreciate what can be achieved by patient training and practice. One special section of some twenty handlers, to which section the writer was attached for the last three weeks of the course, proceeds every morning by train to Friedrichshagen changing trains at Erkner (these railway journeys are especially beneficial for accustoming the dogs to crowded streets and strengthening their temperament) for special instruction under the instructors attached to the Berlin C.I.D. under the direct personal supervision of the chief of the trained dog department of the C.I.D. Berlin. Here the instruction is somewhat different from that at Grünheide. Arriving on the training ground at 9.30 a.m. one works till 1.30 p.m. without a pause, arriving back for feeding and kennelling up at 3 p.m.; the only rest the dogs get is whilst proceeding at ease from one specialized instructor to another, for here all the work is specialized.

No other work is practised except that which is absolutely essential and practicable in everyday service. One illustration will here suffice to make this point quite clear. At tracking for instance, the handler will be told to proceed to certain premises where a burglary or murder has taken place, the whole having been properly planned beforehand; upon arrival he must without further ado take charge of the investigations, solve the mystery with the aid of his dog, and make his report. This type of work offers great scope for the detective. It is however

of the utmost importance always and at all times to remember the dog's limitations; for whilst he can be of inestimable value in the hands of a skilled detective who knows his dog and can appreciate what he points out to him, he will be of no value and may even be a hindrance in unskilled hands and without intelligent co-operation on the part of the detective, his handler.

I cannot however omit a remark or two upon the subject of manwork as practised by the C.I.D. in addition to the illustration given above upon tracking. The supposed criminal is never under any circumstances dressed up in a padded suit as one sees at police dog trials in this country, but wears his ordinary everyday attire, being simply armed with one or two stout sticks with which he dispenses altogether as the dog becomes fully trained. The dog upon finding his man must continue circling round him and barking until his handler arrives, however long this may take, and till he gets the order 'stand' from his handler or the signal when he will also cease barking.

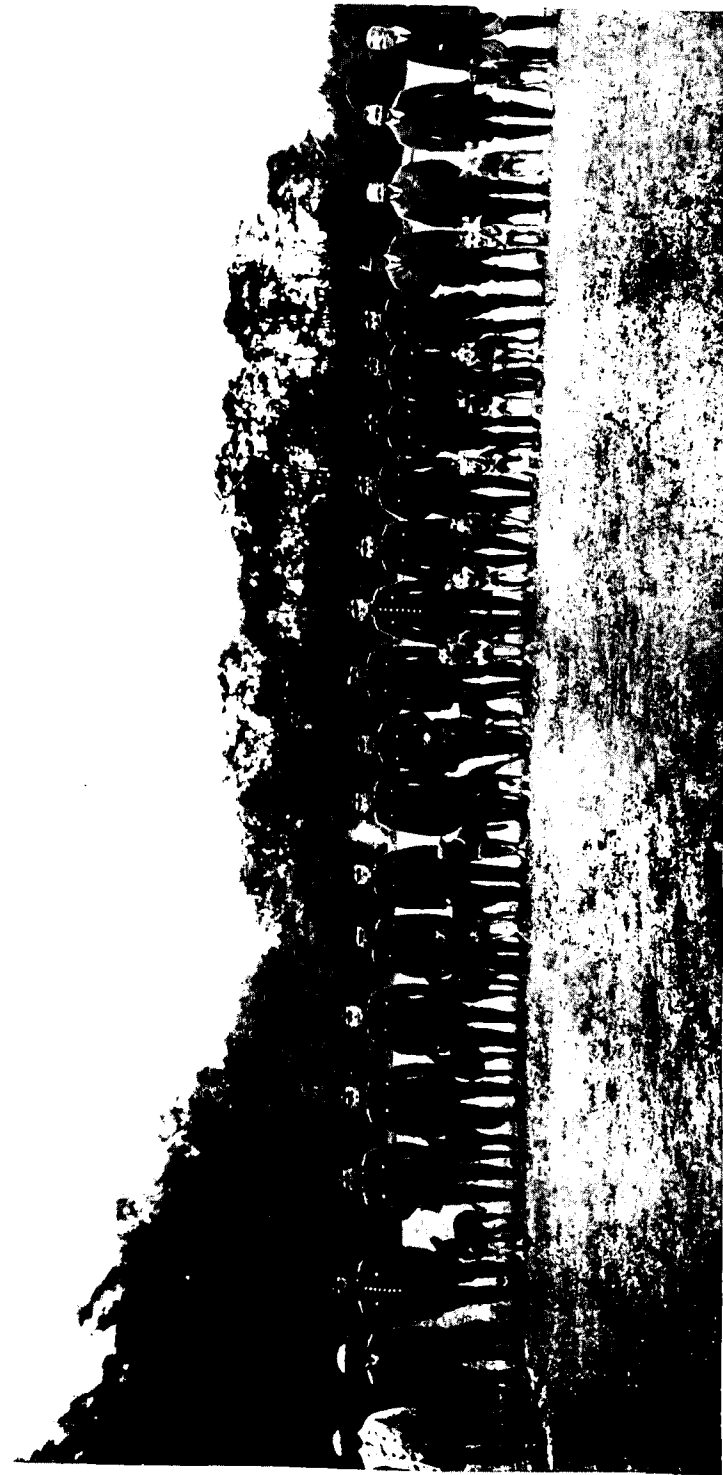
No biting of any sort or description is practised or allowed. The dog is taught to escort drunks and rowdies and to become accustomed to all unusual circumstances both by day and by night. It should be obvious that in Germany where dense forests stretch for miles between villages uncontrolled biting is not only a danger but would bring very grave discredit both upon the Force and its canine helpers. A constable on his beat may come across all sorts of people in unlawful places such as public parks after closing hour, docks, station yards and railway sidings—people who may have mistaken their way, lost their memory, fainted or come under the influence of drink, or children who have strayed from their home. Such persons, far from being objects for fierce attack, are rather objects for pity and help and should be found and announced by the dog.

I would emphasize the fact that the dog whether in use on ordinary patrol or on detective service can only serve as an assistant for the accomplishment of the tasks with which his handler has to cope: he cannot take the place of the detective, but can be and is one of the detective's most useful tools.

Police dogs are used throughout Germany not only by rural policemen who have lonely beats but also for night patrols in the towns. There is no doubt that the moral effect of such dogs is really remarkable ; a constable accompanied by his dog is able and willing to tackle a proposition that would ordinarily require a force of two or more. Moreover, this arrangement effects a saving and an economy in man power. The criminal has an adversary in the police-trained dog whose capacity he cannot gauge and whose capabilities are unknown to him, because although biting is taboo there is not a shadow of doubt that a dog on seeing his master attacked and in difficulties will resort to the aid of his powerful jaws without further ado. Service dogs practically always accompany night raids where desperate characters may have to be arrested, and upon arrest will have to be escorted to the police station. Such characters may attempt to escape or may have accomplices who will do all in their power to try to effect their release. The dogs with their sharp eyes, ears and nose will give warning of danger long before it would be apparent to a human being. Statistics go to prove that public security has been greatly improved wherever dogs have been employed.

One is indeed constrained to pause and call to mind cases of constables on lonely beats in this country who have lost their lives in the execution of their duty ; and to wonder whether this might have been avoided had the constable had earlier warning of danger from his ever alert canine helper, and whether such criminals might not sooner have been brought to justice.

In conclusion I hope that this article will do something to create interest in the question of the use of the dog as an aid in the detection and prevention of crime, and further hope that before long the authorities in our native land will be brought to appreciate what valuable help service dogs can and do render and at what a small outlay in comparison with the value of human life and public security.



SECTION WITH INSTRUCTORS ATTACHED TO THE C.I.D., BERLIN, FOR ADVANCED INSTRUCTION

(See p. 534)



SHOWING THE METHOD OF PACKING OPIUM IN WITH PEANUT OIL USED IN THE NANAIMO SHIPMENT

Narcotic Control in Canada

By C. H. L. SHARMAN, C.M.G., C.B.E.

Chief, Narcotic Division, Canadian Department of Health

NARCOTIC control in Canada dates back to 1908 when the Dominion Parliament passed the first measure dealing with the suppression of opium. In 1911 further Dominion legislation was passed, as a result of which morphine, cocaine and heroin were brought under control.

In 1919 the Federal Department of Health was created, and to it was assigned the enforcement of the Narcotic Act. The Narcotic Division was formed within that Department, and in the ten years which have since elapsed a very efficient organization has been built up, and legislation has been improved until now we possess an Act which is considered to be the equal at least of any narcotic legislation extant.

As regards the legal traffic in narcotics, Canada, as a signatory to the Opium Convention, adheres, of course, to the licensing system whereby no one can handle narcotics unless licensed by the Federal Department of Health, while all narcotics imported are covered by permits not only from Canada, but from the country of origin. One hundred and fifteen wholesale druggists and firms handling hospital supplies are in possession of licences to handle narcotics. These firms are required to report monthly to the Department every single narcotic transaction which they have conducted. These naturally run into many thousands per month, but are recorded against the individual physician or retail druggist concerned. Before this is done, however, each transaction is checked from a number of angles to insure that the recipient was entitled to receive the same by virtue of being a registered practitioner in his province, or a duly licensed druggist. In

turn the retail drug stores are required to keep a narcotic register, which is regularly inspected and compared with the prescriptions covering the entries therein. It is against the law for druggists to make up narcotic prescriptions ordered over the telephone; and in the case of both wholesale and retail druggists the order for the narcotics, signed and dated, has to be actually on their premises and accepted by a responsible person before the narcotics can be supplied. A close co-operation is maintained with the thirty-six Registrars of the various medical, dental and veterinary colleges in the nine provinces of Canada, as a result of which this Department is advised monthly of all additions to and subtractions from the list of those authorized to practise their respective professions. In this way the control of such narcotics as legally enter Canada is almost perfect.

A very large amount of work is undertaken in corresponding with various physicians in regard to cases of drug addiction, many of which are susceptible of cure. Briefly, the Canadian law on this subject provides that where a medical condition exists, it is entirely proper for a physician to prescribe or furnish such quantities of narcotics as in his honest medical judgment are absolutely necessary, but it is illegal for him to furnish the same to an addict for self-administration where no such medical condition exists. The onus of proving that any narcotics supplied were for medical purposes is placed upon the physician or other person charged with an offence in this connexion. Similarly, it is an offence for any person who, in the course of treatment, is supplied by a physician with narcotics, or a prescription therefor, to obtain narcotics from any other physician without disclosing the fact to the first named. This is a most useful provision, as we invariably find that large numbers of addicts, when their underworld supply is disorganized by recent arrests in the underworld, pester physicians for temporary relief, and make the rounds of several with that object in view, or will go so far as to endeavour to induce two or more physicians to undertake their cure by the 'ambulatory' method at the same time, and unknown to one another. Prosecutions in this regard, which are by no means infrequent, are a marked deterrent, particularly as the

resulting publicity is extremely distasteful to the physicians concerned.

While the use of the international mails for narcotics has for some time been prohibited, a provision in the new Canadian Narcotic Act, which was passed in 1929, prohibits licensed wholesalers from shipping narcotics by other than registered mail. Similarly, by departmental regulation, we do not permit the inclusion of narcotics in shipment by freight; consequently as either registered mail or express has to be used, there is a chain of signatures open to inspection in regard to any package which may be claimed to have been lost in transit. This is typical of the many precautions which we have been compelled to take by reason of the fact that as the illicit supply of narcotics grows steadily smaller in our cities, and the persons responsible for such traffic are given penitentiary sentences, the efforts of their former customers—many of whom, of course, are criminal addicts—to obtain supplies from legal sources, are redoubled; and in the past three years it is estimated that attempts along this line by hold-ups of drug stores, forgery of prescriptions, impersonation of physicians giving telephone orders, etc., has increased three hundred per cent. It can safely be said that the leakage of narcotics from the legal into the illicit traffic is negligible.

Next, as regards illegal traffic. In the past few years Canada has achieved remarkable success in the efforts made to control this evil. Many of the gangs engaged in this business were possessed of unlimited money, while when arrests were made cases would be bitterly contested through the various courts, and applications made for Habeas Corpus on technicalities, which the retention of the best legal talent available rendered extreme care necessary in combating. It was, therefore, necessary to strengthen the hands of the Federal authorities from a number of angles, including the definite appointment of a carefully selected and highly competent lawyer at each of our large centres. In a very short time these gentlemen became expert in all matters pertaining to narcotic legislation, and soon we were fighting on equal terms—in the courts at least—in the cases in which we were doing our best to obtain convictions. The existence of such lawyers

in the various centres is also of very great value from the angle of Municipal and Provincial Police Force co-operation, as officers of those bodies feel that there is a thoroughly trained and competent Federal official available to give them advice and, if necessary, assistance in such cases as they may encounter which present unusual features. In this connexion it might perhaps be interesting to note that the Chief of Police of an average city might very conceivably be reluctant, as a result of past experience, to embark upon any extensive campaign against small deck peddlers owing to the heavy expense in which he might be involved in fighting their various appeals, etc.; consequently the Federal Government has relieved their anxiety in this regard by offering, and giving definite effect to such offer, to furnish complete legal assistance in all cases where proceedings do not terminate in the Police Court. The City Police Forces, therefore, feel that they are safe in going ahead, as should they run up against anything abnormal the Federal Government are there to help.

It was amply demonstrated that the sympathy and support of the public was behind the Federal officers in the administration of this Act, by reason of the fact that in 1929 Parliament passed a new Act in which were contained several new and important provisions. First and foremost was the addition of the lash at the discretion of the judge, as a penalty for drug traffickers. This penalty has already been applied, and there is every reason to think that it will have a marked deterrent effect. As a result of the intent of Parliament being apparent along these lines, it was noted that the Canadian Courts in most instances did their share by imposing heavier sentences, while in the case of aliens the penalty of deportation also applies. In the past seven years 662 people have been deported from Canada as a result of being convicted of either selling or possessing narcotics. Of this number no less than 519 were Chinese.

The policy of the Federal authorities is to leave to the Provincial and Municipal Police Forces throughout the country the handling of the smaller cases, such as the deck peddler, and thus leave free for the more intricate cases the services of those who have been specially trained to handle

them. In this connexion it should be stated that the services of the Royal Canadian Mounted Police are utilized as agents of this Department in the investigation of a very large majority of cases dealing with the illicit traffic. Some of the successes obtained by that famous force have been remarkable, particularly on the Pacific Coast, where the need for such excellent work is greatest. The Commissioner of the Royal Canadian Mounted Police has arranged from time to time for a class of a dozen selected men to be concentrated for several months for special instruction in narcotic work. At the conclusion of this course these men are returned to their respective Divisions, competent to handle such narcotic matters as may come to their attention, and by methods common to the whole Dominion.

When one remembers that there is a boundary line of over 4000 miles between Canada and the United States, it is obvious that the opportunities for illicit traffic are numerous. In addition to this there are, of course, the problems of importation from Europe from the Atlantic Coast, and from the Orient into British Columbia. Experience unquestionably demonstrates the wisdom not so much of endeavouring to concentrate upon the detection of narcotics in process of being introduced into the country, but rather of the detection of the trafficker in the act of selling after introduction. If goods being smuggled are alone seized, the trafficker is free to continue his operations, and doubtless allows for a percentage of loss, whereas with a properly organized intelligence service, the influx of any considerable quantity of drugs, in any given community, is very soon known, and the arrest and conviction of the owner thereof acts as a far greater deterrent than a mere seizure. In this work very close liaison indeed is maintained between the Narcotic Services of the United States and Canada. Not only is there a special treaty between the two countries providing for the exchange of information, extradition of narcotic peddlers, etc., but in practice communication between the two services is of practically daily occurrence.

The following are quoted as typical of various cases encountered in Canada.

For some considerable time a very extensive traffic in narcotics between Montreal and United States' points, notably Detroit, had been carried on, in which trainmen both white and coloured, were employed in transporting large quantities of narcotics, and while it was evident that it would be a comparatively easy matter to arrest and convict these carriers, it was decided that a determined effort should be made to reach those higher up, as otherwise the latter would merely corrupt a fresh supply of carriers and continue their activities indefinitely. Plans were carefully laid, therefore, in co-operation with the United States Narcotic Service, special officers detailed and ample funds made available. One agent, posing as a prize-fighter from Chicago, succeeded in obtaining the confidence of a number of these carriers, and as a result, on two occasions, narcotics aggregating nearly \$1,000 in value were delivered by them to our agent in Detroit. After considerable difficulty, and several long-distance telephone messages from Chicago to the 'higher-up' in Montreal, a meeting was arranged in one of the leading hotels of that city, officers were placed in adjoining rooms and across the hall in order that what transpired might be overheard, and the participants in the interview identified. During that interview our agent was subjected to a severe cross-examination for over two hours by the 'higher-up,' with a view to establishing the former's *bona fides* and actual connexion with the narcotic underworld. Although the agent was a regularly salaried member of the United States Narcotic Service, he successfully passed this ordeal: a large deal in narcotics was negotiated and \$1,000 paid over. Some hours afterwards a messenger delivered to our agent at the hotel an envelope containing two keys, explaining that one of these was for an automatic baggage locker in one of the Montreal railway stations, which, when opened, was found to contain a suitcase, which the second key unlocked, and in the suitcase was found the \$1,000 worth of narcotics purchased from the 'higher-up' himself. A similar deal, under precisely similar circumstances, was put through two weeks later, after which the 'higher-up' and three railway employees were arrested and sentenced to terms in the penitentiary.

Based upon facts obtained in these cases, sufficient evidence was found to warrant the arrest of a man still higher up in the narcotic ring than any hitherto apprehended, whose distributing activities as a wholesaler commenced when huge quantities of narcotics had been smuggled into Canada by a confederate. For over two and one-half years a steady search was maintained in various parts of the American continent, he being finally located near New York, and brought back to Montreal for trial. In March last he was found guilty at the Assizes, and sentenced to seven years. Some idea as to the activities of this ring may be gained from the fact that many documents seized established that they had purchased 50,000 ounce boxes to contain narcotics, and had ordered another 500 boxes a few days before the arrests were made, while later reports from Detroit indicated that immediately after their arrest the price of cocaine in the underworld of that city increased over three hundred per cent.

It is, however, the Pacific Coast, where the illicit opium traffic is almost entirely in the hands of Orientals, which occasions most activity and expenditure on our part. The Oriental, in the very large majority of cases, also handles morphine and cocaine, so that he is in a position to cater to the addiction both of the Occidental and of those of his own race. In the course of investigations ranging over a period of years, it was, of course, fairly well known who the big operatives were, but they were exceptionally clever individuals; and to transform our suspicion of their activities into such definite proof as would satisfy a jury was a matter of extreme difficulty. When it is realized, however, that within the past three years nearly ninety of these traffickers and smugglers in British Columbia have been given penitentiary sentences ranging from two to seven years, with fines of \$1,000, and subsequent deportation, it can safely be said that we have the control of this traffic well in hand. This is confirmed by the fact that whereas in 1927 we were able to purchase large quantities of opium at \$52.00 a can, the price for some months past has now ranged between \$195 and \$200 per can, a price which many Orientals are finding prohibitive.

In the first of a series of important operations conducted

against the leaders in this traffic, we were fortunate enough to capture the biggest of them all. The facts in relation to his capture have proved sufficiently interesting to have appeared in print several times already; however, they may also be valuable from the police angle. At the outset certain arrests in Windsor, Ontario, indicated that the source of supply of opium for that district was located in the Chinese underworld of Montreal. Our activities were, therefore, directed to that quarter, and two purchases of large quantities of opium made from a wholesaler in that city. Other facts, however, obtained in Montreal, indicated clearly that that city itself was supplied from Vancouver; consequently no arrests were made in Montreal for the time being, and the investigation was transferred to the Pacific Coast, where, by means of unknown agents imported for that purpose, and with the extremely clever co-operation of the Royal Canadian Mounted Police in Vancouver, it soon became apparent that we had reasonable hope of establishing contact with the big Chinese operator Lim Gim, who was President of a large Oriental importing house and had many other financial interests. By means of certain letters of introduction, and willingness to negotiate for a very large quantity of opium involving many thousands of dollars, our agent was able to get in personal touch with him, and in the course of several conversations it became evident that we were at last in touch with the big man on the Pacific Coast. The agent, posing as a large trafficker in New York, was closely questioned by Lim Gim with regard to his acquaintance with those circles in the East. The Chinaman displayed a thorough knowledge of the various operators on the Atlantic Seaboard, both in the United States and Canada. Upon the agent stating that he wanted to buy over \$10,000 worth of genuine Lem Kee opium to take to New York, where there was a good market, Lim Gim stated that he could not at the moment furnish that quantity, adding:

'We are having a bad time in getting it off the boats now. Sometimes we get it out of the water, and sometimes not. The law is pretty tough now. I could have had 700 cans, which are now in the water off Seattle, but the Seattle connexion bid higher for the goods,

so I let them have it. I get more calls for Lem Kee from the States. I sell more of my No. 2 here, which is a very good grade, about eighty per-cent. as good as Lem Kee. I have direct wires pulling in Hong Kong, and have the first option on any stuff coming from China. That is how I know 700 tins have gone to Seattle. About fifteen years ago I was in partnership with three other men (whose names were given). At that time I had the market cornered in opium both in the States and Canada, as I used to do all the buying, and nobody got any opium except through us. We broke up two years later, each making \$20,000.

'I sold one hundred cans of opium three weeks ago to a fellow from Frisco. It was No. 2 and he liked it very well. About the same time a Chinaman from the East bought one hundred and fifty cans. There is no chance for you to get Lem Kee when I haven't got it. You couldn't get two hundred cans of any kind of stuff from anybody here but me as I control it all on the Pacific Coast. You know when you went to see — last week, he was going to get the stuff from me so you see that I am the big connexion.'

Lim Gim then suggested that they should arrange a code for use in letters and telegrams, the letters 'Vancouver B.' being selected to represent the figures from one to ten, the name 'George' for Lem Kee opium, and 'Smith' for No. 2 opium. He also arranged to do business under the name of Charles B. Young, and handed over a card bearing his address. He was then shown a prearranged telegram purporting to come from our operative's partner in New York, stating, when decoded, that seventy-five cans were to be shipped within a week if possible. As Lem Kee was not available in large quantities, it was finally arranged that ten cans of No. 2 opium should be bought as a sample, smuggled into Seattle, and shipped thence by express to New York. If, on arrival, the New York partner was satisfied with its quality, he would telegraph our operative at Seattle, and a further deal would be arranged.

It will be appreciated that it was an extremely difficult matter to win the confidence of a man such as this big operator, and to get him to do business personally, but the prospect of a big order immediately, with others to follow, probably induced him to take a personal interest. At any rate, on the following day our operative visited Lim Gim at his store at night, and paid

him for ten cans to be delivered the following morning, Lim Gim's reason for an early delivery being that 'the law is all in court, and it is the best time to deliver it.' Delivery was made by Lim Gim himself, who showed the operative how to wrap the tins up in paper so that they would get past the Customs at Seattle. He then placed two tins in each of the operative's five pockets, and promised to see him again the following week. The cans were in due course turned over to the police, while the operative proceeded to Seattle to stay there for the period during which the shipment was supposed to be *en route* to New York. During these various interviews the operative was carefully shadowed into and out of the store, and all money used was carefully marked.

While in Seattle the operative wrote to Lim Gim in the agreed code, and in due course received a reply which, in part, read as follows :

'Mr. A. B. B. Smith is now in town. He will be ready to do business at any time. Let me know soon as Mr. Smith is going away shortly.'

This was the code indication that two hundred cans of No. 2 opium were now ready. A reply was sent both by telegram and letter telling Lim Gim that the deal would be put through on the following Sunday or Monday. The telegram was duly traced by the Vancouver authorities to Lim Gim's store, and a fake telegram, purporting to be from the New York partner to the operative, was prepared for production to Lim Gim to satisfy him that the New York end was satisfied with the grade of opium. The operative then returned to Vancouver, and by means of a telephone conversation with Lim Gim, which was listened to on an extension, a meeting was arranged for the same evening, on which occasion Lim Gim raised the price \$10 per can. He was shown the New York telegram, which, it was pointed out, referred to the price previously quoted. He expressed his regret, but would not agree to any reduction, and finally a purchase, at the higher price, was arranged. At an interview the same evening he discussed in great detail narcotic conditions in New York, and the seizure of 1,070 cans of opium on

a Blue Funnel boat at Seattle the previous week, about which he was worried, remarking :

'You know, when that boat was in here about two weeks ago, we couldn't get the load off. I have got some No. 1 coming in to-day, but don't know whether we can get that off either.'

He was then paid \$1,000 for twenty more cans to be delivered the following morning, on which occasion the store was surrounded by officers in concealment, who were to rush in on receiving the prearranged signal of the operative tipping his hat, it being calculated that one minute and thirty seconds would elapse from the signal being given to the presence of the officers in the store, and the covering of the front and rear exits. The operative entered the store, and shortly afterwards, Lim Gim came down from the sleeping quarters upstairs. He told the operative to take the package from a barrel which he pointed out. This the operative did, and then proceeded to the front of the store and gave the signal, returning immediately thereafter to Lim Gim, and paying him a balance of \$50 due him. He then followed him to the back of the store, and informed him that he was under arrest. Lim Gim shouted, 'What! My God! My God!' several times, ran into the cashier's office, put his hand in the wastepaper basket, and then ran upstairs, where he was found in a bed other than his own with the clothes pulled over him.

A most thorough search of the premises, which lasted all day, revealed amongst other things the marked \$50 bill in the cashier's cage, and the \$1,000 in marked money paid for the opium on the preceding evening, while in the wastepaper basket, to which Lim Gim made his first move, were the torn pieces of the letter and envelope addressed to him in the name of Charles B. Young by the operative while in Seattle. There were many other pieces of corroborative evidence which, however, it is unnecessary to enumerate. Lim Gim was in due course tried at the Assizes, where the defence was a complete *alibi* for all the numerous interviews outlined above. He was found guilty on the two charges laid, and sentenced to four years in the penitentiary, with a fine of \$1,000. Being a naturalized Canadian citizen he is not eligible for deportation.

At the time of sentence, however, the judge remarked as follows :

'You are what is termed a wholesaler as distinct from an ordinary peddler of dope or cocaine. The sentence would be heavier, were it not for the fact that your friends have presented a wonderfully worded petition for leniency. It is signed by people I cannot ignore. I will allow this petition and the letters to be filed, and later you may get some additional advantage from them.'

The prisoner having appealed, the Crown proceeded to cross-appeal on the ground of inadequacy of sentence, as a result of which the sentence was increased to seven years in the penitentiary and a fine of \$2,000.

In the summer of 1929, two young white men were sentenced to penitentiary terms for conveying considerable quantities of opium ashore at Vancouver from an *Empress* liner in the harbour, by means of the collapsible boat, which was propelled by the improvised paddle made from an apple box, and in opium-jackets used by certain confederates, as shown in the accompanying photograph. From information available it is certain that these men had been working at the instigation of a certain gang of Chinamen, who were anxious that the actual work should be performed by others so that they might themselves escape not only the imprisonment but the deportation which follows in the case of Orientals. The Royal Canadian Mounted Police by some very clever work correctly deduced that, with these men in the penitentiary, the gang might very conceivably approach a certain other man to continue these operations, and appropriate action was taken. As a result the man in question agreed to work as an agent and also to give evidence at the trials of any persons who might be arrested as a result of his activities.

Not very long afterwards the agent reported that a Chinaman named Henry Chan had approached him, with another Chinaman whose name he did not then know, and told him that arrangements had been made for the agent to bring off some opium from the *Empress of France*. It was understood that the opium to be brought off was for Lee Kin. The first plan settled upon by these Chinese with the agent



COLLAPSIBLE BOAT WITH PADDLE MADE FROM AN APPLE BOX, USED TO SMUGGLE OPIUM FROM THE C.P.R. EXPRESS AT VANCOUVER.
NOTE THE OPIUM PACKETS ON TWO MEN, EACH CONTAINING \$5,000 WORTH OF OPIUM WHEN WORN UNDER CLOTHING.
(face p. 546)

was that the opium should be taken to a secluded spot in Stanley Park, where the agent would be met by some Chinese in an automobile. This method was changed later, however, and the agent given a free hand in getting the opium off the ship. In consultation with Government officers it was decided that he would row to shore, then proceed in a motor to a hotel, from a room in which subsequent distribution would be made. After a final interview with the Chinese involved in the case, the agent approached the *Empress of France* about midnight in a rowboat from under the pier. According to instructions received from the Chinese, he proceeded to a porthole, over which was hung a red cloth, through which a light was shining. On arriving at this porthole, a long piece of twine was noticed, and the prearranged signal of two jerks was given by the agent, who, at the same time, attached to the end of the twine one-half of a sheet of notepaper that had been given him by Henry Chan, the other portion being in the possession of the Chinese confederate on the ship, whose name was unknown. The twine was immediately pulled through the porthole, and shortly afterwards forty-four cans of opium, wrapped in burlap, were lowered. This was taken ashore by the agent, and carried to a room in a hotel, in the adjoining rooms of which a number of officers were located.

According to a prearranged plan, the agent then rang up a certain room in another hotel, but was unable to get in touch with the Chinamen for whom he had brought the opium ashore. About 6 a.m., however, Henry Chan telephoned the agent, and as a result the latter had two meetings with Lee Kim, who arranged to take delivery of the opium. He praised the agent for his ability in bringing the opium ashore without detection, and promised to bring down his commission of \$5 a can as soon as the bank opened.

In the meantime, another lieutenant of Lee Kim, named Mah Poy, had registered in the same hotel as the agent, directly across the hall. Shortly afterwards another lieutenant of Lee Kim, named Charlie Sam, came to the agent's room for the opium. On entering the room Charlie Sam looked under the bed and in the bathroom, and then asked why the



1,440 TINS OF OPIUM SEIZED AT NANAIMO, B.C. EACH TIN IS WORTH \$200 IN CANADA

agent had not the opium parcelled up. The agent replied that he wanted to have the cans counted first, to make sure that there was no double-crossing, and with that Charlie Sam counted the cans of opium, and wrapped them up in a parcel. As he was leaving the room he was arrested. Mah Poy, at the same moment, was at the door of the room across the hall waiting for Charlie Sam, and he was arrested also. The police then proceeded to the Vancouver Hotel to search Mah Poy's room, and while there Lee Kim and Henry Chan came to the door. They were also arrested. In Lee Kim's room of the same hotel a number of important documents torn in small pieces and written in Chinese were found in the waste-paper basket. These were pieced together and translated, as a result of which most valuable information was obtained as to the methods by which Lee Kim and his confederates hoped to outwit the authorities in landing narcotics in Canada at a spot designated as being easily identified.

They were in due course sentenced to two years in the penitentiary, and a fine of \$300 in each case, or in default a further period of six months' imprisonment. From these sentences they appealed, while in the cases of Lee Kim and Henry Chan we cross-appealed on the ground of inadequacy of sentence, in view of the importance of the capture. In March last, the appeals by the accused were dismissed, while the sentences of Lee Kim and Henry Chan were increased to five years in the penitentiary.

Shortly after the arrest of these Chinamen, the Court Interpreter received the letter hereunder quoted :

' Beloved :

My friends, Messrs. Lee, Sam, Chan and Mah have been arrested by the Wolf and Tiger, namely, the Mounted Police, and several important documents have been seized. I know that you are employed as Court Interpreter and therefore beg you to help by not translating these documents. If you agree to do so, please inform Uncle Lee Kay. I will to-night at 8 o'clock present you a gift of \$500.00 for your trouble. If you refuse to do so, and translate these documents into English, thus revealing these four gentlemen's secret affairs, I am afraid that your life will be in danger.

' Although these are Mounted Police yet they cannot render

you constant protection. Please think it over three times. You know perfectly well that Mr. David Lew has been shot to death.'

Another Chinaman, evidently suspected of being connected with the police authorities, also received a letter advising him to resign his position and go into some other business. The last paragraph reads :

' I heard that you have something to do with Lee, Sam, Mah and Chan's cases. If you do not follow the above instructions we will join together with Lee, Sam, Mah and Chan and render you a suitable funeral.'

It is probable, therefore, that the police authorities were not the only ones who learned with satisfaction that the sentences of the ringleaders had been increased from two to five years, and that their satisfaction was shared at least by two Orientals.

Canada has undoubtedly made great strides in the control of the narcotic traffic within the past few years, but this result, gratifying though it may be, is not attributable to any one cause or agency, but to a whole-hearted co-operation of the various Government Departments and the strong backing of public opinion, appropriately reflected in the stringent legislation on the subject which it is our privilege to administer.

The Ethics of Punishment

BY SIR REGINALD CRADDOCK, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I.

THE points of view from which this subject can be treated are many and varied. We are brought up in the idea that a man who commits minor offences is fined, that a thief is sent to prison and that murderers are hanged. The general public become accustomed to a sort of rough standard of offences and punishment so that they regard a particular sentence as light or severe. But these standards change with the times in which people live, and as laws are amended or administered with greater or less severity. Among thousands of people, however, who have formed standards in their mind there will be found very few outside the category of legislators and moral philosophers (and in more recent times humanitarians) who have troubled their heads to consider the subject from historical, legal or ethical standpoints, or have really considered why certain acts should be declared offences punishable under the secular law and others relegated to moral censure; or indeed why society has the right to punish anyone, and, if it has, upon what principles and with what objectives should the system of offences and punishments be designed and put into effect.

Inasmuch as volumes have been written on this subject by great law-givers, thinkers and philosophers, it is impossible to examine all the views of eminent authorities, starting with Greece and Rome and coming down to the most recent writers in the twentieth century, or the ideas of well-intentioned though sometimes quite impractical humanitarians.

The policeman, the magistrate and the judge (with whom is associated a committee of private citizens under the name of a jury) are all servants of the State, whose duties cannot be described merely as those of instruments to secure the punish-

ment of offenders. That is only one aspect of their activities. Their prime duty is to protect both the individual and society as a whole from the wrongs and injuries inflicted upon them by other individuals. In the performance of this duty they have equally to protect the individual from unjust prosecution or punishment. Indeed, the true objective of punishment is to free the whole community from the alarm and apprehension which militate against that security of mind, body and estate which is the great essential if individuals that compose a nation and through them the whole nation are to enjoy freedom and prosperity.

No administration of the law, however, can be perfect, because no fallible human authority can weigh exactly not merely the relative enormity of the crime but the relative culpability of the offender, allowing for his state of mind, his brain power, his temptations, his motives, his degree of premeditation, and his provocation.

In these difficult circumstances, the wisdom of law-givers has decided in civilised countries to fix a scale of punishment providing a legal maximum, but within that maximum to leave it to the discretion of the magistrate or judge to adjust the punishment to the circumstances of each case according as they seem to call for severity or clemency. The results, though very far from perfect, yet provide as good a measure of justice as human agency can devise, provided always that the law is administered with wisdom and honesty and with due regard to humanity.

Philosophers are mostly agreed that punishments must be viewed as retributive (namely, a sort of vengeance), deterrent, preventive, reformatory in their object. Having, however, agreed on these variations, they generally disagree profoundly as to which of these different objectives should be the most prominent. I do not propose to deal with these intricate questions from the points of view of the moral philosopher (though I have read with much profit Dr. A. C. Ewing's valuable work 'The Morality of Punishment'), because, unless a person has studied moral philosophy, he is apt to be tied up in knots by the conflicting arguments which support each theory in turn, and the 'reductio ad absurdum' to which

each theory can be made to lead if it is pushed to its most logical conclusion. I propose to deal with it rather as the practical administrator with long experience of the working of the law in India, and with such knowledge of its administration in England as any thinking citizen can acquire *if* (and I insist upon this 'if') he has cultivated by experience or study a real feeling of responsibility. Writing from that standpoint I would say at once that the apportionment of punishment must take into account all four objectives, and that the relative value attached to any one of them cannot be absolutely fixed but must vary with circumstances of time, place and person.

Curiously enough, the first of these objectives (one which on the surface might suggest the most savage view of punishment) is the only one which requires a certainty that the person punished was really guilty. All the other objectives might be consistent with a man's innocence of the particular crime, for, as Bentham argues, a punishment will be equally deterrent whether the man punished is guilty or not, and a man of known bad character might be locked up for the preventive object, and still more for the reformatory object, even though there was no proof that he had committed the offence for which he was arrested. Clearly, however, for society to exact retribution from a man for what he has not done is a contradiction in terms. It is pain unjustly inflicted, not retribution at all. Retribution must therefore be an element in all punishments, the degree to be enhanced or mitigated by the other objectives according to circumstances. 'An eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth' will not work in practice; such a measure might be far too savage or it might be far too lenient.

Then as regards deterrence. This is an absolutely essential element, for by punishment you wish to lessen the risk to society of a repetition of the offence, either by this particular offender or by others. Here the retribution test will act as a mitigant, for the punishment must not be out of due proportion to the offence.

Preventive punishment is ordinarily justifiable in the case of proved vagabonds who are unable to give security for their good behaviour or are convicted of crime after many previous punishments. In the case of these last, it may be properly held

that society will only be safe if the hardened offender is put out of the reach of doing further mischief for a long term of years, even though the last offence of which he is convicted may not itself have been very serious.

Reformatory punishment, if reformation alone were to be considered, would fail to provide for the retributive element in punishment. It would also fail to deter evil-doers, and it could be efficacious only if reformation was successful.

But when we have considered punishment in these four aspects, we are still very far from exhausting the tests which should determine the degree of severity which the legislator should provide for crime of various denominations, and which in his turn the judge should adjust to the great variety of the circumstances which each case may present. Again, the most just, conscientious and sagacious judge administering the wisest law may have all his good intentions wrecked by a corrupt, inefficient, too harsh or too indulgent prison administration. If that which is supposed to reform merely brutalises, or that which is supposed to punish is so indulgent as to provoke merely contempt for the law in the mind of the prisoner, or if discipline is so indifferent, or warders so corrupt, that a man who is a bully or has some means at his disposal can obtain immunity from restriction by truculence or bribery, then the whole intentions of the legislators and the judges will be completely frustrated.

There is yet one more consideration. The successful administration of the criminal law depends largely upon the extent to which it carries with it the sane public opinion of the day. What passes for public opinion at a particular moment may be nothing but waves of emotion and sentimentalism which recede and advance according as interest is languid or is stirred by particular crimes and particular incidents. These are dangerous guides; those who express them may have no knowledge of the facts, they may be arguing from the particular to the general, or *vice versa*, and they are quite incapable of weighing the consequences upon society of the course which in their state of emotion they vehemently urge.

These emotional agitations do not fall within the category of sane public opinion, and often represent perverted sympathy.

The recent case of a prisoner who had been sentenced to a long term of penal servitude with fifteen strokes of the 'cat' for robbery with violence is singularly to the point. The prisoner committed suicide. It was first suggested in the Press, quite erroneously, that the fear of the 'cat' was the cause of the suicide. At the inquest, it was found that it was not the 'cat' but the long imprisonment that induced him to take his own life. Yet upon this very incident has been based an agitation for the abolition of flogging as a punishment. Even if it be supposed that the fear of the flogging induced a prisoner to commit suicide, this has not the slightest bearing upon the propriety of a sentence of flogging either in his case or in any other case. Hardly a day passes without suicide being reported by men who think they have got to the end of their resources, and hope thus to end their struggles or unhappiness. The sympathy for these unfortunates, whose sufferings may have been entirely undeserved, is conventional; but here is a man who has added an act of savagery to a grave crime, for which a perfectly legal punishment has been pronounced upon him. He is unable to face his punishment with courage. He had plenty of courage to inflict undeserved pain upon others, but none to bear deserved pain inflicted upon himself. What sympathy is such a man entitled to? None whatever. It would only prove that the man was not only a criminal, but a cowardly criminal.

The question whether flogging as a punishment should be abolished or maintained has to be decided on other grounds. Experience has proved that a certain class of criminal bent on his own sordid gain will callously commit robbery with violence, or it may be traffic in the degradation of helpless women, and that the punishment he most fears is flogging. In fact, this fear alone will deter him and his kind from continuing to commit crime of this nature. A man of this sort has already brutalised himself so much by his own evil conduct and character that he cannot be further brutalised because he is made to suffer pain in his proper place. It may certainly be agreed, however, that this severe but necessary punishment should be reserved for men who are clearly depraved. As an act of retribution the punishment is justified; as a deterrent

it is justified. The sentimentalist who objects, if he will only reflect, is by his objection giving an opinion that twenty men may have undeserved pain inflicted upon them, but that deserved pain should not be inflicted on one offender. On the other hand, I would agree that the punishment of flogging should be such as may be undergone by an ordinarily strong man at one time, and should never be inflicted by instalments. Instalment whipping is not inflicted in India, and it introduces an element of torture into what should be a severe and sharp but not protracted punishment.

The question whether capital punishment should be retained or abolished is one discussed in every country. The decision has been in one way in some and the opposite in others. In England it has so far been retained, and further it is the only punishment permissible to a judge who has to pronounce a sentence upon a man convicted of murder. Many people, from conscientious motives, think that it is wrong to take a life even under judicial sentence, and that therefore capital punishment should be abolished. If it is wrong to take life, it is right to prevent life being taken; a man has a right to take the life of an assailant in order to save his own life from being taken. Those who will dispute this, even in theory, must be few; in practice there will be none, or almost none; and if it is lawful for a man to take life with this object, it is clearly lawful for the State to take a guilty life in order to save many innocent lives being taken in future. The abolitionist has to fall back upon the argument that capital punishment does not act as a deterrent. The moralist or sentimentalist may assert this, but few with any real experience of the annals of crime will accept the statement. We know that every prisoner (with negligible exceptions) petitions for mercy, well knowing that a life sentence will be the result of success. We know that if a man has committed a crime which when brought home to him will entail a long term of imprisonment, he has every inducement to murder his victim, if by doing so he can destroy the solitary witness of the crime. He hesitates lest after all he may come to the gallows. He will hesitate less if the difference between the punishment for his crime and the punishment for murder is only measured by a few years. As to the prisoner already

death. Similarly, if a man set fire to a house but the damage done was very trivial, the offence would be regarded for the purposes of punishment as less serious than if the house had been burnt down. Again, a common assault by a convict inside a prison would be much more serious than a petty theft of jail property inside the prison. Outside the prison, however, such an assault would be regarded as trivial, while the theft would probably be considered more serious.

The law takes more account of intentions, and pays but little regard to motives. These can only be allowed for by a judge in fixing upon the sentence. A French jury recently acquitted a man who killed his mother to save her the last agonising days of cancer. An English jury would have convicted, but with the strongest recommendation for mercy, to which the highest authorities would, of course, have given full consideration. All these differentiations, however, can be referred to one clear principle, viz. the degree of alarm caused to society at large by the act of the offender. When a man is not actually killed, or a house set on fire is not actually burnt, the shock to society is much less than it would be if the murder were completed and the house absolutely destroyed. In the same way, foul abuse used to respectable persons constitutes a severer shock to society than similar abuse interchanged among people who are hardened to such language. An assault in a jail which strikes at the whole discipline among criminals is a far more serious affair to society than when one man punches another man's head in a street brawl.

To sum up my conclusions, they are :

(i) That a penal system must reflect and be in general conformity with sane public opinion, unaffected by emotional impulses common among persons with little experience and devoid of all responsibility for the proper maintenance of public order and peace.

(ii) That the prime objective of criminal legislation and penal administration is the protection of society, and this prime necessity demands—

(a) That the guilt of the offender is established beyond reasonable doubt, otherwise the security of society would be gravely disturbed by the fear of false

charges or of conviction on bare suspicion, or due to the machinations of enemies or unscrupulous agents of the law.

(b) That the punishment of the guilty should be retributive but not savage ; deterrent, having regard to the character of the crime, the facility with which it can be committed, and the difficulty of detection ; preventive in so far as the liberty of the offender is certain to be a danger to the community ; reformatory in so far as reformation can be attained, without sacrificing the other three objectives of punishment.

(iii) That inasmuch as the whole object of punishment depends upon the fear that it will follow the commission of crime, it is imperative that the Police Force should be honest and efficient, commanding the confidence of the public, fair-minded and courteous ; for, without that confidence the public will not co-operate, and without public co-operation witnesses will not come forward, juries will not convict, and the whole working of the law will fail.

(iv) Firm but just prison administration is one more essential element. A corrupt or arbitrary jail administration may make a prison a factory for hardening old offenders and for manufacturing new ones ; on the one side by its brutalising effect, or, on the other, by removing all deterrence from punishment, thus producing contempt for the law and its punishment, and encouraging those who profit by crime to persist in their evil courses. For the man who is not ' lagged ' goes on pursuing his successful career, and the man who is ' lagged ' finds that jail has its compensations as a ' not too bad ' rest cure from the excitement of crime.

(v) Lastly, the whole system of law and order and the punishment of crime has for its objective the security of society. And that is the final test of what is too severe or what is too indulgent, or the right mean between these two extremes.

undergoing a life sentence, if capital punishment is abolished, he can snap his fingers at the law and commit as many murders as he pleases. The abolitionists say—then why did men like Brown and Kennedy murder Constable Gutteridge if capital punishment is a deterrent? The answer is—that they never dreamed that the crime could possibly be brought home to them. If punishment followed crime with mathematical certainty, crime would almost disappear; but if by a change in the law the murderer was guaranteed against the scaffold, nobody with common sense could deny that the dread of the consequences of murder would be gravely lessened.

On the other hand, the law which obliges the judge in this country to pronounce the death sentence in every case of murder is a defective one. Numerous murders occur in which the culpability of the act and the danger to society are not such as to call for the full retribution of a life for a life, and in many of them the efficiency of a death sentence as a deterrent is really open to some doubt. The law takes cognisance of grave and sudden provocation which deprives a man of his self-control, but it does not equally allow a long-drawn-out provocation of a severe kind, which to my mind is an extenuating circumstance of great importance. These are cases in which a judge might well be excused from being limited to the death sentence. There are also numerous cases in which of two or more offenders the ringleader has had great influence over a younger accomplice, or in which the relations between the older and younger offender, such as father and son or elder and younger brother, reduce the culpability of the younger in a manner justifying distinction in punishment. I hold that the judge should never be compelled by law to pass sentence of death when he is certain that he will be prepared to recommend clemency to the executive authority. The objection sometimes raised that the power of inflicting an alternative sentence will place too much responsibility upon the judge is of no weight at all. The gravest responsibility of a judge in a murder case lies in his charge to the jury. The whole of Indian experience during the seventy years for which the Indian Penal Code has allowed this discretion negatives the validity of this objection.

Besides the broad principles and objectives of punishment,

which may be summed up as the method by which organised society can defend itself against injuries inflicted upon it, there are certain factors of time, place, motives, persons, and of actual harm done, which are in practice always taken into consideration when punishment is apportioned to offenders. The law is, of course, no respecter of persons. It will arrest both the peer and the pauper for the same crime, and in law each is liable to exactly the same punishment. Nevertheless, differentiations are made and can be justified. Imprisonment with hard labour, for example, is a much more severe punishment to a highly-educated man than it is to a man accustomed to hard manual labour and to rough surroundings and companions. The disgrace is certainly greater, and to a man of middle-age, or over, the actual punishment is infinitely more severe. On the other hand, the temptation to an ignorant man and the restraints upon such temptation are much less than in the case of a rich or highly-educated man, so that the latter has less excuse than the former for breaking the law. Again, as in India, it is impossible not to take cognisance of persons to some degree. If one sweeper strikes another sweeper with a shoe, the assault would be comparatively trivial; but if the same assault were to be committed upon a high-caste Hindu, the offence would certainly be reckoned as deserving of more serious punishment, and that not because the high-caste man is superior in the eyes of the law, but because the assault upon him by a sweeper with a shoe would inflict degradation and disgrace quite disproportionate to that inflicted upon a fellow-sweeper. And in the same way even in England, abuse among persons accustomed to bandy bad language about amongst each other, which would not cause serious complaint, might, if addressed to a man of refined habit, be regarded as highly provocative.

The extent of harm actually done is another important factor, for if A. fires a gun at B. with the intention to kill him, his moral guilt is the same whether B. is killed or not; yet if A. only wounds B., or misses him altogether, he will only be liable for the attempt. I think that in most cases the sentence awarded would probably be less if the bullet missed B. altogether than if B. were grievously wounded but just escaped

The Police and Dangerous Drugs

By A. H. SIRKS, O.B.E.

Chief of the Rotterdam Police, Assessor to the Advisory Committee on the Traffic in Opium and other Dangerous Drugs

UGHT we, police officials, to regard opium offences—and in this case I mean opium in the broadest possible sense of the term, including its by-products morphia and heroin, as well as cocaine, the product of the coca leaf, Indian hemp and so on—as ordinary offences such as theft and burglary, or ought we to attach a special significance to them?

The deeper I probe into the opium problem, the stronger my conviction becomes that the latter is the case. Drug addicts will always go to the utmost limits to obtain the means to satisfy their craving; drug addiction renders them incapable of work; drugs do not belong, by any means, to the cheaper class of commodity, and furthermore prices are artificially forced up, firstly because drugs can only be obtained by the risky means of smuggling; and secondly, since any price can be charged for them, because addicts will go to any lengths to obtain the necessary money.

It is therefore natural, on the one hand, that the craving for drugs will necessarily lead to the commission of all sorts of crime; on the other hand, the drugs themselves are employed to induce that rash, reckless state of mind which makes the commission of crime so much easier.

It is well known that the machine gunners of the criminal gangs of Chicago—the Tommy-men—are nearly all cocaine maniacs, and according to Ashbury's book *The Gangs of New York*, 90 per cent. of the 'dusters' are cocaine addicts, and under the influence of this drug very frequently not only display desperate courage and intrepidity but even blood-thirstiness to a marked degree. To every policeman it is

clear that the young women who, in spite of their physical frailty, act as leaders of the gangs, cannot consummate the crimes in the manner described in the press without the stimulating aid of drugs.

Not only in the commission of crime, however, but also in the disturbance of the public peace, cocaine and heroin can play a leading rôle, for as a result of the abuse of these drugs, the police are brought into contact with a much more dangerous type of individual than those whose actions are incited by alcohol, for instance.

Again, opium offences are special offences owing to the fact that such enormous sums can be earned by them. Let us assume, for instance, that a burglary yields a profit of as much as 100 per cent., the fact that in this case the risk is much greater than in the case of drug-smuggling must also be taken into account. If in addition, we calculate that in the normal wholesale trade the price of these drugs ranges from £25 to £35 per kilogramme and that a kilogramme in terms of injections or pinches of 20 milligrammes produces a number of 50,000, calculating each injection at 3d.—and I have never heard of such a low price—or at 1s., which seems to me a more normal figure, this must yield a sum of from £600 to £2500; in other words, twenty to eighty times the original outlay. That the risks incurred by this offence are not so very great may be understood from the fact that a quantity of say, a quarter of a pound, can easily be concealed, while on the profit realised on this quantity the smuggler can live well for quite a considerable time.

Yet there are other factors which give to opium offences a special significance. Ordinary crimes injure either physically or materially a single individual or a comparatively small group of individuals; but opium offences threaten the welfare of whole nations and cause untold injury to national health.

An example of the pernicious influence exercised on a nation in the course of a comparatively short space of time may be found in the annual report for 1929 of the Egyptian Central Narcotics Intelligence Bureau, which was discussed at the beginning of the present year in the deliberations of

League of Nations, the principal routes of the illicit traffic all over the world have gradually been clearly defined.

In various European countries, certain firms succeeded in slipping through some loophole or other in the law, and then, either totally on their own account, or as agents for a foreign factory or firm, or again through the medium of another country—used as a distributing centre—they managed to deliver narcotics which, perhaps not directly, but nevertheless just as certainly, through a second or even a third intermediary, crept in the end in huge quantities into the illicit traffic. It is in this manner that large quantities of drugs have been shipped from Europe to Egypt, the United States and the Far East, very often transshipment in some remote part of the globe having been resorted to. In the case of smuggling to the Far East, the parcel post, too, has frequently been made use of. When such cases were discovered, vigorous action was generally taken, and now many countries have introduced stringent measures to suppress drug smuggling.

In the Netherlands, for instance, a new law has been passed, by virtue of which the so-called import and export certificate system, *i.e.* a scheme by which export licences can only be issued on presentation of an import licence from the country of destination, has been introduced. In addition a number of dealers' and manufacturers' licences have been cancelled.

In France, as a result of doubts as to the authenticity of certain import certificates from China, on the strength of which large quantities of heroin were exported, all certificates of Chinese origin have been refused recognition. Furthermore, before issuing an export certificate in future, France requires, from all countries, an import certificate, even though such countries have not accepted the import and export certificate system.

In Switzerland, the manufacture of morphia and heroin has decreased by 75 per cent. within a few years, and the export of drugs to China, except in very small quantities, has been stopped altogether.

Austria, too, which as is well known is a favourite

distributing centre for illicit traffickers, has taken vigorous action by the passing of a new law.

Most probably, illicit traffickers driven out of one country will endeavour to ensconce themselves in another, and it is quite within the realms of possibility that the establishment of factories at Constantinople and the proposed transfer of one or more factories to Turkey are examples of this, for in the opium question Turkey has adopted a peculiar attitude which I shall discuss anon.

There is also a brisk illicit traffic between Europe and Mexico, whence the drugs are smuggled to the United States, the long scantily-populated frontier between the two countries affording an excellent opportunity for such operations.

From the Far East the large steamers of the regular steamship lines are frequently made use of for the smuggling of dangerous drugs to the West Coast of Canada and the U.S.A.

From the Persian Gulf large quantities of opium are consigned to Vladivostok, but it is a matter of great conjecture whether even a small part of these consignments ever reach that port. These shipments are really destined for China and are sent in Chinese and Japanese chartered vessels to points on the Chinese coast where they are discharged into junks and landed at some unfrequented spot. It will be very difficult to take effective measures against this system of chartering vessels, but the Japanese Government has shown a firm desire to bring about an improvement in this state of affairs and has, as far as possible, already taken action.

China must also be regarded as a distributing centre for contraband drugs, for part of the narcotics illicitly imported find their way to British India, Burma, the Malay States, Hong Kong and so on, and there is a regular illicit traffic of both raw and prepared opium from China to Hong Kong, the Netherlands Indies, the Malay States and the Philippines. One of the most recent cases of smuggling which have come to light shows what modern methods are employed by illicit traffickers, methods which are only possible as a result of the disordered conditions which obtain in a great part of China at the present day. In the case to which I refer, the

gang made use of the most up-to-date methods, even employing an aeroplane. It is remarkable that in the case in question the goods were provided with a label issued by a pseudo-official body and on which there was an intimation that if used for the interior the goods would be regarded as contraband.

Worthy of note, too, are the manifold cases of smuggling from the Far East to India and Indo-China. The seizures which have been made on board vessels on the Osaka, Kobe, Mohi, Shanghai, Swatow, Amoy, Hong Kong, Singapore route carrying contraband goods to Rangoon, Calcutta and Bombay are legion. Not infrequently different brands have been found on board one and the same vessel and contraband drugs have been seized in different ports on the same trip, so that no other conclusion can be drawn but that many members of the crews of these ships belong to a well-organised gang of smugglers, and that the drugs are smuggled on board in different ports and concealed in the bunkers, davits and other hollow pipes, and even behind the panelling in the first-class smoking-saloon.

These are all cases of illicit trafficking on a large, well-organised scale to which the police all over the world must direct their attention. At the same time they must not allow the smallest breaches of the law to escape them, for experience has shown that an insignificant seizure in the illicit retail trade has often provided a clue to the discovery of the original source. The war on opium is not only the work of the police authorities of the large seaport towns and places of manufacture and the wholesale trade. They must keep a careful look out all over the world, and their task is by no means an easy one, for, as one country or route is barred to the smuggler, he will just as certainly have recourse to another.

With every new measure devised to suppress this evil, new difficulties will simultaneously arise for the police and customs authorities. As one such measure I might mention the suggestion of the Advisory Opium Committee for a limitation of the manufacture of dangerous drugs. On the one hand, it is natural that such a measure will bear good fruit; on the other hand, new ways and means of smuggling will be devised and the police and customs authorities confronted with new

difficulties. The keynote in the suppression of drug addiction has always been the combating of the illicit traffic, and practically all measures have been evolved to this end.

The Geneva Convention of 1925 deals to a great extent with this subject; the control of persons, manufacturing, importing and selling narcotics, the control of all premises where such manufacture or business is carried on, the licence system by which the traffic in narcotics may only be carried out by duly authorised persons, the obligation imposed upon all persons concerned to keep registers of their various transactions, the control of these registers by the authorities and, above all, the import and export certificate system, are all designed to counteract the illicit traffic. The simple system of import and export certificates alone, by which an export licence which accompanies a consignment during the whole of its journey to its destination, can only be issued on presentation of an import licence from the country of destination, is a most powerful weapon in the struggle. Alongside this measure, a limitation of the manufacture of morphia, heroin and cocaine, which is now to be introduced, will prove one more means of stamping out the peril. As I have already pointed out, this new measure—limitation—will doubtless prove a radical expedient; but it will not be a decisive factor, as some people think, in eradicating the evil. Each measure is nothing more than a link in one great chain; all measures must be regarded as of equal value. One cannot be placed on a higher plane than another, or regarded as the corner-stone of the whole edifice. Taken collectively, all these measures might lead to complete success, but only on condition that all countries of the world give them their whole-hearted support, and that all countries of the world exercise the closest control at home and work in the closest co-operation with each other abroad. In this latter respect there is still much to be desired.

In reality the point of attack in the struggle should be the production of the raw material and, without doubt, in my opinion, by universal co-operation a control of the raw product should not only be practicable but even easy; for in the well-organised conditions of the present day, what should

be easier to control than the cultivation of the poppy, the coca leaf or Indian hemp? Manufacture can, if necessary, be carried on in some obscure place, but cultivation is only possible in the open air. That much can be achieved in this direction has already been proved by Syria, which, in the interests of Egypt, has now practically stamped out the cultivation of Indian hemp, large quantities of which were at one time exported to Egypt *via* Palestine.

It is, however, less gratifying to find that just the largest producing countries have either not accepted one single form of international control whatsoever, or have in practice proved incapable of exercising any kind of effective control. As regards the coca leaf, there is even an irreconcilable opposition on the part of the majority of producing countries.

At present, the situation may be summed up as follows: Turkey takes up the standpoint of internal protection and has not adhered to the conventions of either the Hague or Geneva. Persia makes reservations with regard to the export of raw opium to countries to which export is prohibited, and has not signed the Geneva Convention of 1925.

With Peru the situation is similar, and Bolivia has not yet acknowledged the import and export certificate system. To a certain extent this is quite conceivable, for these are all countries in which greater economic interests are involved by the drug problem than elsewhere.

Then there is China, where at the present time, owing to the unrest which obtains, even the most well-wishing government with a firmly established policy has little prospect of achieving any adequate result.

The weapon of a limitation of cultivation cannot therefore be taken into consideration, and our efforts must be directed towards attaining our aim, as far as possible, by less radical means.

For the time being everything will depend on the work and the vigilance of the customs authorities and the police. It is on them that the greatest responsibility now rests, and on them depends the result of the struggle against the opium menace.

It was therefore a most gratifying fact that, at its last

meeting at Geneva, the Advisory Opium Committee made a special study of the question from a police aspect.

In the first place, the attention of the Committee was drawn to the method employed by the Egyptian police in investigating certain important cases of smuggling—a method which, it is true, had already been adopted in other countries, but the value of which, either owing to ignorance of the gravity of the opium problem, or to financial difficulties, nevertheless does not seem to have penetrated into the whole of the police world.

From Cairo a police officer was immediately sent abroad to institute investigations on the spot in conjunction with the local police. Thanks to the hearty co-operation which he received, the results of the investigation were excellent. No one, it is true, is better suited for such a task than he who has a thorough grasp of the case in his own country and is fully conversant with all the circumstances. In addition to this, there is the fact that personal contact and mutual acquaintance are important factors in every investigation, and that by this means much more can be attained than by correspondence, no matter how exhaustive. On the spot mutual discussions of the matter can be held by officials of the various countries, and this in itself promotes hearty co-operation.

It stands to reason that in undertaking an investigation in a foreign country, an official must submit to certain restrictions. There can naturally be no question of his instituting inquiries on his own initiative. His first port of call must always be local police headquarters, and, in view of the inclination to co-operate and render mutual assistance, which in the interests of the cause as a rule exists among police officers, the matter is treated thoroughly and expeditiously.

It is greatly to be desired that the various governments should encourage this mode of procedure and should waive any objections of a legal or formal nature which might be raised against it.

At the last meeting of the Opium Advisory Committee, it was also seen how fruitful in certain cases direct contact between this Committee and the police might be. In cases of greater magnitude, for instance, in which a number of

different countries are involved, a discussion in committee of the method of investigation to be adopted and an exchange of the various views can be of the greatest importance.

The possibility of detailing police officials from one country to another, to enable them to study the methods employed in these countries and thus reap advantage for their own country, was also mooted at the last meeting of the Advisory Opium Committee. Such a proceeding decidedly has its good points. The methods adopted in one country will naturally bear, to some extent, a national character, such as is given expression in the investigation of crime of every description, and this character will naturally be peculiar to the methods employed in the treatment of opium cases; but opium smuggling is such a distinctly international matter that the method of treatment will also have to bear an international character, and then the fruits of the lessons experienced in other countries can be reaped.

The Committee also discussed in the broadest possible manner the means for promoting the co-operation between the police authorities within one and the same country on the one hand, and between those in different countries on the other, with a view to obtaining the best results. It was pointed out that speed is one of the first essentials in an investigation, and also that control will be more effective if all decisions bearing upon the manufacture, the consumption, the transport and the possession of dangerous drugs are placed in the hands of one central authority in each country. In the code drawn up by the Advisory Opium Committee at a former meeting, measures were prescribed for those drugs which it was thought were likely to pass into the illicit traffic, and this code has now been extended to cover cases of drugs which have already passed into this traffic. The Commission recognized, however, that in certain countries the legislation and the whole government system would stand in the way of the establishment of one central office, but deemed it advisable that even in these cases, centralization should be applied as far as practicable in conformity with the existing laws. Both in the interests of a proper settlement of affairs, as also from an international viewpoint, such a central autho-

riety must be regarded as indispensable, since only by this means can the mutual contact between the various police forces in one country and between the police authorities of different countries be assured. Rapidity of action in all matters can only be increased by this means and a more exhaustive treatment of details promoted. Emphasis was also laid on the importance of the rendering of mutual assistance.

A point of the greatest importance in this respect is the fact that the Opium Section of the Secretariat of the League of Nations possesses a wealth of information which in many investigations can prove of great value. This Secretariat will always be found fully prepared to supply such information to bodies concerned. On the advice of the Advisory Opium Committee, however, the Secretariat is to go a step further, and is now to work up these particulars as far as possible into a sort of Black List of persons most prominently connected with the international traffic in opium. It is hoped that the governments of all countries will co-operate in this project by keeping the Secretariat continually supplied with any new information respecting persons engaged in the illicit traffic.

One of the most important documents annually drawn up by the Secretariat is a list of the principal seizures of drugs, of which there are a considerable number. This document which bears the number O.C. 294 sets forth, in addition, all details of each seizure and presents a most comprehensive survey of the illicit traffic. Up to the present it has been solely distributed to members and assessors of the Advisory Opium Committee, but it has now been decided to circulate it to all members of the League of Nations and the signatories of the Conventions of the Hague and Geneva. In this manner it will come within reach of police authorities in touch with the opium problem and will thus contribute towards the suppression of the drug menace.

I have tried to show in the foregoing what great importance is attached in authoritative circles to an intensive co-operation on the part of the police in fighting the opium plague. On the one hand, it will be seen to what an extent results to be achieved over the whole world are influenced

by police action, and, on the other, what great confidence is placed in the police.

It is for the purpose of bringing this aspect of the case into the limelight, of giving wider publicity to the importance of the opium problem for the national welfare of all countries, of drawing attention to the deadly consequences of the opium menace, and of arousing the consciousness, that all over the world the police can render invaluable service to mankind, by devoting more attention to the question, and, by mutual co-operation, achieve those results which must be regarded as absolutely imperative that I have written the foregoing. If the police see the opium problem in this light, their efforts will not be in vain.

The Broader Outlook

BY SUPERINTENDENT F. NAYLOR

Criminal Investigation Dept., City of Sheffield Police

PARLIAMENT very wisely decreed when passing Part 2, Section 11, of the Criminal Justice Act, 1925, that the police forces of this country as a whole should at all events be given the opportunity, amongst other things, of having a working agreement so that a case committed in one police district might be tried in another police area. This, being altogether different from having a case taken into consideration, is undeniably an excellent thing ; but it is to be regretted that for some reason or other full advantage has not been taken.

Can any reason for this be given ? Are we to assume that lack of interest and of a broad outlook has cramped the operation of this Act ? In any case the elements of co-ordination, common sense and expediency are demonstrated in the Part of the Act quoted perhaps more forcibly than they are displayed by responsible police officials.

This may be debatable ; but, without being too dogmatic, it is more than an idle rumour to say that the spirit of co-ordination, common sense and expediency has not prevailed to the fullest possible extent throughout the various police forces. This is not for the general good. True it is that some police forces render of their best as the occasion arises, but in the doing of their best has not the question of ' police area ' been a hindrance ? By this I mean each Police Authority has accepted responsibility for a crime committed within its boundary and left its neighbour to do the same. It may be argued that certain particulars of the crime were circulated and adjoining forces invited to render help. But is this enough ? I say ' No.'

Let us imagine a very serious crime having been com-

mitted in a County Constabulary area. The scene of the crime is a few miles away from a Borough Police area, and yet a few miles still further away from a City Police district. Or, if you like, picture the crime to have been committed in either the City or Borough Police district. What follows? Investigations are set in motion as early as possible, the scene of the crime being visited by the police of that particular area and they alone. The next step may be further afield and the investigator finds he must visit, if the crime be committed in the County area, several addresses, the last of which, we will say, is in the City Police area.

Whilst in his own district the officer undertaking the inquiry feels quite at home, but he must of necessity call at the Borough Police office and ask for help. No doubt he will get it, but the full responsibility of this investigation does not rest on the Borough Police. They have plenty of their own crime to 'clear up,' as a result of which the crime committed out of their district may take a second place.

Away goes the officer towards the City, knowing full well that before his inquiry starts he should apply at the City Police office for assistance. Therefore he makes his request and may receive similar treatment to that obtained at the Borough. He may be satisfied, as no doubt many are, but it is that unnecessary boundary, or boundaries, which has stood in his way. They might be termed 'barriers.' Precious time has been wasted in getting over these barriers; but they still stand as the same, for a similar process will have to be gone through should another crime take place under anything like the previous conditions.

This brings us to the very important problem of Police Districts. Is the present system the best? Take, if you like by way of example, one of the counties of England; perhaps Yorkshire or Lancashire might afford the most glaring cases.

In these industrial areas we find the City, Borough and County Police districts mixed up like a jig-saw puzzle, and to add to the medley we notice a few other Police Authorities, such as Railway and Dock Police, thrown in. Here we find the numerically small police force as well as the force with its hundreds. Each of these forces acts in the main as

individuals because of the existence of the boundary, or barrier, of its particular police area. The law (exclusive of local acts and bye-laws) which they are called upon to enforce is the same, and yet so much variety is to be found in the conditions under which the law has to be applied. This variety can only be overcome by the abolition of the many, and the establishment of the few. This may seem hard, but it cannot be expected that the very best police service is to be obtained by the present system which allows more than half a dozen separate Police Authorities operating in a single county.

It is hard to believe that uniformity exists. This will be known to those police officers whose duty it has been to compile the annual Government returns. If it is reasonable to think that all police forces do not make their annual returns out in exactly the same way, it is also reasonable to suspect that there will not be a fixed and standardized system of administration and operation.

What I am driving at is, that there should be a regular and even flow of police administration and activity all over the country rather than so very many of those whose characteristics are to be considered from other angles.

Chief Constables have their Conferences, and the Chiefs of Criminal Investigation Departments also confer. These gatherings are not held simply for airing grievances, but for pooling the experience of these officers before the chairman of the Conference. This is as it should be.

Can it be denied that some of the most efficient police constables of this country are to be found among the members of the various County Police forces? Can it be disputed that these splendid all-round policemen, whose territory often extends for mile after mile, render yeoman service to a Chief who may be twenty or more miles away? They have no narrow outlook as to area. Their duties are more varied than those of the City policeman. The sense of limitation by boundaries is not so easily forced upon them. Village after village with perhaps a fairly large country town may be in their domain, and it may be that good and efficient police service with a uniformity of administration is carried on through a whole county.

Compare this with one of our industrial counties in which we find no less than twenty Chief Constables. Each of these may be giving of his very best. This article is not to find fault with Chief Constables ; but is it not reasonable to expect that every one of those twenty Chief Constables will have his own special system and advance his own ideas ? What else can be expected but a mixture of styles and activities as pronounced as the numerous types of uniform they wear ?

These are days of speed. Police officers have to think and act quickly. The motor-car has altered the policeman's duty and will continue to alter it. The thief has brought the motor-car to his aid in a wonderful manner. For sheep stealing, shopbreaking, 'smash and grab,' etc., the car has been brought into use. Mark how pickpockets with the aid of the motor visit country cattle markets. Whilst these thieves operate the various police forces continue to do what they, as individual police forces, think fit. How can the motor bandit be brought to book with such a system ? Cannot something be done to establish a system of motor patrol from town to town ? Think of the good that might be achieved by having a patrol by motor from Nottingham to Leicester, or Retford to Doncaster. Police points, say at Retford and Doncaster, established for the purpose of periodical contact by motor patrol, and a generous supply of police boxes between the two points, should make that Great North Road unsafe for the thief, uncomfortable for the road hog who makes good his escape after an accident, and pleasant for the motorist of sense.

Be this as it may, under the existing conditions of the inequality of man power and motor transport, the police of this country are not rendering that very high and efficient service that should be within their power.

The great problems which are confronting the engineer who is anxious about making our new wide highways should in a like manner be receiving attention from all serious minded Police Authorities, who have something more in mind than the very important duty of regulating traffic at dangerous crossings, etc. It is noted that the great railway companies have installed extensive and important motor-bus routes in various parts. It



is well known by detectives what facilities these and other buses offer for the perpetrators of crime, yet for some unknown reason no well thought out and organized police system has been instituted to combat this; neither does serious anticipation seem to have been made to deal with any increase of crime in this direction.

The travelling thief no longer has to depend on the railway as a means of travel or removal of property. His, or some other person's, car can now be used. In very little time he is out of one police district and into another, thus making his detection more difficult.

Then the question of property stolen in transit is one with complications. What Police Authority is prepared to accept responsibility for a crime committed between certain given points, either on the railway or highway? This failure to accept responsibility must have a tendency to decrease interest and ultimately lead to an unsatisfactory investigation of such a crime.

The County Chief Constable has mile after mile of open road before him. Compare with him the Borough Chief Constable with his restricted area and consequently limited operations. Why should there be so many of these limitations and restrictions? Could not something be done to put all policemen in the same professional atmosphere? Unless the police forces are enabled to give a demonstration of unity of action over a big front, it is not reasonable to expect the very highest state of efficiency.

Instead of small police districts, would it not be better to have larger police areas managed in a similar manner to our County Constabularies? I would suggest in most cases that a County Commissioner be in charge of the police work of each county. I would also suggest that England and Wales be divided into six districts as shown on the map on p. 577, and that each group of counties form a police district of which a District Commissioner should be in charge. Attached to each police district I would have one of H.M. Inspectors of Constabulary who would devote the whole of his duties to one police district only. Under such a system it is fair to assume that there would be reasonable uniformity.

Then again, why cannot the various police forces have a fixed and standardized set of police forms and books? The forms supplied by the Statistical Branch of the Home Office to the various police forces for the purpose of making certain returns thereon, are all alike, each force in the main receiving the same kind of forms. Yet each police force has its own pet system of recording the facts and figures which will eventually be used to make up those returns. Surely some forms are better than others; one system of record keeping better than another; one style of filing superior to many; one crime report form may be quite good and another inferior; one charge sheet may differ from another although the offences recorded thereon may be alike. Cannot some committee of experienced police officials be set up to study this question and as far as possible consider favourably the adoption of a 'Regulation' set of books and forms? I maintain that a police officer who has thoroughly mastered the book-keeping of his own police force should have in every sense mastered the books of any police force. Of course, there will have to be special consideration for special cases; but in the main the most important books in use in the various police forces are for the same purpose, yet the entries therein might disclose a remarkable difference in the recording or otherwise of events which are fundamentally alike.

I suggest that if every policeman, for instance, had to make out his crime report on the same kind of crime form, and if the same form had to pass through the same process in every police district, we should be much nearer achieving a reliable comparison of the state of crime in each district than at present.

In view of the importance of full development of true comradeship and *esprit de corps* in the Police Service every effort should be made to encourage and stimulate these splendid characteristics. Take stock, if you like, of what will happen if an officer of one force is called upon to give evidence in some Police Court some distance away from his own district. What interest this visitor arouses! It may be that comment will be made on the manner in which he gave his evidence. It may be that some new idea has been introduced. It is possible that the visitor has gained valuable experience by the necessity

of visiting another district to give evidence ; but, above all, if a friendship has been made with the force concerned, one more link has been forged in that great chain which should bind every policeman in one unbroken chain of loyal and efficient service.

The same result obtains in a friendly cricket match played between a team from the City Police and a team selected from a County Force. On such an occasion the policeman of the County rubs shoulder to shoulder with his colleague of the City. At the conclusion of the match the two teams will take tea together. Over the cup of tea various topics will be discussed and much friendly chaff and chatter take place. They are contributing, perhaps unconsciously, in the establishment of the comradeship of the united front. Let the keen observer take note of the Superintendents who represent the opposing teams. I have the happy recollection of being such a favoured one. Cricket being my favourite sport, I was of course interested in the game. My friend, the Superintendent of the County Force, was accompanied by his Inspector. We sat together and watched the game, but our interest in the cricket match was interrupted by the introduction of various matters definitely and closely associated with our more serious business of police work. To-day I have such confidence, high regard and respect for that Superintendent, who is in charge of a large County Division that, should I be asking for some inquiry to be made in his district on my behalf, I know that all his available resources will be brought into operation to make such an investigation a success in every sense of the word.

I think it is well that Superintendents should so work together ; but would it not be better still if some such spirit could be infused more forcibly than at present into the younger members of the service ? In this connexion would it not be worth while to influence the recruit at the very commencement of his police career ? First impressions may count more than can be estimated. If any system could be established whereby every police district had a central training school for recruits, and every constable of that area had to undergo a given period of training and study in that school, could we not hope that

under the skilful and efficient tuition of accomplished masters the young policeman would pick up the true team spirit, without which only partial success can be expected ? Then again, these young recruits would receive instruction as a body and not singly as individuals. Their time-table or lesson chart would be exactly like the chart in the training school of each other police district. The atmosphere of their training days thus would, or should, develop in each recruit a broad outlook combined with those great qualities of comradeship and manliness so necessary for policemen. Uniformity in various ways might thus be obtained amongst the young policemen, and as time passed on and batch after batch of recruits left the training schools for their various stations of duty there would be a gradual infiltration over a large area of policemen who had all received a similar training.

What happens to-day with the recruit ? If he has joined a force which is numerically strong it is likely that he will receive his early instruction and training at or near the headquarters of his own force. Or if he has joined a smaller force he may be given some period of training away from his own force in a school connected with a larger force. It is noted that such a practice is in operation, and that a force like Birmingham has done much in the training of young policemen belonging to forces outside Birmingham. This is a scheme worthy of extension. It is to be borne in mind, however, that Birmingham is not likely to follow exactly the same lines as those in other places at which recruits are trained. Thus is presented to our notice the fact that some young policemen attend training centres varying in composition yet splendidly equipped for the needs of the recruit, whilst other recruits may not be quite so highly favoured and are obliged to make the best of the facilities offered to those who join their particular force.

My idea is to start every recruit in the great Police race off on the same mark. We are not all constituted alike. It is not right that we should be. Some will excel in the race, but if all run well the right goal will have been found. The true spirit of comradeship will not crush initiative and individuality but will delight in the success of the comrade. Sections, and

particularly small sections or divisions of men, cannot be expected on account of their environment to nourish that wide and far-reaching understanding of the united and larger company. But whether a policeman be a member of a large force or a small one, modern conditions require that he be free from narrowness, and have opened out to him expansive fields of thought and activity.

Police officials have in the past devoted, and will in the future continue to give, attention to the varying requirements of the thickly populated locality, the industrial area, the suburban parts of towns and the rural district. Each of these separate districts of necessity should be policed in a manner peculiar to its own requirements. Have the requirements of the last mentioned section, the rural area, been fairly and squarely considered? Can it be disputed that the volume of traffic on many of our country roads and village streets has so developed that it has outstripped and left far behind any real attempt to deal with it? This is not the fault of the county constable. He may have done his best, with the aid of his motor cycle, to keep things in order. But his motor cycle, useful as it is, does not abolish boundaries, neither can a motor cycle be utilized in the advantageous manner of the motor-car. Certainly use the motor cycle for police work whenever it can answer the purpose, particularly on roads where the traffic is not so great as is the case with the main highways; but for the latter the most up-to-date police car with the most efficient wireless appliances in charge of two policemen, should have certain fixed patrols. These patrols would be placed at varying intervals and according to the fluctuations of road traffic, criminal offences, accidents, etc. The irregularity of the motor patrol in respect of time and place would put travellers by road, whether on car or on foot, out of any reliable estimation as to when to expect the policeman to appear on the scene.

Then again, the constable would be in a position to see more than at present and to communicate information to his colleagues at other points, who in turn would pass useful hints along the line. Experienced policemen, and particularly detectives, know the value of the personal touch. By conversation information can be communicated, rather than in formal

notes. His knowledge of the ways, habits, customs, characteristics and general make-up of the people cannot be classified except in the main as relates to crime.

This latter subject of course is, and has been, dealt with in the *modus operandi* system. However, no system has been established for recording that which is so helpful in police work, *viz.* information bearing on the everyday life of the people. This is most important. The investigator ought to be in possession of all available particulars whether they are for good or otherwise. His knowledge of the people will be his guide and will very largely decide for him the right type of individual to approach. How are we to transmit this knowledge except by word of mouth? The opportunity for transmission of information would be improved by increasing the points of contact.

Statistics will show that one police force may have a very busy time whilst another force may have a comparatively quiet time. Epidemics of crime will break out; strikes and lockouts will occur; demonstrations, pageants, shows, race-meetings, etc., will take place. All these demand either extra or special police attention. Under the present system if a number of policemen are required, say, for a very large race-meeting, it is likely that a large proportion of the imported police are drawn from one force. Obviously this must, for the time being, weaken the force which has loaned the imported police more than would have happened had these extra men been selected on a proportional basis from a much larger area. Then again, 'imported police' has an unpleasant sound. If it is desired that the best possible feeling should exist between the police and the public, particularly in times of labour unrest, let the people be guarded and regulated by members of one police unit and not by members of a number of units.

The introduction of policemen who have very little idea of the psychology of the mass must be considered, and any element of uncertainty in this direction should be treated as important. A policeman should so train and equip his mind that he may converse with the banker or business man, chat with the farmer, have a word with the roadman, and indeed so fit himself in with the people and their affairs that, perhaps

unknown to them, he is establishing about himself a tremendous armoury of potential sources of information.

The modern policeman has need of these. Ask a county policeman the value of an observant roadman, or a city policeman the value of a vigilant lamplighter. These are the types of men who may on occasion be in a position to render help. In a still greater degree should the good feeling and co-operation between the man in the street and the policeman be fostered in all commendable ways so that there should always be as many transmitters of knowledge to district headquarters as policemen in that district.

The whole subject of property reported as missing in transit requires a review and must be given a place in the discussion of 'The Broader Outlook.' The solution of this problem has not yet been placed on a satisfactory basis. Under the existing conditions there is an insufficiency of unbroken investigation.

If a consignment of goods be dispatched by road from one of our ports to an inland town it is possible that the police of the inland town will receive a report showing that a part of the consignment has been stolen between the port and the inland town. The initial inquiry in such a case will fall on the police of the district in which the destination of the goods is situated because they have received the first report. Having made whatever inquiry is possible within their district the police of the town concerned may be able to satisfy themselves that the crime was not committed in their district. It is possible that they will transmit certain particulars respecting the theft to some other police force or forces on the line of route. But the important point is this; having satisfied themselves that the crime shall not be debited to them, the police who received the report will be almost certain to allow the edge of zeal to be dulled, as a result of which the inquiry may terminate in a broken and unsatisfactory manner; and unless there is direct evidence that the crime was committed in a certain district not one of the Police Authorities through which the motor passed will accept responsibility for that particular crime.

It would be interesting to know the number of crimes committed every year for which no account is made in the

Government returns simply because the stolen property is 'missing in transit,' and cannot with certainty be shown as having been committed within any particular police district. No authority should endeavour to inflate criminal offences; but if we are to get something like a reliable estimate of crime committed in England, due cognizance should be given to the recording and investigating of a crime irrespective of whether the crime be committed on the road or on the railway. Crime wherever committed should be dealt with and attacked by a solid and united front.

Special crimes, such as murder or manslaughter, may demand the specialist, either in the shape of the investigator or doctor. There is, however, such a volume of crime recorded under the headings of housebreaking, larceny, etc., that most policemen, if so minded, might claim to be termed specialists in the investigation thereof. However good the individual policeman may be, cannot something be done to unite his strength and efficiency with his colleagues and as far as possible create a stronger band of protection and efficiency? Isolation, detachment and aloofness on the part of a constable are not to be commended.

We will again look at the suggested division of England into five districts (page 577), leaving Wales as a separate district.

These six districts we will name

- No. 1.—Northern.
- No. 2.—Welsh.
- No. 3.—Central.
- No. 4.—Eastern.
- No. 5.—Western.
- No. 6.—Headquarters, or Southern.

It will be observed that No. 1 District is comprised very largely of thickly populated and industrial areas as well as vast stretches of sea front with important ports and watering places. A central bureau for this District could with advantage be established at or in the vicinity of York. For the Welsh District, a point near Aberystwyth might be considered suitable for control of road traffic, but in other directions Cardiff

or Swansea should have claim. In No. 3 or the Central District, Birmingham is eminently suited for the establishment of a central office. The Eastern or No. 4 District, comprising great expanses of agricultural land with cities and towns dotted here and there, might be provided with a central dépôt at Peterborough. With regard to Western or No. 5 area, Taunton or some town situate in the vicinity might be given consideration for the establishment of a centre, and No. 6 or Headquarters District would be at New Scotland Yard, which must always be recognized as the chief and most important centre of the English police system.

Just as Scotland Yard renders assistance when required throughout England, in a like manner but perhaps more directly should the central offices of the several districts render assistance as occasion arises within their respective area. Each central bureau should have an up-to-date *modus operandi* system and index, files of finger impressions, records of criminals, photo cabinets and all the paraphernalia of a modern police office, arranged to deal specially and expeditiously with criminals who operate within that area. Every set of finger impressions filed in one office should also be filed at New Scotland Yard and any effort to withhold or check the supply of impressions to New Scotland Yard should be severely discouraged.

There must be a central bureau for finger-print work so that there will always be a complete and comprehensive register of finger-prints. This central office would be responsible for the distribution by wireless or telephone of important matters requiring circulation. It would be the place from which the Commissioner for the district would give his instructions. Conferences of his Superintendents for traffic control would assemble there. The detectives of the district would gather at intervals to talk over questions arising out of their work, and, if necessary, to tackle unitedly any difficult set of circumstances surrounding a crime.

Cordial co-operation in the ranks of our detectives is of paramount importance; and wherever a very serious and undetected crime is committed all the available resources of the best detectives for miles around should be concentrated

on the unravelling of that crime. Indeed, it should be held as neglect of duty on the part of a police force struggling with a difficult case of murder if it should decline to appeal for help to its neighbouring police forces. Yet under the present system who is there to come forward and give a direct order to any Chief Constable or Superintendent to carry out certain work for a neighbouring force? My point here is that there should not only be a central authority to give an order, but that the same authority should see that the order is carried out.

Difficulties will arise in trying to carry out such changes, but it may be well for us to bear in mind that such important centres of police work as Wakefield, Birmingham, and Liverpool have long been carrying out some of the matters previously mentioned. Their work has been a good work; but how much greater work might these centres have achieved had they been backed by authority, recognition and wide range of vision as indicated in this paper?

The telephone and fast travel have brought distant places nearer. Fast travel, indeed, is a serious problem for police officials. Let us take for example a case, not an isolated one, in which a motor has proceeded on its journey after colliding with some individual on the road. The police officer who is first on the scene will obtain certain particulars. His next business is to notify perhaps his headquarters, or he may himself telephone to a place or places through which the absconding car will possibly pass. The officer's judgment may be sound and commendable; but I submit that if the officer is satisfied as to the responsibility of the motor-car, he should have facilities provided whereby he can notify one central office whose duty it would be immediately to have all roads within a given radius not only watched but patrolled by motor with a view of tracing the offender.

Circulation of printed matter, particularly to the county constable, is much too slow. Every rural constable should have a telephone so that in case of emergency the whole countryside could in a few minutes be studded with constables armed with the latest particulars of the cause of the emergency and fully equipped to take whatever action may be necessary. Such a system would give encouragement to the officer who

has to bear the brunt of the attack, *viz.* the officer who is 'booked' to the inquiry. He is the man who requires our co-operation and help. He is the man who will have to render an account to his Superintendent, and he is also the man who should be most assured that his colleagues are making valiant efforts on his behalf in other parts of the field.

It is my good fortune to be associated with detectives who have acquired that fine spirit of team work. Their unity increases their strength. Any young officer coming into their midst would be sure to find willing helpers. In a like manner let us all pool our resources, remove any obstacles of jealousy and self-importance and fling ourselves into the thick of the work in which we are engaged, with the single determination and aim to get the task completed.

Finally, knit the police forces of this country together by means of increased telephonic communication, wayside police boxes, town to town motor patrol, and thus form one large police web with services linked up with each of these district headquarters.

It is the wish of the writer that the police forces of this country should deal with crime as a united body. The question of the limits of police areas and police authorities is bound to arise. The time is ripe for its consideration. Put the policeman in the open competitive field of police work. Let each constable throughout the land pass the same educational test. Give all the same chance. Instil into the mind of each constable the idea that honourable efficiency is the thing that matters. Indifference to these things must be fatal.

Fraud in Various Forms

BY DETECTIVE-INSPECTOR R. MORRISH

Metropolitan Police, London

IT is difficult to conceive any form of crime so fascinating to the perpetrator, or interesting to the investigator, as that of fraud. The obtaining of goods and money by means of false pretences has attracted men and women of every class, from the illiterate to the highly educated. Whilst the former is generally content with obtaining small sums of money, and goods of little value, the richly-dressed, smooth-tongued, plausible person is able without difficulty to convince his dupe of his trustworthiness, and to enrich himself by thousands of pounds as a result of a single well-planned transaction.

It has been said that a fool is born every minute. If this be true it is possibly due to the fact that clever tricksters are ever-increasing; that every day new ideas are evolved by clever crooks to ensnare the incautious. The motor bandit and housebreaker may well become bored with the monotony of their calling, but the man and woman engaged in fraud finds recreation in the preparation of new schemes after the old stories have proved unprofitable. Fraud is described by Sir Leonard Dunning, His Majesty's Inspector of Constabulary, in his latest report, as 'the leading feature of modern crime.'

It would be impossible to enumerate all the systems which are adopted. The best method of disarming the intended victim would seem to be that of impersonation. It is an undeniable fact that nearly every trade and profession in life has been counterfeited by clever frauds. There are at large bogus clergymen, doctors, solicitors, engineers, policemen, private detectives, railway servants, titled personages, insur-

ance agents, press representatives, rich land owners, cattle ranchers, financiers, and many others.

One often hears caustic remarks concerning the credulity of persons victimised, but frequently those who profess immunity are in some way or another themselves ensnared. The fact that so many persons are defrauded is ample testimony to the astuteness and plausibility of those who gain their livelihood by such dishonest means. It must also be remembered that the criminal chooses his dupes with a fine sense of discrimination. He is very careful regarding the person, the time, and the place. A bogus clergyman does not approach a person antagonistic to religion. A man devoid of knowledge in money matters will not presume to impersonate a financier. Nor does the criminal who seeks to victimise a woman call at a house when her husband is at home. The clever cheat has already ascertained certain facts concerning his victims. He has studied advertisement columns, directories, Church magazines, and other documents. He is possessed of knowledge which will enable him to answer any question, and he is an artist to his finger tips. Let us first deal with some of the simpler forms of fraud.

Having ascertained by careful observation the address of a shopkeeper who is prepared to receive letters for customers at a nominal charge, a criminal will call, make one or two small purchases, and then request that he be allowed to have letters and parcels addressed there. His excuse may be that his landlady is either dishonest, or curious to know his business. Obtaining the necessary consent of the shopkeeper he probably operates two types of fraud at one and the same time. One system is to reply to advertisements inserted by persons with goods to sell, asking that the goods be forwarded to him on approval; the other method is to insert advertisements himself, offering goods for sale at bargain prices. This type of rogue is a clever penman, and is successful in securing numerous parcels, the contents of which he immediately sells, or pledges with a pawnbroker. He also receives letters containing money as deposits for goods he has offered to supply. He continues to receive goods and letters at the same shop for ten days or a fortnight, but is careful to abscond

as soon as he receives letters of complaint from persons victimised.

One of the most despicable forms of fraud is that committed to the detriment of marriageable women. Introductions are brought about by various means, such as an advertisement inserted by the criminal for a business partner, or by a woman with money to invest in business. In any case the fraudulent person selects women who are possessed of means. He is well dressed and plausible, and in a short time convinces his victim that he is of good social standing, earning a good salary, or just commencing a profitable business. The truth is that he is practically penniless and gains his livelihood by means of fraud. It is difficult to understand the mentality of some women. Many are of a neurotic temperament and more to be pitied than blamed. They have probably been disappointed in love, and appear to be only too ready and willing to fall into a man-made trap.

Having ingratiated himself, and professed a fondness for the selected victim, the man urges the necessity for an early marriage. This having been settled he suggests pooling the woman's money, either for the purpose of putting it into a business, or he may pretend that he has to produce the cash as security to a prospective employer who has offered him a responsible and lucrative position. In numerous cases the criminal is successful in obtaining the hardly earned savings of his dupe. Having secured her money he absconds to another district where he changes his name and seeks another victim.

In some such cases, especially where the woman is possessed of considerable funds, and careful not to transfer her money to the object of her affection, a form of marriage is gone through, but so far as the man is concerned with the sole object of obtaining possession of the woman's wealth. It may be weeks or months before he succeeds, but sooner or later his desire is attained. He then leaves the woman heartbroken and penniless, neither wife nor widow.

Applicants for employment, who can ill afford to be defrauded, are victimised at the hands of criminals who pretend they are in a position to obtain business appointments. In

some such cases hundreds of men and women answer advertisements inserted at the instigation of those who gain their livelihood by means of 'registration fees.' The dupes are directed to fill up application forms, but they hear nothing further. The perpetrator continues this type of fraud under various names from different addresses until he is at last caught and punished.

It is not always the simple folk who are defrauded. There is a type of rogue who watches the reviews of newly-published books. Taking a note of the publishers he telephones to them, representing himself to be Doctor so and so, or the Reverend somebody, according to the kind of book published. He requests that a copy of the book be forwarded to him by post, together with the account. He generally uses an accommodation address, or the address of a house he is shortly vacating. On receiving the books he promptly sells them to second-hand book dealers. If questioned by them he plausibly states that he is a book reviewer and has no further use for the volumes.

One can scarcely conceive a more heartless fraud than that of taking advantage of an obituary notice inserted in a newspaper by the relatives of deceased persons. The method adopted by the criminal is to write, not to the living relatives, but to the deceased. He pretends to be renewing an old acquaintanceship, whilst assuming that his 'friend' is still alive. The criminal is careful to select persons who are apparently in affluent positions. He pleads the illness of his parents, and sadly reduced financial circumstances in consequence. This type of cheat, who is a facile penman and a good scholar, is able without difficulty to convince the relatives, who naturally open the letters, of his *bona fides*. Believing the writer to be a great friend of the deceased, who has not been apprised of the death, the relatives are disposed to look with pity upon the 'poor fellow,' and in order to relieve his circumstances they send money and clothing. In some cases the relatives have been so exercised about the matter that they have sent the writer substantial sums of money by telegram.

Another cunning fraud is operated by the man who

watches the advertisements of those in need of a house or flat. Carefully awaiting an opportunity to interview the wife of the advertiser during his absence from home, the crafty criminal calls upon her and represents that he is a friend of her husband, and that he has secured just the apartments required. He points out the necessity for paying a deposit quickly, or, according to the circumstances of the dupe, he may suggest that fittings have to be purchased. Having obtained the money the criminal makes a further appointment, which of course he never keeps.

In spite of the critics it is difficult not to sympathise with tradesmen and others who are victimised by means of the directory advertisement swindle. A man who purports to be a canvasser calls at the offices of various firms and states he is taking orders from those who are desirous of having their names and advertisements inserted in a directory or periodical which is about to be published. He produces documents and a receipt book in support of his statements that he is a representative of the publishers. His documents are inspected and accepted as genuine. An advertisement is drafted there and then, the required sum is paid to the 'canvasser' and his receipt obtained. When the true representative calls—if he does call—or when the publication appears—if it is published—it is ascertained that the person who obtained the money was a bogus canvasser, and in no way connected with the firm he was supposed to represent.

In numerous cases it is of course the cupidity of persons defrauded which leads to their financial loss. A 'race-going shark' ingratiates himself at his hotel with a stranger who appears to be in affluent circumstances, and possessed of a sporting spirit. After a few confidential chats the dupe is introduced to a great friend who is met ostensibly by accident. The friend is also a racing man and a very successful backer of horses who is in a position to acquire 'inside' information. After inspiring the confidence of the dupe by recounting his many wins on recent races, the friend, with the assistance of his confederate, is successful in inducing the victim to back heavily on a 'certain winner.' It matters little whether the horse wins or loses, for, in all probability, it was never intended

that the money should be handed to a bookmaker, and by the time the race is run the criminals have absconded.

Country farmers have been victimised by what is known as the 'Spanish Prisoner' fraud. Letters have been from time to time sent to farmers who are known to have lived for many years in the same place. The writer, who gives an accommodation address in Spain, pretends that a distant relative of the farmer is imprisoned in a Spanish fortress, and a considerable sum of money is required before he, or she can be released. The correspondent pretends that he is possessed of certain knowledge relative to the history of the family, and the neighbourhood in which the farm is situated. He also states that there is a quantity of very valuable treasure which for years has lain hidden in a particular part of the farmer's property. The secret hiding place is known only to the farmer's distant relative who is imprisoned. The writer promises that if the required sum is sent to him at the address given, the relative will be at once released, and will proceed at once to England to assist in unearthing the hidden treasure. These letters are very cleverly written, and unless the farmer is wise enough to seek further advice he loses his money.

Another type of fraudulent person who also appeals both to the imagination and to the purse is fond of using the word 'treasure.' He advertises in newspapers for persons who are willing to accompany him to some remote foreign part, such as the South Seas, in search of treasure trove. On receiving replies he selects suitable applicants, and then writes to them explaining in detail the object of the trip, which is to the effect that certain treasure of immense value lies hidden in a certain known spot on an island. He adds that, although the trip will be an expensive one, remuneration is certain; moreover, those who undertake the voyage will receive a good percentage of the treasure. By appealing to the adventurous side of the victim's nature, this type of fraud is successful in obtaining sums of money which it is supposed will be spent for equipment. Having parted with their cash, however, they hear nothing about the date of sailing.

Other simple frauds are carried out on the uneducated.

A man in workman's clothes calls during the late afternoon at a house situated in close proximity to where the road is being repaired. He informs the housewife that he is employed on these repairs, that he has left his money at home, and cannot pay his fare on leaving work. He promises, if advanced a shilling or two, that he will return it the next morning. This promise he never fulfils, and inquiries show that he has 'borrowed' shillings from other women; in fact that his employment is that of fraud. There is also the woman who has 'lost her purse' and cannot get home. Another woman 'takes a situation' and obtains from her 'prospective employer' a few shillings to return home after the interview. There is also the man who calls upon women whose husbands, he avers, have given him an order for garden gravel or crazy paving. Of course the husbands are away, the story is frequently believed, and the wives lose about ten shillings each. Many inexperienced young fellows have been deceived into buying an 'eighteen carat ring' which has been picked up. Inquiries reveal that they have paid five shillings for a ring which is worthless. These types of fraud are endless, and as soon as one system is 'played out,' another is 'thought out.'

All classes of tradesmen are defrauded by various means. One of the most successful methods is by means of the worthless cheque. The criminal is able to buy a cheque book for a small sum from a housebreaker or pickpocket. Entering a shop, the plausible, well-dressed man will order goods, after selecting them with great care. He gives a name and a local address, asking that the goods shall be delivered. He then produces a cheque for an amount considerably in excess of that required for payment of the goods, and asks for change. Believing that the 'customer' resides at the address given, few questions are asked. If the cheque should be questioned the 'customer' is generally successful in convincing the shop assistant that it is either drawn by himself on his own account, or handed to him by some person of repute in payment of a debt. It is when the errand boy returns with the goods, having failed to find the person at the address given, that the fraud is discovered.

Another system adopted by the cheque-fraud man is as follows. The criminal drives up to a motor garage in an up-to-date car during the late afternoon. He is known to the proprietor as a casual customer. He is very plausible, as indeed are all men of his type; he states that he is in a large way of business in a provincial town, and orders petrol and a few sundries. He then explains that unfortunately he cannot get back to his home that night, which is very awkward as he will have to put up at a West End hotel. Producing his cheque book he adds that he has run short of cash and has no banking account in London. The cheque book shows in fact that his account is with a bank in the town previously mentioned. The proprietor is then asked if he will be good enough to change a cheque for a small sum, about £5. He agrees. The 'business man' goes on his way in his hired car, and later the cheque is returned marked 'No account.'

Yet another favourite method adopted by both men and women is that of obtaining goods by impersonation. They call at large stores and purport to have been sent by well-known customers who are in a good financial position, and who have credit accounts with the firm. The excuse for taking the goods with them is that they are urgently required by Lady 'A' or Sir 'B. C.' Another type of impersonator will telephone to a firm, representing that he is Doctor 'D.' He asks that certain goods shall be sent to his address as soon as possible. The order is executed promptly, and the instigator of the telephone message is waiting outside the house of Doctor 'D.' He takes the goods from the errand boy, pretends to go into the house, waits until the boy has turned the corner, then absconds with the property. Should he have any difficulty with the messenger, he sends him on a bogus errand to get rid of him.

Shopkeepers are also defrauded by means of bogus Seamen's Advance Notes. Seamen about to join a ship are given an advance cheque to enable them to purchase clothes and other necessities. These advance cheques or notes are sometimes forged and changed by persons who are well acquainted with the movements of ships. Such criminals are possessed of information which enables them to fill up

the note to suit the occasion. Shopkeepers generally accept such documents, in a shipping area, in exchange for clothes, and a cash balance is sometimes handed to the 'customer.' The forgery is discovered when the note is returned dishonoured by the bank.

Amongst the most dangerous swindlers is the 'long firm fraud' man. This type of crime is usually carried out by a gang of from three to six men. Their system is to rent a shop or warehouse, or both, and to all outward appearance they are ordinary business persons. The stationery printed on their behalf is at once convincing, and they are able to supply references if necessary, by giving the names of persons who have been, and probably are still, engaged in similar frauds. By opening a banking account, and paying ready cash for goods ordered in the early days of their trading, they soon become established.

Larger quantities of goods and merchandise are then ordered, and credit is obtained. One or two of the conspirators will then take premises in another city or town,—the sole object being to dispose clandestinely of the property sent to them by their confederates. These criminals sometimes travel to various parts of the country, call upon shopkeepers, and offer their goods as job lots. In this way they are able to obtain ready cash. Occasionally the goods are sold in open market places at very low prices. In any event these men abscond from their original premises as soon as they are hard pressed by their creditors. It is not an easy matter to trace them, and still more difficult to recover the property they have acquired by their dishonesty.

Persons with money to invest are frequently victimised by bogus company promoters. This type of criminal has the self-possession of a great financier. He offers shares in anything from oil fields to gold mines. He and his confederates rent palatial offices in the city. His prospectuses and 'articles of association' are models of business acumen, and he is careful to ingratiate himself with likely clients, introduced to him by a co-director, who is in reality another member of the criminal coterie. Tall stories are told to the victims of the potential prosperity of the concern, which lead

598

THE POLICE JOURNAL

the speculator into the belief that the shares will increase in value in a short time. Having invested money and received share certificates the victim feels that he is on a sound footing. Later, he finds that the so-called directors were merely 'birds of prey,' who have either absconded or have been arrested on charges of conspiracy to defraud.

An extremely clever plot was evolved by a gang in London some time ago to defraud hundreds of farmers throughout the country. Two of the conspirators rented premises in a London suburb. They then advertised extensively in the provincial newspapers, offering to appoint suitable persons who were well acquainted with farmers in their locality, to canvass orders for all kinds of cattle and poultry foods. Canvassers were subsequently appointed in several districts, and to these were sent beautifully printed pamphlets and price lists. The foods were offered at prices slightly below the standard figures, this being due it was said to the fact that large quantities had been purchased at a cheap rate; and on this account it was necessary that the canvassers should forward cash or cheques with orders.

In consequence of the favourable offers made, canvassers were successful in securing orders from farmers to the value of thousands of pounds, and the money was sent with the orders, either by cheque or bank notes in registered envelopes. Another member of the gang opened a banking account with cheques to the value of about £6,000, and the bulk of this amount was withdrawn within a few days.

By means of this clever scheme the gang would doubtless have netted from £10,000 to £15,000, but fortunately for the pockets of the farmers and the good name of the canvassers, the plot was unmasked before it had matured. Not a single complaint was received by the police, but their suspicions were aroused regarding the men and the premises they rented. The gang had alleged that they had several truck loads of food stuffs on a local siding, but discreet enquiries resulted in a failure to find more than a sack of meal in a stable. Prompt action was then taken, and at an opportune moment a prominent member of the criminals was arrested in possession of cheques and notes totalling a very high figure. Although

the whole gang was not arrested, one of their number was sentenced to five years' penal servitude, and a large number of farmers, who might easily have been victimised, were fortunate enough to regain the money advanced.

Many fraudulent persons do not make their false representations verbally, but by act or inference, and, as we have already seen, they are assisted by their carefully and cunningly devised stationery. Not long ago in the London area a father and son carried out a clever scheme of defrauding tradesmen in various parts of the country. Their system was to order goods on printed stationery which purported that they were carrying on a well established and high class school of telegraphy and languages. The goods ordered, which consisted of chairs, tables, office furniture, and many other things, were for the supposed purpose of more suitably equipping their school. Police inquiries revealed that practically all the goods were sold as soon as they were delivered, and at prices far below those shown on the invoices. Although ready cash was obtained by the criminals when they sold the articles, not one of the firms who supplied them received their money; conviction and sentence of father and son soon followed.

Many old-fashioned frauds are occasionally revived. There is the sailor 'recently returned from abroad' with valuable fur rugs to sell. These rugs are worth about a quarter of the prices charged to the dupes, who believe they have made a real bargain. Another dangerous individual is the man who falsely represents that he is collecting for certain institutions. This type of person makes it difficult for a sympathetic public to discriminate between the false and the true. There are at large many clever men who are financially unsound, and in need of board and lodging. These are able to supply their worldly needs by telling their landlady a plausible story of their high positions in the city. The truth is discovered when they leave their lodgings without notice and with bills unpaid.

The foregoing is by no means an exhaustive list of frauds, but it will suffice to show an unending variety.

The police officer investigating such crimes will find that in many of them he has a considerable amount of labour

before he can obtain a conviction against the perpetrators, particularly in cases of involved conspiracies. He will amass huge quantities of documents, and will require to take numerous statements. The prosecuting counsel and solicitor will need all their powers of concentration to enable them to examine their witnesses successfully, and to counteract the defence. It is worthy of note that defendants, especially in long firm frauds and other involved cases, are very cunning in their endeavours to confuse the issue by trying to prove that they have carried on a certain amount of legitimate business. It will therefore be understood that it requires considerable legal ability to defeat the astuteness of fraudulent conspirators.

Many such cases, however, are highly interesting and instructive. The experience gained in dealing with persons charged with false pretences and conspiracy to defraud covers a wide range, and the police officer in the course of his inquiries attains a knowledge of business affairs, and of life generally, which will stand him in good stead in his subsequent career.

Prevention of Juvenile Crime

LESSONS FROM LATIN AMERICA

By DONALD C. WRIGHT

Associate Editor, *Review of South and Central America*

PROGRESS in psychology, sociology, psychiatry, penology, and associated fields has shown the world the wisdom of a new viewpoint of criminology, and of Latin America in general it might be said that the nations of that group have so modelled their prisons and their systems that to-day they are leaders in the school which asserts that penalties imposed should not take a form of punishment, but should be a social measure seeking the regeneration of the delinquent.

Particularly is this the case in regard to juvenile offenders. In many very important directions, Latin America is offering much older areas of the earth shining examples of progress and a high order of human attainment, but none of them offers an approach to the advancement made in the treatment of the child who has wandered into crime. The young offender is looked upon not as a person who has incurred a penalty and who must be made to suffer for the crime committed, but as one who needs every help and assistance that the State can give him. He is to be the citizen of to-morrow. As such he must be taught the ethics of an honest life and of his place in the social scale.

In the justice of their legal and penal institutions generally, Latin American countries are in the vanguard. Their task has been not to make improvements on faulty systems but to evolve new procedures in the solving of their own problems. Antiquated principles of the classical and positivist schools have been ruthlessly abandoned, and, in certain cases, the advances in penal codes are beyond those found in recent Russian and

Swiss codes, considered by some as amongst the most scientific and up-to-date.

When dealing with the nations of Latin America as a whole, and with their approach to the question of the young offender, it would be a fatal mistake to compare one with the other simply because in all cases but one they came under the domination of Spain and speak the language of that country. Their problems are as fundamentally different as those of any other nations, for, in the 100 years or so that they have celebrated their independence, they have developed a spirit of nationality that bears of no comparison with another country, even if that country happens to be situated on the other side of the border. The characteristics of the Basque or of the Andalusian are still traceable, if they have been developed in an entirely new atmosphere, and, for that reason, the Mexican is a totally different subject to the Argentine, the Chilean, or the Ecuadorian. In the following comments, therefore, it must not be assumed that the problems of one nation are akin to those of another. Nor must it be taken for granted that because some nations are dealt with more fully than others they are more advanced; they have been selected merely to serve as examples of the progressive spirit of the whole of Latin America.

This spirit is made manifest in the new Mexican Penal Code, which came into operation at the end of 1929. This reveals how boldly a nation of the New World will cut itself away from old ideals and cleave a path for itself along entirely new channels. Under the old Code, Mexico had her Schools for the Correction of Children (*Escuelas de Corrección de Menores*), scattered all over the country, and they fulfilled a great service. Under the new Code they have been retained, but judicial procedure has been so altered, or improved, that the scope of their usefulness has been extended in a marvellous manner, providing for special treatment for each and every child who passes through their doors.

Special Tribunals and juvenile courts have been created. The Tribunals consist of three members, one an expert in psychiatry, another in education, and another a fully qualified lawyer, while provision has also been made for the co-option

of a lady member when the case under consideration concerns a member of the feminine sex. The duties of the members of these Tribunals are manifold. Among them might be mentioned the fact that each has to make a special investigation into the delinquency of the child, its home life, its associations, useful and otherwise, its tendencies, and its general condition. Each is compelled to make a report in every case, utilising, when necessary, the services of the sociological clinics, Departments for the Protection and Vigilance of Infants, pedagogic and psychiatric clinics, observation homes, departments for investigation and identification, etc. Thus a complete survey of the life of the child and of its environment is secured and assured. The advantages of the system are obvious. Each delinquent receives particular consideration, and when the whole data is passed on to the Consejo Supremo de Defensa y Prevención Social de Delinuencia (Supreme Council for the Defence and Prevention of Social Delinquency), that body is able to enforce correctional measures that are essential to each boy or girl.

In no case is there sentence to a penal establishment. The sanctions applicable to juvenile offenders come under the following headings:—

- Liberty under vigilance.
- Reclusion in an establishment for educational correction.
- Reclusion in an agricultural colony.
- Reclusion in a naval school.

Liberty under vigilance is given subject to obligations placed on the members of the child's family or another family, and to the vigilance of the representatives of the Supreme Council, for a duration of not less than one year and not exceeding the date on which the child reaches the age of 21. Reclusion in an establishment for educational correction provides for the transference to a correctional school of a child who can be moulded into a citizen capable of following an agricultural or industrial pursuit, and who can be given full training in the trade of his choice. Provision is also made for a period of not less than one year and not later than the time when he reaches the age of 21 years, when transference would

be made to the corresponding establishment for adults, to complete the term.

Reclusion in an agricultural colony covers the enforcement of discipline as well as the learning of an industry. Work in this instance is carefully graded, according to the age of the child. Reclusion in a naval school provides for training of the boy and placing him on a ship as a merchant sailor.

The delinquent child who shows no signs of being morally abandoned, perverted or in peril of being perverted, and whose state does not demand especial treatment, will be set at liberty under vigilance, his family being cautioned to maintenance of good behaviour. This applies only when in the opinion of the Supreme Council the position and moral standing of the family justifies it. A child when morally abandoned, will be placed under vigilance, and in the care of an honourable family. If this cannot be accomplished, or if it is not possible to place upon those who would take charge of him special obligations in regard to the regenerative training he should receive, he will be confined to a school for educational correction, or to a private workshop where he will learn a trade. If the child has committed a crime to which the terms of the sanction would be deprivation of liberty for more than two years, and if he is morally perverted and reveals persistent tendencies to crime, he will be automatically placed in a correctional educative establishment.

The delinquent of more than 12 years and less than 16 will be condemned conditionally, if the crime does not merit sentence of more than five years of segregation. In the contrary case, he will be sent to an agricultural colony, or to a naval school, whichever is the more suitable.

The headings under which juvenile sanctions are considered, therefore, are :

1. Segregation and relegation by reclusion, in establishments of correctional education, agricultural colonies and naval schools.
2. Confinement to liberty under vigilance.
3. Loss of liberty under vigilance, and inclusion in educational corrective schools, according to the temperament and needs of the child.

It is interesting to note that as a result of the provision for investigations into every case, it has been possible to ensure special legislation in relation to children of abnormal tendencies. The child of unbalanced mind who offends the precepts of the penal law will now be interned in a school or establishment for that type of juvenile, and in no case will he be allowed to leave until he has become normal and can be certified as such. Idiots, imbeciles, and those who suffer from any debility, infirmity, or mental abnormality, will be confined in an asylum or in special institutions, for such time as is necessary for their cure. Only when there has been authorisation on the part of the medical man in charge of that establishment will work be given to them.

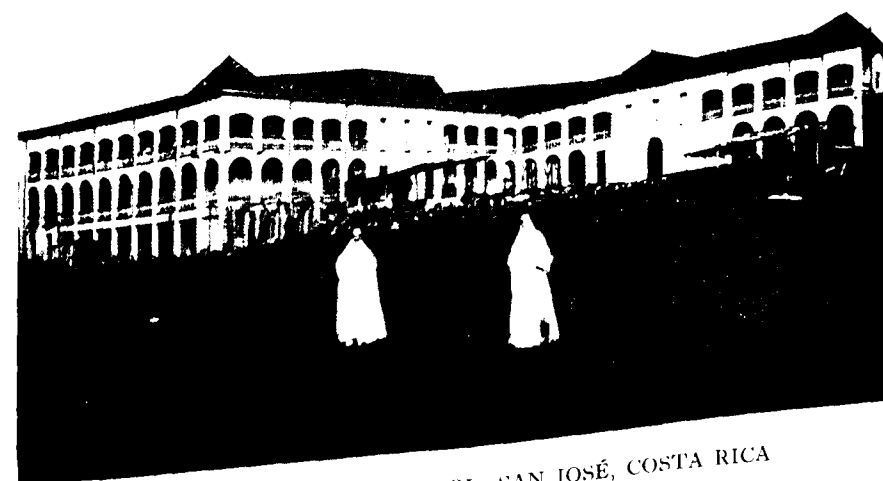
The psychiatric delinquents distinct from those referred to, such as those who show obsessions of intelligence, or insensibility to their actions, will be retained for as long as is considered necessary by the doctors in charge of them. In these instances only work in the open air will be provided, when work is possible.

In Chile the aim of the Government, when carrying out the changes of 1929, was (1) to secure reform of prisons and of prison procedure, and (2) reform of judicial procedures and legal codes. In the process a new attitude to the young offender was developed. With the principle of 'regeneration' of the delinquent through work, education, and discipline—of the words of the President, Sr. Carlos Ibañez—as its main plank of action, the General Council for the Protection of Minors was created. This body has already accomplished much under the new laws, which have now been operating over a year. In Santiago they are applied by the Juvenile Court and the Casa de Menores, under the supervision of the Dirección-General de la Protección de Menores. All children who are arrested for offences are taken to the Casa de Menores, where they are detained for some time for observation by the social visitors, a psychologist, a doctor, and the heads of the institution. Their life is made pleasant, usually more so than that of the miserable homes from which they come. Study, lessons in good conduct, play, good food, and regular sleeping hours make up existence. The boys who are condemned are

sent to the reform school and the girls to the Correctional Home, the Home of the Good Shepherd, etc.

Santiago also possesses an institution known as the Politécnico 'Alcibiades Vicencio,' the purpose of which is the re-education of minors in order to re-adapt them by scientific methods to their environment. In this connection, too, should be mentioned the work of the Ministry of Social Welfare, which, by providing for the health of the poor, is doing much towards reducing crime among young persons. The extent of these activities is revealed by the fact that in 1928 the Chilean Government, at the request of the Dirección-General, contracted an internal loan in the sum of 50,000,000 pesos, (approximately £1,250,000) for the improvement of its various services, extension of activities, and the extinction of the deficits incurred during the years 1926, 1927, and 1928, and which amounted to 18,000,000 pesos (£450,000).

The consolidation of charity and social work has led to the provision of a schedule of visitations by young members of leading families to the poorer quarters of the cities, where they secure invaluable data regarding the antecedents and home life of the youthful delinquent. In many cases their reports have established the responsibility of the parents and proper action has been taken to protect the minor in his environment. In Valparaiso and cities other than the capital this work is being steadily brought up to the standard pertaining in the capital and is meeting with as much success. In addition the establishment of workers' houses, playgrounds, recreational centres, etc. is proving a useful step in the reduction of criminal offences and tendencies, a work ably supported by the private welfare institutions. Among these, one enjoying a particular high place in the estimation of the public is the Child Protective Society (Sociedad Protectora de la Infancia), which is constantly increasing its generous and noble activities. For instance, during 1928, assistance was given to 934 children, of whom 55 were completely abandoned. Besides, a home has been fitted up to provide the young protégés with something akin to family atmosphere. There during the day they continue their studies and learn a trade to fit themselves for the first steps in life.



THE CORRECTIONAL SCHOOL, SAN JOSÉ, COSTA RICA

Above : RECREATION IN ONE OF THE patios
Below : VIEW FROM THE GROUNDS

(face p. 606)



THE CORRECTIONAL SCHOOL, SAN JOSÉ, COSTA RICA

Above : ONE OF THE LONG CORRIDORS

Below : A CLASS OF WICKER FURNITURE MAKING

When dealing with the United States of Brazil, it is necessary to refer to the question of juvenile delinquency in a totally different manner to that adopted in relation to other Latin American countries. With the division of the vast national territory into States, it is but natural to find that while the Federal Government maintains a vigorously progressive policy in regard to the citizens of to-morrow, the greater share of the advancement made in legislation has been made by the Governments of the States. One finds that while the penal system is regulated by the Federal Government, it is administered by the State authorities. When, therefore, in 1928, a new Federal law was passed, placing a definite ban on the condemnation of children to promiscuity with the ordinary inhabitants of the penitentiaries, the State Governments immediately gave their assent and took steps to provide, where necessary, special facilities for juvenile offenders. In each State, therefore, has been constructed, if not previously provided, a special section in all Casas de Detenção for the segregation and training of children.

In the State of Rio de Janeiro, the Government maintains a complete juvenile system, embracing children's courts and establishments for their care and training. The work of caring for abandoned children, and, therefore, those who are most likely to wander into crime by failure to find means to sustain themselves other than by breach of the laws, is intensive. The Judge of the Children's Court of the capital finds this task greatly simplified by the fact that the Director General of Navy Personnel has placed 14 scholarships in the Marine Apprentice School, for boys between 14 and 16, at his disposal. In addition to seamen's training given in this school, there are special courses for training boys as electricians, mechanics, nurses, typists, and in other useful lines. A boy who completes the general course is eligible to the post of petty officer.

The Brazilian attitude towards the regeneration of youthful offenders secures further expression in other directions, all of which tend towards education and development. One discovers, for instance, that from July 14, 1901, to December 31, 1927—that is, a period of nearly 27 years—the Institute for the Protection of Children, located in Rio de Janeiro, and

its branches in the States, aided 510,000 individuals at a cost of about £500,000. It has also distributed many helpful pamphlets on health and hygiene, some of the editions of which run to 1,500,000 copies.

Turning to other States of the Union, there is ample evidence of the fact that the problem of the juvenile, from penal, social and constitutional standpoints, occupies the greatest possible attention. The President of the State of Bahia (Dr. Francisco Marques de Goes Calmon), in his address to Congress in 1928, used these words:

'From defence against crime, recovering children who have been abandoned, and from the institutes for schooling and work, to the regeneration of those who need it, this is one of the most humanitarian civil works and the greatest moral issue facing the Government. Delinquency among children is, almost always, a consequence of the lives of abandonment of those with whom they live; they are exposed to the practices of crime and are victims without resistance, conquered by pernicious influences.'

'Our task is to rescue them and to educate them, and we turn them into good and capable citizens. We do this, first and foremost, because the work is part of good government.'

Dr. Francisco Marques de Goes Calmon also drew attention to the foundation, during that year, of the Ignacio Tosta beneficent institution, created under the laws of the State. This establishment is governed by persons deeply interested in juveniles, and is under the jurisdiction of the Secretary of Police, thus ensuring that desirable contact between social workers and police which is essential to the advancement of the pupils to good citizenship.

The Government of the State of Ceará has applied its energies more to the problem of unemployed children than to any other, when dealing with young offenders, because it believes that the greatest peril is created by lack of regular livelihood. While it is not part of their duty, the police take charge of such children, and, in order to prevent the culmination of criminal tendencies, place them in schools and other establishments where they can receive training for the future. 'The Government realises its responsibility, and we are organising a system of education for the vagabonds of the streets,' said the President, Senhor Carlos de Matos Peixoto.

in his annual address in 1928. 'They are now taken to the *Estação Experimental* (Experimental Station), where they receive instruction in some useful occupation. About fifty children are started in life in this way each year, and while they are in the Station they receive moral and material comfort and learn a trade that is remunerative.'

The creation of *Abrigos de Menores e Escolas de Preservação e de Reforma* (Children's Shelters and Preservation and Reform Schools) for the protection of abandoned children showing criminal tendencies, has occupied the particular attention of the State of Paraná, in southern Brazil. This Government has thoroughly equipped the schools for training of wayward children or those with criminal tendencies, and, in addition, is responsible for other preservation schools, for both sexes, each of which is capable of dealing with over 200 children at a time. At *Portao*, in the outskirts of the capital, *Curitiba*, this Government has just completed the building of a new school which has a capacity for 100 mentally unbalanced children, wherein each will receive treatment especial to his or her case, and education and work in the direction of painting, arts, handicrafts, and other useful pursuits.

Colombia has for long maintained special juvenile courts and procedures for young offenders. In all Departments the Governments have given their attention to the question, as is exemplified by the fact that in 1928 the Government of the Department of Antioquia opened, in *Medellin*, its capital, a school for the education of incorrigible and sub-normal children. Teachers in this school investigate the individual's record and family history, obtain from the judge of the children's court any useful data for training the child, observe each case carefully, and classify it scientifically in co-operation with the school physician. The school is a 'school of action,' using the official curriculum as adapted to the ability of the pupils.

Uruguay has, perhaps, an advantage over all other countries when dealing with the youthful offenders because her educational system is more advanced than that of any other nation of the world. It is her claim, for instance, that she possesses the greatest number of open-air schools and to have

utilised this system to the fullest extent. As a result her methods of tackling the question of the juvenile delinquent are based on great experience gained in the handling of her future citizens. Like all the other South and Central American countries, she has her special schools for the correctional side and for education, and the same can be also said of Argentina, the Dominican Republic, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Peru, and Venezuela.

El Salvador's approach to the problem is unique because her circumstances are unique. The figures governing crime in this Republic reveal that while it is one of the most densely populated of Latin American countries, outbreaks against the law are considerably lower than in other cases. Consequently, El Salvador does not show such a necessity, or demand, for correctional institutions. None the less the Government has given the matter its whole-hearted attention. It has separated the children's courts from the general courts, it has provided establishments wherein discipline and education are combined, and it has also provided facilities whereby the most hardened case can be taken in hand and set on the right road towards a healthy and useful life.

Costa Rica combines her penal institutions with social welfare in a singularly happy manner. Her establishments for boy and girl offenders are equipped in harmony with the most modern concept of the duty of society to this type of offender. Built along simple and yet pleasing lines, equipped with the latest modern conveniences, its institutions, with their spacious open courts, fine dormitories, attractive classrooms, and perfectly fitted departments for industrial and domestic activities, capable of accommodating 500 in some cases, might well serve as models for any country.

In conclusion one might say of the nations of Latin America that, in so far as the juvenile offender is concerned, they have cut a straight path to their goal, without any traditions to worry them, without any previous procedures to cast a shadow across the true horizon to which they aspire—the provision for the youngster, whose misfortune it has been to lapse into crime, of facilities equal to those of the boy or girl born with the silver spoon in the mouth.

A Name of Terror

THE STORY OF A BURMESE DACOIT BOY

I HAVE been for a long, furious walk across the hills, returning *faute de mieux* along the Shwebo road, though I would gladly have avoided the string of quaint little Burmese villages which usually amuse me. To-day I am in no mood to be amused. There was no beauty in the dreadful dawn, and I have cut and hurt myself in the scramble through thorny ravines. Against my fixed resolve, I was constantly glancing at my wrist watch. Just now—just at this awful moment perhaps—it would be happening, away back in the jail behind me. On, on—and then the configuration of the country brought me out on to the Shwebo road. I am come home exhausted, but it is all over. He was duly hanged, and I have had a stiff brandy and soda and my bath.

Ah, well! The ways of life are passing strange: and as one grows older one looks back on many a tragedy. How many good fellows have foundered—this one of *ennui*, that one of drink. This gay and careless lad had taken his own life, that one the life of another. Who would have expected it? And how long the sum adds up—death and ruin from such promising beginnings—and here, at the end of this particular affair, I am face to face with Ma Mi: Ma Mi, dishevelled, weeping, and this morning shamefully widowed. What am I to say to her, the wife—the widow—of the man we both knew, and whose name has been a terror these last two years throughout the length and breadth of Burma?

Ma Mi, dishevelled and weeping, and, since I first knew her ten years ago, considerably faded. Only ten years! I was stationed at Pakokku then. It seems longer—but then so much has happened. Then I recognized that she was pretty in a

dainty sort of way, and that she came daily with a basket of purchases on my account—flowers for the table, fruit, fish, vegetables and other items of 'bazaar.' She was my *luglay's*¹ wife. She was not shy, neither was she forward. She was just an attractive Burmese girl then, and as far as I knew, she and her husband got along very well, though physically I never considered him worthy of her. My *luglay* of those days was small, rather mean, and unusually dark for a Burman. Nor did he show any remarkable qualities, unless it was that he baked excellent scones. He was a simple lad, and I remember that he used to be obviously pleased if I praised his scones. And he was hanged this morning! Ah, well: no more scones—but, poor lad: poor lad! Could we but see destiny, perhaps we might avoid the tragic way—but then, perhaps not. Who shall say in what contented breast the white heats of passion may not blaze up? Was it not a very learned judge who said, as he watched the condemned prisoner being marched away: 'But for the grace of God, there go I'?

How the trouble started with this servant of mine, I cannot say. It was certainly well under way before I was aware of it.

Maung Shwe Hkin was handsome and *débonnaire*, with a light in his eye, and a charming smile upon his lips. He was a small official, and his rank and comparative wealth, I suppose, dazzled Ma Mi. The man had a pleasing manner, and business brought him to the house from time to time. He had his opportunities and he used them. Unscrupulous and cruel he was, and I suppose arrogant enough to believe that Ma Mi's rather insignificant husband would acquiesce. But there he was wrong. There was a show of considerable spirit, and some angry scenes occurred. My *luglay* made no secret of his trouble. Our relations were on the old-world footing of father and son, rather than of master and man. I had had him a long while, and knew all his little affairs, and he knew some of mine: and I was acquainted with him well enough to realize that there would be an explosion unless things took a satisfactory turn. It was in my mind to speak to Ma Mi. Then I decided to tackle Maung Shwe Hkin—my status might carry

¹ Servant.

weight. But just as I arrived at this decision the crisis came—my revolver was stolen.

Of course, a report had to be made. Firearms are not allowed to go astray. Search and inquiry established beyond all shadow of doubt that my servant was the thief—and the weapon was indeed recovered from the inner pocket of his greatcoat. Nevertheless, I was profoundly disturbed: and to this day I am convinced he never stole it. However, there were the facts—clear and damning—and I suppose no magistrate would have had any alternative but to convict. My *luglay* went to jail; but my suspicions were still further roused when, after a decent lapse of time, Ma Mi went to Maung Shwe Hkin. The fellow had always been unscrupulous—unscrupulous and cruel.

And so time went by.

Once I saw my late servant. That was in the street. He had done his time. He did not see me, or pretended not to. The next thing was murder.

The facts are on record. It seems that the lad was again put out of the way on a charge which, as a matter of fact, was later proved to be false. But the second conviction was naturally easier than the first. He was being led to prison when, after the free-and-easy custom of the country, his escort went into a tea-shop with their prisoner in tow. He asked to be given a cup of tea, but it seems that he was taunted with words to the effect: 'You, a jail-bird. Who would drink with you?'

I suppose it was then that the heart of anger flamed white in the puny breast of the servant. There lay the inevitable *dah* handy. The prisoner seized it, killed the two warders and the owner of the shop, stopped to unlock his chain—and was gone.

Two nights later Maung Shwe Hkin was stabbed to death in his house, and pinned to his breast was a bit of paper bearing the name of my late table-boy: a name destined to be feared throughout the year 1927 from one end of Burma to the other—a name of terror and romance. SAN PE.

It would be impossible to relate all the crimes, adventures,

successes and escapes that marked San Pe's progress from the status of a petty criminal to the high and exalted rank of Burma's premier Dacoit *Bo*. A gang of desperate figures gradually gathers round the central one. His name becomes a terror, but his fury is mitigated by whimsical acts of chivalry. He spares the poor. He assumes a legend more than half heroic. He is known as a wizard for cleverness, resource and daring. His adventures are marked with a marvellous audacity. He has reached the summit of his glory, for as his fame spreads the machinery of the law is brought into action bit by bit, until at last the whole of it comes into operation. One by one the avenues are closed, and the agents who, from fear or from a sneaking admiration, supplied food, shelter and information, become fewer and fewer. Gradually the meteoric career passes to its zenith. At this point the hero, if he had lived in Burmese times, would have applied officially for a Governorship, or for the job of Chief Treasurer to His Majesty, and would have been accepted, partly to rid the country of his activities, and partly because a so successful marauder is very obviously the proper man to be Treasurer to the King. Even in the early years of British rule, when dacoit *Bos* were operating all over the country, such applications were received. But San Pe came too late in time. His splendour was all too soon tinged with despair. Yes, it is all very pitiful. There comes illness—fever contracted from skulking in the jungles. The luck turns. The spells and charms, once so potent, lose their force. Confederates are taken. Companions are killed. Movement becomes more and more restricted. At last there is treachery for the sake of a dirty reward, and so the hunted beast is driven to bay. And then the anti-climax of capture, trial, appeal, the gallows: and one more name is added to the fabled list of *Bos* dead and gone.

All that I cannot deal with here. The affair took its predestined course—and whatever cruelty it was that set poor, modest San Pe upon his amazing career, the law has been rightly vindicated this day. Mad dogs must be destroyed. No other end was possible to such a wild orgy of crime. I am here only concerned with two incidents.

The first is my own encounter with San Pe.

A NAME OF TERROR

I had gone to bed—was in fact reading far into the night, when a voice from the darkness said '*Thekin, Thekin.*'¹
'Who is there?' I asked, laying down my book. 'Come in.'

And he came in. 'Don't be afraid,' said San Pe.
'Why should I be afraid?' I replied stoutly, though to tell the truth I was decidedly startled to see who it was. San Pe was at this time at the height of his career, and it is disturbing to meet Burma's reigning *Bo* at midnight.

'Sit down,' I said, indicating the side of the bed.
He hesitated. 'Sit down,' I invited, gently pulling him down.

He sat down sideways on the edge of my bed. 'I have left my arms downstairs,' he said.

I took a cigarette from the bed-side table, and gave him one.

'Well?' I said. 'What can I do for you?'
'Nothing, *Thekin*. You can do nothing for me.'
'Then why have you come, *Bo Pe*? Do you not know that it is my duty to take you?' I said sternly.

'You cannot take me, my father,' he replied: and he quietly laid his weak little arm in my hand. 'You cannot take me, and I am unarmed. See'—and he opened his cotton jacket with his disengaged hand.

I clenched his wrist: but he did not move. He sat like a statue till my grip relaxed, and I dropped his arm. He was right. I could not take him. Was it the memory of devoted years of service? Was it the recollection of his wrongs that were grievous? Whatever the motives—and perhaps they were extraordinarily mixed in that unexpected midnight encounter—I could not abuse this confidence so typical of his simplicity. I have thought since how typical it was of his simplicity—he, whose cunning had become a legend!

There was silence for a few moments. Then San Pe rose. 'I have only come, *Thekin*, to tell you . . . to tell you that I never stole your revolver. *Thekin*, I never stole so much as one anna from you.'

'I know: I know, San Pe.'

¹ Sir, Sir.

'And I know, *Thekin*, that you knew—but I wanted to tell you.'

He had sunk down on to the floor, and *shikoed* me as I sat on the side of the bed. There were tears upon his cheek, and he brushed them away with his sleeve. 'I go, *Thekin*.'

And Bo Pe—the terror of Burma—was gone.

And I only saw him once again—and that recently, when I had some business down in the Treasury. Ba Pu, our rather stout Sub Divisional Officer, was in the verandah, pompously sticking up a notice on the public board.

'Good morning, Ba Pu,' I said. 'All serene, I hope?'

'O!—that San Pe at his tricks,' growled Ba Pu crossly. 'However, we have him tracked down nicely. He can't move: and this will settle him.'

I moved towards the board where a small crowd of people was already studying the notice, and I read:

FOR SAN PE

The Dacoit

A Reward is offered, dead or alive, Rs. 1000.

I made way for a miserable little clerky creature who was peering up at the notice through a pair of pale blue spectacles. I know now that it was San Pe himself, but at the time the disguise deceived me, and it was only a few minutes later, when I had just finished my business, that a tremendous outcry broke forth in the outer verandah. Running up I saw poor fat Ba Pu, with his mouth hanging open, and surrounded by a crowd of excited people, staring at the board.

There, beside his own notice, was another. It was not written on ordinary paper, but on the back of a one thousand rupee note, and it read:

FOR BA PU

Sub Divisional Officer

A Reward is offered, dead or alive, this Rs. 1000 note.

And it was signed, in ink still wet—Bo Pe.

THEOPHILUS.

Some Joys and Sorrows of a Country Policeman

TO the onlooker the life of a policeman in a small village may seem very dull and uninteresting. That would be an entirely erroneous impression, for upholding the law, even in a lonely, out-of-the-way part, is a most interesting (though not always congenial) occupation. The policeman in the course of his duties meets all sorts and conditions of people, and if he has not ample opportunities for studying human nature, nobody has. It is very frequently this knowledge of human nature that enables the efficient policeman to pursue his duties with the minimum of animosity towards himself, although I have yet to meet the policeman who is not disliked by someone.

The following are some incidents that occurred in connection with my duties in a small village in the north of Scotland.

One evening there was an urgent knock at the office door, and on answering the knock I discovered a young woman looking very agitated and carrying in her arms some object which she had covered with a large shawl. 'Oh, please tell me what to do,' she cried. 'Jimmy was playing at soldiers with his brother; he had a flower-pot cover on his head as a helmet, and his brother pushed it down over his ears so that we can't get it off. If we don't do something soon the boy will suffocate.' As she spoke she pulled down the shawl to reveal a boy whose head was encased in a small, green flower-pot cover. Requesting the woman to step inside I considered what was best to be done. It was clearly a case for the medical profession, but the nearest doctor was the best part of two miles away, and the boy might have died in the time that it would have taken us to get him to a dispensary. So I deter-

mined to try to release the boy myself. Procuring a small hammer I instructed the mother to hold her boy in a horizontal position, with the flower-pot cover resting on the office counter, then gently tapped the article two or three times with the hammer. The only result was a spasmodic kick from the boy that almost sent him out of his mother's arms, and a muffled yell from the interior of the cover. Nothing daunted by this failure I instructed the woman to hold the boy more firmly, and drove the hammer more forcibly on top of the object, and to our relief the cover parted in two, leaving the boy free. I look back on that incident as one of the most unusual I ever had to deal with in the course of my career.

On another occasion an elderly gentleman, who had evidently been looking on the wine while it was red, approached me and suggested that I should lock him up for the night. 'But why?' I demanded. 'You're sober enough to go home.' 'You don't understand,' he returned. Then he explained—'You see it's like this: the last time my wife found me in this state she set about me with a broom until I was black and blue all over. She promised to make things worse for me if she ever found me in the same condition again.' He paused to regard me with an expression on his face that would have caused a judge on the bench to roar with laughter. 'Surely you're not going to stand by and see a fellow creature ill-used?' he added. 'Oh, in that case I'll put you in for the night.' I responded. So I made him comfortable in one of the cells, and allowed him to go in the morning.

Meeting the same man in the street a week or so later I inquired what happened when he returned to his wife, whereat he burst into a hearty peal of laughter. 'First time I ever saw the wife in tears over her old man in my life,' he said, with relish. 'She was almost off her head with anxiety over me, and when I turned up, all safe and sound, she fell on my neck.' He added—'Sometime when you're off duty you and I will have one together—eh?' Informing him that I was a life-long abstainer I nevertheless thanked him, but advised him not to try that dodge too often, as otherwise his wife might see through it.

I had not been long in the Force when a young woman informed me that there was a burglar in the house in which she was doing general help. Her employers had gone away on holiday, leaving her in complete charge of the house during their absence. Just as she was on the point of retiring she claimed to have heard footsteps on the stairs.

The house was a good mile away from the station, and standing all alone, with the nearest habitation some five or six hundred yards distant, it would present a very tempting place for a burglar. The night, moreover, was very dark, and admirably suited to a thief's purpose. 'I'm afraid we're too late,' I told the girl when we arrived at the house. 'It must be a good half hour since you left, and he has had plenty of time to finish the job and get clear away. However,' I added, hopefully, 'we'll search the house and find out.' Cautiously entering by the back door I made my way into the house, but no sign of a burglar could I find. As the girl herself admitted, everything was precisely as she had left it earlier in the evening. 'So you may go to bed and rest content that there has been no burglar here to-night,' I said. But even as I said this the girl caught me by the sleeve and whispered urgently—'He's still in the house. Listen, and you will hear him on the stairs.' And sure enough as I listened I heard the unmistakable sound of boards creaking, as though someone were stealthily ascending or descending the stairs. Grasping my truncheon more firmly I stood at the bottom of the stairs, ready to strike the burglar as he descended. For about five minutes I waited, and still no burglar appeared. At length, becoming impatient I flashed my lamp upon the stairs, searching them from top to bottom without finding anyone. The strange thing was that while I was doing this the eerie creaking continued. Eventually a thought struck me as my lamp rested on the window which appeared about halfway up the stairs, so ascending to this window I pushed it open and discovered the cause of the creaking sound. A board just outside this particular window had become loose and was moving slightly in the wind, causing it to set up an eerie creaking.

Shortly after the foregoing incident I incurred the

Chief's displeasure over a mistake which I consider was quite a natural one under the circumstances. A certain man who had been wanted for some time on a serious charge was believed to be in the vicinity. Portraits of him had been circulated throughout the country, and a substantial reward was offered to anyone who would supply information leading to his arrest. Naturally, when the rumour that the wanted man was in the vicinity became known, the local people were on the look-out for him, and were eager to get the reward. It was no great surprise to me, therefore, when I received information that the wanted man had been spotted. 'You'll find him in the Blue Boar,' said my informant, referring to a public house which stood on the outskirts of the village. Taking the man's name and address I hurriedly repaired to the place mentioned, and, entering by a back door, surreptitiously studied the faces of the men at the bar. Sure enough I found there a man bearing a very close resemblance to the wanted man. There was one little difference, however: the face on the portrait had a thick bushy moustache, and that of the man at the bar was clean-shaven. But this, as I told myself, was probably an effort on the part of the man to disguise himself. And in any case, the likeness was too marked to allow to pass. So, entering the bar I approached the man and requested him to come with me to the station, as I had one or two questions to put to him. 'With you,' said the man, raising his eyebrows, and regarding me with some surprise. 'Why, may I ask?'

'You'll find that out when you get to the station,' I retorted, adding sternly—'Come on, or it may be the worse for you.' 'Oh, all right,' conceded my interlocutor with the utmost *sang-froid*. He added—'But if I do it might be the worse for you.' The confidence in the man's manner and his entire absence of 'nerves,' caused me to feel rather uneasy. If the man was guilty of such a serious charge as the one preferred against the wanted man, he was certainly taking it very lightly. And yet his attitude might not mean so very much after all; my Chief once told me of a man who had escaped justice by bluffing a constable into the belief that he had got the wrong man. And in any case if it turned

out that I had apprehended an innocent man nobody could blame me under the circumstances. 'Come on,' I ordered peremptorily, 'and no more talk.'

At the station the man asked for writing material, and on this being given to him he wrote a short note, which he addressed to the Chief, who lived quite close to the station. 'You might get someone to take this to the Chief,' he said, handing me the note. 'You can remain with me to make sure that I don't attempt a get-away.'

So, sending a messenger with the note I sat down beside the man, feeling rather crestfallen. It was perfectly clear to me that no man would ever dream of carrying bluff to such lengths.

As soon as the Chief entered the station I realised that I was 'in the soup.' The man I had apprehended was an old friend of the Chief's—it appears that they had known each other for over twenty-five years. Of course he gave me a good 'telling off,' and made me apologise to the man for any inconvenience I had caused him. 'But,' he told me later, 'you're not to pay any attention to what I said to you before my friend. That was only for his benefit. Don't hesitate to apprehend any man who looks like the one we're after—no matter whose friend he happens to be.' I may add that it was chiefly through my efforts that the wanted man was eventually brought to justice.

The following incident did not directly concern my duties, but I regard it as sufficiently interesting to merit a place in these reminiscences.

There was a certain boy in the village who had a weakness for fruit, and especially stolen fruit. It has been said that forbidden fruit tastes sweetest, and certainly this particular boy seemed to find it so. On several occasions I had to talk to him, and once, with his parents' permission I locked him in one of the cells for three hours. All without avail; the boy continued to climb trees and steal fruit. Eventually he turned covetous eyes on the local doctor's orchard, and it was here that Nemesis overtook him. Following the boy's first visit to the orchard the doctor called upon me, whereat I informed him something of the boy's history. 'Well,'

quothe the worthy doctor, grimly, 'if you can't reform him, I can.'

A week or so later I learned from an eye-witness of the affair, the methods the doctor had employed to reform the delinquent. And his methods were most effective, as events proved. Observing the boy's approach—he had concealed himself amongst some shrubbery in anticipation of the boy's visit—the doctor allowed the young thief to get well into the tree, then, as though unconscious of the boy's presence, he called his dog—an English bull—and seated himself at the foot of the tree. When about half an hour had passed the boy—no doubt becoming desperate—called to the doctor that he would come down if he took the dog away. 'You'll come down when I tell you to,' observed the doctor. For a full hour and a half the doctor sat there, paying not the slightest attention to the boy's entreaties. Then, putting his dog on a lead, he allowed the boy to descend. 'And now you'll come with me to the dispensary, where I will give you a drink that may counteract the over-eating of fruit,' said the doctor. The watcher could not state what happened in the dispensary, but I got it from the boy's parents that he could not leave the house for two days afterwards. I met that boy—now a grown man—only the other day, and he informed me that the doctor's punishment cured him of stealing other people's fruit.

In the course of my duties I have had occasion to interfere in quite a number of family quarrels. In this connexion I recall an incident that occurred concerning an old soldier who had served with some distinction in the South African campaign. Daniel was one of the most docile and law-abiding citizens any policeman could wish for, and indeed on several occasions I had reason to thank him for physical assistance in trying circumstances. My friend had, however, a very unfortunate characteristic, in that he was rather susceptible to the cup that cheers. His drinking bouts usually synchronised with the receipt of his Army pension, which was paid at the end of each quarter. He had received rather a severe head wound during the campaign, and as a result of this he became very pugnacious while under the influence of

liquor, beating his wife at the slightest provocation. After one or two beatings it was arranged that I should intercept him on his way home and keep him in the cells until he became sober. Despite his pugnaciousness Daniel invariably accompanied me without resistance to the cells, promising on his release never to touch another drop of liquor in his life.

On one occasion I was unable to intercept Daniel on his way home. It appears that he had not met anyone *en route* who would accommodate him by fighting, so on his arrival home he promptly set about his wife. When she called at the station both eyes were badly discoloured and blood was streaming from her mouth. 'Dan's smashing up the home something awful,' she cried. 'You must arrest him at once.'

When I arrived at the scene of action Daniel was standing in the middle of a wrecked kitchen, addressing a portrait which he held in his hands—I afterwards learned that it was the portrait of his first wife—in the following terms: 'Now, Maggie, darlin', I'm clearin' the house, so I'm afraid you'll have to go with the rest. I'm very sorry, Maggie, but you've got to go.' Saying which Daniel opened the window and cast the picture from him into the street, where it was smashed into bits.

Observing me standing in the doorway he promptly ordered me out, adding that if I did not go at once he would throw me out. 'Come now, Dan,' I remonstrated, mildly, 'you can't do this, you know. You've got to behave, or I'll put you in, not as a guest, but as a prisoner.' Daniel regarded me belligerently. 'Oh; and who'll help you?' The expression on his face as he said this was very funny, and at any other time I should have laughed.

Realising that nothing was to be gained by talking to Daniel, while he was in his present state of mind, I laid violent hands upon him; and even as I did so his wife ran forward with a scream and tried to pull me away. 'Leave my man alone,' she screamed, 'you won't take him to the gaol.' Failing to make any impression upon me she ran to the fireplace, lifted a poker and brandished it before my face. 'Go

while you're whole,' she cried, 'or I won't be responsible.' The woman was in real earnest, so deciding that discretion was the better part of valour I made my exit. But I determined to have more to say in the matter.

Later that evening a knock sounded at the station door, and on answering it I found Daniel with a bump on the side of his head as large as a pigeon's egg and several scratches on his cheeks. 'Please put me in,' he pleaded. 'I can face Boers and Germans, but when the wife gets a poker in her hands she'd give the Devil himself a run for his money.' Daniel looked so pathetic that I found it impossible to turn him away, so I took him in, doctored his wounds, and made him comfortable in one of the cells.

On the following morning before Daniel left his wife appeared at the police station. 'Please forgive me for the way I treated you last night,' she said. 'I promise it will never happen again.' A little later husband and wife left the station arm in arm, assuring me that I was very kind, and hoping that I would soon receive the promotion I deserved. I candidly admit that on several occasions since that event took place I have deliberately avoided quarrels between husband and wife.

Almost every village has its ghost, and the village in which I was doing duty was not numbered amongst the exceptions. As a rule if there is no unexplained spectacle in a village to give rise to a belief in a ghost the natives will invent one. I am able to include one ghost adventure among my recollections.

News of the ghost that was responsible for the following experience was conveyed to me one evening by a youth, who claimed to have seen it in a house which stood on the outskirts of the village. Knowing that this particular house had just been vacated by the occupiers, and that it was at that moment unoccupied, I demanded to know what the youth was doing in the house at that time of the night. At this the youth became rather flurried, and then confessed that, acting on information received from a friend, who claimed to have heard from a reliable source that there was a large sum of money hidden in the house, he had visited the house, intending

to have a thorough search for the money, when the ghost interrupted him. He described the ghost as a 'figure in white which moved very swiftly and without sound.' This, I reflected, was a common enough ghost, according to the popular conception. A peculiar thing about this ghost, the youth added, was that it carried with it an exquisite perfume, such as ladies often have. No; he was not mistaken; the ghost passed quite close to him, and the perfume was quite pronounced. This was worth looking into, so I set off with the youth, determined to unmask the ghost.

It was close upon midnight when we arrived at the house, which, in the light of a full moon, looked rather ghost-like itself. An ideal night for Mr. or Mrs. Ghost to be abroad, I reflected, as we entered the house and took up our position close to where the youth had seen the ghost. 'Watch the staircase close to that door,' my companion whispered, indicating a door which led from the first landing. 'It was there I first saw it.' Studying the place indicated I realised that it would be a very easy matter to watch the ghost's movement, should it appear there, for just at that moment the moonbeams lay upon it.

About twenty minutes after we arrived the ghost put in its appearance, and precisely at the place indicated by my companion. It emerged from the doorway—a slim, white figure that moved with incredible swiftness and almost without sound. I say 'almost,' for to my ears as the figure glided down the stairs there came the faint sound of a footfall. As it approached the spot where we lay I observed that there emanated from it an exquisite perfume. It passed within a few feet of us, and disappeared through a doorway on the right.

'What do you make of it?' whispered my companion with chattering teeth. He added before I could answer—'The perfume and the carriage of it leads me to think it's a female ghost.' 'We'll soon see,' I returned grimly. 'If I'm not mistaken that ghost will return the way it came; and when it does it will get a fright.'

Sure enough in a very short time the ghost returned; and as soon as it set foot on the stairs I jumped to my feet

and shouted, 'Stand, or I fire!' The ghost, however, merely increased its speed as it ascended the stairs, and disappeared through the doorway at which it had first appeared. Realising the futility of my ruse, I dashed up the stairs, followed closely by the youth, but only to find that the ghost had vanished. Methodically we searched the house from end to end, yet no sign of the ghost could we find.

Nothing daunted I determined that, if that ghost was still in the house, I would find it. I would not return to the station until the ghost was explained. So, accompanying my companion to the front door of the house, I instructed him to go away alone, making his exit from the house as noisy as possible. My idea was to give the ghost the impression that we had gone; I suspected that, having assured itself on this, the ghost would resume its interrupted wanderings through the house.

The boy was only too eager to leave the place; so when the sound of his footsteps had died in the distance, I removed my boots and crept to the foot of the stairs, where, crouching low on the floor, my flash-lamp in my left hand and my truncheon in my right, I waited.

I had almost made up my mind that there was no possibility of a second meeting with the ghost that night, and was indeed on the point of rising to my feet, when that exquisite perfume again reached my nostrils. There was now no possibility of seeing the ghost (unless I flashed my light upon it) for the house was in total darkness, the moon having disappeared behind a dense bank of clouds. Listening very attentively I heard a faint rustling as of a lady's skirt, and, less faintly, the sound of cautious footfalls on the stairs. The ghost was approaching the spot where I crouched, and this time it was going to be explained. . . .

Presently I heard laboured breathing, as of a person in distress, and then the sound of a sob that was half stifled. The next moment, sensing the close proximity of someone, I rose swiftly to my feet, threw out both hands and clasped the thing in a tight embrace. As I did this it emitted a panting sob, and relaxed in my arms. Turning on my flash-lamp I observed the face of a young and beautiful

girl; the white robe had fallen to the floor, revealing her in a gown of modern cut. With something of a shock I recognised her as the daughter of a rich merchant who lived in the village.

The girl had fainted, so, carrying her into the kitchen, I damped my handkerchief with cold water and applied it to her brow. Then, observing a chair which had been left behind by the late occupiers, I placed her on this, and waited. Presently she opened her eyes, stared around her in a dazed manner, then began to laugh hysterically.

'Please take your time over your explanation, Miss —,' I told her, quietly. 'And don't be afraid.'

When she had fully recovered the young woman told me how she came to pose as a ghost. A week or so before a gentleman friend had maintained in her presence that men were inherently braver than women. She chose to challenge this statement, and offered to put her courage to any test he might name. The man was a son of the late owner of the house referred to in this experience, and, knowing that the house stood on a lonely spot, and was still unoccupied, he dared her to pose as a ghost in the empty house, and spend the entire night there alone. The girl readily accepted the challenge, with the aforesaid results.

'But how were you going to prove that you had spent the night in this house as a ghost?' I asked her.

'It was arranged that the young man should tell one of his friends that there was some money hidden in the house,' the girl replied. 'We knew that, as soon as he heard this, he would visit the house, and instead of finding money he would find a ghost. In this manner my friend would find out if I had actually fulfilled my promise.'

'I think you're a very brave young woman, if somewhat foolish,' I observed, with admiration.

'I couldn't do anything else,' the girl returned. 'The prestige of my sex was at stake.'

'In upholding the prestige of your sex you have caused me to lose three hours' beauty sleep,' I remarked with a laugh. 'However,' I added, 'you'd better go home now, and hope that your father has not discovered your absence.'

'Promise you won't say anything about my escapade,' she said as I was bidding her good-morning. 'If Dad ever found out . . .'

'Don't worry,' I assured her, adding—'But if ever you decide to uphold the prestige of your sex again, don't be the means of bringing the police into the affair.'

R. McL.

THE QUARTERLY RECORD

COURSE OF LECTURES ON POLICE SUBJECTS

AN Advanced Course of Lectures on Police Subjects for senior police officers, organized by the Metropolitan Police under the authority of the Home Office, was given at Peel House, Regency Street, from June 16 to June 27 last. The course was attended by some fifty senior police officers, among whom were eleven county police officers, twelve borough police, six from the Metropolitan Police Force, two Dominion, ten Colonial, and twelve Indian. The following syllabus was followed:

- MONDAY**—Explosives. MAJOR SIR T. H. CROZIER, *H.M. Chief Inspector of Explosives*.
Discretion in Prosecution. SIR L. DUNNING, *BT., H.M. Inspector of Constabulary*.
Criminal Statistics. A. LOCKE, *ESQ., C.B.E., Asst. Secretary, Home Office*.
- TUESDAY**—Police Motor Cars, Motor Boats, Wireless, etc.—Lecture and Demonstration. MAJOR T. H. VITTY, *T.D., M.I.M.E., A.M.I.E.E., Engineer, Office of Receiver for the Metropolitan Police District*.
Duties of a Police Surgeon. ISAAC JONES, *ESQ., M.D., M.R.C.P., Chief Medical Officer and Physician, Metropolitan Police*.
Single Finger Print System. CHIEF INSPECTOR H. BATTLE, *Finger Print Bureau, Metropolitan Police*.
- WEDNESDAY**—Pathology. SIR B. SPILSBURY, *M.A., M.B., Hon. Pathologist to the Home Office*.
Explosives. MAJOR SIR T. H. CROZIER, *H.M. Chief Inspector of Explosives*.
Blood—Examination of Stains, etc. G. ROCHE LYNCH, *ESQ., O.B.E., M.B., B.S. (LOND.), L.M.S.S.A.-D.P.H., Official Analyst to the Home Office*.
- THURSDAY**—Pathology. SIR B. SPILSBURY, *M.A., M.B.*.
Foundations and Principles of the British Police Systems. J. F. MOYLAN, *ESQ., C.B., C.B.E., Receiver for the Metropolitan Police District*.
Semen, Hair, Abortion and Drugs. G. ROCHE LYNCH, *ESQ., O.B.E., etc.*
Identifications. C. AINSWORTH MITCHELL, *ESQ., M.A., D.Sc. (Oxon.) F.I.C.*
- FRIDAY**—Pathology. SIR B. SPILSBURY, *M.A., M.B.*.
The Training of Detective Officers. HON. SIR TREVOR BIGHAM, *K.B.E., C.B., Assistant Commissioner, Metropolitan Police*.
Poisons, Toxicology and Forensic Questions. G. ROCHE LYNCH, *ESQ., O.B.E., etc.*
Identifications. C. AINSWORTH MITCHELL, *ESQ., M.A., etc.*
- SATURDAY**—Laws of Evidence, etc. VERNON R. M. GATTIE, *ESQ., C.B.E., Barrister-at-Law*.

MONDAY—Traffic Problems. F. S. POOL GODSELL, ESQ., O.B.E., *Ministry of Transport*.

Safes and Strong Rooms. H. EMERY CHUBB, ESQ.

Identifications. C. AINSWORTH MITCHELL, ESQ., M.A., etc.

Modern Methods of Treatment of Prisoners, etc. A. MAXWELL, ESQ., C.B., *Chairman of the Prison Commission*.

TUESDAY—Young Offenders and Probation. S. W. HARRIS, ESQ., C.B., C.V.O., *Assistant Secretary, Home Office*.

Reformatory and Industrial Schools, etc. A. H. NORRIS, ESQ., M.C., M.R.C.S., L.R.C.P., D.P.H., *Chief Inspector, Children's Branch, Home Office*.

Photography. D. CHARLES, ESQ., *Member of the Royal Photographic Society*.

WEDNESDAY—Firearms—Identification, etc. R. CHURCHILL, ESQ., *Firearms Expert to the Metropolitan Police*.

Identifications. C. AINSWORTH MITCHELL, ESQ., M.A., etc.

Betting and Gaming. NORMAN KENDAL, ESQ., C.B.E., *Assistant Commissioner, Metropolitan Police*.

THURSDAY—Prisons, Mental Problems. W. N. EAST, ESQ., M.D., M.R.C.P., *Medical Inspector of Prisons*.

Emergency Fire Precautions. R. N. MARSH SMITH, ESQ., *Superintendent of Police, India*.

Laws of Evidence, etc. VERNON R. M. GATTIE, ESQ., C.B.E., *Barrister-at-Law*.

FRIDAY—Traffic Problems. F. S. POOL GODSELL, ESQ., O.B.E., *Ministry of Transport*.

Identifications. C. AINSWORTH MITCHELL, ESQ., M.A., etc.

Police Administration in an Urban Area. J. MAXWELL, ESQ., *Chief Constable of Manchester*.

JUDICIAL DECISIONS

CORROBORATION

ONCE again this difficult subject, which was referred to in our notes in May, 1929, and April, 1930, has come before the Court of Criminal Appeal.

In the case of *R. v. Charavan-Muttu* the appellant was charged in ten counts of one indictment with indecent conduct towards two boys. He was convicted on eight counts. For the defence it was argued that there was really no corroboration of the statements of the boys. In the course of his judgment the Lord Chief Justice quoted the case of *R. v. Baskerville*, 12 *Criminal Reports*, page 81:

'We hold that evidence in corroboration must be independent testimony which affects the accused by connecting or tending to connect him with the crime. In other words, it must be evidence which implicates him, that is, which confirms in some material particular not only the evidence that the crime has been committed, but also that the prisoner committed it,' and later, 'It would be in a high degree dangerous to attempt to formulate the kind of evidence which would be regarded as corroboration, except to say that corroborative evidence is evidence which shows or tends to show that the story of the accomplice that the

JUDICIAL DECISIONS

accused committed the crime is true, not merely that the crime has been committed, but that it was committed by the accused.'

Lord Hewart went on to say that there was no question that the boys had been treated as accomplices and that it was essential that a proper warning should be given in regard to the necessity of corroboration of their testimony. He continued:

'That these boys were described as accomplices is apparent, but that is not enough. It was necessary also that the jury should be warned of the danger of acting on their evidence in the absence of corroboration. A warning may be somewhat misleading and worse than useless if, afterwards, matters which are not really corroborative are treated as if they were corroborative in a case of this kind, where there was and is ground for suspicion that an untrue charge had been trumped up against the accused from interested motives. It was more than ever necessary that the law relating to corroboration and the exposition of the evidence said to be corroborative should be clear and sufficient.'

Later in his judgment the Lord Chief Justice emphasized the point that mere silence of the accused, when charged, does not amount to corroboration and said that in a summing-up such an incident ought not only not to be treated as corroboration but ought not even to be brought prominently to the attention of the jury as something which might help them on the main question.

There was a further point in the case, in that evidence of what had happened on one day, in regard to which the jury found the accused not guilty, might have been taken by the jury as corroboration of the story told about another day, in regard to which he was found guilty. The Court expressed the view that the greatest care must be taken in explaining to the jury that evidence concerning one day should not be used as corroboration of that concerning another. In the result the appeal was dismissed.

SEPARATE CHARGES IN ONE INDICTMENT

THE question of whether distinct charges included in different counts of the same indictment should be tried together or separately is for the judge as is the question of whether different prisoners should be tried together or separately. In the case of *R. v. Southern* (22 *Criminal Appeal Reports*, page 6), the appellant was charged in two counts of one indictment with gross indecency with a boy aged thirteen, and indecent assault on a girl aged five. The Court held that whilst there was no objection to the inclusion of the two charges in one indictment it was probable that the judge had he been asked to do so would have directed that they should be tried separately, because although the offences were of the same class they were not the same in law, nor were they in fact connected except by the circumstance that the same man was accused of both.

Reference was made to Lord Blackburn's famous judgment in the case of *Castro* (6 *Appeal Cases*, 229), where after saying that at Common Law any number of felonies or any number of misdemeanours might be tried together, he added:

'There was no legal objection to doing this; it was frequently not fair to do it because it might embarrass a man in the trial if he was accused of several things at once, and frequently the mere fact of accusing him of several things was supposed to tend to increase the probability of his being found guilty as it amounted to giving evidence of bad character against him.'

Mr. Justice Talbot, after referring to this judgment, said :

'It is quite obvious that if two or more charges resembling one another are made against one man and are tried together, a jury can hardly help feeling more inclined to believe that the man is guilty of one charge because there is evidence that he has been implicated in another similar offence. As Lord Blackburn said, the procedure unless very carefully guarded may in fact amount to the giving of evidence of bad character against the accused which is forbidden by the rules of criminal practice, though as a matter of common sense it is more likely in fact that a man should be guilty of filthy conduct on one occasion if he has been guilty of it on another.'

The learned judge went on to quote from the case of *R. v. Bailey* (18 *Criminal Reports*, page 42), where it was said that where an indictment for indecent assault contains a number of counts each count charging a separate assault on a different person the jury should be directed not to return a general verdict but to return a verdict on each count. It must, said Mr. Justice Talbot, be made abundantly clear by that fact that they have to return a separate verdict on each separate charge, that the charge against the accused is not a general one of being a filthy man, but a charge of having done one or more of the acts alleged and in each case there must be a separate finding by the jury that he has done that act. He further pointed out that the jury must be warned to draw a careful distinction between the evidence on each count and the evidence on every other count and not to supplement the evidence on any particular count by looking at the evidence as a whole. That is to say, that so far as is possible the jury, in considering whether a particular case is proved, must shut out altogether from their minds the fact that other charges have been made against the same man.

The Court held that these principles had not been followed, emphasized the necessity for special caution to guard against prejudice and injustice to the accused, and allowed the appeal.

REVIEWS

TRIAL OF GEORGE CHAPMAN (SEVERIN KLOSOWSKI). Edited by HARGRAVE L. ADAM. (Notable British Trials. William Hodge & Co.) 10s. 6d.

IN 1902 Maud Marsh, living as the wife of George Chapman, a London publican, after discharge from Guy's Hospital, grew worse under Dr. S. On 21st October her father called in Dr. G., who suspected ptomaine poisoning, but on Maud's death on 22nd October he telegraphed to Dr. S. to look for arsenic. Dr. S. held an inconclusive private post-mortem with other doctors, but the next day he received an analyst's report of the presence of arsenic in certain organs, whereupon he informed the police and the coroner, and Chapman was arrested. A thorough examination, ordered by the coroner, revealed the poison as antimony, not arsenic. The exhumation of the bodies of two women, who had also been reputed wives of Chapman, of the bodies of two women, who had also been reputed wives of Chapman, was next ordered: both corpses were found full of antimony, and in consequence in an unusual state of preservation. Bessie Taylor had died in February 1901: the same Dr. S., believing womb trouble, had without success called in a woman's specialist: a Dr. T. had diagnosed hysteria, and a Dr. C. cancer: Dr. S. had certified death as due to intestinal obstruction with concomitants. In December 1897 Mrs. Spink, who had lived with Chapman for about two years, had been certified by a Dr. R. as having died from phthisis.

There was a separate coroner's inquest and magisterial inquiry (a procedure since prevented by legislation) and Chapman's past was disclosed. A Russian Pole named Severin Klosowski, he had been trained as a barber surgeon: 1888 reached England and worked as a hairdresser and assistant in Whitechapel: 1893 adopted the name of Chapman: 1895 pretended to marry Mrs. Spink, who had left her husband: had with her money opened successively two barber shops and four public houses: 1897 had purchased an ounce of tartar-emetic. The police made an effort to trace other murders, but held in reserve prosecutions for perjury and arson.

At the trial, from the moment it had been ruled that evidence of previous deaths was relevant, Chapman's case was desperate and his counsel could only stress an absence of motive. Mr. Justice Grantham commented severely on the medical incapacity displayed. This subject was discussed in the Introduction, where it is pointed out that, owing to the lack of medical knowledge, no clever poisoner would now follow Chapman's methods, but would produce an actual disease from cultured bacteria. Chapman, like Dougal, Smith and Landru, evidently possessed an extraordinary fascination for women, incomprehensible to men. His conduct showed a mixture of cleverness and stupidity.

Mr. Adam gives reasons for believing in the identity of Chapman and Jack the Ripper. At the time of the Ripper murder, 1888-89, Chapman was in Whitechapel. He had the requisite amount of surgical and anatomical

knowledge and of physical strength. He affected Americanism. The one description obtained of the Ripper describes Chapman. In 1890 there were similar murders in Jersey City, which ceased in 1892: Chapman was in America from 1890 to 1892, and had a barber's shop in Jersey City. The reader will probably, however, question whether the diseased mentality of a brutal assassin like the Ripper or Landru is not incompatible with that of a gloating poisoner like Chapman or Neill Cream. Since one witness stated Chapman could only talk a little English in 1894, could he have written like an American in 1888? Handwriting is not discussed, but is it possible that the Ripper letter and post-card and Chapman's letters before execution could have been written by the same person?

This volume, the fiftieth, is a valuable addition to the series of Notable British Trials. The Editor, Mr. Adam, is to be congratulated.

'YOUR CHARACTER FROM YOUR HANDWRITING.' By C. HARRY BROOKS. With a foreword by ROBERT SAUDEK. 3s. 6d. net. (George Allen and Unwin.)

THIS little volume gives a simplified account of the methods of Dr. Robert Saudek the graphologist, whose book entitled *Experiments with Handwriting*, was recently reviewed in these pages (Vol. III, p. 158). At the outset it is definitely stated that 'the criminal aspects are entirely ignored,' but it may be of interest to give an outline of the procedure advocated.

First of all the speed of the writing must be determined as being slow or quick, and eight indications are to be looked for in each case. In 99 per cent. of instances it is said, some features point to speed and others to the reverse, but it is usually possible to ascertain the primary or 'dominant tempo.' Judgments are apparently based upon the signs of slowing down in a rapid writing and of speeding up in a slow writing, but we are told that the characterological significance of a feature is not fixed and static and it varies according to others present in the same script. Thus any one has a different significance in a slow handwriting from what it would have in a quick. Again where the signs of rapidity and otherwise are equal or nearly so, the interpretation given is that the writer is a person whose impulses and repressions are engaged in a constant struggle, and Mr. Brooks after some picturesque remarks, goes on to say that it seems almost incredible that by merely detecting indications of speed and slowness in a given script, one can obtain a vivid glimpse into the mind of another person.

There are, of course, many who will not believe this at all, or indeed that more of people's character can be inferred from their handwriting than tendencies to do things in a certain way, but all those who are interested in the subject should apply the methods laid down in *Your Character from Your Handwriting* to their own and others' manuscript, and then they will be in a better position to judge whether the claims of graphology are justified.

THE MIND OF THE MURDERER. By HAROLD DEARDEN. 10s. 6d. net. (George Allen and Unwin.)

THOUGH from the time of Ecclesiastes, at least, it has been recognized that 'there is not a just man upon earth that doeth good and sinneth not,' yet in olden days men were mostly divided into two classes, the righteous and the unrighteous. It remained for Lombroso, Garofalo and their school, to elaborate the notion of a special criminal type, midway 'between lunatic and savage'; victims in fact of a bad bodily and mental heredity.

Unbelievers in this doctrine constituted an environmental school, saying 'Society and not the criminal is responsible,' a doctrine as welcome

to criminals as it is inimical to civilization. Thus both schools tended to exonerate the criminal. Dr. Mercier held that 'crime is due to temptation or opportunity, the environmental factor or stress, acting upon the predisposition of the offender, the inherent or constitutional factor'¹; that 'all men are by nature potential criminals'²; and that 'the criminal and minor offender are normal human beings, but differing in some respect, as all men differ in some respect, from the mean standard or average of mankind.'³

To just this conclusion Dr. Dearden leads us in this study of murderers' minds. His thesis is, that 'these crimes were the result on quite ordinary people of psychological mechanisms to which we are all exposed.' 'The murderer is invariably an individual in whom one instinct at least is of unusual strength.'

The author details some eighteen illustrative cases of murder; besides two of serious crimes committed under the potent influence of (sex) suggestion which he takes occasion to distinguish from hypnotic suggestion—saying 'it is . . . entirely impossible so to influence a normal individual by means of hypnotism as to compel him to commit crimes of violence.' [But suppose both hated a third party, could the hypnotist use his patient to injure that third party?]

The cases Dr. Dearden gives us illustrate practically all the motives for murder: greed, sex lust, jealousy and revenge, and vanity, or insatiable desire for 'self-expression,' notoriety or the like, mostly found among the 'ineffectives' of 'artistic temperament.' In many cases these motives are of course mixed, and much of the great interest of the book lies in the author's masterly elucidation thereof, and in the details afforded by his researches, and conversations with the murderer's friends, acquaintances and defending counsel. Thus the facts supplied explain, though they may not excuse, the murder of Mrs. Armstrong and the Major's attempts on the life of Mr. Martin, the murder of Olive Young by Ronald True, of Belle Elmore by Crippen, of the whole Kinck family by the fascinating youth Troppmann, and the mysterious letters of Neill Cream the multi-poisoner whose Sadist practices suggest a monstrous exaggeration of our normal enjoyment of the trivial contretemps of others.

Three cases of impulsive murder stand out: one by an entertaining youth of eighteen who murdered several people in an unprovoked fit of acquisitiveness; one by a girl of sixteen from a middle-class home who had a head injury years before and ever since been subject to fits of rage and violence on minimal provocation—a case for the gallows rather than the gallows?

The story of the murder by the girl of sixteen is of peculiar interest in view of her impulsive confession five years later, which so conclusively vindicated the perspicacity of the detective who originally arrested her and had to suffer for going counter to popular prejudice.

Dr. Dearden's style is lucid and very racy, cynical in places, but not for lack of sympathy with those unfortunates who have been tempted beyond their breaking strain, for he concludes his thesis thus: 'I feel that it [murder] is committed by poor creatures like ourselves, with the same desires and imperfections and the same nobilities and vices. We feel that, is to see in it—as in all human conduct—much that should prompt us to humility, thankfulness and pity.'

¹ *Crime and Criminals*, p. 225.

² *Ibid.* p. 225.

³ *Ibid.* p. 231.

CRIME IN INDIA. With an Introduction on Forensic Difficulties and Peculiarities, by SIR CECIL WALSH, K.C. 10s. 6d. net. (London: Ernest Benn Limited.)

IN this book, as in his *Indian Village Crimes*, the author avoids any attempt to cater for the mere sensation-seeking reader. He has, he says, 'done his best to present the cases to his readers as they were presented in court and not to compile thrillers,' and in this he adheres to his purpose, for the actual narrative is often too interlarded with asides and analytic observation to grip the attention of any but those professionally interested in Indian crime and the administration of the criminal law in India. To this class, however, it is profoundly interesting, though even they may regret that important points in the story are sometimes left in the air. For instance, in *A Sacrifice or a Crime Passionnel*, we are told (on p. 131) how witnesses stated that Madan, the principal accused, having been handed a heavy stick, 'proceeded to belabour the deceased, Basudeo joining in with another stick.' Here the narrative is switched off to other points, and the reader is left to assume that the woman was beaten in this way in the presence of the witnesses till she was dead.

Though some of the cases are of types not uncommon, others are certainly amazing examples of the truth that is stranger than fiction, and as an example of the extent to which obstruction can take the place of co-operation in a police investigation when two bordering native states are at enmity with one another, the story told in *The Biter Bit* is unique.

In the Introduction, which covers fifty-seven pages, the author deals with many of the difficulties attendant on the administration of justice in India, from the tangle of truth and untruth with which the average case is hampered from its initiation to the disturbing noises in the High Court buildings at Allahabad. He seems none too favourably impressed with the capability of the District Judicial Officers, and apparently holds a poor opinion of the Indian Bar. He comments on the frequent abuse of cross-examination. In his own words, 'witnesses are subjected to every species of attack, often without any foundation, to their discredit.' It is a pity he can suggest no specific remedy for this, for the well-known powerlessness or unwillingness of judicial officers to protect respectable and truthful witnesses against such attacks is accountable for much of the reluctance shown by persons not directly interested to appear as witnesses.

On the subject of Law Reform repeatedly advocated in the book is the right of an accused person to give evidence on his own behalf. In the existing law there is practically no limit to what an accused person can say in his own defence, and it might sometimes be to the advantage of the prosecution to be able to cross-examine him on the reckless attacks on the character of witnesses which so often form the only line of defence.

The author hesitates to say that in the administration of justice he has seen a deterioration from what is called 'Indianisation,' but claims that his opinion is based on 'experience—sometimes bitter experience'—and on racial feeling.

With perfect knowledge of the police of the province in which Sir Cecil Walsh gained his experience it is difficult to comment on some of the aspersions he casts on the Indian Police. Though he admits that in their capacity for detective work the Indian Police fill him with admiration, he suggests more than once in the book that when stolen property is recovered during an investigation the police report as recovered only articles of small worth, and 'systematically' share the more valuable portion with the

criminals, who, in return for this share, provide the police with confessions. That such villainy has been known will not be disputed, but the suggestion that it is general and systematic will be justly resented. Though most British officers of long experience in the Indian Police will have occasionally come across iniquities among their subordinates analogous to those recounted by the author, they will be inclined to protest against the impression conveyed that the concoction of evidence, extortion, and torture are everyday characteristics of the subordinate police throughout India.

'SINGLE FINGER PRINTS.' (A New and Practical Method of Classifying and Filing Single Finger Prints and Fragmentary Impressions. With Illustrations.) By HARRY BATTLE, Chief Inspector in charge of the finger print bureau, New Scotland Yard. 7s. 6d. net. (H.M. Stationery Office.)

THIS book is the outcome of extensive research which has been made at Scotland Yard to devise a system which will successfully deal with the problem of the classification and identification of single finger marks which may be found at scenes of crime.

It is an acknowledged fact that ridge characteristics of finger prints vary, according to the degree of pressure applied, and these variations, slight though they may be, have been the chief difficulty in the way of devising a satisfactory single finger print system. Any system relying solely upon ridge characteristics as a basis for classification has been found to be quite unreliable. In his book Chief Inspector Battle, who is in charge of the Bureau, explains how this difficulty has been surmounted.

The principal feature of the new method is that circular areas are defined for scrutiny by means of a magnifying glass with a specially prepared window at the base. By means of the glass circle readings are taken of deltas and cores, which in conjunction with sub-classification effected according to formations of cores, provide a large number of definite and reliable groups, which can also be utilized to very great advantage in breaking up unwieldy accumulations in Main Finger Print Collections.

Another innovation is that prints of the ten digits are filed separately, thus reducing search to a minimum when, as frequently happens, it is possible to determine the particular finger responsible for an impression. One chapter is devoted to explaining the information which can be obtained by observing the relative positions of prints and ridges, and by taking full advantage of the present system of filing in articles.

There is a detailed explanation of the method of filing the marks are filed in a special 'Scenes of Crime' book, which can be readily available for comparison with other finger prints. The book is quoted of results achieved by means of the system.

Stress is laid on the fact that, although at first it may appear that measurement of finger prints is to a great extent resorted to, there is no fixed measurement, and no difficulty should be experienced in the expansion of ridges due to growth.

The book is copiously and well illustrated, and should be of use to finger print experts and of interest to police officers generally.

THE UNDERWORLD OF PARIS. By ALFRED MORAN, S.E., Prefect of Police. 1930. 18s. (Jarrolds.)

It is unfortunate that the outside jacket of this book should be inclined to give the impression that it is a 'penny dreadful.' No impression could be

wider of the mark. The book gives sober and unexaggerated accounts of many most interesting cases and is full of comments which show that Monsieur Morain has far more than his fair share of that most uncommon sense commonsense.

The first chapter—The Scientific Detective—is by the late Edmond Bayle, the head of the French Criminal Record Office, whose pathetic murder recently shocked the world. In this chapter after showing in detail the wonderful work which can be accomplished by a scientific laboratory, Monsieur Bayle goes on to emphasize the point that there are questions which no laboratory with all its resources can answer. 'The missing evidence which might have established the truth could not have been detected by any but human agency. . . . Truth lies always between theory which moves too fast and routine which moves too slowly. Whatever technical developments may take place in the future towards perfection, the laboratory alone will never be sufficient in determining a criminal matter—and that should not be its aim. . . . Much would remain undiscovered if the laboratory were not called upon and much must still remain undiscovered when its work is done.'

The second chapter—The Human Detective—is by Monsieur Morain. It is interesting to compare the views of both these distinguished practical criminologists with those of certain scientists who seem to think that as science advances it will be possible to dispose more and more with human testimony and establish guilt by laboratory proofs.

The cases dealt with in the book are recounted soberly and without any of the high colouring and ultra-scientific achievements which feature in some accounts of other triumphs of detection. They give an excellent idea of French procedure in the matter of criminal investigation. Interrogation of suspects is carried far further in France than in this country, e.g. page 62—'. . . tormented by inquisitors, she decided to tell the truth.'

Monsieur Morain preserves his sense of proportion when dealing with the White Slave Traffic and the Drug Traffic, two subjects which have caused more persons called upon to deal with them to lose their heads than any other except, perhaps, Communism. In this book the importance of both subjects is fully realized, and genuine and terrible examples are given. At the same time these examples are admittedly exceptional and the danger of overdoing is emphasized, e.g. page 256—'At the bottom of most inventions of the Press delights in relating . . . there are inventions of a family which wishes to account for the disappearance of a profligate child who has run away willingly and showing exactly what she was doing.'

As to the death penalty Monsieur Morain has no doubts. He laments the 'too slow formalities' and the useless 'increase of the agony of the sufferers,' but concludes: 'In a word, the putting to death of murderers is essentially an example and eliminatory punishment. Society has the right of ridding itself of whatever sex, and the number of crimes committed by them bear witness to the fact that excessive indulgence can only result in their increase. Systematically to withhold the supreme punishment from murderesses is equivalent to condemning fresh victims to death.'

Monsieur Morain brackets the French Police with the British as the best in the world and praises highly the English judicial system, but he then proceeds to make misconceived criticisms with regard to the alleged facilities in this country for the rich to escape punishment and the absence of legal assistance for poor persons.

The translator leaves one very much in the dark as to the organization and grades of the French Police and it is difficult to guess at the comparative positions of 'Chief Inspector,' 'Chief Detectives,' 'Brigadier en Chef' or 'Detective Commissioner.'

There would appear to be either a mis-translation or a misprint on page 15. It seems hardly possible that the French Criminal Record Office can examine every year more than 180,000 finger prints left behind at scenes of crime, nor does this figure fit with the figures given in the next sentence regarding the taking of photographs.

It is always of peculiar interest to examine the current numbers of our contemporaries in other lands, and to see how they surmount those editorial problems which are common to all of us, however much the immediate circumstances may vary. Of those which have recently come to hand are *The Canadian Police Gazette*, a monthly magazine which in a popular and attractive manner reports police activities in Canada. *The Northwest Police Journal* is the official police magazine issued from Washington, U.S.A., and combines reports of matters concerning the Northwest Association of sheriffs and police with several articles of educational interest. *The Police Journal* is a monthly magazine published in New York and consists of twenty-four pages of extremely relevant and valuable contributions. *Police '13-13'* is the official publication of the Chicago Police Department, and includes a varied assortment of contributions, ranging from articles on current police problems to reviews, editorial comments, and a 'woman's page'; it also contains some good illustrations. *The Malayan Police Magazine* is also illustrated and is full of useful matter, such as a 'language column,' social and personal notes, and a summary of the Report of the Royal Commission on Police Powers and Procedure. *Policia & Justicia* is the organ of the Brazilian police force and reviews issues of criminal jurisprudence, police activities, and other matters both of a technical and official character. Lastly, from the Irish Free State comes *The Garda Review*, an extremely well-produced and illustrated magazine which is issued from Dublin and manages to supply some hundred pages of matter for so low a price as 6d. monthly.

We have also received a copy of *The Nongqai*, the monthly magazine of the South African forces, published from Pretoria, and full of live interest. *Vestnik* is another journal, and full of live interest. It is the illustrated newspaper published in Moscow and devoted to police activities. Among the other journals we have received, special mention should be made of *Police News*, a monthly periodical entirely devoted to illustrated police news, and translated into four languages. It is published in Dresden.

RULES FOR THE 1930 COMPETITION

2. His Majesty's Gold Medal and a cash prize (of 30 guineas) will be awarded for the essay which is adjudged to be the best, provided it is considered of sufficient merit, and second and third prizes (of 20 guineas and 10 guineas respectively) will be awarded under the same conditions for the essays adjudged to be next in order of merit.

(b) Essays must not be less than 7,000 or more than 11,000 words in length, and must be typewritten and submitted in triplicate.

4. Essays must be submitted anonymously. Each essay must be accompanied by a sealed envelope bearing on the outside a *nom de plume* or a motto, and containing the competitor's name and address.

6. The award of the Council shall be made public in such manner as the Council shall think fit, and any essays submitted for the Competition and adjudged of sufficient merit may be published by the Council in *The Police Journal* or otherwise.

OF THE ESSAY FOR 1930

period, with suggestions for the future.

Essays must be submitted on or before the 1st November 1930, to—

SECRETARY TO THE COUNCIL OF THE
POLICE GOLD MEDAL ESSAY COMPETITION,
HOME OFFICE.

WHITEHALL,
LONDON, S.W. 1

[illegible]

7:46:12, N28
N28:3