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Juvenile Delinquency: Interim Report of the Committee on the Judiciary, United States Senate, Eighty-third Congress, Second Session, Pursuant to S. Res. 89 and S. Res. 190 (83d Congress, 1st and 2d sessions) to Study Juvenile Delinquency in the United States

United States Congress

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JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

INTERIM REPORT

OF THE

COMMITTEE ON THE JUDICIARY

UNITED STATES SENATE

EIGHTY-THIRD CONGRESS

SECOND SESSION

PURSUANT TO

S. Res. 89 and S. Res. 190

(83d Congress, 1st and 2d Sessions)

TO STUDY JUVENILE DELINQUENCY
IN THE UNITED STATES



MARCH 14 (legislative day MARCH 10), 1955.—Ordered to be printed,
with an illustration

UNITED STATES
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
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JAMES H. BOBO, *General Counsel*

NOTE.—Former Senator Robert C. Hendrickson, New Jersey, served as chairman of this subcommittee until December 13, 1954.

Senator Johnston and Senator Wiley did not participate in this report, having been appointed to the subcommittee on February 7, 1955.

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JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

MARCH 14 (legislative day MARCH 10), 1955.—Ordered to be printed,
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Mr. KEFAUVER, from the Committee on the Judiciary, submitted the
following

INTERIM REPORT

[Pursuant to S. Res. 89, 83d Cong., 1st sess.]

Senate Resolution 89 which was adopted by the Senate on June 1, 1953, provided that the Committee on the Judiciary, or any authorized subcommittee thereof was authorized and directed to conduct a full and complete study of juvenile delinquency in the United States. It stipulated that such an investigation give special attention to (1) determining the extent and character of juvenile delinquency in the United States and its causes and contributing factors, (2) the adequacy of existing Federal laws dealing with youthful offenders, (3) sentences imposed on, or other correctional action taken with respect to, youthful offenders by Federal courts, and (4) the extent to which juveniles are violating Federal laws relating to the sale or use of narcotics.¹

Senate Resolution 89 extended through January 31, 1954. On January 27, 1954, Senate Resolution 190 was adopted by the Senate and provided for the extension of Senate Resolution 89 to January 31, 1955.²

I. ORGANIZATION AND STAFFING

On August 4, 1953, the chairman of the Committee on the Judiciary appointed a subcommittee to carry out the terms of the resolution. Senator Robert C. Hendrickson was appointed chairman and served the subcommittee in that capacity until December 13, 1954, when he resigned in order to devote himself to the many details involved in concluding his term of office in the Senate. The subcommittee owes much to Senator Hendrickson for the dedication and leadership he brought to its important work. Other members appointed to the sub-

¹ See appendix 1, p. 121 for text of S. Res. 89.

² See appendix 2, p. 122 for text of S. Res. 190.

Report of the chairman of the Committee on the Judiciary to the chairman, Committee on Rules and Administration, and report from the chairman of the Committee on the Judiciary to accompany S. Res. 190 appear as appendix 3 and 4.

committee were Senator William Langer, Senator Estes Kefauver, and Senator Thomas C. Hennings, Jr.

On January 7, 1955, Senator Harley M. Kilgore, chairman of the Committee on the Judiciary, appointed Senator Estes Kefauver chairman of the subcommittee. Also appointed to the subcommittee were Senator Thomas C. Hennings, Senator Olin D. Johnston, Senator William Langer, and Senator Alexander Wiley.

The subcommittee was fortunate in selecting for its chief counsel an able and experienced attorney, Herbert J. Hannoeh, who, in addition to his long years as a practicing attorney in Newark, N. J., was, through his work in various charitable endeavors, conversant with many phases of child-welfare activities. Mr. Herbert W. Beaser, of the Massachusetts bar and formerly General Counsel to the Children's Bureau of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, was appointed assistant counsel. Mr. Beaser succeeded Mr. Hannoeh as chief counsel on May 1, 1954, when the latter resigned. The services of Mr. Richard Clendenen, as chief consultant, were made available to the subcommittee by Dr. Martha Eliot, Chief of the Children's Bureau, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Mr. Clendenen resigned his Children's Bureau position and became executive director of the subcommittee on March 1, 1954. Mr. James H. Bobo, assistant counsel and member of the Tennessee bar, assumed responsibility for all community investigations conducted after February 1, 1954.

Subsequent to the extension of the subcommittee on February 1, 1954, the following people were included on the staff of the subcommittee:

Peter N. Chumbris, assistant counsel-investigator

Richard M. Gibbons, file clerk-liaison

Donald H. Goff, consultant

Edward Hart, consultant

Mrs. Mary Frances Holloway, clerical assistant

Floyd A. Jensen, investigator

Mrs. Ina W. McArthur, clerical assistant

Martin Mayes, consultant

Louis M. Miniclier, social services consultant

Charles V. Morris, administrative assistant

Edward J. Mowery, public relations consultant

Carl L. Perian, investigator

Mrs. Laura F. Rosen, research assistant

Claude M. Schonberger, investigator

Lillian F. Sears, clerical assistant

E. Luise Shawn, administrative secretary

Harold F. Strong, social services consultant

Gary W. Sullins, investigator

Thomas S. Sullivan, investigator

Mary Ellen Tompson, clerical assistant

In its efforts to recruit a suitable staff for the complex task facing it, the subcommittee personnel selected included persons with a wide variety of backgrounds. The majority were or had been connected with juvenile-delinquency work in one or another of its many phases. Thus, the staff included personnel with backgrounds in law, social work, sociology, criminology, social research, and education. These

staff members have had available to them and regularly called upon experts in other related fields, for example, psychology and psychiatry, whose knowledge was based upon experience in research or operational activities in the field of delinquency.

OBJECTIVES OF THE SUBCOMMITTEE

Immediately after its organization, and pursuant to the directive of Senate Resolution 89, the subcommittee set for its objectives the following:

(a) Factfinding, to determine the extent, causes, character, and contributing factors with respect to juvenile delinquency; the adequacy of existing treatment and preventive measures; the efficacy of existing Federal laws relating to juvenile delinquents and youthful offenders, including those laws relating to narcotic addiction; and the manner and effects of Federal sentencing procedures;

(b) Focusing public attention, through the factfinding process, upon existing problems, including the use of narcotics, relating to juvenile delinquency and the commission of offenses by youths throughout the country; and

(c) Recommending, on the basis of the facts found, such measures and action as the subcommittee may determine to be needed to prevent juvenile delinquency and the commission of criminal offenses by youths, and to rehabilitate those children and youths who have already embarked upon delinquent or criminal careers or who have become narcotic addicts.

The subcommittee made investigations on the community level in every major geographical section to determine the total implications of the nationwide scope of the problem. At these community hearings, the subcommittee attempted to develop information within the community relative to the following:

(a) The extent and character of juvenile delinquency within the community.

(b) The existence, if any, of organized juvenile gangs; the extent to which these gangs operate, and the activities in which they are engaged.

(c) The extent of the use of narcotics and synthetic drugs among juveniles in the community.

(d) The existence in the community of living conditions which contribute to delinquency with particular attention to such conditions in relation to children of migratory workers and other socially disadvantaged groups of children.

(e) The use of alcoholic beverages by juveniles contrary to law, and the effect it may have upon their delinquency.

(f) The existence in the community of adult exploitation of juveniles by recruiting them into crime, by encouraging them to gamble, by directing their criminal activities, or by profiting from their criminal exploits, i. e., fencing stolen goods by juveniles, and white slavery.

(g) The extent to which communities have developed successful programs for the prevention of juvenile delinquency and for the rehabilitation of delinquent children and youths, including juvenile courts and probation procedures, detention facilities, etc.

METHODS OF INVESTIGATION

Methods of investigation utilized have varied according to subject matter. In broad terms, the subcommittee has conducted three types of investigations—community investigations, investigations of special problems, and investigations into relevant Federal programs.

In advance of each community hearing an investigating or fact-finding team was sent into the community. The aim of the team was to determine the extent, causes, character, and contributing factors with respect to juvenile delinquency and to arrange for the presentation of these data in a logical and forceful manner at the hearing. Team members contacted and worked with community officials and agencies. They also made firsthand observations in the community.

It should be emphasized that the subcommittee staff did not conduct surveys of community programs in the fields of mental health, recreation, social welfare, and education. They did, however, through the aid of local persons secure a general picture of the adequacy of existing treatment and preventive measures relating to juvenile delinquency. These materials were then organized for presentation at subcommittee hearings.

Investigations of both special problems and the various Federal programs concerned with juvenile delinquency involved the collection and analysis of materials from throughout the United States. These were collected by use of questionnaires and through field investigations and observations conducted by various members of the subcommittee staff.

II. THE NATIONAL PROBLEM

SIZE, SERIOUSNESS, AND OTHER CHARACTERISTICS

During its 17 months' work, the subcommittee has tried to assemble a complete picture of juvenile delinquency—its extent, nature, and causes—on a nationwide basis. To this end, some 3,000 letters of inquiry were directed to law-enforcement officials, judges, educators, crime commissions, and welfare and mental-health agencies throughout the country. Thousands of replies, including hundreds of unsolicited letters, many accompanied by copies of detailed studies, were received from persons and organizations interested in the problems and located in communities of every size. The subcommittee also scheduled hearings designed to secure a broad, national view of the problem. Persons invited to testify at these hearings represented a variety of backgrounds and points of view, and included a large number who had made outstanding contributions to the advancement of knowledge regarding the causes of juvenile delinquency and methods through which it may be prevented. Also included were individuals who had given noteworthy leadership in the development of programs designed to rehabilitate juvenile delinquents and youthful offenders.

INCREASE IN NUMBER

Following the end of World War II, the number of juvenile delinquents decreased until, in 1948, there were less than 300,000 appearing annually before the juvenile courts. Then, in 1949, with the stresses and strains of the cold war and the Korean hostilities, juvenile

delinquency again began to rise. Since 1948, a steadily increasing number of American boys and girls have become involved in delinquency each year. The best available figures on the subject, on a national basis, are those compiled by the Children's Bureau, based on cases handled by juvenile courts. The stream of children through the Nation's juvenile courts grew from 300,000 in 1948 to 435,000 in 1953, and only 10 percent of this increase can possibly be attributed to the enlarged juvenile population. (The actual number of children who have broken the law, including those whose cases were disposed of without court action, probably exceeds one million and a quarter. This figure assumes that there are at least three juvenile offenders brought to the attention of the police for every child actually brought before the juvenile courts.) By 1960, this country will have a further enlarged population, age 10 through 17 years. If the rate of juvenile delinquency continues to mount at the rate experienced during the past 5 years, the number of boys and girls going through the juvenile courts annually may well total 785,000 by that date.

PRESENT EFFORTS TO PREVENT DELINQUENCY

In testimony before the subcommittee it was estimated that unless the disgraceful spiraling increase in juvenile crime can be stopped, instead of 1,250,000 between the ages of 10 and 17 now getting into trouble with the police, we shall have 1,700,000 such youngsters in the year 1960. The stakes in the fight to prevent delinquency are therefore great. But even if we should somehow succeed in arresting the increase in rate of juvenile delinquency, we cannot afford to become complacent. A million and a quarter youngsters a year getting into trouble with the police is many, many more than this Nation can afford. The challenge is to prevent as many as possible of these children from taking the first wrong turn on the road to waywardness and to so mehow turn those who do back onto the right road.

The fight against juvenile delinquency must be a two-pronged fight. We must devote sufficient energy and resources not just to rehabilitate boys and girls after they get into trouble but also to prevent their getting into trouble in the first place.

It must be emphasized that just as juvenile delinquency has many and varied causes, so its prevention must encompass a myriad of different types of programs and attacks. But of one thing we can be quite certain. If this Nation continues its present feeble attempts to prevent juvenile delinquency, we can be certain that the harvest we will reap in later years will be a bigger and tougher crop of juvenile delinquents and youthful and adult criminals, ultimately requiring more and more prisons.

FORMS OF THE PROBLEM

The National Auto Theft Association in Chicago told the subcommittee that, from 1948 on, the number of automobiles stolen by persons under 17 years of age has steadily risen. In 1952, 70 percent of all automobiles stolen were stolen by boys or girls under 17 years of age. Such thefts involve a loss of millions of dollars to the automobile owners of the Nation.

During 1952, 37 percent of all persons arrested for robberies were under 21 years of age. This young age group accounted for 47 percent

of all arrests made for larceny, 68 percent of those for auto theft, and even 35 percent of all arrests for rape.

One of the most sinister of all delinquency problems is that of narcotic addiction among children. The subcommittee was told that there are today an estimated 7,500 juvenile addicts in New York City alone; in Los Angeles County, 8 percent of the children brought before juvenile courts have had contact with narcotics; in Denver it was found that 80 to 90 percent of all Spanish-American boys brought into juvenile courts have had such contact; in Oklahoma City, approximately 250 children between 13 and 18 years of age were regularly addicted to drugs, and in Iowa, investigations revealed that 25 percent of the girls admitted to the State training school for girls habitually used marihuana.

The problem of the use of narcotics and dangerous drugs by juveniles is discussed in detail in a later section of this report. Here it will suffice to note that although some of the experts appearing before the subcommittee disagreed about the seriousness of the problem, the total evidence available indicates that there has been a large increase in drug violations by juveniles during the past 5 years in most of our urban centers.

INCREASE IN SERIOUSNESS OF ACTS IN LOWER AGE GROUPS

The growing seriousness of the problem of juvenile delinquency is also underscored by the fact that an increasing number of younger boys and girls are committing serious offenses. During each successive year since 1948, for example, a larger number of persons under 18 years of age have been involved in such offenses as burglaries, robberies, and automobile thefts.

DELINQUENCY INCREASED IN NONURBAN AREAS

Heretofore, juvenile delinquency has been thought of as a big-city problem, and indeed it does achieve its most acute form in large metropolitan areas. It should be noted, however, that whereas juvenile delinquency increased 29 percent nationwide between 1948 and 1952, the number of juvenile offenders appearing in courts serving populations of less than 100,000 increased 41 percent.

An increase both in the number of boys and girls committing offenses and in the severity of these offenses has been noted in every region of the United States. Although many individual communities seem excepted, communities reporting such increases range in character from rural and semirural to large urban centers.

Neither are particular forms of delinquent conduct peculiar to one type of community or to any one geographical region. Juvenile drug addiction would seem to represent the only exception to this rule, in that it is limited to communities where there is substantial traffic in illicit drugs. Gangs, commonly considered a big-city phenomenon, for example, also appear in communities relatively small in size. While the pattern of juvenile delinquency varies from community to community, these differences do not appear to be directly related to size, wealth, or other obvious differentials.

DELINQUENCY EXISTS IN ALL ECONOMIC GROUPS

Although physically deteriorated and socially disorganized neighborhoods, usually termed "slum areas," contribute disproportionately to the delinquency caseloads of police and juvenile courts, economically well-to-do communities also produce many juvenile delinquents. As a matter of fact, certain forms of delinquent conduct appear more prevalent in the latter type of neighborhoods. An investigation into the widespread use of synthetic drugs by juveniles in Oklahoma City revealed that not one of the juveniles involved came from the so-called wrong side of the tracks.

It is also reasonable to believe, and it was so testified, that in many instances delinquents from better neighborhoods are less likely to come to the attention of the police and courts. School authorities may be more inclined to permit parents of means and status to work out the problems of their children, for example, than parents with no financial ability and standing. The children of parents with available funds may be sent quietly to private psychiatrists or to boarding schools, and consequently, the transgressions of those children are not likely to be presented to the juvenile court.

III. SPECIAL PROBLEMS

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AMONG INDIAN CHILDREN

The subcommittee, over a period of many months, received numerous communications from Indian leaders, public officials, and the general public expressing concern over juvenile delinquency problems on Indian reservations. As a result, the subcommittee decided to probe the problem of juvenile delinquency among Indians, and the procedures for handling such delinquents, including the adequacy of existing statutes and facilities.

Time did not permit a full investigation of juvenile delinquency among all Indian children. This report, therefore, relates only to those reservations from which substantial data were received. Scattered and inconclusive data received by the subcommittee from reservations not fully explored suggest that the situation on certain reservations may be far different from that revealed in this report as to living conditions, income levels, law and order, education, health, welfare, assimilation, and other factors related to juvenile delinquency.

Neither is it possible in this brief summary to report fully on some of the differences among those reservations from which substantial data were secured and which, therefore, are included in the report. This report describes the general prevailing situation as the record reveals it and includes a few illustrations of some marked differences prevailing among the reservations included. For example, in the field of education, the report points out that the average daily attendance of Indian children has improved greatly. This was testified to in the North Dakota hearings. However, it is a well-known fact that many of the Navaho children in Arizona are not provided any school at the present time and even fewer attended school as little as 6 years ago. Further investigations should be made and hearings held in additional geographical areas to complete the picture.

This section of the subcommittee's report is based on the evidence obtained by the subcommittee in hearings held in Fort Yates, New Town, Rolla, and Bismarck, N. Dak., on successive days in October of 1954, and on investigations made by the subcommittee staff in North Dakota, Oklahoma, and Florida. Conferences were held with Federal agencies in Washington, Indian service organizations in New York and other interested groups. Questionnaires, prepared by the subcommittee were sent to judges, peace officers, and directors of State training schools on or near reservations. Studies and reports of previous hearings by congressional committees and State agencies were examined as were reports and factual data from private accredited organizations dealing with Indian affairs.

Indians and juvenile delinquency

In the various community hearings around the country, the subcommittee has learned that the incidence of juvenile delinquency is affected by cultural patterns. There are over 200 tribes living on 435 Indian reservations in the United States. They speak 120 different languages. There are some 430,000 Indians in 26 States, with 120,000 residing in Oklahoma and as few as 800 in Texas.

The statistics available on the extent and nature of juvenile delinquency in the Indian population are very spotty since very few accurate surveys have been made and the difficulty of making such surveys is almost insurmountable because of the lack of uniform laws and administration of laws on the various reservations. However, from testimony received at the hearings, and from other data received, it is reasonable to believe that juvenile delinquency on Indian reservations is definitely on the increase.

There is also pertinent evidence to the effect that per capita, there is a greater degree of delinquency among Indian youth than among non-Indian. Although the number of Indian youth committed to the State training schools is small, the following chart compares the percentage of institutionalized Indians with the percentage of Indians in the State indicated.

State	Percent of Indian population in training schools	Percent of Indian population in State	State	Percent of Indian population in training schools	Percent of Indian population in State
Idaho.....	26.0	8.0	North Dakota.....	12.9	1.7
Montana.....	36.0	4.0	South Dakota.....	50.0	5.0
Nebraska.....	5.4	4.0	Oklahoma.....	15.5	2.5
Nevada.....	42.0	4.0			

The nature of delinquent acts among Indians tends to be less severe than among non-Indians. The most prevalent acts among boys are drunkenness, petty theft, sex offenses, vandalism and incorrigibility and, among girls, sex offenses, incorrigibility, and drunkenness. This listing is not too different than those offenses which bring non-Indian youth before the courts but the evidence does show that there is less incidence of acts of violence against the person committed by Indian than by non-Indian juvenile delinquents.

Factors contributing to juvenile delinquency among Indians

The subcommittee has received, through testimony and various other data, extensive information on the causes of juvenile delinquency. The causes are not unknown. Juvenile delinquency does not result from a single cause but from a combination of causal factors, any one of which alone would be unlikely to make a youth delinquent. It has been shown throughout the country that physically deteriorated and socially disorganized neighborhoods, usually termed "slum areas," contribute disproportionately to the delinquency caseload of police and juvenile courts.

Most Indian reservations can be likened to "slums." Father Hildebrand, pastor of St. Ann's Indian Mission, Belcourt, N. Dak., stated,

Everyone knows that the Indian reservation constitutes almost the equivalent of a slum condition in the country. They are so economically handicapped that it is impossible for them to have a standard of living equal to others.

William L. Gipp, vice chairman, Standing Rock Sioux Tribal Council, Fort Yates, N. Dak., testified:

It (juvenile delinquency) starts, as was mentioned here this afternoon, from our living conditions which are deplorable. I think that if there was a prize given for a slum area, even if we would have to call it a rural slum, I think we would win the cup.

In addition to the "slum-type" delinquency producing influences and conditions to which Indians on reservations are subject, there are certain additional conditions and aspects of reservation living which also bear upon the problem. These include:

1. The guardian-ward relationship between the United States Government and the Indians which places a more direct responsibility on the Federal Government to improve conditions on the reservation than in other slum areas. Despite this responsibility, slum-clearance programs have been in effect in cities with no apparent effort on the part of Congress to improve housing on Indian reservations. Where slum areas have been improved in our cities, the juvenile-delinquency rate has declined.

2. Whereas, in the slum areas in cities, the greater community through various agencies has taken affirmative action to improve the conditions existing in those areas by providing social workers, child welfare workers, recreation facilities and by making surveys and studies which stimulate local community action, very little is done by these agencies to improve conditions on the Indian reservations.

3. The people who live in other slum areas have not been placed there by governmental action. However, the Indian lives on a reservation primarily because he was originally forced to live there by the policy and action of the United States Government.

4. That as a result, at least partially, of the United States policy and action toward the American Indian, there has been evolved among many Indians an attitude which is marked by indecision and insecurity, lack of initiative, and the impression that the United States Government either will or must provide for their well-being.

In examining the situation of the Indians, we find that the association of the Indians with the white man from the time of the Pilgrims has built up a complex system of customs, laws and relationships

which creates for the Indian a status and situation quite different than that prevailing for the population of the United States as a whole. The attitudes of the early pioneers toward the Indians, the policies of the Government in dealing with them, plus the native cultures of the Indians themselves have all tended to make comprehensive understanding of Indian problems most difficult. Rufus Choate, a famous lawyer, once said that when the Pilgrims came to America:

They first landed on their knees and then on the aborigines.

The thought embodied in this statement is all too evident throughout the white man's relations with the Indians. This attitude has probably fostered much of the trouble between the Indians and the non-Indians. Max Bigman of the Crow Indian Tribe said:

The buffalo gave us our food, our clothing, our houses, our tools, our fuel. The white man came and killed our buffalo. Now the white man is our buffalo.

This concept has been a hindrance to making the Indian an integral part of society in the United States.

Basically, many of the contributing factors to juvenile delinquency among Indian children are similar to those among non-Indian children. However, Indian children are sometimes subjected to these factors to a greater degree. The subcommittee finds that the major contributing factors to delinquency among Indian children are poverty and poor living conditions; lack of effective law and order; disorganized, weak and broken family life; poor educational programs, and the difficulties in making the transition from an old to a new culture. Other leading contributing factors to delinquency are the poor health conditions, inadequate welfare services and lack of local leadership and community action on Indian reservations.

All of the above contributing factors to juvenile delinquency among Indians would seem to have been accentuated by the guardian-ward relationship and by the fumbling, inconsistent, inadequate Federal policy on Indian Affairs which, over the past 100 years, has completely reversed its course twice in the three major periods of Indian affairs.³ The results of the above factors have led many of the parents as well as children to excessive drinking, loose sex practices, desertions, and a general demoralized philosophy of family and community life. There follows a partial breakdown of some of the factors discussed above.

1. Living conditions.—An illustration may serve to reveal prevalent conditions on the Indian reservation: The average income per year for the Standing Rock Reservation (North and South Dakota) Indian family is \$767 and 61 percent live in log cabins, predominantly 1-room affairs. Witnesses testified that the living conditions on the reservation are deplorable. On the Turtle Mountain Reservation (North Dakota) the prevailing living conditions include as many as 15 people living in a 1-room cabin; improperly built cabins with no flooring; packing box material tacked to the log walls to keep out the cold; no electricity nor running water; heat furnished by small stoves using wood for fuel. Water must be carried to some cabins from a distance of a half a mile. The furniture is very poor—what there is of it—and there are no modern appliances. Poor food

³ See appendix 5, p. 127.

and clothing add to the problem. In some homes only potatoes and an inferior grade of flour constitute the family meal.

Some of the results of such living conditions as they affect juvenile delinquency are:

(a) A feeling of inferiority, inadequacy and insecurity on the part of Indian children;

(b) A feeling of shame about, and a reluctance to, returning to their homes among the Indian children who attend modern public schools where they associate with non-Indian children;

(c) Exposure of children to adult sex behavior as a result of lack of privacy for all family members.

(d) Removal of large numbers of Indian children from their own homes and their placement in day boarding or Federal boarding schools thereby removing them from parental love and supervision.

2. *Low income level.*—It is to the Nation's shame that after 100 years of Government supervision over Indians, they, as wards of our Government, generally live in squalor and destitution. Indeed, they must support their families on lower average family incomes than any other national or racial group in our country. (It should be noted, however, that certain tribes represent exceptions, such as the Klamath Indians in Oregon where the average family income is higher and living conditions better than those prevailing for most tribes.)

Both Indian and non-Indian families of low-income level have, in many instances, developed and maintained an excellent quality of family life. In fact, some of our most famous citizens have come from poor and destitute families. Yet, a very low family income can, and often does, operate to the detriment of a stable family life and thus becomes a contributing factor to juvenile delinquency.

It is inconceivable in this age of high living standards that the average family income per annum among Indians in Arizona is \$750; in Mississippi, \$775; among the Navahos and Pueblos in New Mexico, \$300 to \$800, and in North Dakota, \$750 to \$1,290.⁴ The average family income per annum for non-Indians in those same areas range from 2½ to 3 times higher.

The low income level of the Indians is due to such factors as poor and insufficient acreage of farm and cattle lands, lack of capital for business enterprises, with little opportunity for acquiring such capital through loans from public and private sources, and lack of opportunities for steady employment at decent pay.

State's Attorney Melvin Christianson at the hearing in Rolla, N. Dak., said:

All they have in Fort Totten is a bunch of hills and trees. If you turn 5 white families out there, I bet that they will starve to death in 3 years. The Indians are supposed to make a living.

Testimony was introduced to show that in North Dakota a non-Indian family cannot make a living on 160 acres quarter-section of land unless it is an unusual one. Yet, 5,000 Indians are expected to find support on the 3,200 acres of tillable land on the Turtle Mountain Reservation. In North Dakota, a successful cattle business requires 100 acres for each head of cattle. Such acreage is not available to the Indian cattlemen.

⁴ See appendix 6, p. 123.

A major problem confronting the Indian family possessing land for farming or ranching is his lack of working capital and his inability to obtain a loan from either public or private sources. One of the repeated complaints of the Indians during the 4-day hearings related to their failure to obtain real estate, farm, and cattle loans from the FHA or any other source. Fractionated land interests, that is, land divided and owned by hundreds of heirs, clouds on titles, inability to obtain security, and difficulty in securing the necessary approval from tribal and county committees were the reasons offered for inability to obtain loans. Mr. McClung, North Dakota State director of the Farmers' Home Administration, advised the subcommittee that crop loans have been processed but no real-estate loans to Indians have ever been processed in the State to his knowledge.

Another problem among the Indians concerns their leases and land transfers which are delayed for long periods of time at the Indian Bureau land office. Mr. Glen R. Landbloom, of the Aberdeen area office, testified that his office is at least 1 year behind in processing transfers and are falling further behind because of the increased number of applications for such transfers.

The Indian leaders stated their belief that with billions of dollars being used for aid in Europe, the Federal Government could provide direct loans to Indians without the many restrictions that have proven unsurmountable thus far. The Indians contend that they do not want charity but an opportunity to make a living wage or income and ability to obtain loans would aid them greatly in achieving this end.

The poor health of the Indian also has been shown as a factor of his low-income level. Much time is lost from employment or the management of his farm, ranch, or business because of poor health. The tuberculosis rate of the Indian is 121.1 per 100,000 population as compared to 22.5 per 100,000 for the total population of the United States. The pneumonia and influenza death rate among Indians is 114.9 per 100,000 population as compared to 31.3 per 100,000 for non-Indians.

Employment and relocation

Limited opportunities for steady (nonseasonal) employment, coupled with low pay, are major factors in keeping the Indian in a low income status. Mr. Jacob R. Hahn, employment specialist, North Dakota Employment Service, testified to the limited opportunities for employment. One of the big problems to be met in increasing such opportunities relates to employer resistance to the hiring of Indians for various jobs.

Significant steps have been taken in several States and especially in North Dakota—one, a State project and the other, a Federal project—to aid the employment plight of the Indian. A State program was initiated by the State Employment Service of North Dakota which contacts various potential employers throughout the State who are in a position to hire large numbers of Indians for both regular and seasonal employment. This is a special effort to overcome the employer resistance referred to above. The employment service has records to show a good performance by Indian workers in the State on such projects as the Garrison Dam, Jewel plant, and the railroad.

There is also a program to encourage Indians to enter industrial labor. A significant shift in Indian employment from agriculture to industry has occurred since 1947. Mr. Hahn, of the employment

service, testified that in 1946, 220 out of a group of 301 Indians were employed in agriculture, but that by 1952, the number so employed dropped to 34. In 1946, 23 Indians were recorded as employed in construction work. By 1951 this number had risen to 192.⁵

The relocation program of the Indian Bureau is designed to place any Indian and his family in larger cities and to obtain suitable employment there for them. Los Angeles, San Francisco, and Chicago are key cities to which they are relocated. The program, according to evidence received, is to a degree successful, but much improvement is needed in servicing the family after it reaches the city and is confronted with family problems that develop in its new environment. Thus far, about one-third of the persons so relocated have returned to the reservation.

Law and order

One of the points made in the hearings was the fact that the lack of effective law and order on the reservation was a most significant contributing factor to juvenile delinquency. Throughout the country, all persons are required to obey certain Federal, State, and local laws. Those laws are enforced by peace officers, and the violators are prosecuted and tried in certain courts by designated prosecutors and judges, respectively. If the police and the courts are inadequate and inefficient, then the effectiveness of law and order in that area, both as to adults and juveniles, is definitely affected.

Generally, a policy develops under which one or the other will act to apprehend and prosecute various types of law violators. On Indian reservations, the same conflict has resulted in hesitancy, confusion and, in some instances, total inaction by law-enforcement officials.

In dealing with law and order on Indian reservations, a major problem arises out of disputes that are caused by varying interpretations of the statutes. An example of such a problem is the situation at the Fort Totten Reservation in North Dakota, which earlier established the best record of any reservation in North Dakota as to law and order and is now without any law and order in all crimes other than the 10 major crimes. In 1946 a Federal law was passed ceding jurisdiction relative to law and order to Benson County, N. Dak., over all enrolled Indians of the Fort Totten Reservation located in that county. Benson County assumed jurisdiction since 1946, but a recent opinion by the attorney general of the State of North Dakota, on September 30, 1954, held that the Federal law was not self-executing and that before the State can legally assume jurisdiction, the State constitution must be amended and legislation enacted to accept jurisdiction. On the other hand, the Federal attorneys have ruled that the Federal Government has ceded jurisdiction. Consequently, no peace officers are arresting, nor are courts hearing cases of, enrolled Indian offenders of Fort Totten.

Another problem affecting jurisdiction relates to disputes as to whether a person is to be regarded as an Indian or not because of the many and varied definitions of "who is an Indian," under the numerous Federal statutes dealing with Indians. And further complicating the issue of jurisdiction is the difficulty frequently encountered in determining whether the criminal offense has been committed on or

⁵ See appendix 7, p. 128.

off Indian reservation lands. The process of making these determinations has caused confusion, delayed investigations which result in improper preparation of cases and, in many instances, failure to prosecute and convict. Occasionally, 1 agency assumes that the other has acted, or 1 agency passes the problem to the other with the result that no action is taken and there is, in consequence, less deterrent to delinquency and crime.

Lack of funds and personnel

Inadequate facilities and personnel for law enforcement is a deterrent to the maintenance of effective law and order whether it be on the reservation or in any other community. The evidence is overwhelming to the effect that the appropriations for law and order for the Indian reservations are far too small to provide an adequate service.

First, there is not a sufficient number of peace officers to cover properly the large area of most reservations. Some peace officers must cover more than one reservation and, in some instances, these may be located in two different States. The peace officers themselves testify that not only is their service hampered by insufficient personnel, but that it is further injured by lack of funds for such needed facilities as transportation and detention of offenders. The result is that only the more serious offenses are properly attended to.

Secondly, facilities for detention of juveniles are lacking and if the child cannot be released to his parents, he must be confined in the same jail as adults which is against all good practices of detaining youth. There are no funds for separate detention facilities for juveniles.

Thirdly, those juveniles that are tried by tribal courts⁶ are tried by low-paid and, very often, inexperienced judges. The judges testified that outside pressures pro and con are exerted to a degree which makes the administration of justice difficult. More sufficient appropriations would make possible the employment of better qualified court personnel.

Laxity in enforcement of law and order

For many reasons, there has been developed what might be called a "policy of laxity" in both the enforcement of the law and the prosecution of offenses on Indian reservations. This can be particularly noted in relation to a few specific offenses such as liquor violations and certain types of sex offenses. The evidence suggests that if all the criminal offenses committed by Indian youth and adults were enforced, the jails available would be overflowing constantly. One Federal Indian officer testified that he received an oral directive that no liquor case was to be prosecuted unless it was of a drastic nature. The directive purportedly came from an official of the Indian Bureau.

Another weakness in the administration of law and order may be suggested by the difference noted in terms of the minimum punishment provided by tribal courts for criminal offenses on Indian reservations as compared to the minimum punishment provided by State law for the same or similar offenses.⁷

In a recent congressional report on Indian affairs, a very pertinent observation was made on law and order which gives a clear picture of the situation on many Indian reservations:

The need for adequate law and protection is urgent. While the tribe is making commendable effort to cope with the problem, much still remains to be done.

⁶ See appendix 8, p. 129.

⁷ See appendix 9, p. 129.

The existing conditions contribute to lawlessness, a breakdown of morals and morale, an increase in delinquency, and an excessive burden upon the people.

There is no doubt that unless respect for law and order is developed on the Indian reservation, adult and juvenile crime and delinquency will get further out of hand.

Education

The trend of educating the Indian youth is definitely toward the use of the regular public schools. This trend has been accelerated by the Johnson-O'Malley Act which makes Federal funds available under certain conditions to regular public schools serving Indian youth. Of the 128,000 children from 6 to 18 on Indian reservations, 58,855 attend public schools, 35,586 attend Federal Indian day schools, and Federal Indian boarding schools. Ten thousand Indian children attend mission or other private schools and 19,000 do not attend any school. The balance of some 5,000 are unaccounted for. Thirty-two thousand of those attending public schools attend under the provisions of the Johnson-O'Malley Act.⁸

This modern approach is a far cry from the system in 1885 when the policy as stated by the Federal superintendent of Indian schools said:

The Indian is the strangest compound of individualism and socialism run to seed. It is this being that we must endeavor to make a member of a new social order. To do this we must recreate him, make him a new personality.

The evidence is that Indian children are doing as well as the non-Indian children in both classwork and average daily attendance. This was not so in findings of 20 years ago which indicated that the Indian child could not adapt himself to the course of study provided non-Indian youth and showed definite preference for vocational subjects and sports. Despite vast improvements in school attendance by Indian youth, however, both problems of nonattendance and school dropouts remain in some reservation areas.⁹

Many parents take their children with them on seasonal employment projects and keep them out of school for appreciable lengths of time. Other parents, under an old Indian custom of allowing the youth to make their own decisions, leave it to the children to decide if they want to attend classes. This has proven harmful, not only in the effect it has on the child's education, but also would seem to be a factor in parental neglect and to a lack of parental supervision which subjects a child to harmful health and environmental conditions and to too much idle leisure time.

There is much improvement needed in the Federal boarding-school system although some improvement has been shown. In some schools, over 50 percent of the students attending were there because of social conditions in the home or the community rather than for purely educational purposes. It is estimated that 6,000 of the children presently in the Indian Bureau's Federal boarding schools are so served because they are either neglected, dependent, or orphaned children rather than because no public schools are available to them. In this connection, it should be noted that these facts point to the need for more adequate provisions for neglected and destitute Indian children. A stepped-up program of adoptive placements and foster-home care is needed as well as small institutions designed to care for

⁸ See appendix 10, p. 130.

⁹ See appendix 11, p. 131.

those children in need of specialized group care. Boarding schools are neither designed nor adapted to provide substitute parental care for the essentially homeless child.

Insofar as the boarding schools serve a purely educational function, it is interesting to note that a comparison of cost per pupil reveals that the national average in public schools is \$247 per annum whereas the national average in Federal Indian day schools is \$399 and in the Federal Indian boarding schools, \$835.

Effects of cultural transition and assimilation on juvenile delinquency

The subcommittee's Interim Report No. 1064 pointed out that the phenomenon of a high incidence of juvenile delinquency among certain minority groups is not new. Back in the 1900's the children of each successive national immigrant group showed a disproportionately large number getting into difficulty. Several such minority groups have gone through identical birth pangs of Americanization and have been eventually assimilated into a new cultural pattern. The problem was overcome as each group became Americanized through having and using opportunities to share in all the advantages our country offers. Any group needs to have the opportunities for employment, decent housing, medical services, and education which will allow the minority to become a part of the community in feeling rather than being a part of the community in terms of residence only.

Indian youth are confronted with a situation which is both similar and dissimilar to the youth of other minority groups. They are a minority group but they are also our first Americans and not the first generation of Americans of other minority groups. The transition and assimilation of the Indian into the larger society has been very slow because of the many unique cultural patterns, customs, and laws which he has been permitted to retain, and because of the guardian-ward relationship governed under the Federal Government's changeable policies.

Health and welfare

Dr. Seckinger, Commissioner of Public Health in the District of Columbia, in his testimony before the subcommittee, drew certain significant comparisons between the delinquency rates in slum neighborhoods and the incidence of certain health and community problems in those very same neighborhoods. His maps showed that many health and social problems have a high prevalence in those neighborhoods which have the highest rate for juvenile delinquency. Among the concomitant problems were the high number of deaths from tuberculosis, the high number of infant deaths under 1 year of age, and grossly substandard and overcrowded housing conditions.

Taking this picture to the Indian reservations, we find that the same poor substandard and overcrowded housing conditions prevails. The general health picture among the Indians also is far worse than that of the general population. The tuberculosis, pneumonia, and influenza death rate among Indians is far out of proportion to that among the general population. This factor is astounding in the face of the modern development of medicine with its wonder drugs which, as yet, seems to have had no material effect on the health conditions on Indian reservations.

It should be noted also that there were 91.7 deaths of Indians under 1 year of age per 1,000 live births compared with a rate of 31.5 for

non-Indians. A survey of the Papago Indians in southern Arizona revealed that of the 260 infants born, 25 percent died in the first year; 40 percent died before reaching the age of 6, and 52 percent died before reaching the age of 18, which makes the life expectancy of the Papago baby 17 years of age while the national average for the total United States population is 68 years of age.

As to welfare, the subcommittee received evidence that on some reservations, as high as 75 percent of the persons receive some form of assistance. This percentage is much higher than the general population average in the same geographical areas.¹⁰

The Indians receive public assistance under the Social Security Act in the same manner as other citizens. A few States provide child-welfare services and general assistance to Indians on the same basis as to non-Indians. The principal obstacle to progress in child welfare is the lack in many States of funds, with resulting lack of personnel and facilities needed to provide these services on reservations. The welfare program of the Indian Bureau is designed to provide assistance and services not available to Indians from other sources. Historically, the direct assistance to Indians has been the responsibility of the Federal Government. The North Dakota Indian Affairs Commission contends, as do other States, that the Indian Bureau during the past decade has attempted to shift this burden to the local subdivisions of the States. It is the position of these States that direct assistance should be handled by the States with Federal funds for such assistance to be supplied 100 percent by the Federal Government.

Aid to dependent children

The program of aid to dependent children was the most discussed issue in the four hearings held by the subcommittee. Much of the testimony dealt with the disproportionate share of ADC money going to the Indians,¹¹ and the high rate of illegitimacy at the four reservations. In 1954, 20 percent of Indian births in North Dakota were illegitimate as compared to 1.5 percent of non-Indian births.

Also, there was considerable testimony on a common failure to establish the parentage of an illegitimate child and a lack of prosecution of criminal and civil cases against fathers for neglect and desertions of minor children.

The consensus expressed during the hearings was to the effect that ADC was intended for the aid of needy children irrespective of the faults of the parents, but that law and order on the reservation should take firm steps to see that parentage is established and payments for support ordered whenever possible.

Welfare services

One of the greatest needs on the reservation is for expert community organization workers. Such personnel could aid in developing firmer and better organized leadership within the Indian group itself. The placement of such workers on reservations would be fully consistent with the democratic and desirable principle that people are best aided who are helped to help themselves.

There is also keen need for enlarged and invigorated child-welfare services. Many State welfare departments are attempting to give service on reservations but meager funds for this purpose result in

¹⁰ See appendix 12, p. 137.

¹¹ See appendix 13, p. 138.

a service which, where existent, is on a too-little and a too-late policy. Special Federal appropriations for the development of adequate child-welfare services on Indian reservations would, in the long run, save the still larger sums which will be required to pay the costs which will be involved in caring for neglected youngsters after they have become grossly inadequate adult citizens.

Recommendations

During the four hearings in North Dakota, a number of specific recommendations for remedial action were proposed by various witnesses. Some of these were aimed to improve the administration of existing programs. Others were directed to the need for legislative action by both State and Federal Governments. Still others were pointed at ways and means of improving coordination of efforts among the tribal, State, Federal, and other agencies and organizations involved in Indian affairs. Of the many excellent suggestions received as to steps which would at least ameliorate problems contributing to delinquency among Indian children, the subcommittee recommends as follows:

1. Family life for many Indian families would be strengthened and improved by the provision of better housing. Both the Federal Housing Act and the Farmers Home Act contain provisions which prevent enrolled Indians from benefiting under them. The subcommittee recommends that these acts be amended to remove their restrictive aspects and, in addition, that low-cost rental housing projects on Indian reservations be undertaken.

2. Poverty and want among Indian families contribute to the delinquency of their children. Steps designed to raise the economic level of these families should include:

- (a) The development of a program providing for direct loans to Indians to enable them to secure the capital needed for farming and ranching businesses.

- (b) An intensified relocation program to enable more families to leave reservations and locate where employment is available. This program should include both temporary economic aid which might be required by a family making such a shift, and the guidance and counseling services which may be needed in the family's adjustment to a totally new environment.

- (c) Increased efforts by public employment services to stimulate enlarged employment opportunities for Indians. This is needed to combat the employer resistance referred to earlier in this report.

- (d) Development of Federal and State work projects near Indian reservations.

- (e) Prompter handling of land and lease transactions by the Indian Bureau and legislation by the Congress correcting the problem of fractionated land interests.

3. Poor health conditions may contribute to juvenile delinquency in a variety of ways. The subcommittee believes that greatly extended public health measures should be taken relative to enrolled Indians on reservations.

4. Inadequate law enforcement contributes to crime and delinquency among both children and adults. Public Law 280, passed by the 83d Congress, conferred civil and criminal jurisdiction over Indian lands (excepting jurisdiction relative to the so-called 10 major crimes)

to the States in which these lands are located, providing that certain conditions relative to the assumption of such jurisdiction by the States were met. These conditions include the adoption of legislation by States necessary to the exercise of such jurisdiction.

In order to further improve law enforcement on Indian reservations, the subcommittee recommends that the following steps be taken:

(a) Inclusion of the 10 major crimes in the jurisdiction assumed or to be assumed by States under Public Law 280.

(b) Federal appropriations to States to assist them in securing the enlarged personnel and additional facilities necessary to their assuming responsibility for law enforcement on Indian lands under Public Law 280.

(c) Codification of Federal laws, including treaties and special agreements pertaining to American Indians.

(d) Adoption, through legislative enactment, of uniform definitions as to "who is an Indian" and "what is Indian country."

5. The advancement of educational standards and the enlargement of educational opportunities among Indians would be of substantial aid in combating delinquency among Indian children. To achieve these ends, the subcommittee recommends:

(a) The development of a program providing for scholarships for Indian youth, similar to the educational provisions under GI benefits, to enable them to pursue courses of advanced study and training.

(b) Added special courses in vocational and technical training should be instituted in both public and Indian schools for both adults and youth residing on Indian reservations.

The subcommittee believes that present efforts to transfer the educational activities of the Indian Bureau to State authorities are sound. If such cannot be accomplished under provisions of the Johnson-O'Malley Act, then special legislation should be adopted to achieve this goal.

6. It is recommended that the Indian Bureau encourage and stimulate, on the part of the authorities involved, more vigorous action relative to the determination of parentage and the ordering of support payments for illegitimate children.

7. It is recommended that additional appropriations be made for the provision of both community and child welfare services on reservations. The subcommittee believes that responsibility for the administration of these services should be shifted to the respective States. As rapidly as this is accomplished, funds so appropriated should be granted to the respective States for the development or continuation of such services.

8. It is highly important, in connection with the welfare of both Indian youth and adults, that the States assume responsibility for the care of the mentally ill. It is recommended that the Indian Bureau proceed to enter into agreements with States to this end as rapidly as possible.

9. The subcommittee finds a dire lack in provisions made for the granting of general economic assistance to families in real need. It is recommended that additional funds be appropriated for this purpose. In line with a previous statement, the subcommittee believes that responsibility for the administration of such assistance be transferred

to the established public-welfare agencies of the several States as soon as, and as rapidly as, they are able to assume it.

10. Relative to the provision of community services referred to in recommendation No. 7, it is the belief of the subcommittee that much could be accomplished through invigorated and extended efforts to bring into being a continuing program of community planning in relation to the local problems on each reservation area. Through such programs involving tribal, county, State, and Federal personnel and efforts, a variety of local activities might be stimulated. With reference specifically to youth, for example, such activities might include their participation in the programs of the Future Farmers of America, 4-H Clubs, etc. It might also result in the formation of other types of leisure time as well as in the provision of other recreational outlets.

11. The Indian Reorganization Act (84 Stat. 984) provided for the organization of Indians into tribal groups with constitutions and charters derived from the Secretary of Interior. Some tribes, however, were otherwise organized. Several difficulties have developed in these tribal organizations. One of the difficulties relates to questions regarding the effectiveness and representativeness of the governing bodies on the several reservations.

The subcommittee recommends that a reexamination of the Indian Reorganization Act and an evaluation of the self-governing operations of each Indian tribe be made in order to determine if further legislative action is necessary to correct the difficulties encountered.

RUNAWAY CHILDREN

A runaway child is a child in potential trouble. Even if he is an essentially normal youth out for adventure, he is highly vulnerable to the damaging influence which may be exerted by every wrong type of companion he encounters. Without continuing financial support, he may be led to steal or engage in other illegal acts simply in order that he may eat. As a vagrant, a child even of very young age may be picked up by the juvenile officials and thrown into jail where he will be exposed to the influence of hardened adult offenders. Apprehended as a vagrant by officials, he may even be committed by a local court to a local or State institution as a delinquent. Clearly, the goal of society for the two-hundred-thousand-plus boys and girls who run away each year should be to return them as promptly as possible to their homes.

During its early investigations it was brought to the attention of the subcommittee that there is a great amount of variation on the part of State and local agencies with regard to the handling of runaway children. Many unfortunate practices were developing simply because local agencies were not provided with the resources they needed to handle the problem. All too often, it was learned, runaway juveniles when apprehended, were transported to the State or county line and left to fend for themselves. Another problem that was brought to light related to the detention of runaways. It was stated that runaways were often held in jails or other undesirable quarters for considerable periods of time pending their return home. Although a great percentage of runaways were not delinquent, they were reportedly held in security institutions until they were sent home or sometimes committed as delinquents to institutions in the State where they were

apprehended. In either case, the cost of their care in these institutions where authorities struggled to find some means to return them to their homes greatly exceeded the sum which would have been required, had it been available, to pay for their transportation home. And in this wasteful process, some juveniles acquired a lifelong record as a delinquent quite unnecessarily.

In order to get a broad overview of the size and nature of the problem and the prevailing practices with regard to the handling of runaway children in the United States, the subcommittee made inquiry of the agencies concerned with the problem throughout the Nation.

Size of the problem

No definitive answer can be given as to the size of the runaway problem. Adequate statistics on the runaway child are nonexistent. In an attempt to determine an approximation of the size of the problem, the subcommittee sent 294 questionnaires to chiefs of State police, departments of public welfare, juvenile court judges and travelers aid associations all over the Nation; 212 replies were received.

The data secured through these questionnaires in nowise presents a national picture of the dimensions of the problem. However, it is believed that these data are of real value in that they provide a sample throwing some light upon various aspects of the problem including the proportions of runaways apprehended within their own States, the costs involved, the ages of runaways, the procedures utilized in handling runaways, and the problems which stand in the way of developing more effective procedures.

Of the 212 replies received, 48 indicated that no records were kept regarding apprehended runaways. This figure included 18 State police (out of 38 replies), 16 departments of public welfare (out of 38 replies), 9 juvenile courts (out of 56 replies), and 5 travelers aids (out of 75 replies). (Five replies were received from other child-serving agencies than those to which the inquiry had been directed.)

Five sources recorded no runaways handled in 3 departments of public welfare, 1 travelers aid, and 1 juvenile court.

Of the total of 21, 827 runaways handled by the agencies reporting, 7,313 were apprehended within their own State, 7,705 were picked up in another State, and no information was provided as to the residence of the other 6,809 runaways handled. Of the 21,827 runaways, 4,066 were over the age of 16, 8,632 were 16 and under and the age of 9,129 was not specified. All of the data received relate to runaways apprehended in the year 1953. (See tables.)

TABLE I

Number of runaways reported to subcommittee according to residence and agency (1953)

Agency handling runaways	Number of runaways according to place of apprehension			
	Total	Within the State	Outside the State	Not specified
Total.....	21, 827	7, 313	7, 705	6, 809
State police.....	4, 512	1, 420	1, 360	1, 732
Department of public welfare.....	4, 929	907	1, 103	2, 919
Travelers aid.....	2, 995	444	1, 611	940
Juvenile court.....	8, 179	3, 979	2, 982	1, 218
Other.....	1, 212	563	649

Number of runaways reported to subcommittee, according to residence and age (1953)

Age in years	Number of runaways according to place of apprehension			
	Total	Within the State	Outside the State	Not specified
Total.....	21, 827	7, 313	7, 705	6, 809
Over 16.....	4, 066	1, 540	2, 526	-----
16 and under.....	8, 632	4, 810	3, 822	-----
Not specified ¹	9, 129	963	1, 357	6, 809

¹ Age was not specified by 28 of the 159 agencies reporting to the subcommittee; 8 of these agencies reported residence, 20 did not report residence.

This is as comprehensive a survey as could be made by the subcommittee of those agencies coming into contact with runaways. All available mailing lists were obtained and used; however, many agencies were not covered due to limitations in available mailing lists.

Of the 294 questionnaires sent out, only one-half were able to supply a count of runaways apprehended for the period stated. Among State offices, many were unable to provide complete figures for the State and supplied figures for its immediate vicinity only. As in other aspects of the statistical reporting of juvenile delinquency (if we can consider a juvenile runaway as a juvenile delinquent momentarily) we find evidence of the great inadequacy of record-keeping and central coordination. Obviously the total number of runaways is far greater than that brought to our attention. The subcommittee estimates that there are from 200,000 to 300,000 boys and girls who run away annually in the United States.

Runaways from institutions for delinquents

Because there are certain additional legal problems involved in returning from out of State a child who has been committed to the custody of an agency, the subcommittee solicited information from the superintendents of publicly and privately financed training schools in the United States. The data received in this area should also be regarded as a sample only. First of all, the training schools constitute but a portion of the children's institutions concerned with this problem. Secondly, less than one-half of the institutions receiving questionnaires submitted the requested information.

Number of runaways from institutions

Two hundred and forty-four questionnaires were sent to training schools throughout the Nation and 114 replies were received. For the period of July 1, 1953, to June 30, 1954, four institutions reporting had no runaways. The remaining 111 institutions reported a total of 8,119 runaways. The large majority of these were apprehended within their own States.

TABLE II.—Number of runaways from institutions reported according to location of apprehension July 1, 1953, to June 30, 1954

Number of questionnaires	Number of runaways	Apprehension		Not accounted for
		Within the State	Outside the State	
4	0	0	0	0
97	6,692	6,236	456	0
12	1,235	1,074	76	185
1	192	(2)	(2)	192
<u>114 (total)</u>	8,119	7,310	532	277

¹ 85 runaways had not been apprehended at time questionnaire was returned to subcommittee.

² 192 runaways were reported by one institution but no information given relative to apprehension.

Cost of detaining and returning runaways

The following breakdown is only a rough indication of the amount spent on runaways by those agencies reporting their expenditures. These figures, in every instance, are exclusive of overhead and salaries.

There was a total of \$7,412.21 spent on 704 runaways by 9 departments of public welfare for an average expenditure of \$10.53 per runaway. This total included \$5,031.73 for travel and \$2,380.48 for temporary care. The 9 juvenile courts reporting the amount spent on runaways recorded a total of \$11,330.72 spent on 959 runaways, for an average of \$24.46 per runaway. This total included \$3,493.59 on travel and \$7,777.13 on temporary care. An additional \$60 was spent on incidentals such as phone calls and telegrams. Three probation departments, in a State with an acute runaway problem, reported a total of \$81,574.55 was spent on 1,688 runaways for an average of \$48.32 per runaway. Of this total, \$8,253.55 was spent on travel and \$73,321 was spent on temporary care. This is an extreme example. However, it does indicate the unequal burden that some States are forced to carry.

In 50 travelers aid agencies reporting, there was a total of \$17,712.67 spent on 1,726 runaways, for an average of \$10.26 per runaway. This total included \$14,295.81 spent on travel, \$3,149.94 spent on temporary care, and \$266.92 spent on phone calls and telegrams. The lesser proportion devoted to the provision of temporary care for runaways as reported by the travelers aid is probably due to (1) the travelers aid may handle a different kind of runaway in many instances. This would include those children who are "tired" of running away and seek out a travelers aid agency expressly for the purpose of going home and thus require no temporary care; and (2) the efficient system of communication between travelers aids throughout the Nation which speeds up the return of runaways, decreasing detention time. Another factor would be that some runaways are detained by another agency, which assumes the cost of temporary care, and then refers them to a travelers aid which then assumes only the cost of returning them home.

To digress from the information digested from the questionnaires for a moment, during the hearings in San Diego it was learned from Mr. Charles T. C. Rogers, the chief probation officer, that the runaway problem in his county is increasing each year. In 1953-54 fiscal year his department handled 1,112 cases of this type, referred by law

enforcement agencies. By volume, this was the largest category of cases handled and represented an increase of 23 percent over the previous year. Mr. Rogers pointed out that even in cases where parents would send funds for the youngster's return, it cost the county \$6 per day for a week or 10 days to support each child while awaiting arrangements. With this in mind, the subcommittee's estimation of from \$10.53 to \$48.32 spent per runaway by the aforementioned agencies should be viewed with reservations as they are obviously very low figures.

Practices detrimental to the welfare of runaway youth

Many of the questionnaires pointed up the lack of cooperation among agencies in dealing with runaway children and youth. The following quotations are examples of complaints directed at police neglect, uncooperativeness and poor treatment:

"The sheriff 'could run kids out of town,' getting them across the county line as fast as possible."

"Sometimes such children (runaways) have been held a long time waiting for someone who is making a trip in his direction and will take him along."

"Too often the police plan independently of any agency. We also find that children are held for a long period of time before referral while the police attempt to work out a solution which is unsuccessful. Then when a child has been in jail for perhaps 5 or 6 days, the case may be referred to us."

"The answers received on our questionnaire (this State, upon receipt of the subcommittee questionnaire, conducted a statewide investigation of runaways and forwarded the results) repeatedly indicated that police would refer runaways to the welfare office if they thought some welfare service were needed."

"It appears 'need' is determined by the difficulty the police may have in handling the child or in getting funds for his care and transportation * * *. It is apparent from our study that correlation between the police and welfare services is needed in order to determine which children should be referred to agencies in their home States for casework."

"Police do not refer, are often unwilling to refer the 'runaway' to the county welfare department. They hold them in jail, they float them out of town or sometimes release them, thus inviting a repeat of their offense. Then they have them committed to the State penal institutions."

Many juvenile courts were reported to be uncooperative and engaging in neglectful and potentially harmful practices as the following examples indicate:

"We have a great deal of difficulty with the juvenile court which refuses to accept nonresident children for care. On the other hand, if they do take a non-resident child for temporary care, they often proceed with their own planning and negate any service which we may try to give."

"Instead of the local courts making arrangements for the return of these youths to agencies in their own home counties, the youths were committed to our care for such disposition as the * * * deemed advisable. It has been necessary for us to hold these youths in our training schools for several weeks or months, pending completion of plans for their return to their home States."

"Occasionally we are 'stuck' for a time with a runaway child but in most cases plans work out for his return to the county and State of his legal residence."

"The court does not always consider that it is necessary to pay transportation for the child and, in the case of boys 16 or over if they appear large for their age, the court has been known to give them lunches and tell them to hitchhike."

"It becomes necessary at times for lack of suitable arrangements to give a child a lunch, a small amount of change, and place him on the road to make his own way."

"Even juvenile courts hesitate to take any action which might involve some cost to the county. When a plan simply could not be made otherwise in * * * for nonresident children, courts have occasionally committed them to the State training school, thus obligating the State to pay for their support rather than a county."

"In some instances, the courts are not as lenient with these nonresident youths as they would be with those who had local residence. Consequently, they are committed to the training schools instead of being granted probation."

The following examples illustrate refusal by departments of public welfare within some States to assume any responsibility for the runaway, even if from their own community:

"When asked why the D. P. W. pay transportation in such cases (runaways) basically it is because no one else has the funds and to quote 'to get the problem out of the State.'"

"Other States do not always cooperate in the return of the youth to his State. Seldom do they offer or agree to pay for the youth's return. If the family has been a problem, the other State is glad to be 'rid' of the youth."

"There seems to be a fear of holding a child until plans based on a study of the situation are made. There are no facilities for suitable detention of these children in rural counties. If children are detained, the county may get stuck with them' financially. Investigation takes time and it costs money to hold children pending evaluation of plans."

"It has been reported to us that in some instances officials have had to 'turn runaways loose' and tell them to be on their way because no arrangements for transportation could be made. A rural county cited four girls traveling together, taken into custody at 3 a. m. hitching a ride. They were 'toughies.' Held through the next day, they were finally released when the home community agencies are said to have reported they would not send for them or pay for their return. One girl was on probation from the juvenile court. The parents were poor, and evidently not able to supply proper care and supervision. None could arrange to get the girls, about 100 miles from home. The cost of keeping four girls while additional efforts were made to investigate the problems and the possibilities for return under supervision appalled a county with limited resources."

An idea of the dearth of detention facilities may be gotten from the following excerpts from the questionnaires:

"We do regret that the authorities so often hold a child in jail for several days before referral and sometimes keep him until we have worked out a plan. For instance, a 15-year-old girl reported conversations with one of our most notorious women prisoners."

"Often there are no prisoners in a rural jail at a given time, but runaway youngsters would from time to time share quarters with adults being held for crime. It is a violation of law to house juveniles in the jail but because of lack of facilities, counties have few alternatives."

"The probation officer in * * * estimated he gave service to about 12 runaway children during the year. The only place he has for their temporary care is the jail and he has no funds for transportation."

"Greatest difficulty is finding temporary care for Negro runaways who are 16 or over as they are too old according to * * * law to be under the jurisdiction of juvenile court and be placed in detention home, and Negro foster homes are so limited that they have to be kept in private homes until plans made for return."

The dilemma of many State institutions and their runaway charges is pointed out in the following statements:

"The most difficult type of case situation concerning runaways is those which involve children who are wards of other juvenile courts and State institutions who will not or who do not have funds available to send for their wards. These type of children will not return to their home communities without supervision. It has been necessary for us to place some of these out-of-State cases in our State training school when other courts will not cooperate with us. We do not just turn the children loose nor take them to the State line. We have had most of our difficulties with the North Central States and the Northeastern States.

"* * * our State training schools, which do not have authority under the law to return their own runaway children who have gone into other States, are frequently unable to arrange the return of such runaway children. The most that our institution's superintendents can do is to arrange to meet children at the State line and resume custody if they are delivered by another State. However, we do find that other States frequently do not have the financial authority to return such children and that they do resort to placing them in local institutions for delin-

quents * * * this does not relieve the other State of the cost of care but greatly increases it and merely defers the problem of ultimate return of the child."

"Our officials have no jurisdiction outside of the State, and except in cases where boys are very near the State line, or by courtesy, we cannot finance their return."

"It is generally known by our boys that if they can escape from the school and get across the State line we lose jurisdiction and cannot return them to the school."

"Principal problems we have encountered with respect to out-of-State runaways in the way of jurisdiction is due to the fact that we have an informal attorney general's opinion to the effect that the jurisdiction of the * * * does not extend beyond the boundaries of this State and that if any of our employees left the boundaries of * * * and went into another State to apprehend one of our runaways, it would be possible for the authorities in the sister State to file a kidnaping charge against them. We have, therefore, refrained from having any of our employees leave the State * * * to apprehend or return runaways * * *."

"If runaways are in neighboring States, i. e., 100-200 miles, we drive for them—beyond this we occasionally pay plane fare and meet them at the airport. If fare goes over \$50 we generally disregard them."

"Our funds are limited relative to picking up a w. o. l.'s outside the State of * * *. If the boy is in a State bordering the State of * * * we usually take funds from our regular budget and return him to school. If the a. w. o. l. case is in a State that involves 500 miles or more, we simply wire the agency that has apprehended the boy telling them that we cannot pay his return transportation. In most cases the boy is turned loose and asks to return to his State of legal residence. Comparatively few return to the school on a voluntary basis."

"Authorities in other States are naturally reluctant to go to the time and expense of returning a nonresident boy. Since this institution lacks funds to send for a runaway in another State or pay for his return, authorities sometimes release the boy and let him continue on his way."

"Two girls who were recently located in a Western State could have been returned much earlier, but time was lost in the writing of letters, telegrams, and telephone calls to assure the State that they would be reimbursed. However, the girls were held until they had received the funds from our institution. This meant that the girls had several weeks away from our school, and it was also necessary that they be kept in jail for several days before we were able to reach them."

"Many runaways have gained wrong ideas and have been assisted in wrongdoing when their return has been delayed until a certain number of delinquents have been gathered together, possibly enough to fill a coach of a train. In this event, many times they are guarded very closely, and they have been much more hostile when they returned than when they left the institution."

"Every effort should be made to return these children at the earliest possible time as this period of uncertainty adds to their insecurity, and they are much more disturbed when they reach their destination. Many times treatment that has been given them is lost through this delay."

"No problem—usually we get them. One boy was in Miami, Fla., in June—we were short of funds and let him stay—he came back to * * *, was captured and returned to the school. * * *"

Some States are uncooperative for no apparent reason at all. One institution replied:

Believe other States should get them [runaways] as we do. Some States will make no effort to return them but will accept them if returned. One State in New England makes no effort and will not accept them if they get in any trouble in * * *.

Several institutions reported difficulties with truckdrivers picking up, transporting, and living with runaway juvenile girls:

"Our school is distant from public transportation and if it were not for the practice of truckdrivers * * * readily giving rides to the girls, most of ours would be apprehended by us or the local officials before they could reach the city. A campaign to prevent truckdrivers from picking up the girls would be most helpful."

"One of the most serious problems is that of easy transportation by truckdrivers given girls who wish to travel north or south. Frequently the driver lets them off to walk over a State line, and picks them up on the other side. They sleep in trucks, and will change their routes at trucking centers when the truck on which they are riding stops for rest or a change of drivers. We have found that

they change at the center near Richmond, Va., Washington, D. C., and Baltimore, Md., also at points farther south."

"Girls are more apt to travel in pairs than boys, and to do it in the summer and autumn. The State police remarked that boys don't mind burrowing into haystacks to sleep, but girls want fancier accommodations. A child-welfare consultant pointed out the problem of girls riding into big cities with transcontinental truckdrivers and registering as their wives at wayside places. No questions seem to be asked by operators of truck stopovers, even though trucking firms do not permit riders, or permit drivers to take their wives along on their routes. It was suggested that interstate trucking firms should check more closely on how their drivers register at points where they spend nights. An illustration was cited of two girls from one * * * town who have made repeated trips to Chicago in this way."

Use of child-welfare funds for care and return of runaways

In 1950 the Congress amended title V, part 3, of the Social Security Act to enable Federal child-welfare service funds allotted to States to be used for the care and return of out-of-State runaway children under 16 years of age. The purposes for which Federal funds may be used as set forth in the policy are:

1. Payment of the transportation and maintenance costs, including miscellaneous expenses, incurred in the course of travel, of returning a child to his own community.
2. Payment of the transportation and maintenance costs, including miscellaneous expenses, incurred in the course of travel, of an attendant to accompany a child when supervision is necessary to assure the child's welfare.
3. Cost of care incidental to return of the child after authorization to return him has been given (in accordance with condition 2) and pending completion of travel arrangements.

The conditions under which Federal funds may be used as stated in the policy are:

1. The State plan for child welfare services shows that:
 - (a) Provision is made for the administration of the State program for return of runaway children.
 - (b) Procedure has been established for authorizing the expenditure of funds for returning runaway children.
 - (c) Standards and procedures have been established to assure accuracy of data upon which the required determinations are based.
 - (d) Procedures have been established to assure promptness in making the social investigation.
2. Payment for the return of a runaway child has been authorized by the State public welfare agency as meeting the requirements of the State plan and the following requirements of the Social Security Act:
 - (a) The child has run away from his own State to another State.
 - (b) The return of the child to his own community is in his interest.
 - (c) Funds for paying the cost of the child's return cannot be readily or promptly secured from his parents, guardian, agency responsible for his care, or other agency.
 - (d) The child has not reached his 16th birthday prior to the time he starts on the return trip to his own community.

It was continually pointed out to the subcommittee that the provisions for runaways in the social-security regulations were so fraught with qualifications that its use was untenable. The following were typical observations made of the provision:

"It was our experience in this State that the Federal grant for paying the transportation of runaway children had so many restrictions and limitations that it was of no real value to us. It was so difficult to secure payment of transportation through this source that apparently most people refused to even try."

"It is my understanding that the State has never taken advantage of the Federal funds because of the difficulty there would be in administering the funds."

"One of the problems in the administration of this plan was in determining that the cost of return could not otherwise be met."

"Since, under our Juvenile Code, both the courts and the three State institutions have responsibility for children up to the 19th birthday, the 16-year age limit leaves runways between the ages of 16 and 19 unprovided for, and in several instances it has been impossible for us to arrange the return of a child who had run away from one of these institutions. The same limitation, of course, applied when we were using the funds for court wards."

"The Director * * * explained to us that to send a runaway home through the use of Federal funds is so 'bogged down' with redtape that the cost of boarding care while waiting for approval of the use of funds is much greater than the cost of transportation. Therefore, they have found that even though funds are available, approval for their use is so difficult to receive that they might as well be nonexistent."

In the course of its community hearings, the subcommittee discovered but one community, Miami, Fla., in which the use of Federal child-welfare funds for the care and return of runaway children seemed to be working out to the satisfaction of all agencies concerned. This is not to say that such funds have not been helpfully used in behalf of countless children in other communities. It seems apparent, however, that authorization for the use of these funds for this purpose is not a feasible solution to the problem.

The subcommittee believes that the following facts provide substantial reason to believe that the use of Federal child-welfare funds to meet this problem is not a practical answer to it:

(1) In the face of local needs for these funds there is natural reluctance on the part of State authorities to use funds, badly needed for the care of local children, for the care and transportation of children rightfully regarded as responsibilities of another State or even county. In such a State as California, which receives about 24,000 unattached children from out of State each year, the State's entire Federal grant for child-welfare services would be insufficient to pay the costs of providing care and return transportation for out-of-State children.

(2) Federal grants for child-welfare services are channeled to the State welfare departments. In many States, the funds are then funneled to county welfare departments. In either case the large majority of runaway children are handled by police agencies, and in some communities referred to juvenile courts. This means that at least 2 and sometimes 3 or 4 agencies must in some way get together in the community where the runaway is found in order to begin planning for the use of Federal child-welfare service funds for his care and return home. This factor inevitably results in redtape, confusion, and delay.

The use of these funds to meet the runaway problem could be made somewhat more effective by (a) lifting the age limitation to 18, and (b) by assuming that it is in the best interest of a child to return to his own home and community. The subcommittee finds no logical reason for a policy which requires an agency, before using Federal funds, to hold a child hundreds, even thousands, of miles from home while time-consuming checking is undertaken in the child's own community to determine whether it is in his best interest to return there. The subcommittee is of the opinion that the important consideration, both from the viewpoint of the child's welfare and sound principles of administration, is to get the runaway child back to his own community as soon as possible, leaving the making of other arrangements for the child, if he should not continue to live in his own home, in the hands of an agency in the child's own community.

General conclusions

On the basis of the data received, the subcommittee finds that—

(1) A large proportion of agencies handling runaway children maintain little or no records regarding such children handled by them. In other instances records are made but do not include the kind of detailed information which would be of value in analyzing the total problem.

(2) Although only 21,827 runaways were included in the subcommittee's sample, it is estimated that a minimum of 200,000 boys and girls become runaways annually.

(3) The cost of providing temporary care for a runaway over the period required to work out arrangements to send him home, in many cases, greatly exceeds the sum necessary for his transportation.

(4) Detention facilities for runaways are grossly inadequate.

(5) The type of agency given or assuming primary responsibility for handling runaways varies widely from State to State and even between communities within a given State.

(6) The dimensions of the runaway problem varies from State to State. Florida and California, of course, are two sections of the Nation with an acute runaway problem. Also, the States close to these areas have a severe problem with young transients passing through.

(7) The present provision in the Social Security Act for the provision of funds for the return of runaways is so cumbersome to administer that its use is practically nullified. Only 3,822 or 17.5 percent of the total runaways counted, could be identified as under 16 and from outside the State. These two prerequisites are necessary to be filled before a child is eligible for funds. Other restrictions further limit any alleviation of the problem from this area.

(8) Practices such as "border paroles," "sunset paroles," and "sunrise paroles" were found to be widespread. These practices consist of taking a youngster to the edge of a city or county, sometimes after a night's sleep or a meal, and admonishing them to move on or go home the best way possible.

(9) Practices with regard to the handling of runaways run the gamut from excellent provision, supervision, and return home, to the more frequent practices of jailing, running out of the county, or just plain neglecting in a manner the subcommittee feels to be almost barbaric in nature.

The subcommittee recognizes that agencies and officials handling runaways frequently are handicapped by lack of funds and facilities needed for their proper care. Many responding to the subcommittee inquiry deserve commendation for their sincere efforts to protect runaway children despite such handicaps. The subcommittee also believes, however, that there is good reason to criticize the oft recurring lack of cooperation found among agencies and the callous disregard for the welfare of runaway children displayed by a few.

The subcommittee feels too that severe criticism can be leveled at the operators of certain trucking industries for tolerating or failing to detect the contribution which their drivers make to this problem and particularly to the delinquency of minor girls by providing transportation to runaways. Especial criticism can be directed at those State police who fail to detect and apprehend truck drivers transporting young girls through the State. That the State police are aware of

this practice is evidenced by those girls who report having been stopped by the police while in the company of truckers only to have the police check the weight of the truck and let the occupants proceed without any question as to their behavior.

Recommendations

The mere act of running away should not be considered an act of delinquency. The reasons behind the act are as multiple and complex as those underlying any other segment of human behavior. Some are seeking adventure and new experience. Others are trying to escape from a clearly recognized problem. But whatever the surface motive the majority of runaway children are unhappy youngsters for whom the act of running away is either consciously or unconsciously an attempt to solve some problem confronting them.

Of great concern to all devoting attention to this problem is the fact that the experience of a child "on the loose" may lead him into a pattern of confirmed delinquency. The aim of society in behalf of these children should be first, to get them off the roads and back to their own communities as quickly as possible. Society's second goal should be to channel to such youngsters in their own communities the special protective and remedial services needed by some of them to meet and handle the problem from which they are endeavoring to escape.

The subcommittee believes that a two-pronged attack is required if society is to extend a real helping hand to these some 200,000 boys and girls. First, certain steps are required to resolve the legal problems related to jurisdictional conflicts to the end that children may be returned to their own States both promptly and within the framework of the law. Secondly, a program is required which will guarantee that the agency providing care for the runaway and undertaking his prompt return to his home will not have to fear the costs of a service rendered nonresident children.

The subcommittee believes that the legal interstate problems can be resolved through the interstate compact device. The Council of State Governments has undertaken in cooperation with numerous other agencies to develop such a compact. The members of the subcommittee last year introduced and this year will reintroduce a resolution authorizing States to enter into this compact.

The subcommittee also recommends that a Federal revolving fund be established upon which local agencies incurring expenses for nonresident runaway children could draw for reimbursement. Charges against this fund should, in turn, to the extent possible, be collected from the parents, guardian, or agency having custody of such runaway children. The subcommittee will introduce legislation to establish this needed program.

USE OF NARCOTICS, MARIHUANA AND DANGEROUS DRUGS

The drugs of addiction

The drugs usually abused to the point of addiction are grouped as stimulants and depressants, according to the effects they produce on the behavior of the user.

Of the stimulants, the most common and most dangerous is cocaine, derived from the leaves of the coca plant growing in South America

and Java. In large doses, cocaine incites a transient elation, followed by extreme nervous discomfort, irritability, and paranoid delusions that make the user a menace to those around him. Among the other stimulant drugs are benzedrine, dexedrine, and mescaline, a drug used by the Indians in the southwestern United States to carry out religious ceremonies.

The depressants, on the other hand, relieve tension and nervous disturbance, producing a false and temporary feeling of well-being. They are used medically as pain relievers and many of them are necessary and valuable for this purpose. They include opium and its derivatives such as morphine, dilaudid, codeine, and metapon and also heroin which has no use for medicinal purposes. They also include synthetic pain relievers such as demerol, methadon, and the new levoiso-methadon. The depressants also include alcohol and marihuana. The bromides and barbiturates are classed as hypnotic drugs.

According to Federal law, the habit-forming drugs, those for which the Government provides treatment facilities for addicts are cocaine, coca leaves, codeine, dicodid, hycodan, dilaudid, heroin, marihuana, laudanum, demerol, isonipecaine, methadon, metapon, morphine, opium, pantopon, paregoric, mescaline, and other drugs that may be designated by the President. These statutes do not encompass alcohol, the barbiturates, or the bromides.

Federal laws relating to drugs

Recognizing the profound seriousness of the rapidly growing drug addiction problem, Congress passed in 1914 the first comprehensive Federal narcotics law—the Harrison Act. Under the provisions of this law, commerce in medicinal and other legitimate narcotics was legalized and controlled under the Federal taxing power. By the same mechanism, illicit traffic in opium and its derivatives and in the coca leaf and its derivatives (cocaine) was outlawed.

The Miller-Jones Act, passed in 1922, established a system of import and export permits and restricted the import of raw narcotic material to medical needs. By an amendment adopted in 1924 the dangerous and currently popular heroin was forbidden entrance to this country as was also opium for use in the manufacture of heroin.

The Opium Poppy Act of 1942 assures against the growing of opium poppies in the United States.

Controls on the traffic in marihuana were imposed by the Marihuana Tax Act of August 2, 1937. It provides an occupational tax on all persons legally permitted to produce, sell or deal in marihuana. There is also a heavy transfer levy when unauthorized individuals are involved in a marihuana transaction.

The Boggs Act passed by Congress on November 2, 1951, provides a 5-year mandatory sentence for the second offender and 10 to 20 years for the third offense for those trafficking in narcotic drugs.

Public Law 500 passed by the Congress in 1954 gives the Coast Guard the power to revoke or deny licenses of merchant marine seamen who are addicted to drugs or convicted of violations of the narcotic laws.

On the State and municipal levels, uniform laws and ordinances help to control the traffic in narcotics within their jurisdiction. Most States have enacted the Uniform Narcotic Drug Act.

Extent of use by juveniles

The use of narcotics, marihuana, and dangerous drugs by those under the age of 21 years, while not accounting for a large percentage of juvenile and youthful offenses in the statistical reports of Federal, State, and local agencies, is, because of the results of contact with these drugs upon the individual physically, and the almost inevitable further step into other crimes, found to be a serious problem among the youth of America.

It has been an almost impossible task to determine the number of youth either using or addicted to narcotics and drugs. The use of drugs is always under clandestine circumstances and it is entirely possible, and usually true, that a juvenile can begin the dangerous cycle from barbiturates and/or marihuana to heroin without ever coming to the attention of any authority on a narcotic violation until he has become addicted to the use of narcotics.

Traditionally, criminal activity is measured in terms of the number of cases reported. Police do not get cases reported on narcotic violations as they do with the other cases, therefore, their statistics are based entirely upon arrest statistics, not upon the frequency of the violations, as is the case with other types of criminality.

For that reason, the narcotic problem does not lend itself to a statistical study. It is something we know is there, but we do not have a measuring stick to place against it to determine the extent or the degree of the problem.

Most addicts are found to have a prior record of delinquency extending back for a long period prior to their arrest on a narcotic violation. Many youth who either habitually use drugs or are acquainted with drugs are not listed in police statistics as narcotics users or violators, but under the category of offense for which they were arrested. This fact was dramatically shown by the testimony of a mother whose son is a narcotic addict and who volunteered her information at the close of a hearing in Los Angeles, Calif.

I am a mother of a son who is a narcotic addict. He is not from a broken home. My husband and I have been married 34 years. My husband is in business in Pasadena. We have lived in that neighborhood for 31 years. He was brought up in the church. In 1945 he was the president of his Christian Endeavor group in the church and we had no trouble with this boy as long as he went to elementary school. He went to junior high school and he has had psychiatric care. We have had him in a private sanitarium. He is now in the State prison for robbery. He is not listed as a narcotic addict. That is why the narcotic record sounds so low. He is there for robbery, but narcotics was the basis of his trouble.

In Los Angeles it was found that for the year 1953, 299 boys and 74 girls had been arrested by the police on narcotic violations. Yet it was stated that 9 percent of children coming before the juvenile court for Los Angeles County had had some contact with narcotics. Based on an arrest figure of juveniles for the city of Los Angeles alone, and not the entire county, it would mean that 787 children actually had contact with drugs in some form.

The New York City Police Department lists 641 arrests of those under 21 for the first 10 months of 1954; 1951 has been listed as the peak year of narcotic arrests and during that year for the full 12 months 775 arrests of those under 21 were made.

Inspector Peter E. Terranova has stated:

How do we know whether we're catching 1 in 5 or 1 in 500? You want a figure? Pick your own. There's plenty of the stuff around—that's the only sure part of this thing.

The chief probation officer of San Diego County, Calif., Mr. Charles T. G. Rogers, said:

We must face the fact that the use of narcotics and dangerous drugs by teenagers is increasing. Statistics are usually valuable, but I should like to point out that this is one area in which they may be misleading, if not intelligently examined. For example, our statistics show that in 1953-54 only 23 juveniles were referred to the probation department for narcotics. From this we might conclude that there is no problem. Actually this means only that the immediate problem that brought these juveniles to the attention of the police involved drugs. Many youths referred to us for reasons ranging from curfew violation to armed robbery, our investigation reveals, have also been involved in the use, possession, or sale of drugs. This is one of their problems, but not what brought them to the attention of the police. Frequently the offense which resulted in their arrest was stimulated by the influence of drugs or their need for money to purchase them. In the past few years this is true in an increasing number of cases.

Marihuana is the drug most frequently encountered; next is the barbiturate group known collectively as "goofballs." A cause for serious concern, however, is the increasing number of juveniles using heroin, an opium derivative, which quickly causes drug addiction and leads to complete deterioration—mental, moral, and physical.

The best yardstick for measuring the extent of the local drug problem among youth is the special index maintained by the probation department with the cooperation of local law-enforcement agencies. This file records the names of persons under 25 years of age convicted, known, or suspected to be using or trafficking in drugs. This file provides valuable reference material for agencies active in the detection and control of the drug problem. First established in 1951, this file listed 705 names in June 1954. This is an increase of 31 percent over the number of persons listed 1 year earlier.

In a study conducted by the New York Welfare Council through its committee on use of narcotics among teen-age youth, a partial unduplicated account of youthful addicts disclosed 4,000 juvenile addicts in New York City alone, and it was estimated that on completion of the count it would show some 7,500 juvenile narcotic addicts in that city.

An addict requires between \$20 and \$30 a day to support his habit, according to the opinion of many experts. Most of this amount must be secured by engaging in criminal activity. Thus, on the basis of this estimate of the number of juvenile addicts in New York City, that city is losing \$140,000 per day through the burglaries and criminal activities of juvenile addicts, or approximately \$50 million per year.

In Chicago, Ill., it was estimated by the district agent of the Federal Bureau of Narcotics that there were some 5,796 addicts known to them, with 910 of these being under 21 years of age.

Revised figures from the Federal Bureau of Narcotics show that in 1952, 2,523 arrests were made for narcotic-drug violations and 934 arrests were made for marihuana violations for a total of 3,457 under 21 years of age arrested. In 1953, 2,722 were arrested for narcotic violations and 977 arrested for marihuana violations or a total of 3,699 under 21 years of age. These figures do not represent addicts among juveniles but only those who were arrested for any type of narcotic-law violation.

Testimony revealed many instances of much greater use by juveniles, especially of marihuana. A witness in El Paso, Tex., stated:

When the Senator asked me about the marihuana boys, I said that every day I met 4 or 5. Well, on any occasion, I think I could drive in an automobile and find 15 or 20 boys under the influence.

The Federal Bureau of Narcotics has maintained a file of narcotic violators and also narcotic addicts arrested. This file shows 86,100 listings of addicts over a period of 25 years with many of these listings being duplicates. These are addicts in all age groups. Since January 1953, through reports received from Federal, State, and local authorities, they have recorded 18,365 addicts. It is difficult to determine the age of these addicts but from arrest statistics it would appear that 75 percent of these were in the age group 15 to 29 years with approximately 15 to 22 percent 21 years and younger. This is based on the Chicago, Ill., 1953 police department arrest report. In El Paso, Tex., 33.7 percent of the total narcotic arrests were persons under 21 years of age.

Since the year 1951 there has been a steady but not alarming increase in the number of juveniles coming to the attention of authorities for narcotic violations.

An enlarged traffic in illicit drugs depends upon finding new customers. Youths with their natural inclination to seek out new experiences represent the most potential victims for the narcotic traffickers.

Traffic through ports and border

Testimony before the subcommittee revealed that our ports and borders are practically devoid of adequate policing to stem the flow of smuggled narcotics into the Nation to supply the internal traffic.

The Federal Bureau of Narcotics has 1 man stationed in San Diego, Calif., and 1 man in El Paso, Tex., to police the traffic across the Mexican border. These men not only are responsible for the illicit traffic but also for policing the thousands of legitimate outlets for narcotic drugs. In addition they must maintain their offices and do all of their own clerical and office duties.

The El Paso agent is responsible for 16 counties in west Texas, many of them being border counties, and the San Diego agent, 2 counties in California with a border of 199 miles extending to Yuma, Ariz., comprising a population of some 700,000 people. These 2 agents accounted for the arrest of relatively few illicit narcotic dealers, and these were mostly small local peddlers in the cities where these 2 agents were stationed.

Mr. Robert S. O'Brien of the El Paso Bureau of Narcotics office testified:

During 1954 this office was responsible for the apprehension of 10 narcotic violators. The reason this number is small is that during the previous years we have had consistent heavy sentences here in this district in both the Federal and the State courts and in 1953 we had on several occasions 10-year sentences meted out. In the year previous we had 1 case where a 3-times convicted law violator received a life sentence. This had a marked deterrent effect on the peddling of narcotics in El Paso.

Although the arrest of narcotic violators decreased for the Bureau of Narcotics during the year it was found that the heavier sentences had no effect on the number of arrests made by the El Paso police and the Bureau of Customs Agency Service in the number of arrests.

The Customs Agency Service, the enforcement division of the Bureau of Customs, in its 2 district offices covering the Mexican border from the Pacific Ocean to the Gulf of Mexico has only 45 officers. These officers are charged not only with enforcing the laws regarding smuggling of narcotics, but in addition the enforcement of the Gold Reserve Act, various public-health laws, importation of various types of birds, animals and fruit, frauds on the customs revenue, technical investigations including undervaluation, foreign market value, personnel investigations, character investigations, security investigations and many others.

The extent of the flow of narcotics into this country across the Mexican border is shown by the seizures made by agents of the El Paso district Customs Agency Service.

	Bulk marihuana	Semi-prepared marihuana	Prepared marihuana	Crude opium	Smoking opium	Heroin
	<i>Pounds</i>	<i>Pounds</i>	<i>Pounds</i>	<i>Pounds</i>	<i>Pounds</i>	<i>Grains</i>
1952.....	1,156.9	0	226.4	0	6.7	157.1
1953.....	282.6	0	703.1	130.2	21.7	107.1
1954.....	612.7	131.8	428.7	20.3	20.3	15,400.0
1955 (2 months).....						15,400.0

Arrests for narcotic smuggling have also shown an increase in this district over the past 8 years.

Arrests for narcotic smuggling

1948.....	276	1952.....	399
1949.....	293	1953.....	355
1950.....	194	1954.....	388
1951.....	283	1955 (2 months).....	86

Bulk marihuana reduced to prepared marihuana requires approximately 2½ pounds to produce 1 pound of prepared marihuana. It requires 5 to 6 grains of marihuana for making a cigarette, or approximately 1,400 cigarettes from 1 pound of marihuana. Enough marihuana was seized in 1954 in the El Paso district alone to make 1,054,200 cigarettes. Estimates on the percentage of marihuana seized out of the total traffic are given as from 2 to 5 percent.

In an effort to show the extent of the narcotic traffic within the United States, Mr. John J. Given of the Customs Agency Service said:

I have no way of knowing, and I have not been able to find anybody that does know or has a reasonable estimate of, the number of narcotic addicts in the United States. But if you took the figure of 50,000 for the entire United States and figured that each one used 2 grains of heroin per day, 365 days out of the year, which they do, that would amount to about 5,000 pounds of heroin to be consumed by those 50,000 addicts. Judging by the average price paid for a deck in the larger cities that runs into over \$100 million a year.

However, when it comes to marihuana that is an entirely different problem. To my way of thinking, marihuana is a more serious problem. It is more serious for this reason: A juvenile will start on marihuana and move from marihuana into the derivatives of opium. One idea of the volume of marihuana traffic on this border is that during the past 6 years Customs Agency Service has accounted for 9,298 pounds of marihuana. That is crude as well as prepared. Perhaps 40 percent of that is prepared. That is about 9 million cigarettes. Now that is a lot of marihuana to take out of the illegal traffic, but it does not seem to have affected the price or availability of cigarettes in the big cities.

Norvell Williams, arrested for smuggling marihuana, told me during the period of 5 years he had smuggled in from Mexico and transported to New York City 5,000 pounds of prepared marihuana. Equivalent to 7 million cigarettes.

In the Customs Inspection Service, which examines entrants into this country at ports and borders, investigation disclosed that at the San Ysidro, Calif.-Tiajuana, Mexico, port of entry, the world's busiest, there are 35 employees, 23 of whom are inspectors. For the fiscal year 1954 there had been 11,393,783 persons entering through this station and a total of 3,503,661 vehicles. At El Centro, Calif., station 7,134,339 persons and 1,967,385 vehicles crossed into the United States.

The type of search given those crossing the border is indicated by the testimony of Mr. Frank A. Thornton, United States collector of customs, district 25, San Diego, Calif.:

We attempt to give all automobiles a cursory inspection. Verbally our inspectors are pretty sharp on apprehending people. They ask them a few questions which indicate to them whether they feel they should make a thorough search or not. It would be impossible for us to completely search every vehicle that comes through the port or every person without delaying traffic that comes through the port and causing congestion.

For instance, on the 4th of July we had 17,455 automobiles through the port at San Ysidro. You can realize that when we have to get them through there, the bulk of them, in 4 to 5 hours, that it is impossible for us to make what you call a thorough search. We have 8 gates now when we are at our highest, and we have to pass 1 car every 20 seconds. We get them through there in a hurry.

In Los Angeles, the largest port on the west coast, the Customs Inspection Service has 12 men working as inspectors.

There were a total of 5,907 ships arriving in the year 1953. This included arrivals from foreign ports, noncontiguous ports, intercoastal, and coastal vessels. Approximately 3,775 were direct arrivals from foreign and noncontiguous ports, including Alaska, Guam, and Hawaii. The majority of these foreign arrivals originated from the Orient ports in Japan, China, Korea, and the Middle East.

In the first 8 months of 1954 only 420 ships were given what is termed as a thorough search. A thorough search was described by a supervising inspector:

It is as thorough a search as it is possible to make in the time. We are usually able to check the crew thoroughly but not the cargo. It is impossible to get down in the cargo holds when they have 10,000 tons of cargo.

I believe, checking the records, we have made approximately 25 narcotic seizures in the first 9 months this year. The bulk of them were marihuana. In the searching of a large vessel of 20,000 tons you have approximately 500 to 600 in the crew. You may have 3 or 4 or 20 suspects in the crew of the ship. You check the passenger quarters in case some seamen who prepare the room may hide something, the officers' quarters the same as the regular crew quarters, the storeroom, the linenroom, the engineroom, and the oil and water tanks. There are many thousands of places on a large ship of that size.

Of the 25 seizures that were made of narcotics and marihuana only 1 or 2 resulted from information received from outside sources that narcotics were aboard the ship. The remainder resulted from discovery while in the process of searching the ship and crew.

There is rarely a vessel that comes into the Los Angeles port without having 1 or 2 suspects of narcotic smuggling aboard. There is on file in the office of the Los Angeles customs office some 5,000 narcotic suspects that are members of the crews of ships touching that port.

There are in addition to the 5,907 regular ships of commerce coming into Los Angeles some 1,200 fishing boats commercially operating out of the area. Many of these boats touch in Mexico before returning to Los Angeles and there have been many instances of finding smuggled

goods aboard these ships when an inspection was made on information received from interested parties. Otherwise these ships are practically never searched unless they report they have touched a foreign shore and very little supervision is given these vessels.

There have been many reports of narcotics, pornographic material, marihuana being taken aboard by canal seamen along the Panama Canal to members of the ships crew of coastwise vessels proceeding through the canal.

The Canal Zone Government under its stringent appropriation limitations is unable to employ sufficient customs inspectors to make complete searches of approximately 100 men daily and with sufficient speed to make possible the use of these men for their task.

Although it is known that large quantities of heroin are being manufactured in Communist China and other Far East and Middle East countries, the ships that have touched at the ports of these countries are not, in most instances, given a thorough search by the Customs Inspection Service.

Border cities

A very serious problem in the cities along the Mexican border has been the easy access to marihuana and narcotics in the Mexican cities especially in Juarez and Tijuana. There is at the present time no control exercised to keep juveniles and minors from crossing the border into Mexico.

In El Paso, Tex., there was a serious problem of narcotics on the user's level and most narcotics, or a large percentage, is bought in Juarez, Mexico.

A subcommittee investigator on one night in Juarez made a contact with a seller and purchased 5 marihuana cigarettes in less than 20 minutes after his arrival. His only problem in securing marihuana was that the sellers did not want to deal in such small quantities and preferred to sell in quantities of 100 or more.

At the international bridge between El Paso and Juarez juveniles can cross at will any time of the day or night and many are seen on the streets and in the nightclubs of Juarez.

In San Diego, Calif., the traffic of teenagers and minors into Mexico was of alarming proportions. These youth were not only from the San Diego area but came from as far north as Los Angeles for a trip into Tijuana, Mexico.

The dangers of this unrestricted traffic was forcibly brought out in the testimony of two witnesses in San Diego:

The dangerous drugs appear to be most easily obtainable in Tijuana. Heroin is generally conceded to be purchased in Mexico and marihuana principally so. I would say that the source of barbiturate drugs was also Tijuana.

Tijuana has played a part in those coming to our attention becoming addicts. They either had their initial experience there, or having had it here very quickly found Tijuana was the cheapest source of supply. So Tijuana is the central factor in their addiction.

At a border station maintained by the San Diego County sheriff's office there were 40 persons arrested returning from Mexico for being under the influence of narcotics; 11 of these were under 21 years of age and the great majority were 25 and under. This station is open only from 8 p. m. until 1 a. m. and its main function is to enforce the county curfew law requiring juveniles to be off the streets by 10 p. m. The persons arrested represent only the persons returning from Ti-

juana that the customs inspectors were able to spot in routine automobile checks and refer to the sheriff's officers. The number returning under the influence probably greatly exceeds those detected in this cursory examination.

The close proximity of San Diego to the border undoubtedly accounted for the fact that 54 persons were arrested by San Diego police for narcotic violations during 1953 all 20 years of age and under. The youngest being only 15 years of age.

Mr. Gene H. Fuson, a reporter for the San Diego Union, who has made an extensive investigation into the use of narcotics by American teen-agers in Tijuana told the subcommittee:

We found that particularly on weekends, Friday nights and Saturday nights, teen-agers from the age of 11 to 21 going across the border and coming back at will. We found a number of instances where these teen-agers were very obviously hipped up or bleary eyed from smoking marihuana. I spent about 2 months running down the sources. I found the source to be at that time the El Castillo which was a brothel nightclub on the south side of Tijuana.

It was a sort of old place built like a motel. They employed about 50 prostitutes and at precisely 3 o'clock on Saturday morning the prostitutes would all go outside and a band of Negro musicians would come in and hold a jam session that was known far and wide. Kids coming from Whittier, Los Angeles, Santa Monica, Ventura, Santa Barbara, Riverside, El Centro, and all over southern California. I attended several of these. I purchased narcotics on the spot and watched narcotics being purchased. I recognized a number of people as young folks from up here and I wrote this series of articles about that. I have marked in one of these articles where I was in one of these sessions where there were 200 teen-agers there.

Many places operate in Tijuana under the name of "injection specialist" and 15 were pointed out to the subcommittee. These places are operated by practical nurses and unlicensed doctors who will administer an addict a shot of heroin or other narcotic drug hypodermically for from \$1 to \$5 per shot. Most of these places are located in a section of Tijuana immediately adjoining the border fence between Mexico and the United States where they are easily accessible.

Allegedly in Tijuana houses of prostitution many young servicemen from the military installations at San Diego were being introduced to narcotics by prostitutes to increase their earnings.

The arrests of military personnel for narcotic violations was given in a report by the commandant, 11th Naval District.

MILITARY ARRESTS FOR NARCOTICS, SEPTEMBER 1953 THROUGH SEPTEMBER 20, 1954

By San Diego Police Department: 27 arrests involving use, possession, transporting, peddling, etc., or suspicion of use, possession, etc. 2 convictions for peddling; 12 convictions for using. Of the 14 convictions, 9 were over 21 years and 5 were under 21 years of age.

By Tijuana Police Department: 10 arrests involving use, possession, procuring, attempt to procure, etc., or suspicion of use, possession, etc.

In addition to the above, the commandant, 11th Naval District, has during the period 12 months last brought to trial by general court-martial a total of 7 military personnel on various narcotics charges. During the period September 1953 through August 1954 the San Diego Police Department arrested a total of 236 drunk minor military personnel.

There is no curfew time for returning from Mexico of military personnel in the San Diego area, but in the area of El Paso, Tex., military personnel are required to return to the United States before 12 midnight. This curfew materially aids in curbing violations of laws by personnel going into Mexico.

Two specific instances of narcotics and drugs affecting American youth were observed at the customs station at San Ysidro, Calif.

A young boy 17 years of age was taken from a car crossing the border by customs inspectors because he was under the influence of narcotics and suspected of possessing narcotics. This youth was completely oblivious to what was happening and had to be held by his companion. There were definite needle marks on his left arm. As customs has no authority over "influence" cases and the youth had brought no narcotics back with him, he was allowed to proceed on his way with no record being made of his narcotics use.

The other occasion involved 2 youths 14 and 17 years of age attempting to cross the border with a vial of yohimbine, or "Spanish fly" secured from a taxi driver in Tijuana.

In a questionnaire sent out by the Juvenile Police Officers Association of California, the question was asked about how many cases each unit handled where there was reason to believe that the juveniles involved had gone to Mexico and secured drugs. The returns showed that 10 to 15 percent of the juveniles in California handled for narcotics violations had stated that they themselves secured the drug, mostly marihuana, from Mexico.

Internal narcotic traffic and enforcement

In most cities visited by the subcommittee it was found that there has been a steady increase in the arrest of narcotic law violators in the past few years. In Los Angeles County, Calif., the jail bookings give one of the clearest pictures of this rise. In 1944 there were 586 individuals booked in the county jail for narcotic violations. This was 2.3 percent of the total bookings in the jail. In 1954 there were 3,688 narcotic bookings representing 7.5 percent of the total bookings.

Narcotics and marihuana generally are found most prevalent in the large urban centers such as New York, Chicago, Washington, Philadelphia, and Los Angeles.

The low-income and minority groups within these urban centers usually accounted for the greatest number of arrests for violations, but there are also many instances of juveniles in high- and middle-income groups using marihuana, heroin, and the dangerous drugs. It has been difficult to arrive at a cross section of drug users because those in the middle-income and high-income level most often receive treatment in private institutions and by private doctors and do not come to the attention of authorities for arrest or treatment. The fact that narcotics knows no level of society is most forcibly brought out by the fact that the medical profession, one of our most highly educated levels of society, accounts for the greatest incidence of narcotic addicts of any professional group.

The high incidence of narcotic arrests in the large urban centers is mainly due to the fact that these cities maintain special narcotic enforcement units whereas the smaller cities depend upon Federal or State law-enforcement agencies for narcotic enforcement.

Los Angeles, Calif., has had a marked success in dealing with juvenile narcotic violators since the creation of a six-man juvenile narcotic squad. In 1949 when the juvenile squad was begun, 69 juveniles were arrested for narcotic violations. In 1953 that number had grown to 330 with 75 percent of all juvenile arrests for narcotic violations being made by this squad.

The great majority of States have no narcotic enforcement section. Only five States maintain bureaus of narcotics.

The Federal Bureau of Narcotics, with a force of only 260 men, necessarily leaves great areas of the Nation without the service of this Bureau. Most of these agents are concentrated in New York, Chicago, San Francisco, and other centers of the narcotics traffic. It is also necessary that the Bureau of Narcotics keep agents in foreign countries to work for the international control of narcotics.

It has been necessary to concentrate solely upon the major dealers in narcotics and to leave the smaller dealers, peddlers, and addicts to local enforcement agencies which are practically nonexistent except in the instances cited.

Modern police equipment is woefully lacking in the offices of the Bureau of Narcotics. Two-way radio, photographic equipment, and the myriad other technical equipment are practically nonexistent. Funds for purchasing narcotics to supply evidence are often depleted before a new quarterly appropriation can be made.

Very limited facilities are maintained for training new personnel or providing training for local and State officers as is done by the Federal Bureau of Investigation. Such facilities would greatly aid in providing specialized training for local officers to augment the work done by the Bureau. The Bureau does, in cooperation with some local police departments, provide on-the-job training by working local officers with agents of the Bureau in certain district offices.

The first line of defense against the narcotics traffic, the Bureau of Customs, has 272 agents and port patrolmen. Under present recruitment procedures for agents they are required to recruit agents from civil-service lists. In many instances, due to the nature of the work, agents who have been appointed from these lists are found not to be qualified for this specialized work and must be removed. Difficulty is being experienced in maintaining the authorized strength of the service.

International traffic

In view of the increasing international traffic in narcotic drugs there must be an increased vigilance by our Government.

The Chinese Communists have reactivated the world's largest narcotic plant at Mukden, Manchuria. This factory can produce 50,000 kilos (50 tons) of heroin a year, and in addition there are other smaller plants known to be operating and manufacturing as much as 160 kilos weekly.

Before World War II, the Chinese Nationalists had achieved a measure of success in curbing the opium trade. The death penalty for narcotics traffickers was enacted. By 1939 Chinese opium production was down to 1,200 tons a year. Today, it stands at an estimated 6,000 tons, of which 2,000 tons are exported, either as smoking opium, heroin, or as morphine. Those 2,000 tons are more than double all other illicit narcotics production in the world.

In one 12-month period, shortly before the armistice in Korea, 2,400 North Korean Communists, usually posing as refugees, were seized by police in possession of heroin.

American troops in Korea were victims of this increased production of illicit narcotics. From 1952 through the first quarter of 1954 a total of 1,613 troops were under investigation for engaging in the narcotics traffic. Some were suspected of peddling drugs, but most of

using drugs. The court-martial figures show that, for 1951 through August 1953, 899 men were convicted.

Federal Bureau of Narcotics Commissioner H. J. Anslinger revealed:

While Communist China had denied the allegation that she is supplying a large part of the narcotics in the international illicit traffic and has stated that in fact, a strict control has been placed on narcotics, dispatches from newspapers and documents show that traffic in narcotics has been encouraged for monetary reasons and sabotage; that cultivation of the poppy plant has not been prohibited and that efforts to control addiction within Communist China have been feeble and ineffective. There can be little doubt of the true purposes of Communist China in the organized sale of narcotics. These purposes include monetary gain, financing political activities in various countries, and sabotage. The Communists have planned well and know a well-trained soldier becomes a liability and a security risk from the moment he first takes a shot of heroin.

The monetary profits to be derived from illicit heroin are tremendous. On the European market 1 kilo (35 ounces) of heroin is valued at \$3,000. The value doubles upon being smuggled into the United States and when eventually broken down and diluted and sold in capsule form the value is astronomical.

Following a complaint by Chou En-lai, Foreign Minister of Communist China, against the unfavorable publicity being given Communist China for her leading role in supplying the international narcotic illicit traffic to further her political purposes and to undermine and demoralize the free countries of the world, there has been a move made in the United Nations to move the Narcotics Division of this body from the United States to Geneva, Switzerland. The United States, through its representative to this group, has taken the leadership in combating the illicit production of opium, and it is felt that the transfer of this Division to Geneva would greatly handicap the United States in continuing its battle.

Great quantities of heroin are also being received in the United States, especially in the West, that is of Mexican origin. Despite efforts of the Mexican Government to stamp out the illegal growing of the opium poppy there are still large amounts grown in the mountain regions of Mexico and manufactured into heroin for sale in the United States. Evidences of large-scale manufacturing in clandestine plants in Mexico were brought to the attention of the subcommittee. Further cooperation with the Mexican Government should be instituted to stamp out this source of illegal narcotics.

Treatment facilities for narcotic addicts.—The United States Public Health Service provides two hospitals for the treatment of narcotic addiction. The largest and most widely known is the United States Public Health Service Hospital at Lexington, Ky., with 1,300 beds. The second is in Fort Worth, Tex., and has approximately 500 beds for narcotic addicts. The Fort Worth hospital receives only male patients.

Both hospitals accept addicts convicted and sentenced by Federal courts, those placed on probation as narcotics-law violators on condition they be treated in a hospital, and also patients who voluntarily apply for admission.

Voluntary applicants can enter the hospital under a law applicable in both Kentucky and Texas which was designed to assure the applicant stayed for the full treatment period. Under this law, known as the Bluegrass law, a narcotic addict may go to the police in the city where the hospital is located or to the area office of the Bureau of Narcotics and declare himself an addict. He is taken before a local

magistrate and receives a sentence of 1-year imprisonment, to be suspended on condition that he admit himself to the United States Public Health Service hospital and remain there until pronounced cured.

The number of addicts 21 years old and under receiving treatment at these 2 hospitals during 1953 is shown in the following chart.

Age	Total	1st admission	Previous admission
16.....	2	2	0
17.....	18	17	1
18.....	38	35	3
19.....	68	53	15
20.....	118	91	27
21.....	206	154	52
Total.....	450	352	98

The treatment program at these hospitals effects a cure for the addict while he is at the hospital, but the rate of recidivism among those dismissed has been estimated as high as 99 percent.

The addict upon being dismissed receives no followup treatment when he is returned to his community and thus easily reverts to the use of narcotics after a short while.

Chicago, Ill., and New York, N. Y., are the only cities that have established treatment facilities for the treatment and followup care of narcotic addicts dismissed as cured.

New York City has established a hospital on North Brothers Island known as Riverside Hospital. This hospital is for the treatment of narcotic addicts 21 years of age and under and has a capacity of 110. Since it was begun in July 1952 it has been operating at near capacity. A total of 632 juveniles have been admitted with 200 of these having been admitted more than once.

In a study covering the first 18 months of operation it was shown that 19.3 percent of the patients treated at Riverside did not revert to drugs, 22.7 percent became readdicted or were readmitted because they were on the verge of reverting to addiction.

Four former narcotics users receiving followup treatment and guidance at Provident Hospital Clinic, 1 of 3 in Chicago, appeared before the subcommittee. Part of the testimony outlines the effectiveness of this treatment and its importance in the overall treatment of narcotic addicts.

The first witness began smoking marihuana at the age of 17 and began to take heroin at the age of 19. He used approximately 16 capsules costing \$1.25 each per day. He was questioned by Dr. Walter Adams, director of the counseling clinic. The testimony was as follows:

Dr. ADAMS. Have you been to Lexington?

WITNESS. Twice.

Dr. ADAMS. Did you come out against the doctor's advice?

WITNESS. The first time I did.

Dr. ADAMS. And the second time you stayed 135 days?

WITNESS. That is right.

Dr. ADAMS. When did you take narcotics last?

WITNESS. The latter part of last year, 1953.

Dr. ADAMS. And you have not taken any since you got out of Lexington?

WITNESS. No, I haven't.

Dr. ADAMS. Why did you go to Provident Hospital?

WITNESS. I heard about the clinic they had set up. I had a desire to get off drugs, but I didn't know how to get myself off because drugs had taken too much over me. I went there to see Mr. Ford and after talking and reasoning with him he offered to send me down to Lexington and to come and see him after I got back. He is the type of fellow that you can confide in, and I would tell my troubles and my desire to get off, but I didn't have the proper help. It is easy to start but it is hard to stop.

Dr. ADAMS. Do you think you are cured?

WITNESS. I know I am cured.

Mr. BOBO. Did you find heroin very easy to get?

WITNESS. That is right.

Mr. BOBO. Have any of your friends followed your example and advice and gone to Lexington and Provident Hospital?

WITNESS. Yes, a whole lot of them. There is a number of them out there that desire to be helped and can't get the proper help. They want to stop but they don't know how. This clinic is the only one I know that takes proper time with the drug addict. It is not large enough to help all of them. Lexington is usually overcrowded. When you go out there you get a physical cure, but a drug addict is mentally sick.

One other witness who had been to Lexington 4 times and had begun the use of narcotics at 16 brought out the easy accessibility of the addict to heroin upon his return to his home community.

Mr. BOBO. Did you find heroin easy to get all the time you were an addict?

WITNESS. No, sir; I didn't. I never had any trouble with connections. The biggest problem with me was getting the money.

This youth had been off narcotics for only 2 months at the time of his testimony before the subcommittee.

Education

The question of education with regard to the dangers of narcotic drugs and marihuana has been a controversial subject throughout the United States. Much testimony has been received on both sides of this issue. Many have felt that by exposing narcotics to teen-age minds it would have the inevitable result of making them curious with a tendency to try the use of these drugs. The Federal Bureau of Narcotics has not recommended that education be a part of the curriculum of school. The Bureau provides some information for the use of those who desire to institute a narcotics course, but they have published only one small pamphlet dealing with the subject.

The Department of Health of New York City is of the opinion that education begun in 1951 in the schools of New York has been responsible for the drop in arrest of those under 21 for narcotic violations.

A properly prepared and taught course in narcotics is considered by many to be the most effective bulwark against increased addiction. California requires it be included in the curriculum of the public schools and has met with remarkable success.

One of the most damaging statements in recent years was the statement that marihuana was nonaddicting which implied it had no lasting effect upon the user. Without proper education as to its effects this statement gave the green light to many teen-agers to experiment with marihuana.

Not enough study has been given the question of education in this subject. It is an area wherein the educational leaders of the Nation must formulate a program designed to meet the increasing problem of narcotic addiction by teen-agers.

Dangerous drugs

There has been evidence before the subcommittee of a rising incidence of use of the barbiturate drugs by juveniles. These drugs are

referred to as "goof balls," "red birds," and "blue birds," "yellow jackets," and so forth among the juvenile users. The names are descriptive of the color of capsule in which the drug is marketed or the color of the tablet.

The effects of these drugs were described by one youth as being worse than marihuana in their effect because after you take them you are ready to do anything. You feel like you can lick anybody and want to.

These drugs act as a stimulant when taken with alcoholic beverages and some soft drinks causing the user to lose all inhibition and control. The drugs are not harmless as many people believe, but after continued use will cause addiction which is more severe than narcotic addiction requiring 4 to 5 months for withdrawal from use and continued treatment.

Juveniles were found to be having "goof ball" parties where benzedrine and barbiturates were being mixed with beer and served. Many of these parties turned into wild sex orgies.

In Oklahoma City, Okla., over 250 juvenile barbiturate addicts were arrested in 1953 in a police roundup. These young people were between the ages of 13 and 18 years old and were spending their lunch money, allowances, and any other money they could get to buy "yellow jackets" or other barbiturates.

They staged wild parties in rented "pads" or apartments in either mixed groups of both sexes, or parties made up entirely of one sex or the other. Many deviated sex practices, including homosexuality, were found to have resulted from the loss of inhibitions after use of these drugs. This group of juveniles came mostly from middle and upper economic and social level homes. It was found upon investigation that the great majority of druggists and wholesalers were co-operating fully in controlling the sale of synthetic drugs. There were, however, some unscrupulous druggists and wholesalers making illegal sales of these synthetic drugs at great profit.

In Los Angeles, Calif., a young girl under the age of 18 was sold 1,300 benzedrine tablets for \$10 by a doctor after she stated she was going on vacation and needed these tablets for her diet. This resulted in the girl using the tablets to give a party where the tablets were used by a group of young persons of juvenile age and a sex orgy ensued. As a result of this party two of the young girls became pregnant.

Under California law any doctor may sell hypnotics and barbiturates to juveniles as no minimum legal age is set for the sale of these drugs. Instances have been discovered of the sale of these drugs to juveniles at \$5 for 50 tablets. The sellers purchase them in wholesale lots for \$1.78 per thousand in 10,000 lots.

In New Orleans, La., more than 60 youths were arrested in a raid on a recreation center which had become a meeting point for sex deviates preying on juveniles after influencing them to take these drugs.

The production of barbiturates in the United States has reached almost astronomical proportions. There are some 1,300 firms engaged in the manufacture of these drugs and their production figures are given in the following table:

	Pounds		Pounds
1948.....	680, 000	1951.....	789, 000
1949.....	680, 000	1952.....	537, 000
1950.....	689, 000	1953.....	634, 000

The sudden increase in 1951 is attributed to the Korean war. Barbituric acid derivatives are used by medical staff during wars.

These figures on production show that there are enough of these drugs manufactured yearly to put everyone in the country to sleep, every night for 12 nights. It is a quantity, authorities declare, far beyond the amount needed for medical treatment.

The 1948 production figures of 680,000 pounds of barbiturates was equivalent to 3 billion doses of $1\frac{1}{2}$ grains each, or an average of more than 8.6 million doses per day.

During the period 1944 to 1952, the latest dates for which figures are available, there have been 8,510 deaths, both accidental and suicide, as a result of taking these drugs.

The Food and Drug Administration, with a staff of 200 agents in the United States, is charged with the responsibility of policing the illegal sale of synthetic drugs, in addition to the responsibility of enforcing the many food and drug laws on the Federal level. These officers are able to devote only 25 man-years time per year to the control of dangerous drugs. Moreover, these agents are not trained in undercover work nor, because of the pressure of other duties, do they have the time to investigate all reports of illegal sale and use of these dangerous drugs.

Most of the States have either very weak statutes regarding these drugs or no statute at all and the drugs can be secured by anyone with comparative ease with or without a prescription.

The increasing illegal use of these drugs points up the necessity for a uniform State law to deal with barbiturates in the same manner as the uniform State narcotics law deals with narcotics.

There is also a pressing need for control on the national level through the interstate commerce power or the taxing power of the Federal Government.

Recommendations

The Bureau of Narcotics with the small force of agents available is unable to staff offices in many areas of the Nation. An increase in the number of agents to a total of 500 would enable the Bureau not only to augment the number of agents in cities where the traffic is concentrated, but it would also provide sufficient personnel for assignment in international trafficking areas outside the continental United States to intercept shipment of the contraband before it is smuggled to the United States. Agents would be also appropriately stationed in additional areas throughout the United States to apprehend wholesale and interstate violators and assist in training local forces to combat the illicit traffic of small peddlers and pushers.

This authorization of personnel with a substantially increased appropriation would permit the acquisition of the full force of agents and provide funds for substantial and effective operations against international, national and other dealers down to the local level. This expanded operation, while concentrating on the source of supply, would aim at eliminating narcotic and marihuana dealers at all levels thus destroying the illicit narcotic traffic as it presently exists in the United States.

Compulsory hospitalization of narcotic addicts and severe mandatory sentences of imprisonment, without suspension or probation, for convicted narcotic peddlers are recognized as weapons of high value

in the fight to eliminate the illicit narcotic traffic. While a minimum sentence of 5 years to serve for the first offender would be of considerable aid in reducing the volume of illicit traffic, graduated sentences for second and third offenses, also raised to commensurate levels would be a great deterrent to those who commit the serious crime of selling narcotics and trading for profit in this traffic in human misery and death.

Chapter 203 of title 18 of the United States Code should be amended by the addition of a new section which would give agents of the Bureau of Narcotics the power to carry firearms, execute and serve warrants, serve subpoenas, and make arrests without warrants for narcotic law violations in the same manner as Federal Bureau of Investigation are so empowered.

Enforcement of the laws relating to illegal narcotics is now divided between the Bureau of Customs and the Bureau of Narcotics within the Treasury Department. The subcommittee has not to date studied the complete problem involved in transferring all responsibility for narcotic control, including smuggling, to the Bureau of Narcotics, but would recommend that further study and investigation be carried forward to determine the advisability of such a move, which, it is believed, would immediately result in a marked improvement in narcotic enforcement as all jurisdiction in narcotics cases would be under one department.

Canada and Egypt, together with other countries, have long combined the enforcement of narcotic laws within the framework of one enforcement agency and have been successful in decreasing the traffic.

The Mexican border problem with regard to the easy access of narcotics by youth in cities on the Mexican side should be met by this Government in prohibiting minors to cross the border when not accompanied by parents or guardians or are duly authorized by such parent or guardian to cross. The military authorities in areas immediately adjoining the Mexican border could be of great assistance in stamping out some of the traffic by declaring military personnel "off limits" who cross over into Mexico without special authorization of commanding officers.

ENFORCEMENT OF FAMILY SUPPORT OBLIGATIONS

Few in the United States deny the moral and legal obligation of a man to support his wife and children. And yet, despite the increased mobility of the population of the United States, the existing legal machinery for the enforcement of such obligations across State lines remains totally inadequate to do an effective job. Only in recent years, under stimulation by the Council of State Governments were some forward strides made. There are, however, many gaps in the interstate-enforcement machinery. The subcommittee believes that closing these gaps would aid materially in the fight against juvenile delinquency.

The problem is of very large proportions. Testimony by the National Desertion Bureau before the subcommittee was to the effect that there are over 4 million estranged mothers and children who are not being adequately supported by the absent father. Of this 4 million, some 936,000 mothers and children were receiving aid-to-

dependent children at an approximate cost of \$252 million annually in Federal, State, and local funds.

If the legal machinery for the collection of support for these dependents can be strengthened, large sums of public funds can be saved. And for the many mothers who, deserted by their spouses, do not apply for public assistance but instead go to work, the strengthening of collection procedures may mean that they will then be able to stay at home to take care of their children.

The basic objective of any support law should be to make certain that moneys for the support of an individual's dependents are received by those dependents. Essentially, it is a collection problem. In many instances it may involve more than the utilization of monetary collection techniques alone, since often intricate interfamily problems may be involved. For the solution of these latter problems expert social and psychiatric casework services are needed. But in the collection phases of the problem we could do well to borrow from tested techniques of the business world. There one does not start out to collect money from a debtor by putting him in jail. A man in jail cannot support his dependents. The subcommittee believes therefore that the first approach should be to strengthen the civil machinery for the enforcement of support obligations. The subcommittee further believes that it is the civil-enforcement machinery of the several States which should be strengthened, rather than supplanting the existing State machinery by establishing similar functions in the Federal courts. Traditionally, in the United States, domestic-relations matters including the enforcement of an individual's legal responsibility to support his wife and children have been vested in and exercised by State courts. The subcommittee believes that that tradition should not be disturbed—at least until every effort has been made to strengthen the State machinery.

When an individual leaves his State, deserting his wife and children, the civil enforcement of a support obligation is a costly and, up until quite recently, a well-nigh impossible procedure. The wife would have had to go to the State where the husband was and there sue him for support. The order there obtained would be enforceable in that State only. If thereafter the husband defaulted in his payments to her, the wife would have had to institute contempt action in that same State. If, however, the husband had by that time left the State, the wife would have two choices. She could sue in the courts of the new State upon the original order, as for any other debt, but her suit would be limited to the amount in which the husband was in arrears. Or she could sue for a new support order in the State where the husband now was. These remedies were not mutually exclusive and the wife could utilize both if she desired. But the time, trouble, and money involved in these procedures made their beneficial utilization doubtful in most cases.

In the past few years, under the impetus of the Council of State Governments, 46 jurisdictions have adopted the Uniform Reciprocal Enforcement of Support Act.¹² In brief, this law permits an action for support to be instituted in the proper State court in State A,

¹² A copy of the Uniform Reciprocal Enforcement of Support Act, as amended, appears as appendix 14, beginning at p. 139. There is also set out as appendix 15, beginning at p. 142 A Summary of Basic Duties of Support Imposed by State Law, a summary prepared by the Council of State Governments.

where the wife is living. The court then transmits the papers to the proper court in State B, where the husband is living. The State court in State B would then issue an order against the husband for the support of his wife and children in State A. The order of State B would be enforceable in the State courts of State B, as would any other support order issued by the courts of that State. These laws are but of recent enactment. It is still too early to determine the extent to which they will ultimately provide a solution to the problem of how a wife and children living in State A can obtain a support order against the husband living in State B, without the necessity of the wife traveling to State B.

However, the Uniform Reciprocal Enforcement of Support Act does not make provision for the situation where, subsequent to the issuance of the support order in State B, the husband—as all too frequently happens—travels to State C. Under existing procedures, the wife must then sue on the order issued by State B—suing only for the amount in arrears—or commence a new support action in State C, utilizing the procedures of the Reciprocal Act.

To close this gap, the subcommittee recommends the enactment of Federal legislation which would permit a support order to be registered in any State court which is outside the State where the support order was originally issued. Upon registration, the order would have the same civil force and effect as a similar order initially issued by the court in which registration is made. The subcommittee believes that section I of article 4 of the Constitution provides sufficient constitutional basis for providing that a support order issued by one State be given full faith and credit in the other State courts.

During the course of its hearings, the subcommittee heard testimony with respect to three other types of action which might be taken through Federal legislation to bring about greater effectiveness in the enforcement of support orders.

The first proposal was to the effect that original jurisdiction concurrent with State courts should be conferred on the Federal district courts in case of diversity of citizenship to entertain support actions. In view of the efforts of the several States to overcome existing difficulties besetting the obtaining of a support order in another State through the use of the Reciprocal Act, the subcommittee does not feel that there is justification for putting the Federal courts in this phase of the domestic-relations problem. The subcommittee believes, however, that there is need for intense study of the manner in which the Reciprocal Act is working and if as a result of such study there is shown to be a need for Federal action through the Federal courts that it would be a proper time after such showing to consider the question of whether, to what extent, and how the Federal courts should be brought into the picture.

The second suggestion made to the subcommittee was to the effect that not only should support orders be registered in State courts but they should be registered in Federal courts as well. The subcommittee sees no reason for authorizing registration in both Federal and State courts. Such concurrent jurisdiction might well lead to confusion and would get the Federal courts into problems dealing with domestic relations, an area traditionally within the province of the State courts and one in which they already have a background of experience, competence, and precedent.

The third suggestion would make it a Federal crime for any individual, in order to avoid compliance with a support order, to travel or move in interstate or foreign commerce from the State in which such support order was issued or from any State in which proceedings had been instituted. Where, under State law, desertion and nonsupport are felonies an individual who deserts his wife and children and flees the State to avoid their support may be extradited and returned to the State of origin. The difficulty lies in locating the individual so that he can be extradited. Proponents of this suggestion seem to the subcommittee to be proposing the inauguration of a Federal criminal sanction primarily so that the facilities of the Federal Bureau of Investigation could be utilized in locating individuals who had deserted their wives and children. The subcommittee does not believe that it is desirable to make of desertion and nonsupport a Federal crime merely in order to utilize the Federal detection services to locate the deserting parent. From the standpoint of the children involved in these cases, branding their fathers as Federal felons would not help toward their support and would prove quite harmful to them, not only immediately, but also in later life. The purpose in enforcing a support act should be to get money for the wife and children of the individual proceeded against, not to punish that individual. Commenting on this proposal, Deputy Attorney General Rogers stated:

[Under the proposal] the Federal Bureau of Investigation might become responsible for inquiring into every domestic relations case in which one or both parents of a dependent child had been ordered to provide for the child and had thereafter fled the local jurisdiction without complying with the court order. Such investigations would require not only that the parents be located but also that proof be obtained to show that they had not complied with the support order. The primary responsibility of the Federal Bureau of Investigation is to detect and apprehend persons who violate Federal laws. Much of its effort is directed against espionage, sabotage, and subversive activities. The diversion of Bureau energies and facilities that would seem to be entailed * * * is considered inadvisable.

The subcommittee is of the opinion that until such time as the civil enforcement machinery of the several States is strengthened to the fullest extent possible, the need for and feasibility of making desertion and nonsupport a Federal crime cannot be adequately evaluated. It may be that even after intensive efforts have been made to strengthen civil-enforcement procedures in the State courts basic research and study will reveal that the situation can best be aided by Federal criminal provisions. If so, such a step should be taken at that time.

One additional method by which the civil-enforcement measures throughout the country could be strengthened would be by making the Uniform Reciprocal Support of Dependents Act applicable to the District of Columbia. The subcommittee strongly recommends that this be done as soon as possible.

PORNOGRAPHIC MATERIALS AS A CONTRIBUTING FACTOR TO JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

As part of its investigation of the many factors contributing to juvenile delinquency in the United States, the subcommittee undertook an intensive investigation of the distribution to children of pornographic materials. The subcommittee focused this phase of its investigation upon those pornographic materials concerning the obscenity of

which not the slightest doubt could exist in the minds of anyone. Involved were photographs, illustrated playing cards, phonograph records, movies, slides, and illustrated books and booklets portraying and describing actual scenes of sexual intercourse, and sexual per-versions of the basest type.

It was obvious to the subcommittee that if these materials were being distributed to children the moral and psychological damage wrought would be incalculable. Not only do these filthy materials impart sexual knowledge unfit and harmful for sexually immature boys and girls, but, by portraying adults engaged in these acts and by repeatedly stating in the text that the abnormal is normal, can lend sanction, in immature minds, to such activities.

On the basis of its investigation, the subcommittee now reports as follows:

(1) *The traffic in pornography is aimed at children*

Children are one of the prime targets of those who distribute these filthy materials. Sexual curiosity and immaturity of growing boys and girls make them the natural sales objectives for this type of sexual filth. Contrary to the mistaken belief held by many persons that these pornographic materials are produced for adult "stag" parties, the fact is that huge quantities of the materials are of a type designed for the young.

(2) *The traffic in pornography is large*

It has been conservatively estimated that the nationwide traffic in this filth runs from 100 to 300 million dollars annually. It is "big business"—and it depends for a large portion of its profits upon the lunch money and allowance of school children. The subcommittee wishes to point out that it is aware that, because of technological developments, the traffic in pornography has increased alarmingly. The means exist today for transporting this type of material farther and faster than ever before. High-speed presses can turn out the stories and pictures at a rate unknown a quarter of a century ago. The 8-millimeter movie projector is found in many homes. We cannot blind ourselves to changed conditions.

(3) *The traffic in pornography is interstate in character*

As part of the investigation, subcommittee investigators examined samples of pornographic materials by the police authorities at diverse places throughout the country. The results of these examinations confirm the fact that the pornographic materials are produced for distribution through wide areas of the country and that they are so distributed. For example, subcommittee investigators have found identical pornographic photographs and booklets seized in Missouri and in Connecticut, in Louisiana and in New York, in Chicago and in Rhode Island.

Local police authorities—if vigilant—can reach the small-time peddler. All too often when they make an arrest, the sentence is so light as to constitute no more than a "license fee." The subcommittee recognizes that heavier penalties upon conviction for the sale of obscene materials would do much to stop the flow of this filth to children. But what is also needed is to get at the source of these pornographic materials, to dry it up by driving the producers and interstate wholesalers out of business.

(4) *The traffic in pornography flourishes chiefly because of a loophole in the Federal law*

At the present time, Federal statutes prohibit the interstate shipment of obscene materials by common carrier or through the mails. It is not unlawful to transport pornographic materials by private car or by truck. And it is because of the existence of this loophole in the Federal laws that the insidious traffic in filth is permitted to continue to undermine the morals of our youth.

The subcommittee therefore recommends the immediate enactment of legislation prohibiting the interstate transportation of obscene materials by any means. The subcommittee is convinced that only through the enactment of such legislation will it be possible to put an effective roadblock in the way of the trucks and private cars that roll through the night, loaded down with this insidious filth designed to sap the moral fiber of our Nation's young.

EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES FOR JUVENILES

Although opportunity was not had for special hearings relative to the contribution which lack of employment opportunities for youth makes to juvenile delinquency, scattered testimony and information received points so strongly to such a relationship between these problems that special mention is made of it here.

Youngsters of school age, but beyond the age required to attend school, and who drop out of school represent a group particularly disadvantaged in finding employment, and at least a portion of this group—jobless, idle, and without funds—become particularly vulnerable to delinquency.

In many communities—

write several employment counselors from New Jersey—

the large number of students who are dropping out of secondary schools before completion of their studies is causing particular concern to educational and other community authorities. The reasons for leaving school before graduation include family difficulties, lack of interest in and inability to keep up with studies, teacher-pupil friction, ill health, marriage, parental influence and a desire for adventure.¹³

This group of children often referred to as the school dropouts, are potential delinquents who receive little in the way of special services needed to give them aid. They are potential delinquents not because they are ignorant or because they have evil designs but because of society's neglect. Countless children, unable because of many problems to adjust to school are equally unable, in the absence of specialized help, to adjust to the demands of a job. Such a boy or girl, finding a job, is likely to stay with it a few weeks only. When he leaves the job he does not go back to school. He is jobless, back on the streets.

If as is so often attested, school is the best place for a youngster, and if a prolonged educational experience is necessary preparation to adult life, school must offer a rich environment for *every kind of student*. Vocational classes, vocational guidance and part-time work should be integrated into the curriculum side by side with classes in higher learning.

The dropouts are not the only group of youth who would benefit by a good vocational program. Each year thousands of steady,

¹³ Giallella, Anthony, and Van Scoyoc, Ruth, *Serving School Dropouts, Employment Service Review*, vol. 19, No. 5, May 1952.

capable boys and girls seek employment immediately upon completing high school. Boys want to work during the interim between high-school graduation and induction into the Armed Forces. Many look upon summer jobs as a counterbalance to years of college education ahead, even plan to "work their way through" college.

A decade of wartime economy brought more work than fingers with which to accomplish it. Now, the young and the old find themselves on the fringe of the labor market. The predicament of the older worker is well known. But in actual fact, in 1951 which was a good employment year, the rate of unemployment among 16-to-17-year-olds was 3 times as great as that for persons 65 years and over.¹⁴

From a high of 2.5 million at the onset of the Korean conflict, the number of employed youth 14 to 17 years of age has tapered off to a low of 2 million in 1953, approximately the 1949 level. A growing youth population, reflecting the higher birth rate of the post-depression years, along with fewer youth at work has reduced the proportion of all youth employed from 29.5 percent in 1950 to 22.8 percent in 1953.¹⁵

The combined force of every facet of the community—the school, employment service, labor, industry, the local merchant, the housewife—should be drawn into the long-range programing of appropriate work opportunities for boys and girls 14 years of age and over. Such a project would provide vocational training by the school, guidance and placement by the United States Employment Service, and the earmarking for youth of selected work opportunities within the community.

Recommendations relating to vocational needs of young people have been submitted to the subcommittee by the National Child Labor Committee.¹⁶ Basically these point to the need for suitable part-time work experience under proper supervision for the school-child who desires it; for the expansion of guidance services and curriculum, including a schoolwork program, in the public high schools; and for amendment of the Wagner-Peyser Act to authorize extension of the facilities of the United States Employment Service for young workers and to make its facilities available for the employment, counseling and placement of high-school graduates and dropouts, and to provide funds to enable the States to develop services along these same lines.

Local initiative has already established a few programs of the sort indicated, for example those under the sponsorship of the Detroit Council for Youth Service, the Continuation Division of the Milwaukee Vocational and Adult Schools, the Division of Pupil Personnel and Guidance in Philadelphia, the Work Experience Section of the Los Angeles City Board of Education, the Vocational Education and Extension Board of Rockland County, N. Y., the public schools in Youngstown, Ohio, and the Junior Chamber of Commerce, at Salina, Kans. In each instance the objective extends beyond mere provision of busy work. Through understanding discipline at school, through counseling, through supervised work experience the high-school student is prepared to enter a work environment that offers opportunity for present adjustment and for future advancement.

¹⁴ Young, Olive E., *Legislation and the Older Worker*, Employment Security Review, vol. 19, No. 5, May 1952.

¹⁵ U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Standards, *Youth Employment Trends: 1947-53*, February 1954.

¹⁶ See appendix 16, p. 151.

The subcommittee believes that such programs should be developed on a nationwide basis. In the absence of more intensive exploration, the subcommittee is not ready to outline in detail a proposed national program to achieve this end.

During the depression years the Federal Government inaugurated the Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Authority programs to meet a similar problem of even more acute proportions. The subcommittee does not suggest that such massive programs be re-instituted. It does believe, however, that ways and means must be devised whereby local communities may be stimulated and assisted to develop organized programs for youth employment.

The subcommittee believes that this problem is important enough to merit, and therefore recommends that the President of the United States direct the several Federal agencies concerned with this problem to join together in planning such a program to the end of utilizing their combined resources in carrying it out. Leaders from labor, management, and education might be profitably brought into such a planning process.

JUVENILES AND THE ARMED FORCES

It is a matter of concern to the subcommittee that of somewhat more than 1 million young men who annually become available for military service, some 350,000 have been in difficulty with the law. The subcommittee, as one of its duties, has given serious consideration to the relationship of this considerable block of men to the Armed Forces—both from the viewpoint of the manpower needs of the Armed Forces and from that of justice and equity for the potential inductee.

The laws of all States provide that a court adjudication finding a child to be a delinquent does not constitute conviction for crime. Many also further specifically provide that such adjudication shall not deprive the individual of any civil rights. Yet law violations by a juvenile may give evidence of emotional immaturity or some other social or emotional maladjustment which would render the individual unsuitable material for the armed services. Yet it is generally agreed that the type of law violation involved or the disposition made relative to the juvenile offender are not sufficient guides to estimate an individual's potential adjustment in the armed services. The problem then centers around the development of policies and procedures which would result in more adequate and sufficient guides.

In July of last year, the subcommittee addressed an inquiry to the respective Secretaries of the Departments of the Army, the Navy, and the Air Force, and to the Director of the Office of Selective Service. In this inquiry, the subcommittee expressed its concern as follows:

The subcommittee has received widespread reports to the effect that present practices relating to the recruitment and drafting of young men with records as juvenile delinquents or youthful offenders lack uniformity and that they result in waste:

1. It is charged that many young men who would represent desirable material for the military services despite records as juvenile delinquents or youthful offenders are, because of inadequate screening methods, unnecessarily rejected by draft boards and recruiting offices, thus limiting the potential strength of the Armed Forces. Indeed, reports have reached us of instances where young men have deliberately acquired mild delinquency records in order to evade military service.

2. It is reported that present practices result in tremendous financial loss where young men who have records of juvenile delinquency or youthful offense and who are not suited to military service, are accepted and trained by the Armed Forces. It is reported that many are subsequently discharged or sent to disciplinary barracks and mental hospitals. In view of the cost involved in the initial training of an inductee and the expenditures required to establish and operate disciplinary barracks and mental hospitals, this, too, would seem to represent an unnecessary drain upon the American taxpayer.

3. It has also been stated that with respect to the induction or recruitment of young persons who have records of juvenile delinquency or youthful offense, variations in draft and recruiting policies exist not only between different branches of the armed services but also within the same branch as between different parts of the country.

In view of these charges and reports, we would appreciate receiving the following information:

1. A statement of policy regarding acceptance of persons as (a) juvenile delinquents and (b) youthful offenders in your branch of the service through either the recruiting or drafting process.

2. A statement as to the practice you presently follow relative to screening of such persons.

3. Statistical data showing:

(a) The number of persons with a record of youthful offense or juvenile delinquency who have been inducted into your branch of the Armed Forces during the past 5 years.

(b) From among the above persons, the number upon whom disciplinary action was invoked and the type of action taken.

(c) The present status of such persons: The number still in the Armed Forces; the number who have been honorably discharged; and the number who have been dishonorably discharged.

4. Other data illustrating your experience regarding the use of and the military records of such persons.

5. Information relative to any planning your branch of the service has undertaken relative to this problem.

6. Your opinion regarding the validity of reports which have reached this office.

* * * * *

The replies received by the subcommittee indicate a basic lack of exact information on the part of all branches of the Armed Forces as to how present policies are working out. It appears that specific application of the general policy varies from one sector of the country to another and with manpower needs. No truly adequate screening procedures, capable of sorting out those who represent potentially valuable material for the Armed Forces from those who do not, have been established. The subcommittee believes that the lack of such procedures is wasteful and results in many inequities for youth interested in and available for service.

The subcommittee hopes that the Department of Defense will give each aspect of the problem—as set out in its letter of July 1954, its immediate attention and will develop screening techniques and rehabilitative processes that will be equitable and effective.

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY IN PUBLIC HOUSING PROJECT AREAS

Scattered data has reached the subcommittee through both testimony and correspondence suggesting that high juvenile delinquency rates prevail in certain low-cost housing project areas. Considerable testimony to this effect was received during the subcommittee's hearings in Boston, Mass., for example.

The subcommittee has attempted without substantial success to secure more data about this alleged problem. Unfortunately, statistics

available from communities only in exceptional cases give detailed breakdowns relative to the delinquent child's neighborhood. The subcommittee could not, therefore, secure the broad national picture needed to determine the extent to which high delinquency rates characterize low-cost housing project areas.

The subcommittee believes, however, that even the scattered evidence available which suggests such a condition in at least some areas is sufficient cause for concern.

The subcommittee is aware, of course, that the initiative and the planning of a public-housing project rests with local authorities. Planning procedures are not well defined, however, and wide variations exist between communities as to the adequacy of such planning. Park, school, recreation, library, fire, welfare, police, and transportation officials—all should be brought into the planning process in its initial stages.

Public housing and slum clearance cannot be considered as panaceas for the problem of juvenile delinquency. As the subcommittee has so often reiterated, there is no single cause for juvenile delinquency and there is no single solution to the problem. Slum areas do exert a damaging influence upon family life and upon the growth and development of the children of those families. The mere relocation of families which have resided in slum areas in new housing projects will not automatically make that family over into a well-integrated family group. Neither will the development of a healthy community life come about merely by placing families in homes having a close physical proximity one to the other.

Some attention has been given in the development of housing projects to the need for recreational facilities. Physical facilities in the form of playgrounds and community centers are sometimes provided. The United States Housing Act of 1937, since amended, sets forth certain standards which shall be observed relative to play space and recreational areas. The provision of facilities for recreational purposes is of great importance but the subcommittee would emphasize that such facilities may fall far short of achieving their potential value in the absence of qualified recreational and group work leadership.

The subcommittee believes that the Nation's efforts to eradicate the slums should be strengthened and expanded. In the planning of new housing projects it urges that adequate attention be paid and provision made for the various services and components which are essential to the development of a strong and healthy community life. A good home requires that its inhabitants have access to churches, schools, libraries, public transportation, shopping centers, and recreational facilities. A good home requires and merits adequate police and fire protection. Adequate physical and mental health and social services are essential aids to the maintenance of sound family life when its fabric is threatened by problem situations.

IV. STRENGTHENING AND COORDINATING THE EFFORTS OF NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS AND AGENCIES

PRESENT EFFORTS TO PREVENT DELINQUENCY

Today's defenses against delinquency are weak, poorly manned, and to some measure in every community even totally lacking. What are these defenses?

This query may be most simply answered by looking at the quality of home, community, and school life which best insures the development of law-abiding citizenship. A stable homelife, free from serious conflict and want, a decent and well-integrated community providing opportunities for constructive play and work, and schools able to provide children achievement and acceptance constitute society's most potent insurance against delinquency.

The Nation's best and essential defenses against delinquency, therefore, are services and programs which support at least minimum standards of home, community, and school life on the one hand, and on the other, services which are capable of detecting and giving special help to the child suffering in some measure from a lack of one or more of these elements in his daily family, school, or community life.

On the basis of its 16 months' work, the subcommittee is forced to conclude that such essential defenses against delinquency are today weak, inadequate to the task, poorly manned and, in some measure, even totally lacking in every community in the Nation. This is not to say that the quality of homelife for the average American child is grossly inferior, nor that the average American community is lacking in decency, nor that educational standards in our schools are universally poor. It does mean, however, that services designed to support these institutions and to catch children falling through their chinks are not only weak but literally gaping with holes.

A family deprived of its breadwinner may be broken up for lack of financial aid, mental-health services are so scanty that a family member with a serious emotional problem may disrupt the whole fabric of family life for want of specialized treatment, schools spilling over with youngsters are undermanned by underpaid teachers, utterly no services exist in the average community which are designed to identify and provide early remedial treatment for the child exhibiting unusual problems at home, in the school or elsewhere in the community.

For purposes of this section of the subcommittee's report, preventative activities are divided into two categories. The first category consists of programs and services not specifically and exclusively aimed to prevent delinquency but which have that effect through protecting children from situations which might produce delinquency. The second category includes programs and services particularly designed to reach the delinquency-prone child or conditions in a particular community producing a disproportionate volume of delinquency.

STRENGTHENING PROGRAMS NOT AIMED SPECIFICALLY AT PREVENTING DELINQUENCY

We cannot, in this report, even attempt to cover all types of programs which, while not aimed specifically at preventing delinquency, do make an invaluable contribution to prevention by strengthening a child's character or guide the child into constructive use of leisure time. The programs of many youth-serving organizations fall into this category and are treated separately below. Another program, which, while not thought of as such, could well be so considered, is a systematic program for strengthening the enforcement of family-support obligations, concerning which mention was made above.

But at this point there are three areas to which particular reference needs to be made of programs and activities which fall into the category under discussion and concerning which some Federal action is needed. We refer to our Nation's schools, housing, mental health, and welfare programs.

Witness after witness before the subcommittee testified to the fact that we can prevent delinquency if we reach the child in time. And they also testified that one of the first signs of danger in a child's behavior is when he truants from school. If help could be gotten to the child or his family at that point, many a child could be spared a delinquent career. But it is not merely the fact that our schools, undermanned and overcrowded as they are, have not the facilities to reach the child when he first exhibits behavior difficulties. There is a further factor that this Nation must consider. It is this: Because our schools are overcrowded and undermanned, and because our schools lack adequate facilities and services, they are oftentimes a contributing cause of juvenile delinquency. This point was emphasized before the subcommittee by Dr. Samuel Brownell, Commissioner of Education in the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare when he stated:

The school is related to juvenile delinquency in three ways: It may produce delinquency; it may help to prevent delinquency; it may deal with delinquent behavior that is encountered within its walls.

The child who falls behind in his reading does not receive the corrective attention from the overworked schoolteacher, trying desperately to handle a large class, and may soon become the butt of classroom jokes. He becomes frustrated and dissatisfied. He acts up in class, so that he can shine in something, even if it is only at being the worst behaved boy in class. Soon—since the school cannot hold his attention—he stops coming to class. He joins a street-corner gang of boys for whom school has also lost its attention-holding possibilities. Time hangs heavy on their hands. They believe that everyone is "against them." They are soon in trouble. If at the first sign of difficulty sufficient resources could have been brought to bear—if the teacher had smaller classes and hence more time to devote to those needing special help, if special services were available to "back up" the teacher handling certain problem children—we would not have to pay for the "rehabilitation" of these children many times more than it would take to bring the Nation's schools up to standard. The child having reading difficulty in the first grade in 1955 will not be helped to overcome those reading difficulties by additional teachers, facilities, and services which are only in the "talked about" stage at that time, and will not come into being for another 5 or 10 years—if then.

The subcommittee believes that this Nation's first line of defense in preventing juvenile delinquency is the school. We must begin there and we must begin now. The subcommittee believes that the problem of the lamentable condition of the Nation's schools must be faced boldly and squarely by the local, State, and Federal Governments. The subcommittee believes that one of the greatest steps which this Nation can take to prevent juvenile delinquency is to embark at once upon a vigorous program to reduce the acute shortage in classroom space and the too large size of classes. To this end the subcommittee supports the recommendation for Federal aid for school

construction made by the Committee on Education and Labor of the House of Representatives and by the Senate. The need for such a program is now. The data are clear. Unless we pay out the money for better school facilities today, we shall have to pay out the money in the years to come for more police and more prisons.

Another area needing nationwide attention is housing. The statement has been oft made that slums breed delinquency. That, of course, is not literally true. Some of our finest citizens today were born and raised in the slums. What is true—and the hearings before the subcommittee are replete with testimony on that point—is that a disproportionately large number of our delinquents do come from slum areas. A child cannot be thought of outside of and apart from his environment. He cannot help but be affected by what he sees and hears there. Some children are affected more than others by the sights and sounds to which they are exposed. While we cannot measure with the degree of accuracy the potential effects of exposure to a slum environment upon children, we do know that, in terms of numbers, many more delinquent children do come from such areas than from others. And yet slums are a manmade condition about which something can be done—and should be done—and done immediately. We need, and the subcommittee recommends, an expanded program of public housing. The need is obviously not being fully met by private builders. Federal aid is needed. And here, too, this Nation can take its choice. We can either spend the money today on better housing or spend more later on increased adult crime and the rehabilitation of adult offenders.

On this point of public housing, the subcommittee would add one word of caution. Testimony before the subcommittee indicates that unless adequate provision is made for community services in public-housing projects they can well become delinquency inducing. This is not too surprising since such projects are often filled by families moving in from marginal areas, unknown to one another, and finding in the project no established pattern of organized community life. This problem can be overcome by provision for a community center and community services in the original planning. It is difficult to overcome after the fact, when delinquency-high areas turn out to coincide with public-housing areas. Those who are prone to blame public housing for such an increase are subverting the facts. The reason lies in poor planning, not in the public nature of the endeavor.

The third program which the subcommittee wishes to touch upon in this category is the aid to dependent children's program. This program is excellently conceived and has a noble purpose, namely, to pay a mother sufficient to permit her to buy necessities for herself and children, thereby enabling her to stay home and take care of the children. But such a purpose is not achieved when the payments are so low—less in many cases than the State itself computes as necessary to live on—that the mother must go to work. And such purpose is definitely being undermined when programs are administered with the idea that they are for mothers who cannot work. The problem of the "latchkey" child is an important one in the fight against juvenile delinquency. It is indeed unfortunate if programs established by the Congress which have as one of their purposes the prevention of juvenile delinquency become so changed in nature that that purpose is never achieved. The subcommittee hopes that the Secretary of

the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare will take immediate steps to direct this important program along the lines intended by the Congress in enacting the Social Security Act.

Another type of service needing immediate attention is that of mental health. Considerable testimony was given before the subcommittee as to the value of mental health clinics in preventing juvenile delinquency. The emotionally disturbed child whose problems are noted early enough can often be saved from a life of crime and delinquency if treatment is promptly available. But all too often, the testimony revealed, even where there are sufficient mental health facilities, treatment is often available only after months and months of waiting. Here, too, an expansion in the Federal aid currently being given through the National Institute of Mental Health can repay the Federal Government increased dividends in the years to come not only in terms of funds saved but also in lives saved from criminal careers.

STRENGTHENING PROGRAMS SPECIFICALLY AIMED AT PREVENTING JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

In its interim report of March 15, 1954, the subcommittee called attention to a number of programs which have been doing an excellent work in reaching the unreached—in reaching the child who does not respond to the ordinary type of program. Mentioned in the subcommittee's interim report were the Chicago area project, which is based on the pioneer work of Clifford R. Shaw, and which stresses utilizing local leadership in deteriorated neighborhoods; the "detached worker" program provided in New York City, Los Angeles, and a few other scattered communities, which is designed to reach out to the street gang through a worker actually assigned to the gang to redirect their activities into constructive channels. The aggressive casework approach, which, as its name implies, aggressively takes social casework services right into the home. This latter program is being tried out on a pioneering basis in New York City.

Mention should be made, too, of those communities which have developed a real school social service or visiting teacher program. Some type of attendance officer program exists widely in our educational system. In major part, however, these services are seriously undermanned and rarely staffed with trained casework personnel. As previously noted, truancy is a common symptom of the kind of maladjustment which later manifests itself as delinquency. A well-developed program of social services directed to work with truants, whether provided within the school system or by some other community agency, is truly preventive of juvenile delinquency.

Aside from the several scattered efforts, such as those noted above, there are few programs in our country which are properly geared to detect and offer early treatment to the boy or girl teetering on the edge of delinquency. While admitting and paying tribute to the invaluable work now being performed by educational, recreational, social service, and mental health agencies, the need does exist not only for greatly expanding their programs but also reorienting their programs or, at least, aspects thereof, to make certain that they are geared to reach the boy and girl who is delinquency prone and who actually shun existing programs. The mental-health clinic operated in such a way that only if the parents and child cooperate will it give

service is not getting at the core problem of helping a boy or girl resistant to assistance. The recreation agency that sets up programs only for boys and girls who conform to the rules is not reaching the boy or girl who is not conforming but who might ultimately respond, and conform, to the right program employing techniques that would appeal to such a boy or girl. The social casework agency which gears its programs to the needs of the nonaggressive, nontroublesome boy or girl in need of a foster home is not reaching the troublesome child or his family which needs its help just as much.

If this Nation is to make an effective attack upon juvenile delinquency, programs specifically aimed to reach the delinquency-prone child must be launched in every community. This Nation cannot afford to do less. The subcommittee strongly believes that the Federal Government must assist in such development. Recommendations as to how such assistance could be most effectively and appropriately rendered are detailed under the section of this report entitled "Leadership Role of the Federal Government."

NEED FOR INVIGORATED NATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Delinquency is a problem with which many people, groups, and agencies are concerned. Indeed, it is a problem of such great magnitude that more and more people must take an active part in the fight if we are to reduce the problem. However, it cannot be solved by any one group or any single class of American citizens. The problem is national in scope and has its roots in every city, village, and hamlet in our land.

Since the day of its origin, the subcommittee has entertained the conviction that its greatest potential contribution rests in the citizen interest and action which its activities might help to stimulate. This potential will be realized only as organizations representing civic concern develop programs of action designed to combat the problem.

During the hearings it was brought home time and time again that there is all too often a decided lack of coordination and cooperation among the agencies which are trying to do the job. And this is true both nationally and in local communities. This statement should not be taken to mean that the subcommittee does not have the highest admiration and respect for the countless thousands of earnest and sincere men and women throughout the country who are fighting in this common cause. But unless all their efforts are brought into focus, there is bound to be duplication of effort. Worse yet, unless all of these good people and organizations work together, certain aspects of the problem are bound to be neglected and overlooked.

Many local organizations are related in one way or another to some national organization. The judge of the local juvenile court, for example, is often a member of the National Council of Juvenile Court Judges. A local service club is often affiliated with a national service club of like name. For this reason, the subcommittee focused considerable attention upon what might be done to bring about more effective working relationships among various groups of national organizations interested in some way in the problem of juvenile delinquency. Beginning nationally, it is hoped that improved and closer working relationships might result in local communities.

SERVICE, FRATERNAL, AND VETERANS ORGANIZATIONS

In July 1954 the subcommittee called together representatives of some 17 of the largest service and fraternal organizations having combined membership of over 9 million persons. When these representatives gathered here in the Capital, the challenge was put squarely to them. These very worthy organizations were doing a lot in the field of preventing juvenile delinquency. The subcommittee asked them to coordinate their efforts in doing more. They enthusiastically accepted that challenge.

The organizations represented at this meeting had not testified at any of the subcommittee hearings, and the meeting was arranged for the purpose of affording the representatives of these fraternal and service clubs an opportunity to describe their youth programs and exchange ideas on the problem of juvenile delinquency and its prevention. Those invited were:

1. Ancient Arabic Order Nobles of the Mystic Shrine
2. Association of Junior Leagues of America
3. Benevolent and Protective Order of Elks
4. B'nai B'rith
5. Catholic Daughters of America
6. Fraternal Order of Eagles
7. Independent Order of Odd Fellows
8. Kiwanis International
9. Knights of Columbus
10. Knights of Pythias
11. Lions International
12. Loyal Order of Moose
13. National Exchange Club
14. National Urban League
15. Optimist International
16. Rotary International
17. United States Junior Chamber of Commerce

The question was raised as to what the service organizations might do in developing a coordinated attack on the problem of juvenile delinquency, and the consensus among those present was that although their organizations are involved in various activities related to the welfare of youth, relatively little has been done in terms of formulating programs deliberately designed to reach those youngsters most vulnerable to delinquency. In view of the scope of the national problem they felt that the possibility of establishing a coordinating mechanism for the efforts of the service clubs and fraternal and veterans organizations should be explored, and it was agreed that five from among their number would meet in Washington at a later date for the purpose of developing a plan for later presentation to the representatives of all the groups.

This was the drafting committee referred to above. It consisted of—

- Lawrence A. Hapgood, director of activities, Kiwanis International
 William J. Mileham and George W. Eisenacher, Lions International
 Roland Tibbetts, national chairman, youth welfare, United States Junior Chamber of Commerce
 Carl A. Weis, director, civic affairs, Loyal Order of Moose

who met for 2 days with the chief counsel and executive director of the subcommittee staff. The meetings resulted in the formulation of a plan for the organization of a National Conference of Service, Fraternal and Veterans Organizations on Juvenile Delinquency, which is reproduced in the appendix.

The salient features of the plan are its provisions for the sharing of ideas, plans, programs and experiences, successful and unsuccessful, the development of ways and means of possible coordinated and co-operative efforts, and stimulating the formation of new and additional sources of technical assistance to meet the needs of the organizations for guides and other materials as these organizations began giving particular attention to problems now untouched by the organizations—especially to those problems for which the facilities of any one group would be inadequate and ineffective. The plan specifically provides that no organization must accept any scheme proposed or adopted by the conference, thus safeguarding the autonomy of individual organizations. It further provides that no information or research material shall be withheld from any organization even though such organization is not a participating member of the conference.

The plan was sent to 17 veterans, fraternal, and service organizations, selected by the drafting committee. All but four of these had been represented at the initial meeting. The plan included an invitation to accept participating membership in the conference which will convene for the first time in February 1955.

The role of the subcommittee in this operation was merely to serve as a catalyst in bringing the organizations together. Whatever plans they develop will be their own, the members of the conference will be free to adopt them or not as they see fit, and there is no threat to the autonomy of the individual organization. This plan seems to offer an opportunity for service, fraternal, and veterans organizations having an interest in the welfare of youth to coordinate their efforts in a new and more effective attack on the problem of juvenile delinquency.

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

One other step was taken to seek national coordination of functions. The subcommittee asked 18 of the leading national, public, and private organizations, which are active in formulating standards for local agencies handling delinquent children, to gather together. Those invited included:

- The Administrative Office of the United States Courts
- Advisory Committee for State and Local Action
- American Bar Association
- American Public Welfare Association
- Child Welfare League of America
- Children's Bureau
- Community Chests and Councils of America
- Family Service Association of America
- National Association of Training Schools and Juvenile Agencies
- National Council of Juvenile Court Judges
- National Education Association
- National Institute of Mental Health
- National Probation and Parole Association

National Social Welfare Assembly
Office of Education
Social Security Administration
United States Bureau of Prisons
Youth Division, Federal Parole Board

They met for a full day and gave the subcommittee the benefit of their valuable advice and counsel on how national efforts of public and private agencies throughout the country could be harnessed together to pull in the same direction, to eliminate duplication, and to increase their efforts. Many of the valuable suggestions received from this group have been incorporated in the subcommittee's recommendations for legislation and action. There was one surprising thing about that meeting. It was the first time they had all gathered together. And they expressed the belief that even if nothing further came of that meeting, the opportunity provided by the subcommittee for discussing their common problems, as they did that day, would prove invaluable.

Reference is made in a later section of this report to efforts being made upon the initiative of the National Social Welfare Assembly to organize a mechanism through which the several national organizations might join for sharing of information and joint planning on a continuing basis. The subcommittee endorses this effort.

OTHER KEY ORGANIZATIONS AND AGENCIES INVOLVED

The special efforts of the subcommittee to further coordination of efforts among the organizations and agencies mentioned above in no way implies that a variety of other national organizations and agencies are less active, less concerned, or less important relative to the fight against juvenile delinquency. Indeed, had time permitted, the subcommittee would have scheduled additional conferences involving still other groupings of organizations and agencies.

The subcommittee did have the benefit, however, of receiving testimony from a large number of additional national organizations and agencies. Because of their important roles in preventing juvenile delinquency, at least brief reference to their program should be made. All of the following organizations are concerned with the problem of juvenile delinquency, but differ in the type or types of activities promoted or sponsored, and in their approach in furthering these activities.

The youth-serving organizations provide, through local units, activities, services, and educational programs for children and youth. These include Big Brothers, the Young Women's Christian Association, the Young Men's Christian Association, Allied Youth, Inc., Boy Scouts of America, Boys' Clubs of America, Girl Scouts of America and Camp Fire Girls, Inc., Spokesmen for Children, Inc., and the National Education Association.

The Big Brother movement is predicated on the use of volunteers as a principal aid in the readjustment of youth. In this scheme, a volunteer layman is the agent for therapy—he acts as a stabilizing influence on unadjusted youth between the ages of 8 and 16. The organization is considered a casework agency in the technical sense of the word.

The basis for the work of the Young Women's Christian Association with youth is to provide experiences which enable youth to build

healthy personalities; to become aware of democracy as a formula in human relations; to grow in understanding across racial, religious, and cultural lines; to learn skills that lead to the creative planning and carrying through of leisure time activities; to be willing to understand and assume the responsibilities and privileges which begin at home and stretch to the whole world.

The chief characteristic of the group work program of the Young Men's Christian Association of the United States, as with other organizations of this type, is that it is primarily youth planned. The youth groups, the Hi-Y clubs, and other clubs of various sorts, are self-governing bodies in which the youngsters themselves determine their own destiny with a sympathetic, understanding adult working with them. The program is designed to enable boys and girls to participate in small, intimate activity groups to which a qualified, competent adult is related.

Allied Youth, Inc., is a voluntary, nonsectarian, nonpolitical movement in the field of alcohol education and alcohol-free recreation. It works in 39 States, the District of Columbia, and Nova Scotia through Allied Youth posts in 260 high schools and has a membership of over 22,000 youngsters. These youths study the problems of alcohol in the light of available scientific data and analyze its effect upon social behavior. The organization does not choose the problem of alcohol because of its intrinsic interest in the problem, but because the alcohol problem is symptomatic of many others.

The Boy Scouts of America operates at three levels: Cub Scouts for boys 8 to 11, Boy Scouting for boys 11 to 14, and Exploring for boys 14 and older. The program for each age group is designed to attract boys by appealing to their interests and seeks to inculcate in boys a way of life, a habit of living that produces citizenship and character growth. The Boy Scouts sponsor troops in every part of the city, wealthy and poor, and they attempt to inculcate camping experience in the experience of all. Total membership is 3½ million, of which 2½ million are youngsters and the remainder are adults working in voluntary capacity and professional staff workers.

The Boys' Clubs of America operate under the premise that parents' efforts must be supplemented by opportunities for wholesome activity under trained leadership and guidance. Where these opportunities are not present, influences of home, church, and school may be undermined. Boys' Clubs of America attempt to provide this supplementary activity and trained guidance for boys between the ages of 8 and 20 who reside in less privileged neighborhoods. Through its 375 clubs with a total of 350,000 members, a behavior guidance program, over and above mere recreation, is pursued.

The Girl Scouts of the United States of America is an organization based on two principles: The first is that the movement is open to all girls who want to belong and who subscribe to the Girl Scout ethical code; the second is that Scouting is a relationship between a leader and a small group of girls. The leader needs to be one with skill and training in order to gain the young people's confidence and influence their development in right directions. Recent developments in the Girl Scouts have been to furnish membership to children of migratory workers. Girl Scout troops also have been set up in institutions for the socially handicapped.

Camp Fire Girls, Inc., is an example of a character-building leisure time agency in delinquency prevention. The activities of the Camp Fire Girls' program are developed around the Camp Fire law, the basic concepts being, "Worship God, seek beauty, give service, pursue knowledge, be trustworthy, hold onto health, glorify work, be happy." In recent years, the Camp Fire Girls have given priority to defense and overcrowded areas. Local Camp Fire councils have made great efforts to reach children with special problems, and consequently, within the membership of the Camp Fire Girls are many who might be called problem girls.

Four organizations representing professional organizations whose programs service both children and adults include the National Recreation Association, the American Institute of Park Executives, the National Federation of Settlements, and the National Catholic Welfare Conference. It should be noted that the youth division of the National Catholic Welfare Conference also provides leadership to local youth-serving units through the National Federation of Catholic College Students, the National Newman Club Federation and the Catholic Youth Organizations.

The National Recreation Association sets standards and provides consultations in the broad field of recreation. Through promotion of sound recreational activities it operates in a positive way in its relations to delinquency by building in the boy or girl interests, skills, and resources which crowd out the call of the gang.

The American Institute of Park Executives organization has existed for more than 35 years and its members are concerned with the problem of juvenile delinquency both from the viewpoint of the responsibility which they accept for service to their communities and the general welfare of the people they serve, and the protection of public property against vandalism. The programs the parks develop include (1) large-scale recreation programs; and (2) education in proper use of public facilities. In cities where such programs are pursued, vandalism decreases despite the fact that population and park use are increasing.

The National Federation of Settlements and Neighborhood Centers activities, designed to serve the needs of the whole community, of necessity include a large number of juvenile needs and problems. The settlement worker, however, is in a unique position since he has first-hand contact with not only the child but with each factor in the community influence. Thus, juvenile delinquency is viewed and acted upon by the settlement worker in perspective to the whole field of child welfare.

The National Education Association of the United States enrolls more than 550,000 teachers by direct memberships. These men and women represent all school levels and all parts of the United States and its outlying areas. The association has made special efforts (a) to inform its membership of the extent and nature of the problem of juvenile delinquency; (b) to promote cooperation among the home, church, courts and other agencies concerned with the problems; and (c) to improve school services for all children under the assumption that when society meets the needs of children and youth, the problem of juvenile delinquency will be largely eliminated.

The association has observed that schools are effective instruments in meeting juvenile delinquency when the following conditions exist:

1. A comprehensive school program based on the modern findings of psychology, sociology, health and education.
2. A staff of competent classroom teachers and school administrators skilled in understanding and instructing children and youth.
3. Adequate school buildings designed and equipped for a modern education program and large enough to provide the small classes necessary for attention to the needs and problems of individual children.
4. A program of cooperation, between school and home so that parents and teachers may unite their efforts and seek mutually acceptable objectives.
5. Community teamwork whereby both individuals and groups cooperate in investigating the needs of children and youth, in working for good legislation and law enforcement, and in seeking to build a wholesome community.

A number of organizations heard represented groups encompassing a wide range of interests and activities. These included the American Legion, the General Federation of Women's Clubs, the National Council of Negro Women, the National Council of Churches, the Veterans of Foreign Wars, the Daughters of the American Revolution, and the National Association of Colored Women. All of these organizations offer, primarily through State and local groups, certain activities which are of benefit to children. All are broadly concerned with the total welfare of youth. Despite the broadness of their common concern for children, some engage in rather highly specialized activities. The DAR, for example, operates two combination boarding and day schools. The National Association of Colored Women has established certain institutions for wayward girls, institutions later taken over by States.

The General Federation of Women's Clubs has long been interested in, and has always been actively engaged in, programs dealing with child welfare and good family life. Realizing that delinquency is usually a result of truancy and that truancy is usually due to an unhappy child not interested in school and present environment, the organization develops programs that will elevate the standard of living of the so-called underprivileged child.

Among the more important activities carried on by the American Legion is the junior baseball program in which hundreds of thousands of boys participate annually under supervision and expert leadership. In this program, youth are taught sportsmanship and good will. Other activities include programs known as boys' state and girls' state, in which thousands of youth throughout the United States gather each year to learn the responsibilities of citizenship. The Legion is also nationally active in promoting improved community services to youngsters in trouble with the law.

Eighty percent of the Veterans of Foreign Wars posts are in urban areas and combat delinquency on the level of organization of various club activities encompassing both juveniles and their families. The point was made that an agency such as the VFW works through volunteers who are capable of providing facilities for taking care of normal youth.

The DAR works for better citizenship among young people from three approaches: Historical appreciation of the past; patriotic service in the present; and educational training for the future. Junior American Citizens Clubs, open to all children, have been organized all over the country to teach justice, Americanism, and character. In 1953, there were 6,666 Junior American Citizens Clubs with 245,275 members in training.

Other groups represented are organized around a very specific cause or purpose. The American Parents Committee, the National Child Labor Committee, the National Woman's Christian Temperance Union, and Spokesman for Children, Inc., are examples of such organizations. All three carry on promotional and educational programs in relations to their specific functions of interest. The last-named organization, however, also operated certain institutions or homes for children.

Even this brief account of the programs and functions of these organizations and agencies reveals the wide differences among them. It is therefore impossible to generalize in terms of subcommittee findings relative to their programs. It does seem fair to say, however, that those serving children and youth directly fall short in the majority of cases of gearing their programs in such a manner as to reach children whose behavior indicated that they are on the edge of serious delinquency. In addition, most of those organizations do not have specific programs and facilities for treating the juvenile delinquent.

This should not be taken as a criticism of these programs. Every child needs healthy activities, constructive interests, and to develop these under sound leadership. Many children may be saved from becoming particularly vulnerable to delinquency through participation in programs which they might shun were their pathology further advanced. It does not mean, however, that we have much left to be done in developing programs which are designed to reach the "unreached" child.

The subcommittee commends all of these organizations for their interest in and efforts to aid children. The subcommittee notes with particular interest that some of these organizations are also making special efforts to bring the "hard to reach" within the scope of their programs. Such an organization as the Big Brothers of America, of course, works exclusively with youngsters in circumstances which threaten their well-being. Other organizations, however, whose caseloads are primarily comprised of what might be called "normal" youngsters in terms of behavior and circumstances, are making or planning to make extra efforts to serve the predelinquent. These include, among others, the Camp Fire Girls which has emphasized developing units in children's institutions and the Boy Scouts of America which has followed a like course as well as investing money in research as to ways and means of more effectively serving the child in trouble. The subcommittee is particularly pleased with these efforts.

STANDARD-SETTING ORGANIZATIONS

Special reference should be made to a limited number of agencies and organizations testifying before the subcommittee which function as standard-setting bodies for the development of local programs servicing youngsters in trouble. These include the American Public Welfare

Association, the National Probation and Parole Association, the National Association of Training Schools and Agencies, the International Association of Chiefs of Police and the National Council of Juvenile Court Judges.

As brought out in other sections of this report, the combined efforts of these worthy organizations fall short of meeting existing need and demand for guidance, consultation, and other service needed by State and local agencies caring for children in such trouble.

V. COMMUNITY HEARINGS

SELECTION OF COMMUNITIES

The community hearing was early adopted as one of the important media for investigations. In order to secure a nationwide picture of the juvenile delinquency problem; to determine its scope and character as well as its extent and causes, it seemed necessary to select communities across the country that would present specific evidence. The objective was to select cities that would illustrate the kinds of problems faced in various sections of the country, due to their size, specific location, or the nature of their population. Whereas the subcommittee had urgent invitations from many cities and a number of governors, communities were not selected for the urgency of the invitation; neither were they selected because they represented communities in which the subcommittee believed the problem to be more serious, and certainly no criticism or special commendation was implied because a city was, or was not, selected. A combination of cities was chosen to give the subcommittee the broadest kind of representation of communities with as many varying conditions as possible.

Community hearings were held in 10 different cities: Washington, D. C.; Boston, Mass.; Denver, Colo.; Philadelphia, Pa.; El Paso, Tex.; San Diego, Calif.; Los Angeles, Calif.; San Francisco, Calif.; Chicago, Ill.; and Miami, Fla. The findings from the community hearings are herewith given, with the exception of Washington, D. C., which is presented separately because it falls entirely within the scope of Federal responsibility.

THE OBJECTIVES OF COMMUNITY HEARINGS

The approach to the community hearings may be divided into four parts:

1. The first responsibility of the subcommittee was to establish the effectiveness of present Federal laws, appropriations and the regulations pertaining to them, and to determine any other areas in which Federal responsibility might lead to recommendations for changes in or additions to existing laws.

2. The hearings were designed to establish a general pattern of the problem, those aspects of its nature and cause that might be common to all sections of the country, as well as reveal those areas wherein different sections of the country face problems peculiar to that region.

3. By focusing public attention upon the problems in a given community, it was planned to assist the local and State governments to understand their needs and to help them gain general support for such action as might be needed on the local level.

4. The subcommittee also looked to community hearings for information on programs and projects that had been initiated on a local level for the prevention and cure of delinquency. Publicizing such projects might lead other communities to adopt constructive action that had been tried and proven in other locations.

METHODS OF PROCEDURE OF SUBCOMMITTEE

The subcommittee sent a staff team into each community to prepare the way, so that data could be found, screened, and checked, and to select and prepare witnesses so that pertinent data could be presented in a logical and forceful manner. A minimum team consisted of a counsel, a social service consultant, and at least one investigator. In some communities the complexity of the problem called for more personnel, so that staff teams varied from 3 to 7 members.

Neither sufficient time nor personnel were available to make a thorough community study of the problem. Rather, it was the intention of the committee to rely largely upon the knowledge, interest, and skill of people in the community to present data on delinquency problems and proposed solutions. The staff team did check samplings, observed local aspects of the problems, and looked with considerable care into areas where conflicting data or opinions showed that a fully agreed upon picture of conditions would not be forthcoming through a public hearing alone.

GENERAL COMMENT

It might be significant to call attention to the fact that workers in many public and private agencies possessed a natural tendency to justify their own efforts by presenting statistics and program elements in an optimistic manner. This, no doubt, happened because of local pride, a desire to look well competitively with other communities and a desire to justify the vested interests and professional pride they might have in their own particular agency. It might therefore be pointed out here, that it is the opinion of the subcommittee that our hearings accomplished the most good in a locality or in a State where local representatives testified to their honest efforts within their means to curb the problem, but very frankly exposed serious problems which could only be met by an all-out effort of all agencies, from the Federal Government on down through to the smallest local agency, and with the inspired and active interest and support of the entire citizenry. Conditions detrimental to the welfare of youth, if faced up to squarely, are usually known to law-enforcement agencies and to other agencies dealing directly with the youth of the community. These limited agencies are often unable, alone, to bring about corrective social action for two reasons: First, the city, the State, and for that matter, the Nation possess no overall, authoritative body that can coordinate the work of the law enforcement, legal, judicial, educational, and other interested agencies to the end of making them move forward on a united front without gaps and overlapping of efforts. Second, these agencies often see and present only their own piece of the problem and their own efforts to meet it to the general public so that public understanding and support is torn between many approaches, and general support of an overall integrated program is not developed.

The subcommittee hearings proved to be an instrument that helped to meet these two problems or at least helped to point up the need for a coordinating element that is needed and missing. Much good could be accomplished in this area by planning other hearings in communities and States that are asking for this service.

ADJUDICATED DELINQUENTS

Extent of the problem

The Subcommittee on Juvenile Delinquency was presented reports in 1953 by the Children's Bureau which indicated that 385,000 boys and girls had been brought before the courts of the country in 1952 because of delinquent behavior. This data also indicated a shocking situation in that the number had increased 29 percent between 1948 and 1952. When this figure was contrasted with only a 5 percent increase in the number of children of court age during this same period, it was dismaying to the subcommittee, especially when the data was projected into the future. If the facts were accepted as valid and a change in the trend could not be effected, an alarming domestic problem was in the offing that might soon undermine the security of our Nation as surely as though we had been attacked from without by a hostile force.

The need to substantiate the extent of the problem and to launch an attack upon it was one of the potent arguments before the subcommittee when it decided to plan community hearings to take direct testimony in representative areas of the country.

Mr. Heman Stark, director of the California Youth Authority, testified at the hearing held in San Francisco on October 6, 1954, at which time he reported that in 1953, 73,226 children under 18 years of age appeared before the juvenile courts of California. This represented an increase over the previous year of 12.6 percent, whereas the child population during this period increased only 5 percent.

Mr. Phillip Green, the chief probation officer in San Francisco, a qualified worker with one of the better departments encountered, gave a frank statement of the problems that one of the larger cities of California faces. His department handles all children who require service outside their home, including dependent and neglected children as well as delinquent children. His department handled just over 12,000 children in 1952 and just under that number in 1953, or about 1 out of every 8 children in the schools of San Francisco. Breaking these figures down in terms of problem children as contrasted to the merely neglected and dependent, it was found that 2,637 problem boys and girls were handled in 1952 and this rose to 2,979 in 1953, an increase of 12.9 percent. This percentage increase is over double the increase in child population during that period. Delinquency petitions were filed on about a third of these children resulting in a 11.4 percent increase in 1953 over 1952 in the number of delinquent children under supervision of the staff of the department. In 1952 a new high of 142 children were committed to the California Youth Authority, but this was topped by the commitment of 151 in 1953. Incidence of truancy went up 23 percent and property damage increased 21 percent during the same period.

In El Paso, Tex., it was difficult to determine the extent of the problem, because there had been a change of policy affecting the

statistics issued by the probation department. For example, with approximately the same number of children handled, 1,441 in 1952 and 1,468 in 1953, the children's court had only 22 children formally appear before it in 1953, all of whom had been committed to a State institution for delinquent children, except 4 boys, who had been placed under probational supervision after suspension of commitment. This contrasts with 1952 when 121 children formally appeared before the court, and 35 were committed and 29 placed on probation. It was evident that an effort was made to handle all children informally and no child was brought before the court except on a purely punitive basis, with commitment anticipated. Thus, these figures showed a decrease statistically which was not supported by other evidence. In fact, the presentation of such figures tends to obscure the problem and would tend to make the community complacent. That there is no room for complacency is suggested by the fact that the school population in 1948 was 20,815 and increased to 30,391 in the fall registration of 1954 at the rate of almost 10 percent each year. This growth presents an increasing problem which appears even more serious because of the lack of any formulated community plan to increase or strengthen school services.

In Denver, Colo., the school population had grown to 81,418 by 1953, an increase of 32.7 percent since 1947. During the same period, children arrested each year had increased 36 percent. In 1953 the police handled 2,320 cases, which was an 11 percent increase over the previous year.

In Philadelphia, figures showed that delinquency had increased 34 percent from 1950 to 1953 and that the probation load had increased 50 percent between 1945 and 1953.

In 1954 figures for Los Angeles showed a 7.5 percent increase over the previous year in juvenile arrests.

In Miami, the subcommittee learned that the number of children found delinquent in Dade County ran 1.5 percent of the child population, which in itself was a favorable figure, since most other communities showed a rate in the neighborhood of 5 percent. In the greater Miami area, there are over 20 municipalities and the sheriff's department in the unincorporated areas, feeding children into this county's juvenile court, as well as children referred to it by the county school system. Various law-enforcement officers and public-school officers testified to the fact that limitations of the ability of the county juvenile court to adequately handle the load had influenced such agencies to handle an increased number of such children unofficially, and refer to the court only the most flagrant cases. The fact that the child population is increasing at the rate of 10 to 12½ percent a year, that the county schools reported that 16,000 children were referred for adjustment problems, all indicate that Miami and Dade County face a very serious problem for the future and expansion of its facilities is needed.

In San Diego, the subcommittee found that the number of juvenile cases handled in 1953 was 4,367, an increase of 12.6 percent over the previous year. The number found delinquent in the juvenile court increased from 2,542 in 1952 to 2,981 in 1953, which is an increase of 17 percent. Narcotic arrests had not increased but the file of known handlers and suspected pushers and convicted persons had increased and there was a feeling that in spite of the statistics on arrests, nar-

cotics offer a real threat to the community. Runaway children had increased 26 percent and offered an area of serious concern, especially since 85 percent of them were from other counties and over 30 percent of them from other States. San Diego is receiving new families so rapidly, in addition to the normal child population increase found throughout the Nation, that the school population increase is phenomenal. For every 100 children who enter public school at the 1st grade level, there will be 150 pupils in the 6th grade, a 50 percent increase in 6 years by virtue of new children moving into the area with new families. There are at present 60,000 children in the public schools. By virtue of new families moving in, this, if the movement continues, will become 86,500 by 1960. Child population on a national scale is increasing in all communities at the rate of 1 million a year. This increase added to the new residents moving into this community should bring the school population of San Diego over the 100,000 mark by 1960. All phases of child care will have to be strengthened and increased tremendously in the immediate future if juvenile delinquency is to be controlled.

In Chicago, with the school population up 5 percent in 1953 over 1952, the juvenile court of Cook County reported that referrals to the court increased 15.2 percent, truancy increased 46 percent, auto offenses 29 percent, and commitments to State institutions for delinquents increased 57 percent in the year.

The data taken in community hearings is not subject to uniform tabulation because, since the hearings were held at different dates, the statistics cover varying periods of time. Testimony received during the course of the subcommittee community hearings, does establish beyond any question of doubt, the fact that the rate of juvenile delinquency substantially increased. Even if the upward spiral might prove to be halted when all the figures are in for 1954, every community faces the need of drastic extension of service because we are growing rapidly as far as child population is concerned. This means that we could actually decrease the rate of delinquency and still face a greater volume of cases to be handled in every section of the land.

STATE ORGANIZATION FOR THE PREVENTION AND CONTROL OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

Although the community hearings were directed specifically toward obtaining data on each local community situation, inquiry at the local level yielded, in some instances, information about the State organization for the prevention and treatment of juvenile delinquency. In addition, there has been submitted to the subcommittee considerable information, transmitted in writing from the subcommittee's files, describing the attempts—and in many instances, the lack of attempts—on the part of other States to coordinate at the State and local level the efforts to fight juvenile delinquency. The subcommittee is, therefore, aware of the fact that such efforts are under way in many areas and that some of these efforts have met with considerable success.

The subcommittee had an opportunity, through its hearings in California and Florida to contrast, through on-the-spot testimony, the different approaches to coordination attempted by these two States.

The California approach

The California Youth Authority was established 11 years ago. It is an agency of the State government responsible by statute for all delinquent children and youth up to 21 years of age, committed to its care by courts throughout the State. It operates the State institutions for delinquents; a parole department; supervises probation services and promotes programs for the prevention and treatment of delinquency.

The subcommittee was interested to hear from Mr. Heman Stark, director of the California Youth Authority, as to the nature and extent of the problem of juvenile delinquency and the action taken by the State in meeting this problem. As to the nature of the problem, he stated:

I concur with what has been said here by other people * * * that we are having a more serious type of delinquency * * *. At the present time, and in each succeeding year for the past several years, we have had a more serious type of offender committed to the State, and that makes it a more difficult problem for us to make the adjustment and get the person back into society as a good citizen.

With regard to the steps taken or planned by the State, he reported that in 1950 the State of California had facilities to care for 2,000 children, several hundred short of the need; by 1955 they expected to have increased their facilities to care for 3,200 but the need is estimated at 4,000 and by 1960 the need will be for the care of 5,000 children. State planning will rely upon each county furnishing facilities for all but 15 percent of the delinquents. Mr. Stark said:

What we are saying to the county is this—that you will have to provide facilities. By facilities, I mean probation services, juvenile halls, local boarding homes, and local institutions * * * for all of those youngsters that fall into that 85 percent in each of these charts. We (the State) are saying that we go to the legislature and ask for enough money to build institutions to take care of the 15 percent.

The charts referred to by Mr. Stark indicated that the caseload of the local communities in 1950 was about 9,000 children, increasing to 12,000 in 1955, and something over 15,000 by 1960. Many of these children are being rehabilitated at forestry camps. Starting in 1931 with the first county camp, there are now 14 such camps. These now handle 1,500 children a year and are subsidized in part by the State which pays one-half the operating cost. Testimony indicated that the State hopes to encourage the establishment of 7 or 8 more county camps. In addition, the State operates three camps and faces the need of creating more. Mr. Stark stated that, ideally, he would prefer to establish many small institutions to treat 150 to 200 children each but that he was afraid that the ever-increasing need will make it necessary to expand all State facilities.

In speaking of other areas of interest, Mr. Stark reported that one of the most useful instruments of assistance to the work of the Youth Authority had been a Governor's Committee on Children and Youth, first established under Governor Warren, and now continued under Governor Knight. Mr. Stark said, with relation to the State's meeting its obligation to youth in trouble:

With the backing of the committee, in the last 10 years we have been able to get \$20 million of State funds to build new schools and \$18 million to develop county detention homes and county facilities.

In addition to the Governor's committee there are about 300 citizen community councils in California that are working directly with delinquency. Mr. Stark had this to say about these:

We think that is an important thing—that several thousand people come together regularly to do something for the children of the community.

The youth authority has conducted hearings and community studies in 35 counties and in 100 cities in the State of California. These have had a great impact upon local action. For example, when the youth authority first got underway there were only 25 juvenile police officers in the State in but a half dozen existing juvenile bureaus in police departments. Now the State has over 600 juvenile officers in 156 juvenile bureaus. Many of the 600 juvenile officers have received special training and are becoming increasingly better equipped to handle children in trouble. Quoting again from Mr. Stark's testimony he said:

I mention these activities because I think the Federal Government has the same responsibility to do the job with the States. Good ideas are where you find them and many times a little help from the outside, saying "This is the way to do it" is all you need to get people at the local level to take certain steps in the right direction.

I feel that there have been a few spot checks made over the country; that there have been a few studies made on small samplings of people and children, but we have no real piece of research in the country about juvenile delinquents.

We need to do that kind of research. To see what programs really are effective in the treatment of delinquents after we get them; what programs we can put into effect in the community to help parents know what to do with their youngsters.

I think many times that these parents who are lambasted in these sessions when we get together talking about juvenile delinquents, are really in need of help and many of them will accept what we give them.

The Florida approach

In the Miami hearing the subcommittee learned of a development in the State of Florida that is worthy of consideration on the State level. The Florida Children's Commission, which had operated as a temporary committee for years, was established by legislative act in 1951. The following is quoted from chapter 417, Florida Statutes, 1951:

The duties of the Florida Children's Commission shall be to review legislation pertaining to children and youth and appropriations for services in their behalf in such fields as health, child guidance, social service, education, recreation, child labor, juvenile courts, probation and parole service, and detention facilities, and to consider and present revision and additions needed, and report to the Governor of this State and the Legislature of the State of Florida regarding such legislation.

The commission has a State appropriation, employs a small staff, meets regularly, and has become a moving force in the State. It accomplishes study and formation of policy and effects integration to an extent that would be impossible for any other department of the State government.

Among other things, the commission asked each board of county commissioners to form a county committee on children and youth to cooperate with the State commission and coordinate efforts on a county level. The development of the committee of Pinellas County is worth noting.

The Pinellas County Commission established their county committee, gave it legal status as a county child-welfare board, provided appropriations, appointed a director, and employed a small staff.

This board has provided leadership to the already existing agencies of the county, such as schools, the police juvenile bureaus, the children's court, and the other public and private agencies, and has helped them to coordinate their efforts. Significantly, the upward trend in juvenile delinquency has been reversed in this county and the machinery seems to be in motion to save many times its cost as the next crop of children reach their teens.

Need for coordination at State and local levels

There can be no doubt that the fight against juvenile delinquency cannot be successfully waged without the closest coordination of effort at all levels—State, local, and Federal. The Florida and California approaches offer significant examples of such coordination. They are not entirely similar since, while both have committees on children and youth, California has already taken—as have a number of other States—a second step by forming one centralized agency geared to handle the rehabilitation, on an integrated basis, of the juvenile delinquent and the youthful offender.

The subcommittee is impressed with both these approaches and commends them to the attention of those States which have not yet moved to establish the mechanism needed to assure coordination of policy and purposeful integration of treatment services. As recommended elsewhere in this report, Federal efforts to assist the States in extending and strengthening programs for the control and treatment of juvenile delinquency should also be designed to encourage the establishment of such coordination mechanisms in all States and in all communities.

THE JUVENILE COURT

The juvenile court has been characterized as a legal tribunal where law and science, especially the science of medicine and those sciences working in human behavior, work side by side; its purpose is remedial and, to a degree, preventive, rather than punitive; it recognizes the individuality of the child and adapts its orders accordingly.

The subcommittee has received communications from many persons who, basing their opinions to a great extent upon the fact that juvenile delinquency in the United States is on the upsurge, were highly critical of the effectiveness of juvenile courts. Some advocated a stricter, more punitive approach. Some stated that the juvenile court plan, established first in 1899, had now had a trial lasting over 50 years and, having been tried, had been found wanting. On the other hand, defenders of the juvenile court movement stated emphatically that the movement had never really been given a chance and that the punitive approach, tried for centuries, had never even succeeded as a deterrent.

Because of these widely divergent views, the subcommittee in each of its community hearings, gave particular attention to the workings of the juvenile court system. On the basis of the hearings which the subcommittee has so far held, it is of the emphatic opinion that the juvenile court movement in the United States has thus far not been given a chance.

In Standards for Specialized Courts Dealing With Children, issued by the Children's Bureau recently, the following standards are set forth for the evaluation of the effectiveness of a juvenile court:

In order for a court to become a fully effective and fair tribunal operating for the general welfare, there must be:

1. A judge and a staff identified with and capable of carrying out a non-punitive and individualized service.
2. Sufficient facilities available in the court and the community to insure:
 - (a) That dispositions of the court are based on the best available knowledge of the needs of the child.
 - (b) That the child, if he needs care and treatment, receives these through the facilities adapted to his needs and from persons properly qualified and empowered to give them.
 - (c) That the community receives adequate protection.
3. Procedures that are designed to insure that two objectives are kept constantly in mind, these being:
 - (a) Individualization of the child and his situation, and
 - (b) Protection of the legal and constitutional rights of both parent and child.

Utilizing these standards as the criteria of evaluation—the subcommittee wishes it clearly understood that it is not in any way impugning the earnestness, the sincerity, and the devotion to duty of the hundreds of men and women staffing these courts or of the capable judges heading up these courts. But the plain fact is that community after community has failed dismally to support the efforts of these juvenile courts.

For example, testimony at the subcommittee's hearings indicated that the professionally trained probation staffs were assigned cases in numbers far beyond what might reasonably be expected to be handled if the casework given were to be effective. In San Francisco, for example, not a single probation officer had been added to the juvenile court staff since 1949, despite greatly increased caseloads. In San Diego, each probation officer must handle a caseload of 100 cases. In Philadelphia, Dr. Reinemann testified that "the caseload in our juvenile division is, at present, 91.7 which is by far too high using the optimum provided as a standard by the United States Children's Bureau of 50." Nationally, testimony adduced before the subcommittee indicates that, whereas the Nation has about 7,000 probation officers, the need is for 40,000.

Overworked probation officers are but one example of how community after community was found to have established a juvenile court and then not given it the tools to do the job expected. Instead of saying that juvenile courts have failed, it would seem to the subcommittee much more accurate to say that it is the community that has failed—failed to give the juvenile court the support it has a right to expect. And the juvenile court system will continue to fail to meet the expectations of the community as long as we fail to give it the personnel and the facilities it needs and must have.

TREATMENT SERVICES AND FACILITIES

The services and facilities needed for the rehabilitation of a juvenile delinquent who has run afoul of the law must form a chain. And, as in any chain, this one is as weak as its weakest link. In its community hearings, the subcommittee went into each link of the chain from police services to detention homes to juvenile courts to probation services to treatment institutions to parole or aftercare services.

By and large, in the communities visited the subcommittee found that treatment services and facilities, including detention homes and aftercare services, form yet another weak link in America's efforts to

control juvenile delinquency. And once again the subcommittee found that those efforts can be characterized as "too little, too late," but not at all due to the lack of interest and earnestness on the part of the thousands of capable and energetic men and women now staffing these services. But these men and women—however capable and sincere—cannot do the impossible. Somehow the community seems to expect by putting a delinquent boy between four walls in an institution lacking adequate facilities and staff, keeping him there for a period of months, that by some miracle he will be rehabilitated. The subcommittee believes that what is needed to make this procedure work is added staff and adequate facilities.

Detention of juveniles

A growing concern was found throughout the country for the detention of juveniles in jails for adult prisoners. The practice is all too prevalent even in States where great efforts are being exerted to eliminate this practice. In some communities, the desire to provide a non-punitive type of facility in which children might await planning by the juvenile court, leads to the use of special boarding homes and "homelike" programs that did not in all cases provide the security needed for the aggressive, hostile older boys and girls, with the result that youngsters who needed protective security still had to be lodged in jail.

Other communities have been overwhelmed by the numbers of children that must be detained because of the rapid growth in population and the increase in delinquency. Testimony indicated that this was the case in Los Angeles, where, while new detention facilities are still on the drafting table, several hundred boys are kept in jails each year.

In communities where the facilities have not had sufficient personnel to meet the needs of children in trouble, community reaction has led to requests that the court place some youngsters in jail. This same kind of reaction has led to the construction of some juvenile detention facilities, where security has been virtually the only consideration with little or no recognition of the need for constructive programs.

It has been estimated to the subcommittee that annually in this country about 100,000 boys and girls are confined in common jails for periods from overnight to several weeks. This is a shocking figure. It is a practice which we cannot afford to continue. Translated into practical terms, this means that of the people in this country today between the ages of 25 and 35, one million of them have spent some time in jail. With that background, what reaction can we expect from those of them who are parents to the possible waywardness of their own children?

The answers to this problem are not uncertain or unknown. Sufficient know-how exists to establish local or regional detention homes and, even then, to screen admittance to such homes so that only those children who need such custody find their way into them. What is lacking is the determination to rid this Nation of the practice of placing children in jails.

Training schools for delinquent children

Training schools are supposed to be conducted for the care, treatment, and training of delinquent children and, through aftercare or parole services, for their placement back in the community as soon as

possible. Such care, treatment, and training, however, are only possible if the institution is one which has adequate facilities and staff to provide an individualized treatment program geared to the needs of the children placed in those institutions. Such is by no means the case in America today. With the increase in child population and in the rate of juvenile delinquency, almost all of these facilities are overcrowded. The public institutions are therefore faced with pressure to expand their population capacities as the most economical means in which to accommodate more children. However, professional standards indicate that most training schools are already too large and that units housing not over 200 children each should be constructed in order to provide the kind of treatment atmosphere in which the individual needs of the children can best be met.

The training school link of the chain of treatment services and facilities that should be forged for the rehabilitation of the delinquent juvenile also finds itself plagued by a lack which confronts the other links—lack of adequately trained personnel. As the subcommittee has elsewhere indicated, lack of trained personnel is one of the greatest handicaps in the Nation's present fight against juvenile delinquency. That lack we must overcome.

Certain special projects which have been called to the attention of the subcommittee during the course of its community hearings are worthy of special mention because they do afford some example of the use of "risk capital" in certain localities to develop new techniques and programs. These programs cited as examples are not for the 10 or 20 percent of the children in need of residential care who are so severely damaged emotionally that they are in need of intensive therapy provided in small residential treatment centers. The programs here mentioned are for the remaining 80 or 90 percent who can respond to major program interests that catch and hold their interest while they work through their emotional problems, resolving their inner conflicts by gaining satisfaction and security through acceptance, achievement, and success.

Reference is made elsewhere to the forestry camp programs developed in California, Minnesota, and Washington. Subcommittee investigators had an opportunity to visit one such camp in California. This camp, Camp Ben Loman, houses 60 delinquent boys with an average age of 17 years. It was obvious that these boys gain a great sense of achievement by working at real jobs for which they receive a small wage. Because they are doing needed work they contribute toward the support of the project and develop an esprit de corps that gives each individual boy a new strength to work through his problems with the help of understanding personnel.

Subcommittee staff also visited a county ranch camp conducted at Twin Pines, Calif. The program centers around the operations of the ranch. This program seems to be built around the personality and leadership of its director, who lends atmosphere to the main theme of the project and provides a sincerity that impresses the boys and catches and holds their interest.

In Illinois, the subcommittee was told about two experimental camp projects concerning which the Illinois State Youth Board feels very optimistic. They believe youngsters develop positive attitudes therein that aid them in adopting worthwhile goals and gaining strength to meet and maintain acceptable social standards. The work program

in each camp is supplemented by sports competition, drama, music and other activities geared to special talents. Sufficient clinical personnel is maintained to give counselors some insight into boys needs, so that the counselor can help the individual boy meet the standards of the program while at the same time be understanding and encouraging when he fails. There is evidence that this exerts a fairly strong "pull" on the boy to meet reasonable standards.

LAW ENFORCEMENT

The subcommittee took testimony in its national hearings in Washington that indicated that, whereas, some 385,000 children were handled by the children's courts of the land in 1952, there were in that same year more than a million children handled by the police. In fact, most children eventually appearing in children's court are first handled by the police. The subcommittee was impressed with the importance of the police officer's role and was anxious to learn through its community hearings the effectiveness with which law-enforcement officers met this sobering responsibility. Was special attention being given to the handling of an impressionable child's first brush with the law? What were the children's attitudes toward policemen? Did officers have understanding and training to cope with problems involved in the constructive handling of children and was special training for them necessary?

Police services to juveniles

Through the efforts of the special juvenile delinquency project and the Children's Bureau a report called *Police Services for Juveniles* was published in 1954. This report was prepared with the aid of outstanding people in the field. The subcommittee feels that three statements from that report should be quoted to provide a backdrop for the subcommittee findings. The section on the philosophy of juvenile police work follows:

What should a police officer's aim be in working with these children? Since the police officer is an agent of the community, the same question might be put as: What is society's aim in regard to these children?

During the past 50 years every State has passed laws that show clearly that the aim of our judicial and executive authorities in their treatment of delinquent children is to protect them and rehabilitate them rather than to punish them. These laws reflect society's belief that since children are not adults, they cannot and should not be held accountable for their behavior in the same way that adults are.

"The fundamental idea of the law," stated the Chicago Bar Association committee that successfully fought for passage of the first State juvenile court law in this country, "is that the State must step in and exercise guardianship over a child found under such adverse social or individual conditions as develop crime * * *. It proposes a plan whereby he may be treated, not as a criminal, or legally charged with a crime, but as a ward of the State, to receive practically the care, custody, and discipline that are accorded the neglected and dependent child * * *."

The passage of that law in Illinois in 1899 was a milestone in the history of social legislation. Since that time juvenile courts established throughout the country have tried with varying degrees of success to implement the philosophy of these State laws by setting up procedures and offering services that will help dependent and delinquent children to grow into useful citizens.

It seems evident, then that if the will of the people as expressed in our laws is to be honored, police procedure governing the treatment of children should carry out the philosophy of protection and rehabilitation. Otherwise the entire effort of the community to redeem and protect its youth may be wrecked and nullified at the outset.

In the section headed "Effect of the Officer's Approach" this report states:

With acceptance of this belief in the need for rehabilitation and protection, the approach an officer should use with a child called to his attention in the course of duty is made clear.

Even in the most casual meeting between a policeman and a child, as when an officer cautions a child for a minor infraction of the law, the effect upon the child can be profound. The police officer represents the authority of the community. It is therefore important that the officer behave in such a way that the child will accept the social requirements of the community and respect the officer for the consideration shown him.

The possible effect that a policeman's conduct may have upon a youngster who has been taken into custody is even more significant. A negative or punitive approach provokes fear, hatred, and revolt. Kindness and understanding on the other hand, even when accompanied by firmness, will go far toward gaining the child's trust and eliciting in him the desire to adjust to society's demands. Numerous recorded and unrecorded statements by delinquents attest to the truth of these remarks.

This is not to ignore the fact that it is hard for a police officer or any other individual to maintain a firm but kind attitude when dealing with the many delinquent children who are defiant and aggressive. Psychiatrists say that the typical delinquent behaves toward adults in a manner that is calculated to provoke punishment and rejection. Some delinquent youngsters present a real threat to personal safety. In dealing with them, as with adults, the police may use any reasonable means to protect themselves and the community.

Recognition of these harsh facts, however, does not lessen the needs for constructive attitudes on the part of the officer. Rather, it underlines the difficulties of his task. Police work with delinquent children demands that the officer have full understanding of the importance of the work and show devotion and skill in accomplishing it.

A good attitude alone, however, will not insure success in work with delinquents or other children in need. A police officer must understand a child's behavior, must know his community's resources, and have the skill and intelligence to make wise decisions. The decisions a police officer makes in regard to children can be crucial. For example, referral to a youth-saving agency in the community may give one child just the help he needs at a particular time, whereas, in the case of another child, the time for such referral might have passed and an officer might better bring him before the juvenile court.

Perhaps it can be seen from this brief discussion how important and significant a role the police play in the community so far as youth are concerned.

Under the heading "Juvenile Control Unit" the following is said:

Specialized juvenile units in police departments are known by various names in the United States. They are called, for example, crime prevention bureaus, juvenile bureaus, juvenile divisions, and juvenile control bureaus. The advantage in public relations of having a single common name for such units throughout the country is obvious.

An evident generalization that might be made about the recommended size of a juvenile control unit is that it should be large enough to handle the demand for its services. This might depend to some degree on the proportion of juvenile cases in the total caseload, though evidently this proportion would not always give a true measure of the need. An added factor to be considered is the relative importance of work designed to prevent the growth of crime in the city. It is suggested that no less than 5 percent of the total police personnel should be assigned to the juvenile control unit.

The subcommittee found that a trend in police departments to give special attention to the needs of children is a growing movement. In the 9 communities where community hearings were held, all but 1 had assigned juvenile police officers. Since the real emphasis on this work is only about 10 years old, the progress is remarkable.

Recounting the growth of the movement in some communities may offer some inspiration for further progress in this work. Acquiring an adequate numerical force is difficult within existing budgets, even

where a determined conviction relative to need is present in the leadership of the community. For example, a recent study in El Paso by the National Probation and Parole Association recommended the establishment of a juvenile police bureau and, as a result, two interested officers from the detective division have been assigned to part-time work on juvenile cases. This is a first step toward establishing a juvenile control unit. There is now sentiment in the community favoring the sending of an officer to the Delinquency Control Institute at the University of Southern California for special training in juvenile police work.

A one-man juvenile department was established in San Diego in 1940 and has been increased to 17 men representing 3.5 percent of the total force. The movement to juvenile control units is taking hold in Greater Miami and slowly the 20 or more municipalities are building up juvenile bureaus until at present there are 26 officers assigned to juvenile work, or 1.6 percent of the total police force of Dade County. There is a strong citizens' recognition of the need for such units. The mayor's committee of 50 to study the problem of juvenile delinquency has recommended increased effort in this direction and is endeavoring to have a training course set up for juvenile officers at Miami University. Denver has a juvenile department consisting of 12 men and 3 women. San Francisco has a department of 30 men and women. Chicago has 80 men and women assigned to juvenile work, and while the department is well organized, it consists of only 1 percent of the total police force. Los Angeles has the largest juvenile unit of those visited, numbering 185 officers, or 4 percent of the total force. The Boston police chief stood alone in not advocating a specialized unit for juvenile work. However, considerable sentiment for a juvenile bureau was expressed by other witnesses in Boston and the subcommittee hopes that the work will be started there in the near future.

Despite the development of juvenile police work to cope with delinquent children, no police force observed had an adequate juvenile control unit and in too many communities the work that is being done in this area lacks the support needed. Some officers assigned to this work, remark that they have been assigned or relegated to the "diaper squad" and are looked upon with disdain by the regular patrolmen and specialists in other bureaus.

Where officers have been given special training and the juvenile unit has been given a place of importance in the framework of the police department and every effort is made to seek the cooperation of the community, the quality and scope of work accomplished is naturally much better.

The subcommittee was pleased to have a class of 20 officers from the Delinquency Control Institute of USC sit in at the hearing in Los Angeles. One of the graduates of the institute, Sgt. John A. Hampton, juvenile division supervisor in Los Angeles, gave the subcommittee valuable testimony. In speaking of the importance of proper training for juvenile officers, Sergeant Hampton explained that the Delinquency Control Institute, under the directorship of Mr. Dan J. Pursuit, offers a 12-week course at the University of Southern California. It was founded by Dr. Pfiffner, Mrs. Ervis Lester, Mr. Karl Holton, and Mr. Heman Stark, with funds provided by the automobile club, the Farmers' Insurance Co., and the Hollywood Turf Club. Each institute is limited to 20 students and, during the 10 years of its life

the institute has graduated a total of 272 juvenile officers; 240 of these officers are now working in California and 24 have returned to work in other States. Eight have come from foreign countries to take the course. The accumulative effects of this training are widespread because graduated officers have set up local training for other officers and given instruction to the entire police force in the communities to which they have returned. The law in California now authorizes chiefs of police to use departmental funds with which to send men to these courses.

The Los Angeles juvenile department has been in operation for 21 years. Training in juvenile work is an accepted fact for candidates assigned, and continuing courses are offered which provide for further growth and development of understanding. Officers on this staff keenly appreciate the thrill of preventive work and bend every effort toward cooperation and coordination of their efforts with other community efforts directed to this end. Because of the intensive work these officers have done with juveniles and the fine system they have set up, they now find it necessary to refer only 10 percent of children they work with to the juvenile court. Of course, the thoroughness of the work they do brings them into contact with more children, but every other community investigated referred a larger percentage of the children they contacted to the court, in many instances from 50 to 100 percent.

The California Juvenile Officer's Association now has a membership of 800; 25 cities in California have set up juvenile bureaus in the past year. So California has had the greatest growth in juvenile police work in the country. Minnesota and New Jersey are the only other States in which statewide associations of juvenile officers have been organized. The California association has made a concerted drive to raise the quality of men and women serving as juvenile officers in the State and has endeavored to bring into the police field the spirit and philosophy of the juvenile court in handling children.

The development of special juvenile police service must be promoted throughout the country. It is a new movement, through which police may join hands with the juvenile court and other agencies to form a united front in waging the war on juvenile delinquency.

YOUTHFUL OFFENDERS AND CRIME AMONG MINORS

The problem of delinquency and crime among youth is not restricted to cases which may be legally termed juvenile delinquency. The upper age range of the juvenile court varies from State to State, and above this age limit, a serious problem of youthful offenders prevails. For purposes of this report, the term "youthful offender" is used to refer to delinquent youth above the age jurisdiction of the juvenile court but under 21 years of age.

The number of serious crimes committed by the above age group is increasing each year and has been since 1948. J. Edgar Hoover, reporting on statistical records of the Federal Bureau of Investigation, recently released reports that crime among this youthful offender group has risen 8.2 percent in 1954 over 1953. The figures from the Bureau showed that persons under 18 years of age, many of them prosecuted in courts other than juvenile courts, accounted for 53.6 percent of car thefts, 40.1 percent of all thefts, 49.3 percent of bur-

glaries, 18 percent of robberies, and 16.2 percent of rape. These figures would increase a great deal if the 18-, 19-, and 20-year-olds were included in the above figures.

The total crime bill of the Nation is estimated at \$20 billion a year. It is revealing to note that for every dollar we spend on education we spend \$1.82 on crime; for every dollar spent by public and private social agencies of the country we spend \$1.33 on crime; for every dollar contributed to charity we spend \$5 on crime; and for every dollar given to the churches of America we spend \$10 on crime.

Juvenile offenders contribute very substantially to the above crime bill. Yet society provides little in the way of preventive or rehabilitative programs geared to the special needs of this group who are no longer children in age and yet are not adults in either age or maturity.

In the courts little has been done to develop specialized procedures or services for the youthful offender group. New York City has an adolescent court and Chicago has a boy's court under the circuit-court system, but most youthful offenders are handled by the adult courts. Most adult courts do not have sufficient probation staffs or other professional personnel to properly handle the youthful offender.

In the institutional field, a distinct problem exists because of the inadequate and overcrowded facilities available for the treatment of the committed or convicted youthful offender. With the exception of a few States no special facilities are provided. In the vast majority of cases they are simply thrown with adult persons where their associations, and ofttime idleness, contributes further to the making of real criminals.

The original twin proposals for the establishment of youth courts and State youth correction authorities as advanced by the American Law Institute represented an effort to develop special procedures and facilities for the rehabilitation of youthful offenders. In only two of the States which have thus far established authorities has the youthful offender group been brought under the administration of the act. In these two States, California and Minnesota, forward-looking steps have been taken in developing special facilities in the form of forestry or conservation camps for their care.

These camps, usually housing from 40 to 60 boys, have met with decided success in rehabilitating large numbers of youthful offenders. The rugged out-of-door life and useful work characteristic of these camps have an appeal for youth. The setting of the camps, their work programs, and the close personal boy-staff relationships which emerge therein all contribute to the end of effective rehabilitation. Not only youthful offenders but many of the older boys in training schools could benefit from such programs.

Because the problems of juvenile delinquency are both far ranging and complex, the subcommittee has not yet devoted the time and effort which should be given to the special problems and needs relative to youthful offenders. The subcommittee believes, however, that the data available to it is sufficient to point up the need for the Federal Government to stimulate the further development of forestry and conservation camp programs for youthful offenders.

The Federal Government could give such aid by taking one or more of several steps. It could and should develop informational materials which would enable States to benefit from both the experiences of other States and from the best available thinking relative to such

programs. It could and should be willing and ready to enter into contracts permitting States to locate such camps in national parks and forestry preserves, particularly those States lacking suitable locations of their own. Finally the Federal Government could join with States in establishing forestry and conservation camps in national parks and forests. This might involve the provision of the physical facilities, the direction of work projects, and the payments of relatively small wages for boy labor by the Federal Government. Camp maintenance, supervisory and custodial supervision, food, clothing, and medical services might be provided by the committing State.

The subcommittee recommends that the first two steps outlined above be taken with a minimum delay. The subcommittee also recommends that the feasibility of and need for the latter step be made a matter of continuing study.

The subcommittee also believes that there should be established in every State an agency or other unit of Government responsible for coordinating and stimulating the development of special services for youthful offenders.

Special community problems

Many prominent people in the field of social sciences have become concerned that too much emphasis has been placed upon such special problems as teen-age drinking, narcotics addiction, and stolen automobiles. Articles have been published pointing out that alcohol, narcotics, and unlocked autos do not constitute the cause of juvenile delinquency. Children who are normal, secure, and stable in their environment, it is stated, do not succumb to vices such as drinking, using narcotics, stealing automobiles, or becoming runaways. They point out that children who do these things have personality defects and emotional problems—causes much deeper in the fabric of their relationship with parents, playmates, and other people. Participation in these acts, it is held, grows out of their inability to live up to expectations, or to compete with their peers, or out of unhappiness in life as they find it.

The subcommittee found in its hearings that the causes of delinquency are many and complex. There is no single cause, but children who are particularly vulnerable to delinquency suffer untold damage from participation in vices that should not be available to them. Most of these vices are found to some extent in every community and are problems that deserve special attention.

The border problem.—In El Paso, Tex., San Diego, Calif., and Los Angeles, Calif., the subcommittee heard shocking testimony about conditions in Juarez, Tijuana, and other Mexican cities close to the border. Juarez is just across the border from El Paso and Tijuana is 16 miles from San Diego. Both cities are easily accessible to the youth and young servicemen of that region. Investigators observed that approximately 6,000 cars come north across the border from Tijuana into California each night, many of them occupied by boys and girls of juvenile-court age and many others occupied by minors and servicemen stationed in San Diego. Some of the cars are filled with young people from as far as 200 miles north. Young people were observed in these cars who subcommittee investigators knew to be under the influence of barbiturates, narcotics, or alcohol.

Some 50 houses of prostitution run openly in Tijuana, pornographic literature of the most vile sort is displayed openly on counters, and

reading rooms are available for the rental reading of this material by those who do not wish to pay the purchase price. Drinks are cheap and available to all age groups. Most of the bars have floor shows where "girlie" shows predominate and "B" girls circulate among the tables to entertain unattached men. Many taxis are available on each street corner and each driver is a solicitor for prostitution, "hot shows," barbiturates, marihuana, and narcotics. Novelty salesmen roam the streets with trays of costume jewelry, but carry barbiturates and pornographic literature under their trays and solicit for houses of prostitution and narcotics peddlers. A young investigator for the subcommittee had no difficulty in purchasing marihuana, barbiturates, pornographic literature, and a fix of heroin; he also made tentative arrangements to visit houses of prostitution, all in one evening. He observed that no boy, regardless of age, could walk down the street without being constantly solicited to buy pornographic literature or patronize prostitutes.

The subcommittee learned that the tourist trade is a major economic factor in the life of the newly formed Mexican State of Baja California, and since Mexicans do a great deal of their shopping in cities in the United States and many Mexicans commute to work in the United States, business people in southern California are anxious to maintain friendly relations with the Mexican community.

In El Paso, the subcommittee found that similar conditions exist but the traffic is not as great and is more localized. Servicemen are restricted to midnight leave and people do not come from as great a distance to go over the border for an evening's entertainment.

In El Paso there had been a recent outbreak of auto-parts thefts. Young people had begun by stripping cars of parts to be used on hot-rods and personal cars and this practice had led to stripping for sale. It was found that most of these sales of auto parts had been made in Juarez to Mexican fences.

El Paso had also been plagued with Mexican juveniles who crossed the border to steal from American homes. Such youngsters, when turned over to Mexican authorities, would many times be back in the States within a few days doing the same things. There was a general feeling of helplessness on the part of local law-enforcement officers concerning this situation, because even if the youngsters were committed in Texas, as a rule the State authorities would turn them over to immigration officials who can but dump them back over the border.

Closing the border to minors who are unescorted or who do not have the consent of parent or guardian was a solution advanced by many witnesses before the subcommittee in hearings in these border cities. Another proposal advanced was for closer cooperation with the Mexican Government in policing the activities of American juveniles who cross into Mexican cities. However handled, meeting this problem is necessarily a function of the Federal Government, as the municipalities involved are powerless to act on an international level.

Vandalism.—The destruction of property is a growing problem throughout the country. Robert H. Dalglish, general superintendent of the Philadelphia Transportation Co., told the subcommittee that vandalism had reached a peak for his company in 1953. The loss of light bulbs, broken windows, slashing of seats, scratching of initials on painted surfaces and wood, and general breakage had cost his

company \$30,000 in 1953. The company had experienced 20 incidents in the last 6 months in which operators had been kicked, beaten, and robbed. Several had been seriously hurt and required hospitalization. The public schools of Philadelphia reported that forceful entries, thefts, and destruction had resulted in a cost of \$25,000 in 1953 and that they had experienced 100,000 broken windows in their schools.

H. W. Dewhurst, secretary of the protective division of the Association of American Railroads, testified in Chicago concerning losses through vandalism to railroads and said:

Notwithstanding their numerous activities and considerations in the constant protection of more than 500 million passengers, as well as billions of dollars worth of freight by the railroads annually, the principal worry of railroad police departments today is the juvenile.

He stated that 155 juveniles had been killed in 1952 while trespassing on railroad property and that juveniles were constant menaces to safety by placing obstructions on tracks, tampering with switches and signals, and general destruction and theft of railroad property. This type of vandalism costs the 5 railroads in the Chicago area about \$60,000 annually. It was estimated that the cost to the railroad systems of the United States for damage of this type was over a million dollars annually.

In several community hearings witnesses testified that a large percentage of vandalism is done by youths under the influence of barbiturates or alcohol or both. In San Francisco it was brought out that all too often a group of teen-agers could get a case of beer and go on a "beer bust" or in other instances secure other types of liquor and take it to some isolated place to consume it. After these parties the juveniles would sometimes engage in acts of vandalism involving serious property destruction.

Juvenile drinking.—The subcommittee found a very definite relationship between juvenile drinking and acts of delinquency. There was also found a direct relationship between the vigor with which liquor laws were enforced and the amount of juvenile drinking.

In San Diego, where a very careful check is kept on places serving liquor, drinking is a minor juvenile problem. In Philadelphia, where lax law-enforcement policies existed with regard to liquor law enforcement, bars were found to be a rendezvous for boys and girls of high-school age. In Miami, young people were required to carry an identification card as proof of age, but these were often falsified and bars provided a card which young people signed, swearing to their age, thus relieving the bar owner of responsibility. This system of control is not effective because it appears to challenge the youngsters to beat the system. It becomes a game and many young people frequent bars. In the same city "drive-ins" became a rendezvous for young people in cars. Large parking areas at these establishments make it attractive for young people to congregate and drink in cars. Gang fights and general delinquency result.

In San Francisco the bars were fairly well patrolled and juveniles were not in evidence, but drinks were obtained from grocery stores, and certain stores were known as suppliers of juveniles. Here the youngsters could buy a bottle or case of beer and so-called beer busts resulted. Phone orders for liquor to be delivered to a home are a common and easy course of supply for the young people.

That vigorous law enforcement can be effective is exemplified by the subcommittee's investigation in Boston. Our hearings in Boston, Mass., revealed widespread drinking by juveniles in a number of downtown bars in that city. They also revealed a failure by the licensing authority to take effective action against establishments dispensing alcoholic beverages to youngsters. This condition was not unknown to the local police. Indeed, it was the police who told the subcommittee about it. Neither were the good citizens of Boston indifferent to this hazard to the well-being of their young. But relatively few of them knew of the condition until it was publicized by the subcommittee's public hearings there. Six months later the subcommittee sent two investigators to Boston to do a recheck on conditions in that city. By that time signs prohibiting sales to minors were conspicuously displayed in all taverns. Waiters were scrupulous in checking the ages of youthful-appearing patrons. And not a juvenile could be found at any bar visited. The gap between what was known about a social problem and what was done about it had been closed.

Gang activities.—In general, all communities where hearings were held reported a decrease in gang activity. Many communities had become concerned about gangs a few years ago, some prior to 1950 and others as late as 1951 and 1952. However, diligent work in these cities by law enforcement agencies and a few special projects by social agencies seem to have reduced the problem of juvenile gangs organized for crime.

Among juveniles of certain minority groups, customs, habits of dress, tattoos, haircuts, and other symbols sometimes distinguish one group from another. Psychologically these symbols bolster the ego of the group. These individuals seem to be setting up a society separate from the remainder of the community. In this separate society the members can "rate" and feel secure. They form somewhat of a joint demonstration against the rest of society which they feel disclaims them. Thus the subcommittee found that the "Pachuco" is not so much of a gang as a way of life of one of these minority groups and is characteristic of many young Mexican-American groups in some of our large western cities. Among this group tattoos of all sorts became popular. In many cases the tattoos have organizational significance. For example, a police officer in Los Angeles told the subcommittee that boys who had been in the Preston School of Industry wore a tattoo under their left eye so that former Preston boys could distinguish each other. Within a short time other boys adopted the custom and it became a fad and thereby lost its significance. Some girls have a tattoo between the thumb and forefinger which they wear as evidence that they would be true to a boy friend while he was away in training school for delinquents.

Gang activities appear more often to be organized for a particular occasion or to develop spontaneously around an incident. Boys from two different sections, for example, may become involved in an altercation at a ball park. Each then secures the support of friends and the two groups subsequently meet to do battle. By the time of the battle many participating may not even be aware of the incident, but are just more or less joining for the fun and excitement. Often fights follow athletic events because of intense rivalry and are often joined

by people who are not members of either school. Other so-called gang activities can sometimes be traced to a party-crashing incident or just a group out looking for a little excitement. "Beer busts" and drinking parties lead to other so-called gang activities.

Enforcement of alcohol-control laws, the development of better interschool relationships, and good city recreation planning for all groups appear to be the major tools for control of gangs by local communities. Many cities have accomplished outstanding results in meeting the problem.

Stolen autos

The subcommittee found that the illegal driving of automobiles is increasing in all States and sections of the country. In El Paso County it was learned that Dyer Act cases, involving the illegal operation of a car across State lines, outnumbered any other type of offense in 1953 and that 71 percent of these violations were committed by minors. Twenty-five of the last sixty-six cases placed on Federal probation in that district involved auto thefts and 13 of the 25 were juveniles. The grand jury in El Paso County had been called upon to investigate a situation in which juveniles had become involved in stealing auto parts. These juveniles were a group of boys from the better section of the city whose families had allowed them to own and operate autos. This freedom led to a "jalopy craze." Cars were "souped up" for speed and decorated with various accessories and gadgets. The craze got the better of the youngsters involved and competition among them led them to thefts of accessories from other autos. No doubt it started in an effort to better their own cars but soon developed into a widespread activity of stealing indiscriminately and selling for profit to auto parts dealers. When an arrest was finally made, 62 boys were found to be involved. A campaign by law enforcement authorities, school officials, and parents effectively curbed the problem. This serves as an example of what can happen among a rather good group of teen-agers when spurred on by intense interest and when sufficient guidance or care by parents is lacking. It points up the tremendous drive for excitement that must be recognized among young people and the turn it can take unless there is concerted action by the home and all community services and agencies.

Auto thefts accounted for 26 percent of the cases filed in the juvenile court of San Francisco, Calif. In Chicago, auto offenses were up 29 percent for Cook County and it was reported that 1 out of every 5 juveniles arrested for this offense would come in a second time. The subcommittee heard testimony from the Chicago Police Department on the methods juveniles use to steal cars. A demonstration pointed out the ease with which a boy can put a "jumper" on the back of an ignition lock and thereby start and run the car without a key. It was pointed out that if car manufacturers were required to do so, they could devise a lock that could not be tampered with in this way and thereby remove the temptation of easily jumping the lock and taking the car for a "joy ride."

Adoption practices and black market in babies

Testimony in all community hearings showed that unmarried mothers present a problem to local and State authorities and that the Federal Government should provide leadership to alleviate the evils associated with the problem.

Because unmarried expectant mothers rarely stay in their home communities to bear their children, some cities have a disproportionate share of illegitimate children. Babies for adoption are in great demand so that a lucrative field for the unscrupulous doctor or lawyer exists in these cities if the laws of the State do not adequately cover this field or if recognized, legitimate adoption agencies are not able to provide service. The extent of this problem is shown by the testimony of several witnesses.

Mrs. Helen Robinson, social service director of the Booth Memorial Hospital, Oakland, Calif., told the subcommittee that the 5 Salvation Army hospitals on the west coast served 1,231 unmarried mothers in 1953. She said that 60 percent of the girls served are under 21 years of age and of these, 30 percent are under 18 years of age. Sixty-seven percent of the girls released their babies for adoption.

Chicago is the national headquarters of the Florence Crittenton Homes. Miss Virgil Payne, representing these homes nationally, said that her organization has 51 homes in the United States which serve approximately 5,000 unmarried mothers each year. She emphasized that girls being served by her agency must use a licensed adoption agency if they plan to release their children for adoption. This requirement is insisted upon to eliminate the chance of black-market practices in babies born in the homes.

Miami, Fla., a resort and vacation area, has become a popular haven for unmarried mothers. As a result, statistics show that 1 out of every 20 children born in Dade County is illegitimate. This fact, along with the absence of adequate laws covering adoption procedures in Florida, led to the exploitation of unmarried mothers there on a large scale a few years ago. Miss Caludia Harney, executive secretary of the Catholic Charities Bureau, testified concerning this at the Miami community hearing.

Miss Harney told of the New York lawyer who organized a ring to deal in babies born in Miami. Due to the lack of law covering this traffic in Florida, he could not be prosecuted in the State. Miss Harney's organization developed evidence which was turned over to New York authorities who prosecuted and convicted members of the ring for violation of the New York Social Welfare Code. The publicity given this investigation and prosecution has driven such operations underground but it is the opinion of those interviewed in Miami that a black market still exists.

Mrs. Dorothy Gearin, a medical social worker at Jackson Memorial Hospital in Dade County, is one who recognizes the seriousness of the problem and the fact that babies are still sold for profit. She related that the proportion of babies being placed through private doctors has become greater during recent years. Jackson Memorial Hospital recently had 7 unmarried mothers as patients during 1 week. Five of these had private doctors handling the adoption of the baby and only two had resorted to recognized adoption agencies. Miss Harney and Mrs. Gearin concurred in the view that the problem of black market in babies still exists in Dade County. Both insist that the Federal Government has a responsibility in the solution of the problem, especially where interstate traffic in babies is concerned.

Recommendations

These illustrations of special problems confronting communities, drawn from testimony received by the subcommittee, are also touched

upon in many instances and even expanded upon in other sections of this report. Recommendations contained in other sections would do much to ameliorate a number of these special problems. The training program recommended under the section entitled, "Leadership Role of the Federal Government," for example, should strengthen police work and many other services in local communities.

Over and beyond the recommendations contained in the other sections and relative to the special problems encountered in its community hearings, the subcommittee recommends that:

1. Legislation be enacted or steps taken, by the Department of State under present legislation, to restrict the border crossing of juveniles and minors into areas where law enforcement with regard to narcotics, liquor, prostitution and "fencing" is lax. Military authorities should also restrict military personnel from crossing into these areas by limiting passes and furloughs. Under present policy, military personnel are preyed upon in certain areas in border communities by prostitutes, narcotic peddlers, and unscrupulous bar and nightclub operators.

2. The interstate transportation of babies for adoption, without approval of State welfare authorities, should also be restricted to curb the high incidence of black-market baby adoptions.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

The schools represent the one agency in every community which reaches virtually all children and youth. The schools, therefore, represent a strategic point in which to locate and help children headed toward delinquency. The elementary schools, working with children in their early formative years, could and should play a particularly crucial role in this process.

The overcrowded conditions prevailing in our classrooms resulting from the dramatic increase in the number of school-age children in this country are well known. This national problem was graphically illustrated again and again in the course of the subcommittee's community hearings. Los Angeles County, for example, is experiencing an increased school enrollment of startling proportions. With something like 200,000 children even now attending school on a part-time basis because of overcrowded and overtaxed facilities, the county of Los Angeles would have to dedicate a new 1,300-pupil school every Monday morning of the year in order to merely keep abreast of increased enrollments.

In San Diego, Calif., where the school population increased about 10 percent in the last year, the arrival of new families into the area, if the present rate remains constant, will mean that every 100 children beginning in the first grade will number 160 by the time they reach the sixth grade in school. The schools of Dade County, Fla., must, in some way or other, find seats for 300 additional schoolchildren every week of the year.

These examples are but a few illustrations of the problem of crisis proportions confronting our Nation's schools. It is a problem for which large additional funds will be required to resolve. Average costs for the provision of a new schoolhouse alone average around \$1,000 per pupil. Budgets must also be expanded for the provision of teachers and needed special services.

It is only through the provision of necessary special services that children displaying symptoms of maladjustment can be given the aid needed to prevent these children from becoming confirmed delinquents or from other forms of serious social and emotional maladjustment. It has been repeated by experienced observers that a large majority of youngsters who become delinquent are the same individuals who as younger children gave concern because of their behavior to their elementary schoolteachers. Even in the lower elementary school grades these children often did not fit in with their fellows. The "hurt" that comes with failure to be accepted by one's peers causes the individual to either withdraw or struggle the harder to gain attention. Acts of mischief and defiance by the more aggressive maladjusted youngster win approval from the more timid who tend to withdraw. Feeling hurt and left out, they must have somebody to blame, to get even with, someone to attack. The bitterness, anger and antagonism engendered and enlarged by nonacceptance is transferred to new situations as they move into new groups and new experiences. The longer this process goes on the more difficult it is to help the child find a more constructive role which he can play and for which he receives approval. Observation of this process has led many people to feel that it is already too late to help such children when they come into contact with the police and juvenile courts.

Despite general agreement that much could and should be done to help children who are experiencing problems in the elementary school grades, little such help is provided. The truth of this generalization may be pointed up by the presentation of a few illustrations from the subcommittee's community hearings. In the schools of El Paso, Tex., for example, real progress had been made in increasing the number of school counselors to work with children displaying special problems. However, none of the school counselors were assigned to work with elementary school-age children. A school psychologist is available to give advice to elementary schoolteachers, but in the absence of counselors or visiting teachers no work could be undertaken with the family of the elementary-age problem child. A cut in the school budget in San Francisco had forced the school department to decrease its staff, both counselors and teachers. The schools in Dade County, Fla., provide 17 counselors to work with a school population of 100,000 pupils.

Junior and senior high schools

The adjustment problems observed but not remedied during the elementary school years oftentimes become more aggravated and acute as children move into junior and senior high school. A large number of youth suffering from such problems become school dropouts. Testimony received indicates that the largest number of dropouts occur at the 10th-grade level. The subcommittee found school administrators quite concerned about school dropouts and in several communities making efforts to find ways and means of keeping potential dropouts in school. There is interest in several communities, for example, in what is known as the 6-2, 5-3, and 4-4 school program. Under this program youngsters are required to attend school 6, 5, or 4 hours per day depending upon the individual case, and permitted to work on various jobs in the community on a 2, 3, or 4 hour per day basis. Good results are reported in that where such programs have been

tried it has been found that the number of school dropouts has decreased. A serious problem confronting the development of these programs is the limited number of suitable work opportunities available to schoolchildren.

The school authorities in San Francisco testified to the need for a boarding school program for youngsters lacking the kind of support within their homes which would enable them to continue school work. The interest of many of these youngsters in continuing in school could be stimulated by placing them in a group-living situation in which a certain amount of education and training could be introduced as a part of their 24-hour-a-day living experience. A proposal to secure State appropriations for the establishment of such boarding schools was defeated in the last session of the California Legislature. The subcommittee was interested in the school camping program which it learned about in the course of its San Diego hearing. The school system of San Diego operates two mountain camps and all school classes from the sixth grade through high school, accompanied by a teacher, spend a week during the school term at camp. The administrators of this program felt that the camp experience served several valuable purposes, including the development of closer student-teacher relationships which in turn was an invaluable aid in promoting student adjustment.

Testimony was received about crime prevention programs which are being conducted in a number of junior and senior high schools. In both New York and Chicago, for example, these programs have included instruction on the dangers of barbiturates and narcotic addiction. The crime prevention bureau in Chicago sponsors assembly programs in the schools where well-known personalities, particularly sports figures or other individuals who might represent heroes to youth, are brought to speak. The speakers are asked to emphasize the values of good citizenship and the dangers of delinquency and crime.

The lack of specialized services already noted in connection with the elementary schools of the Nation holds equally true in most instances for junior and senior high schools. The large majority of elementary, junior and senior high school students represents normally adjusted youngsters who are on their way to becoming normal law-abiding, adult citizens. It is much to the credit of our schools that these students are coming into adulthood with an everexpanding knowledge and understanding of the world in which they live and of its problems. Such added knowledge is indispensable to the quality of citizenship which will be required to meet the problems of mounting world complexity.

There are, however, a small number, estimated to be between 5 and 10 percent, of the school population which experience real problems in that setting in adjusting to their fellow students, to their teachers and to the curriculum. The boys and girls actually flowing through this Nation's juvenile courts are, for the most part, drawn from the ranks of this small group. Unless and until society provides services designed and capable to reach and aid this group in working out their problems of adjustment, it will continue to bypass its most strategic opportunity to help those youngsters most vulnerable to delinquency.

The subcommittee believes that action should be taken along the following lines in order to plug this gaping hole in our Nation's defenses against delinquency:

1. Additional classroom space must be provided as rapidly as possible. Too large classrooms and part-time school sessions confound the problem of giving assistance to the maladjusted pupil. The subcommittee believes that the proportions of this problem require that immediate and substantial Federal aid be provided for school construction.

2. The provision of special services, including remedial classes, testing and counseling services, must be given high priority. The proposals of the subcommittee for giving aid to local communities in combating juvenile delinquency, outlined under the section of this report entitled "Leadership Role of the Federal Government," should be of assistance in the development of such special services.

3. The subcommittee believes that there should be further expansion of such special programs as trade schools and combination school-work projects.

COMMUNITY SERVICE

Preventive and protective service

The delinquent behavior of a child is in itself eloquent testimony that no community agency has been able to reach and help him. This does not mean that these self-same agencies have not helped other children, but the testimony garnered through community hearings supports the contention that the child obviously headed for delinquency alienates himself from the community's organized services.

Mrs. Thurman Whiteside, chairman, Mayor's Committee of Fifty, Coral Gables, Fla., in her testimony before the subcommittee in Miami, summarized very well the testimony of countless workers in the field of aid to delinquent children, when she said:

The delinquent child is usually an aggressive child, one who acts out his feelings of hostility toward a world which he feels has deprived him of the sense of being wanted and needed and uniquely loved. His reaction is to hit out at such a world. * * * He cannot seek help, it must be brought to him where and when it can touch him. * * * And I think that is equally true of the parents of a delinquent child.

Speaking of this same problem, Miss Basilla Neilan, director of Citizens of Tomorrow, Freedom House, Roxbury, Mass., who has had successful experience in reaching the child in need of character building and social adjustment aids, pointed out:

There is need for social agencies, not to wait for the boy, who is nonconformist, to come to their door and knock. * * * We have to stop waiting inside; we have to go outside and find them.

Out of its visits to numerous communities the subcommittee is convinced that there are growing efforts on the part of various agencies to reach and help the "unreached" boy and girl. The following represent a few examples of such efforts:

Mr. Evelio Grillo informed the subcommittee during its hearing in San Francisco about a recreational and group work project which he directed for the Oakland, Calif., Recreation Department. The city of Oakland has a progressive and well organized recreation department. It operates programs at park recreation facilities, playgrounds,

and athletic fields, which traditionally fall within the scope of a recreation department. In addition, the Oakland department conducts 108 centers that in many cities might be operated by private agencies, such as settlements, boys' clubs, and church mission centers.

These centers in some cases were located in high delinquency rate areas but did not reach the youngsters most in need. These "unreached" youngsters, known to the police, to the courts and sometimes to institutions were also known to the centers. These youngsters became known to the centers as they moved in and out of the center but never became a real part of the program. Mr. Grillo organized and trained a staff and moved into a center in one of the highest delinquency rate areas with the express purpose of reaching the youngsters in trouble or about to get into trouble.

The story of the success of this project is most promising. It is the story of reaching out and bringing into the center a group of 135 young people who had not been participating in the center's activities before, and of how, at the same time, the staff handled the threat posed by this group with the result that other and less aggressive youngsters began to withdraw. It took great skill and effort to keep the confidence and good will of the community as well as the diverse groups of youngsters. As a pilot project it has set a pattern for other centers in Oakland. It is a pattern that recreational and group work agencies everywhere might use to reach the difficult youngster who is uninvolved in the usual program because he doesn't know how to ask for and receive help.

At one point in his testimony Mr. Grillo said,

You think of a delinquency group, in a sense, as being split off, that there is society at large, and here is a delinquency group in conflict with society, there is a gap between them. You hope to build the bridges so that society can incorporate them, so that they can feel there is a place for them.

Then he went on to relate how individuals had reacted to having this bridge built for them by the recreation department, how many eventually joined in church work and took an active interest in community affairs. One boy came back after having gone to college and became a worker for the project.

Father Harold Rahn, a Catholic priest in El Paso, Tex., related to the subcommittee his success in reaching youngsters in the south side congested area of the city. The club he conducted in connection with his parish appeared to be reaching youngsters on the verge of serious difficulty. Warmth and sincerity of interest seemed to be his main tool in attracting these individuals. Dignity and spiritual influence along with a noncensoring approach enabled him to deal with the most difficult cases and still have them come back to the center. He was able to hold them until he had strengthened the relationship enough to get the boys to accept his standards.

The Wharton Center, in Philadelphia, organized a project called Operation Street Corner. The center sent workers out to become loiterers with boys who were not attending the center. The boys after becoming accustomed to these workers, were gradually led into contact with the center and finally became a part of its activities. Generally the worker would endeavor to identify himself with a natural grouping of boys and stay with them until they were brought into the center's program.

Mr. John J. Green who organized 33 natural groupings in Philadelphia, testified that his greatest problem was to overcome an "anti" feeling which seems to be a predominant characteristic of these groups. They are antileader, antisocial, anticity and antieverything. These groups of youths are bound together by tremendous loyalty, born from this common feeling of antagonism and rejection. Distinctive dress, haircuts, or tattoos sometimes became their badges of defiance.

The county probation department in Los Angeles was given funds to form a group-guidance unit to work with hard-to-reach groups. The work of the unit has involved establishing relationships with natural groups of children and working them into established recreational programs. It was found that hostile feeling between such groups often stemmed from unfortunate remarks or slights suffered by the members of one group at the hands of another. These small incidents, magnified by rumor gossip, many times led to gang fights. Workers found that, by acting as go-betweens, they could often avert fights between so-called gangs, and by carrying the relationship a little farther develop wholesome competition between groups through sports and other recreational activities.

Dr. Clifford Shaw has given leadership in developing the Chicago Area Projects, Inc., which works in blighted areas in the city. His theory is that youth in these areas will respond to leadership of their own people, with whom they can identify themselves, such as the block hero, the groceryman, druggist, or professional man of the neighborhood. By the same token, youth resists outsiders be they social workers, philanthropists or other well-meaning people who might want to influence them. The Chicago Area Project, therefore, sends workers into the communities who are skilled in securing the cooperation of people who live in the neighborhood. These people are enlisted to take an interest in their own young people. When these local citizens are interested, they are organized into a committee and from then on operate by themselves, except for counseling as needed.

Miss Betty Johnson, director of child welfare in Denver, explained a project in aggressive casework, which her department set up 2½ years ago to reach children before breakdown occurs. The police, the court, and other agencies, referred cases when known family conditions left children unprotected, due to drunkenness of the parents or quarrels in the home. These are families which have failed to cooperate with voluntary agencies. By judicious handling of the cases by trained personnel, most parents are brought around to bettering the situation. This agency has handled 1,500 cases during the period of the project.

Miss Johnson is very enthusiastic about the project and recommends that cases in which a child is making his first appearance in juvenile court be handled in the same manner. She feels many second appearances could be avoided.

Edmund J. Cooley, director of social welfare in San Diego, has employed seven trained professional caseworkers who work in the community on a protective and preventive basis. Each worker is assigned to a district where the delinquency rate is high. The worker concentrates on working with families wherein there are conditions which suggest future difficulty for the child. He may sometimes

secure the interest of several parents in common problems and conduct group meetings over coffee to discuss them. In addition to the parent-education program, the worker is in a position to steer children to agencies and community activities and help parents meet immediate problems.

The few examples of projects specially designed to reach children particularly vulnerable to delinquency could be multiplied many times. Members of the subcommittee are encouraged by and commend this expanding and badly needed development.

These illustrations of what can and is being done to help these children should in no wise obscure the given fact that very little exists nationwide in the way of services which are truly protective in nature. In community after community, the typical pattern is to permit cases to progress until the boy or girl concerned is in serious difficulty. In the average community there is no agency to which the police, school officials, or others can refer cases in which there is evidence of difficulty, knowing that the agency has the staff and know-how to take hold of the situation and repair it if humanly possible.

In the course of its work the subcommittee was struck with this serious lack again and again. A few examples drawn from testimony may serve to illustrate this lack.

In California, each county probation department is charged with the responsibility of providing protective services for children. The increase in population and the consequent increase in probation case loads with insufficient budgetary increases to employ more case workers, has resulted in a loss of these services. Mr. Phillip Green, chief probation officer in San Francisco, said:

With the expansion of our (delinquency) problem in San Francisco it became necessary to transfer those probation officers from the preventive and special services division to the boy and delinquency division to help take up the slack in the heavy load.

Mr. Heman Stark of the California Youth Authority observed, "We are almost entirely lacking in protective casework services, in California."

The subcommittee was informed in Chicago that Cook County has 11,000 children in need of care outside their own homes. These are dependent and neglected children; 7,400 of these children are cared for by private agencies and the public agencies care for 2,500 more. This leaves 1,000 children who are unserved. These 1,000 children are living in recognized substandard homes under conditions that it is firmly believed will produce delinquency. Some are in temporary homes and shelters, some in detention homes designed for temporary care for delinquents and others are in the county hospital.

In El Paso, Tex., an immigration worker told of Mexican fathers, who leave their families in Mexico, come into the United States by illegal entry, and seek work as migrant workers. They may send money home at first, but eventually they acquire new interests and have a second family here. Immigration officials locate many of these men each year and under the laws of the United States, deport them. This means that the families of these men become dependent upon the agencies of the country. He estimated that there are some 200,000 children of such family situations in the Central and Western States.

The public welfare department in Philadelphia, the subcommittee was told, has a caseload of about 10,000 children. The department was very much concerned because some 2,500 of these children are mentally retarded and in need of institutional care and special training outside of public day schools. Mr. Randolph Wise, commissioner of public welfare, pointed out the dire lack of adequate facilities for the care of such children. Waiting periods for admission to an appropriate institution averaged slightly more than 5 years.

Summary

Virtually all of the problems discussed under this section of the subcommittee's report are also treated under the section entitled "Special Problems." This brief survey of conditions found in local communities may serve to illustrate the broader discussions contained in that section.

The firsthand views which the subcommittee obtained of both problems and progress in many communities has served to strengthen its members' conviction that ways and means must be found to give local communities more effective assistance in meeting the growing juvenile delinquency problem.

VI. LEADERSHIP ROLE OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

The stakes involved in this Nation's fight against juvenile delinquency are enormous. The struggle relates not only to the millions of boys and girls who will become delinquent in the next 5 years, but uncounted millions of future generations. Affecting as it does the very well-being of our Nation, the subcommittee is convinced that the Federal Government should and must assume a more vigorous leadership role if this war is to be brought to a successful conclusion.

The nature of the juvenile-delinquency problem nationwide provides no basis for assuming that it will in some way resolve itself. The delinquent acts of the increasing number of boys and girls flowing through our police departments, courts, and institutions do not reflect normal growing pains or youthful exuberance which will be outgrown in the course of natural events.

It is true now as it has been in the past that a segment of these boys and girls will manage as adults to function well enough in society to stay out of the clutches of the law. A few will even become outstanding citizens. But unless something is done to break the age-old pattern, an ever-mounting number will as adults find their way into prisons and mental hospitals, at ghastly expense to the taxpayers. Nor will these expenses comprise total costs even in terms of dollars and cents to say nothing of the heartbreak and human waste involved.

Experience teaches that a substantial number of those whose adult behavior permits them to live outside walls will become and in turn produce children as marginal members of society. As parents with unresolved personal problems of real magnitude, their children will repeat the parents' own childhood experiences of rejection, neglect, and all too often juvenile delinquency. Unless ways and means to break this vicious cycle are applied, and in sufficient measure to be effective, an ever enlarging number of inadequate parents will be rearing children in such manner as to produce more inadequate people.

The subcommittee feels that this is no time for timid, tentative, or partial measures. The problem to be resolved requires a bold, imaginative, and flexible attack of sufficient scope and magnitude to exert a real impact.

The subcommittee reiterates its belief that primary responsibility for preventing and treating juvenile delinquency is, by its very nature, first a local and secondly a State responsibility. That this is and will continue to be true is evident as the primary causes of juvenile delinquency and the type of corrective action required to reach these causes are reviewed.

As indicated in an earlier section of this report, juvenile delinquency is a product of negative influences and conditions operating in the child's own home, school, neighborhood, and local community. A program of prevention, to be effective, must be capable of achieving either one or both of two closely related goals. It must reach into the home or school or neighborhood and modify negative influences and conditions, or it must reach the child himself and strengthen his resistance to such influences and conditions.

The rehabilitation of the juvenile delinquent, except for certain violators of Federal laws, is the task of the local courts, law-enforcement and social-welfare agencies. These agencies may, in turn, utilize certain State services such as training schools and State after-care or parole programs. A program designed to improve the process of rehabilitation to be effective must reach the local police, courts, social agencies, State institutions and related services in such manner as to strengthen their programs.

Elsewhere in this report the subcommittee recommends Federal legislation directed to a variety of problems falling within Federal jurisdiction. The majority of these are interstate problems which are beyond the jurisdiction of any one State. The subcommittee is strongly convinced, however, that the Federal Government's concern and responsibility relative to juvenile delinquency is not and cannot be confined to those aspects of the problem which are essentially interstate in nature. Important though these aspects be, the seriousness and size of the juvenile delinquency problem requires that the Federal Government assume responsibility for the provision of programs designed to and capable of strengthening local and State programs and service.

This is not a matter of the Federal Government taking over. Rather it reflects clear recognition that our national welfare is intimately involved in this problem and that there are certain kinds of remedial action required which only the Federal Government has the power and resources to take.

The subcommittee also believes that the role of the Federal Government and the actions required to discharge its responsibilities relative to a social problem which, like juvenile delinquency, is primarily a local problem, should not be constant and unvarying, but subject to change as the problem changes in size and nature. In outlining the following recommendations for Federal action, the subcommittee has spelled out what it believes is required under present circumstances and relative to the existing juvenile-delinquency problem. For this reason a time limitation is suggested for certain portions of the program of Federal action recommended by the subcommittee.

In general terms the program recommended to enable the Federal Government to discharge the leadership responsibilities required to help local communities meet today's problem of juvenile delinquency consists of four parts: (1) Coordinating national planning and efforts to combat juvenile delinquency, (2) enlarging technical aid to States and local communities, (3) stimulating training of personnel to staff preventive and treatment services, and (4) providing "risk capital" for the development or expansion of programs for combating juvenile delinquency.

COORDINATED NATIONAL PLANNING AND ACTION

A vast array of national organizations and agencies are concerned and more or less active in combating juvenile delinquency. For purposes of this report these can be roughly grouped into five types: (1) Religious organizations and agencies, (2) youth-serving organizations—local constituents serve youth directly—such as Boy Scouts, YMCA, and so forth; (3) citizens groups such as PTA, American Legion, women's clubs, and so forth; (4) consultative agencies which provide technical consultation to States and local communities on one or more phases of delinquency control—the major consultative agencies include the National Probation and Parole Association, the Child Welfare League of America, the American Public Welfare Association, the Industrial Areas Project, the Family Service Association of America and the Children's Bureau and the National Institute of Mental Health of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; and (5) the professional organizations with memberships consisting of persons whose profession is in some way or another related to the field such as the American Bar Association, the American Association of Social Workers, the National Council of Juvenile Court Judges, the International Association of Chiefs of Police, and the National Association of Training Schools and Juvenile Agencies. The present program of the above types of agencies, such as the youth serving agencies are considered in other sections of this report. Of particular concern here are the consultative agencies which are most active in formulating standards for local services and programs designed to prevent delinquency and rehabilitate the young offender. Though they are relatively few in number, a serious lack of coordination in their planning and action prevails. On November 17, 1954, the subcommittee called the heads of 18 agencies, consultative and professional, to meet together in an effort to learn what they thought was nationally needed to meet the growing juvenile delinquency problem. Many helpful suggestions were received but the unvarnished fact is that these agencies as a group have not formulated a national plan for action to which each might relate its own planning nor have they agreed upon priorities for filling the various needs which all agree exist.

The combined resources of these agencies fall far short of meeting present demands for technical advice and consultation. There is, therefore, no real surplus in service even where the programs of these agencies overlap. Serious leadership gaps exist, however, in that there are certain types of community action and programs which should be stimulated which are totally neglected by existing national agencies.

Forward movement in filling gaps and in extending present services is seriously handicapped by the lack of joint planning among the agencies concerned. All or nearly all approach philanthropic foundations for funds to extend and expand programs. These requests, oftentimes to the same foundations, are both overlapping and sometimes conflicting. As a result, foundations sometimes refuse to grant funds which would be made available if priorities were established and a plan evolved which provided for agreement on which agency is to do what.

The subcommittee is pleased to have been informed by Mr. Robert Bondy, executive secretary of the Social Welfare Assembly that after the subcommittee's meeting of November 17, plans were initiated looking toward the creation of a national coordinating and planning mechanism, probably consisting of a council or committee composed of representatives of the several national agencies involved. Initial planning is being undertaken by the assembly although the committee or council, if formed, may or may not function as a part of the assembly. The subcommittee commends the assembly for its action in this matter.

As was pointed out at the subcommittee's meeting, one of the difficulties heretofore has been the fact that not all disciplines and agencies intimately related to the problem of juvenile delinquency have had available a "common roof" for meeting together for planning and coordinating purposes. In relation to the National Social Welfare Assembly, for example, the American Bar Association, the National Council of Juvenile Court Judges, the National Association of Training Schools and Juvenile Agencies, the International Association of Chiefs of Police, and the Industrial Areas Project are not members. Yet their participation in the planning and coordination process are vital for its success.

This, of course, is only a relatively minor obstacle. The subcommittee is confident that given the will to succeed, the ingenuity will be found to devise an effective mechanism for harnessing together the all too few national resources now dedicated to the fight against juvenile delinquency. The subcommittee hopes that any encouragement it has been able to give, or can now give, for intensified endeavors on the part of those working for an early solution to this problem will bear fruit.

This lack of national planning also affects the formulation of programs and activities for the Federal Government. The private national consultative agencies have a significant contribution to make to the planning of Federal programs in this field. The same is true of those professional organizations whose members provide services which will be directly affected by such programs. Yet, to date no means for systematically bringing them into such planning has been provided.

Technical aid and consultation relative to juvenile delinquency from the Federal Government is provided primarily through its Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Three constituent units of that Department are or should be most directly involved: The Children's Bureau, the National Institute of Mental Health, and the Office of Education. The programs of the latter two relate to juvenile delinquency as a problem which bears upon and is a part

of a specialized program focus. The program of the Children's Bureau, at least on paper, encompasses the total problem.

To bring the values of joint national planning to at least the primary Federal consultative and technical-aid programs, the subcommittee recommends the establishment, by legislation, of an Advisory Council on Juvenile Delinquency to the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare. This council should consist in addition to outstanding lay citizens, of the heads, or in certain cases other representatives, of national agencies and organizations offering related standard-setting, consultative, and technical-aid programs. As a minimum, the council should include representatives of the National Probation and Parole Association, the American Public Welfare Association, the Child Welfare League of America, the Industrial Areas Projects, the American Bar Association, the National Council of Juvenile Court Judges, the International Association of Chiefs of Police, the National Association of Training Schools and Juvenile Agencies, and the American Association of Social Workers. The council should consist of not less than 25 members and should meet not less than twice yearly.

In recommending the establishment of such a council, the subcommittee is not unmindful of the work heretofore performed by the Interdepartmental Committee on Children and Youth, which has a subcommittee on juvenile delinquency. The interdepartmental committee is—or should be—concerned with joint coordination and planning among all Federal agencies with respect to Federal programs affecting children and youth. The creation of this new Advisory Council of Juvenile Delinquency would not impinge upon the activities of that committee. As a matter of fact, the subcommittee is of the opinion that there is need for greatly strengthening the interdepartmental committee. The subcommittee is somewhat disappointed at the lack of effective results in joint planning and coordination of Federal programs affecting children and youth heretofore produced through the coordinating device of the interdepartmental committee. Surely this should be a method of working out such problems of effective methods by which the Defense Department could screen youths who had previously been before the juvenile court or in getting the United States Employment Service and the Department of Labor, the Department of Commerce, the Office of Education to work together on a farsighted program to benefit youths entering the employment market. To date, it has not undertaken such essential tasks.

Perhaps one reason for the ineffectiveness of the interdepartmental committee is its lack of status. To increase its status, the subcommittee recommends that the Interdepartmental Committee on Children and Youth be established either by Executive order of the President, or, failing that, by legislation as in the case of the President's Committee on Employment of the Physically Handicapped. In addition, a small, vigorous, and imaginative staff should be employed by the Children's Bureau to act as the secretariat of the committee. If these steps are taken, and if heads of departments and agencies designated to serve on the interdepartmental committee take a personal and active interest in its workings, the subcommittee feels that it would then become a worthy complement to the proposed Advisory Committee on Juvenile Delinquency.

FEDERAL RESPONSIBILITY TO ASSIST LOCAL AND STATE SERVICES

The community hearings conducted by the subcommittee supplemented by the large array of data secured by other means about communities from coast to coast lead the subcommittee to the following grim conclusions. Juvenile delinquency has increased seriously and widely in every type of American community during the past 5 years. Local efforts and programs to combat the problem fall far short of coping with it. Efforts in the local communities and States to enlarge existing and develop new programs to combat juvenile delinquency are seriously handicapped in several ways. There is oftentimes a lack of technical knowledge locally regarding what has and hasn't worked in other communities. Rapid strides have been made in technical knowledge which is not yet widely transmitted. Secondly, a sufficient supply of qualified personnel are not available to staff even existing services. Thirdly, communities often lack the conviction and ready means necessary to produce the financial support needed to expand or launch programs.

To break through this kind of a stalemate, the Federal Government must launch a three-pronged attack. It must provide increased consultation or technical aid, it must give assistance in attracting and training personnel, and, finally, it must temporarily provide the "risk capital" needed for local organizations and agencies to launch and demonstrate the value of new services and programs.

The subcommittee therefore recommends the enactment of legislation to establish such a program in the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

PROVISION OF RISK CAPITAL

The funds to be granted under such a program for demonstrations should be channeled to States through State councils or committees established by the governors or the legislators of the respective States, for the purpose of cooperating in such a program. The State councils should include but not be limited to representatives of State and local agencies providing preventive and treatment services. The device of a State council or committee rather than an existing State agency is proposed here because a variety of types of agencies, organizations and disciplines should participate in planning and carrying out the program.

Although grants to a variety of State and local agencies might be approved by the State council, all such grants, to be most effective, should be predicated upon a State plan developed by the council and should be allocated according to needs and priorities stipulated in that plan.

The subcommittee does not contemplate the Federal Government underwriting existing programs. Rather funds made available to States for utilization as risk capital should be used solely to launch and temporarily support new services only.

Prevention is a broad term which requires definition if the program envisioned is to develop sufficient focus to exert real impact. The subcommittee is fully aware that any program which protects children from the ravages of neglect and rejection or from exposure to vice and lawlessness helps prevent juvenile delinquency. In the last analysis,

it is these kinds of protective services which are most basic and fundamental, and, accordingly the subcommittee recommends, elsewhere in this report, a number of specific measures aimed to better protect and safeguard all children.

It would be overly optimistic, however, to assume that society will be able to control all negative influences immediately and thereby abruptly stop creating in a substantial number of youngsters a high degree of vulnerability to delinquency. Neither can society proceed to discard its delinquent and delinquency-prone children. Indeed, we cannot afford in terms of conserving either human resources or dollars and cents to do less than throw our full potential into the fight to save such children from criminal careers.

The subcommittee therefore proposes that the "risk capital" grants for demonstrations contemplated under this program be directed and restricted to the establishment of services to achieve these two purposes. It is further recommended that the program itself be limited in duration to no more than 10 years, but that its value be reexamined at the end of 5 years and a report on the desirability of its extension be made to the Congress at that time. In the determination of the nature and extent of such a program, the subcommittee feels that the Advisory Committee on Juvenile Delinquency, recommended above, would be of great assistance to the Secretary of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Training personnel

The training of greater numbers of qualified personnel to staff prevention and treatment agencies means both expanding certain training programs and the launching of new ones. Schools of social work, law schools, sociology and psychology departments all provide training which partially prepares people for work in the delinquency field. Almost without exception, however, the training offered needs to be supplemented in terms of content and, in some instances, in methodology to qualify personnel for certain functions within the field.

For still other positions such as that of institutional house-parents or, in the vast majority of States, of juvenile police officers, there are no resources for training. Many institutions and police departments attempt to provide some on-the-job training and orientation and although such training is valuable, it is no substitute for the intensive and comprehensive training needed for persons charged with the crucial task of protecting and rehabilitating children in trouble.

To remove the bottleneck to improving the Nation's attack upon juvenile delinquency imposed by the lack of trained and qualified personnel to man its defenses, the subcommittee recommends the establishment of a program, to be administered by the Children's Bureau under which grants would be made to States, selected educational institutions and students to extend, establish, and further the training of personnel for work in the prevention and treatment of juvenile delinquency.

However, since the training of personnel for work in the field of juvenile delinquency is, in the opinion of the subcommittee, of such prime importance, the subcommittee also recommends that, for no more than 2 years, the Children's Bureau itself be authorized to provide, or arrange for the provision of short-term courses of training for those working in the field. The subcommittee views this function,

insofar as the Federal Government is concerned, as a temporary and emergency activity designed to relieve an acute shortage and as an aid to the States in getting their own training programs underway.

TECHNICAL AID

This report refers repeatedly to the disproportionate gap in this field between what is known about preventing and treating delinquency and what is done about it. The subcommittee has given much time to analyzing ways and means of closing that gap. It is believed that the temporary pump-priming program outlined above will contribute immeasurably to that end. An additional safeguard to its realization, however, requires that the meager supply of technical guidance and assistance from the Federal Government be augmented.

In its first interim report, submitted March 1, 1954, the subcommittee recommended that the consultative services of the Children's Bureau relative to juvenile delinquency be expanded. The Congress subsequently appropriated \$75,000 for this purpose. This sum was sufficient to enable the Children's Bureau to establish a juvenile delinquency division which will ultimately consist of 17 new positions. The subcommittee is understandably disturbed at the slowness with which the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare has moved in getting this new Division underway. The Department's recruitment problems point up again the lack of trained personnel to work in the field of juvenile delinquency. The additional appropriation of \$75,000 for the Children's Bureau's consultative services is a promising beginning, but does not meet even existing demands for technical materials and services.

The subcommittee therefore recommends that additional funds be appropriated in an amount sufficient realistically, in view of the size of the problem, to create the resources for technical aid consistent with Federal responsibility for helping to protect the well-being of our young citizens.

VII. FEDERAL PROGRAMS FOR THE TREATMENT OF JUVENILE DELINQUENTS AND YOUTHFUL OFFENDERS

The Federal statutes for handling juvenile delinquents and youthful offenders have grown like Topsy. There seems to be no rhyme or reason for much of what is being done other than the fact that those responsible for getting a job done have been too busy to stand back and take a second look at what it is they are supposed to be doing and whether it is helping or hurting children. The resulting system is unnecessarily costly to the Federal Government, which all too often finds itself doing a job which has been shunted off onto it by many States. The use of the word "system" to describe present hit-or-miss practices is actually a misnomer. How a juvenile or youth who runs afoul of the Federal law is handled depends on a large number of chance factors, very few of which are related to the objective of rehabilitating the individual.

How haphazard the system is can readily be seen if we consider the situation of an individual in State X who finds a wallet in the street. In it he finds a check. He forges an endorsement and attempts to cash it but is arrested in the attempt.

If it turns out that the check had been issued by a private individual, the forger is handled in the criminal or juvenile courts of the State, depending on his age. In that situation, if he must be institutionalized, he is sent to a State-operated institution.

But if, by chance, the check is one which has been issued by the Federal Government, it may then become a Federal case and the forger is all too often handled by the Federal authorities. This may be true even though his act constitutes a crime under the laws of the State of X. For example, in the fiscal year 1954, 29 persons 18 years of age or under were received in Federal correctional institutions as a result of forgery charges and 648 for theft of a motor vehicle. And this despite the fact that forgery and theft are crimes under the laws of every State in the Union.

But even if the forger is handled by the Federal authorities, there is still no certainty as to the manner in which his case will be disposed.

If the forger is a youth under the age of 18 he may, or he may not, be treated as a juvenile delinquent. The decision rests with the Attorney General, in whose discretion the determination is left by a statute which sets forth no criteria whatsoever governing the Attorney General's action. The Attorney General, sitting in Washington, acting upon a recommendation received from the United States district attorney, must determine whether to proceed with respect to such individual as a juvenile delinquent or under the criminal statutes.

Even if handled as a juvenile delinquent, and committed to the Attorney General as such, a boy or girl has no certainty that he might not be confined in a Federal penitentiary established for hardened criminals. Many do. During fiscal year 1954, 21 persons committed to the Attorney General under the Federal Juvenile Delinquency Act were confined in Federal penitentiaries, and 419 found themselves confined in Federal reformatories.

If the forger is below the age of 22, and is not below the age of 18 (where he may be treated as a juvenile delinquent), the determination as to whether or not he will be handled as a youthful offender under the newly operative Federal Youth Corrections Act or under the regular criminal procedures is made by the Federal district court, if the offense were committed in a State east of the Mississippi where the Youth Corrections Act is operative. If west of the Mississippi, his case must at the present time be handled under regular criminal procedures.

And while these determinations with respect to the handling of his case are being made, the forger, even though he may be a juvenile, may find himself being detained in a jail with hardened criminals. During the fiscal year 1954, 1,533 juveniles under 18 years of age were confined in jails while awaiting disposition of their cases by Federal courts. Some of these juveniles were as young as 14 years of age.

If the forger should be placed on probation by the Federal district court, he finds himself then coming under the jurisdiction of a probation officer who is appointed by and is responsible to the judge of the district court. The probation officer performs a multiplicity of tasks and is answerable to several masters. Prior to disposition by the court, he may be required to make a presentence study of the offender for the court's use. Parole and prerelease studies of prospective home and work situations are supposed to be made for the Bureau of Prisons and the Board of Parole relative to offenders about to be

released by them. Those released on parole become the responsibility of Federal probation officers who presumably give them continuing supervision. Periodic reports on their progress are submitted to the Board of Parole. Similar services in behalf of released offenders are provided for the Armed Forces, and in behalf of persons released from Federal narcotics hospitals operated by the Public Health Service.

In his daily work, therefore, the probation officer finds himself providing services for several different agencies. Adding to the confusing relationship structure because of the multiplicity of agencies involved in the work performed by the probation officer is the fact that the probation officer has under his supervision juvenile, youths, and adults. No attempt is made to differentiate.

This then is the patchwork of laws and procedures under which juvenile delinquents and youthful offenders are presently being handled by the Federal Government. The subcommittee believes that the system needs much strengthening and revision to make it an effective means of rehabilitating those children and youth who have taken the first step along the road to criminal careers.

DIVERSION TO STATE FACILITIES

The subcommittee is of the opinion that many more juvenile delinquents and youthful offenders should be diverted to the States than are at present. A review of the geographical distribution of juvenile cases committed to the Attorney General reveals wide variations between different judicial districts, and suggests that little or no diversions are made in particular judicial districts. Whether such diversions are not now taking place because of lethargy, indifference, faulty procedures, or unwillingness of States to assume jurisdiction or because of a sincere belief that Federal facilities are better for a particular juvenile than the State facilities to which he might be committed if diverted is immaterial in terms of principles which should shape fundamental policy. The basic principle that a juvenile is or at least should be more effectively helped and rehabilitated when he is kept as close to his own community as possible should serve as the guidepost. Unlike an adult, a juvenile usually is still a part of his parental family. Strengthening and preserving the bonds which tie him to his family is essential to his subsequent adjustment to society. This is difficult to achieve when a child is institutionalized so far from home that parents find it hard or sometimes impossible to even visit him.

If the juvenile rehabilitative facilities of State X are far below acceptable standards, such standards are not raised one whit by the Federal Government stepping in and handling through its institutions all juvenile delinquents from State X who commit Federal offenses. The subcommittee believes that the Federal Government has a rôle to play in assisting the several States in raising the standards of their juvenile rehabilitation facilities. Recommendations to accomplish that objective are made elsewhere in this report. Nondiversion is not the way to do it.

Failure to divert a large number of cases in certain judicial districts is a problem to which immediate attention should be given since in terms of numbers it is growing daily. For example, in fiscal year 1950, 18,063 persons of all ages were committed to Federal institutions. By fiscal year 1954, that number had increased to 22,497, a rise of 19.7

percent in 5 years. During the same period, however, the number of juveniles and youths, 21 years of age or under who were committed, rose 21.7 percent and the number of those committed who were 17 years of age or under rose 24.2 percent. During the same period, the number of Federal juvenile offenders arrested rose from 1,999 in fiscal year 1950 to 2,628 in fiscal year 1954, a rise of 23.9 percent. The percentage of those arrested who were diverted to State authorities was 17.1 percent in fiscal year 1950 and only slightly higher, 19.7 percent, in fiscal year 1954. Set out in the appendix are tables showing the exact figures for each of the years involved.

Unless something is done to reverse this trend, the Federal Government will, as the years go by, find itself more and more involved in the task of rehabilitating juvenile delinquents and youthful offenders. That primarily should be the task of the State and local authorities. In terms of sound treatment principles, the Federal Government should be involved in that task directly only when there is good and sufficient reason why no State can assume jurisdiction.

The subcommittee is, of course, aware that the Federal law-enforcement agencies, such as the Federal Bureau of Investigation, the Narcotics Bureau, and the Secret Service, play an important role in the apprehension of miscreants and that their sole reason for being in the picture at all is the fact that there has been a violation of a Federal criminal statute. But the subcommittee is not convinced that there is any logic in the position that once a Federal law-enforcement agency enters the case, the person apprehended must in each instance be tried in the Federal courts and committed to Federal correctional institutions, if the individual's misdeed is also cognizable under State laws. Such action, of course, becomes necessary where, in a particular State jurisdiction it can be shown that unless the Federal authorities act, the State authorities will not do so. Such reluctance on the part of State officials, however, has not even been hinted at to the subcommittee. The conclusion is therefore inescapable that many more juvenile delinquents and youthful offenders are presently being handled by Federal courts and Federal institutions than should be and that many of these individuals can and should be dealt with in the State courts and in State institutions.

It is apparent to the subcommittee that section 5001 of title 18 of the United States Code, which was designed to prevent the development of such a situation, is not effective. That section deals with the diversion to State authorities of persons under 21 and provides in part:

Whenever any person under 21 years of age has been arrested, charged with the commission of an offense punishable in any court of the United States or of the District of Columbia, and, after investigation by the Department of Justice, it appears that such person has committed an offense or is a delinquent under the laws of any State or of the District of Columbia which can and will assume jurisdiction over such juvenile and will take him into custody and deal with him according to the laws of such State or of the District of Columbia, and that it will be to the best interest of the United States and of the juvenile offender, the United States attorney of the district in which such person has been arrested may forego his prosecution and surrender him as herein provided.

The main difficulty with this provision is that it does not make it an affirmative duty on the part of the Department of Justice to exhaust, before invoking Federal jurisdiction, every possible means to see to it that an individual under 21 is brought within the jurisdiction of State juvenile authorities. The subcommittee, therefore, recommends

that, in the case of an individual under 21 who could come within the jurisdiction of a State juvenile court, the statute should be amended to make it the duty of the United States attorney not only to turn the juvenile over to the proper State authorities but also to file in the State juvenile court the papers necessary to institute juvenile court proceedings with respect to such juvenile. Federal courts and Federal institutions should be utilized only as a last resort. This recommendation is not made alone for reasons of economy although the subcommittee is aware that if its recommendations are properly carried out large sums of money will be saved by the Federal Government. Rather the recommendations of the subcommittee are being made out of a sincere desire to make certain that the role of the Federal Government in dealing with juvenile delinquents and youthful offenders is the proper role which it should undertake and one which is best designed to achieve the rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents and youthful offenders.

The determination as to whether a juvenile should be handled under the procedures of the Federal Juvenile Delinquency Act or criminal procedures is a determination which should be made where the juvenile is and not by the Attorney General hundreds, or even thousands, of miles away. It is, in addition, a determination of such transcendent importance to the juvenile that it should be a judicial rather than an administrative determination. The subcommittee, therefore, recommends the enactment of appropriate amendments to the Federal Juvenile Delinquency Act to accomplish these ends.

EXCESSIVE CONVICTIONS UNDER THE DYER ACT

An additional area of concern to the subcommittee, with respect to Federal programs for the treatment of juvenile delinquents and youthful offenders, is the high number of such persons charged with violation of the Dyer Act. That act deals with the transportation in interstate commerce of stolen automobiles. From the testimony adduced at the subcommittee's hearings, it is evident that many of the juveniles and youths charged under this act have not committed an offense intended to be covered under that statute. Many have "misappropriated" the automobile, but neither at the time of taking nor subsequently do many of these have the requisite intent to steal. It is the subcommittee's opinion that the Dyer Act, as originally enacted by the Congress, was not aimed at making misappropriations or joyriding a Federal offense. The subcommittee desires to call this matter specifically to the attention of the Attorney General and to suggest to him the adoption of more effective screening procedures to make certain that only those who are truly within the scope of the Dyer Act are charged with its violation. That this is a matter of serious concern to the Federal Government is attested to by the fact that in fiscal year 1954, of the 895 persons 18 years and under committed to Federal institutions, 648 of them, or 72 percent had thus been committed because of the offense of transporting a stolen motor vehicle in interstate commerce. Changes in procedures for diverting to State facilities, as recommended above, and more careful screening on the part of the Department of Justice, should greatly decrease this number.

FEDERAL REHABILITATIVE SERVICES, FACILITIES AND PERSONNEL

We cannot expect to accomplish the effective rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents and youthful offenders by employing half-way measures. And we are doing just that in the Federal services, facilities, and personnel we have dedicated to the task of rehabilitating juvenile delinquents and youthful offenders. And this is in addition to the confusing and confused administrative and procedural pattern noted above.

Overworked, and in some cases unqualified, probation officers cannot be expected to perform their essential and multiple tasks. Essential qualifications in terms of training and experience for Federal probation officers have been formulated by the Judicial Conference of the United States. The standards are well observed in the appointments made in the majority of judicial districts. However, these standards are not binding upon the respective appointing judges and they are ignored upon occasion for various reasons. Some exceptions in the application of these standards were doubtless justified when the system first came into being because of several factors including the more limited supply of trained personnel. Such justifications, however, are no longer valid. The subcommittee, therefore, recommends that appropriate action be taken to make it mandatory that these standards be observed relative to all future appointments of Federal probation officers.

The too large caseloads carried in many districts mean that probation officers cannot give the time and attention to probationers and parolees required to best insure their future adjustment. This is by all odds a "penny wise, pound foolish" policy. Testimony before the subcommittee indicated that the annual cost of probation services in the Federal system in 1953 was \$96.41 per person; the cost of imprisonment was \$1,295.75 per person. Where probation services are indicated, it is obviously wiser and cheaper to make certain that the services provided are adequate and successful. The subcommittee, therefore, recommends that the Administrative Office of United States Courts be requested by the Senate Appropriations Committee to submit data, on a district by district basis, regarding the number of additional personnel needed to lower caseloads to accepted minimal standards, and that such sums as are required for their provision be included in its appropriation for such services.

Upon the personnel manning the institutions used for the rehabilitation of juveniles and youthful offenders falls a particularly difficult and complex task. Successful rehabilitation of the juvenile or youthful offenders requires more than the provision of custody or even routing him through some standardized training and retraining program. Helping a troubled, disorganized, and antisocial youth develop new attitudes toward himself and the world is a task requiring a staff possessing stability, understanding, and a variety of professional skills.

Efforts to recruit personnel having such qualifications are seriously handicapped by present salary levels. The beginning salary for the position of correctional officer, for example, is \$3,410 per annum. This is less than a man could earn in many factory and shop jobs involving far less responsibility. The subcommittee, therefore, recommends that the Civil Service Commission undertake an immediate review of the salary classifications of personnel engaged in the in-

stitutional treatment of juvenile delinquents and youthful offenders with a view to making such classifications sufficiently high to attract, and hold, properly trained personnel for those positions.

ADMINISTRATIVE TRANSFERS

In the administration of Federal facilities for the treatment of juveniles, one specific situation has been called to the attention of the subcommittee which merits particular mention. This relates to the authority now vested by statute in the Attorney General to transfer any boy, committed to his custody as a juvenile delinquent, to any institution in the Federal penal system. Such authority opens up the alarming possibility that the Attorney General can confine a juvenile delinquent, committed to his care by the Juvenile Court of the District of Columbia as a truant, to an institution for hardened criminals such as that operated at Lewisburg, Pa. The subcommittee cannot reconcile such authority with the objectives of the Juvenile Court Act.

The noncriminal procedures of the Juvenile Court Act were not established for the purpose of achieving indirectly what the criminal statutes can be used to achieve directly, namely, the imposition of punishment in the form of incarceration in a penal institution. They were established as a means of placing the juvenile in a situation where he could be treated and rehabilitated. In looking at this problem, the subcommittee is not so much concerned with the name of the institution in which the juvenile may be confined, that is penitentiary, reformatory, and so forth, as with the type of program established in such an institution and whether it is an institution designed for, and having the facilities and services necessary to effectuate the rehabilitation of the juvenile or whether it is an institution—by whatever name called—which is inappropriate for such rehabilitation. The subcommittee, therefore, recommends the enactment of legislation designed to limit the present authority of the Attorney General to transfer to any institution juvenile delinquents committed to his care by requiring that such juveniles may be transferred only to an institution designed for and having proper facilities and services for the rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents.

FEDERAL YOUTH CORRECTIONS ACT

Although enacted on September 20, 1950, the Federal Youth Corrections Act became effective only about a year ago on January 19, 1954. And even then it is effective—because facilities are lacking—only with respect to the States lying east of the Mississippi. The adoption of this act and its implementation are substantial steps forward in the handling by the Federal Government of youthful offenders.

In this age bracket—generally between 17 and 22—there is, because of the age to which juvenile court jurisdiction is limited in many States, less opportunity for diversion to State facilities. To the extent that such diversion is possible, the subcommittee's recommendations set out above are applicable. So are its recommendations with respect to the need for more intensive screening procedures in the application of the Dyer Act.

As for the operations under the act itself, it is difficult for the subcommittee to make any judgmental determinations on the basis of 1 year's operations. At the subcommittee's request, the detailed statistical information was furnished to the subcommittee by Mr. George Reed, chairman, Youth Correction Division of the Federal Parole Board. These data are set forth in the appendix of this report.¹⁷

It should be noted that although the act is applicable to 51 judicial districts, in the period from January 19, 1954, to December 14, 1954, the act was used in only 36 of those districts. No specific data exists as to the reasons for the nonuse of the act in the remaining 15 judicial districts. Whether those reasons are based upon a reluctance of the courts in those districts to use the new act, or whether there were no youthful offenders in those districts, or all were diverted to State facilities, is difficult to determine. The subcommittee hopes that it is nowhere based on the first reason, since it is firmly convinced that the Youth Corrections Act is definitely a step in the right direction.

Future activities under the Federal Youth Corrections Act should be carefully scrutinized and, as has been recommended above, sufficient facilities and personnel placed at its disposal so that it shall be more than a paper rehabilitative device. The subcommittee hopes that its operations can be expanded to include all the States of the Union as rapidly as possible.

One matter of considerable concern to the subcommittee is the manner in which the Youth Corrections Division is established and expected to operate. Members of that Division are selected from among the members of the Federal Parole Board, and the Division functions in certain respects as a subsidiary of that body. No authority is given to the Division with respect to the operation of any facilities. Such authority is vested in the Bureau of Prisons. Whether the recommendations of the Youth Corrections Division with respect to the treatment needs of a particular youthful offender are carried out depends upon the cooperative relations developed between the Division and the Bureau. The subcommittee hopes that the spirit of cooperation which seems to have permeated their efforts to get the program started will continue.

In order to further such a spirit of cooperation, and to insure its continuation the subcommittee believes that the Youth Corrections Division should have, in the Department of Justice, a status equivalent to that occupied by the Bureau of Prisons. To that end the subcommittee recommends the enactment of legislation converting the Youth Corrections Division into the Youth Corrections Board and making such Board responsible directly to the Attorney General as is the Director of the Bureau of Prisons at the present time.

NEED FOR INTERSTATE COMPACTS

More effective and efficient rehabilitative programs would result—and diverted juveniles and youths better served—not only by the adoption of the legislation recommended elsewhere in this report for grants-in-aid for the improvement of State and local services for the rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents, but also by the adoption of interstate compacts dealing with the return of runaways and the interstate supervision of juvenile probationers and parolees.

¹⁷ See appendix 17, p. 152.

An interstate covenant for the joint establishment and operation by two or more States of special facilities for the rehabilitation of problem cases would also be of considerable assistance. The subcommittee hopes that the Council of State Governments, which has already exercised leadership in the drafting of the former covenant, will also undertake leadership in the drafting of the second.

In order to be of the greatest possible assistance to the Council of State Governments in its endeavors, the subcommittee recommends the immediate passage of acts giving the consent of the Congress to the several States to enter into both these types of compacts.

	Fiscal year 1950	Fiscal year 1951	Fiscal year 1952	Fiscal year 1953	Fiscal year 1954	Percent increase or decrease compared with 1950
Ages of Federal sentenced prisoners received from the courts:						
All ages.....	18,063	18,950	18,896	20,022	22,497	+19.7
21 and under.....	3,911	4,132	4,064	4,499	4,999	+21.7
17 and under.....	762	833	823	996	1,006	+24.2
Under 15.....	44	47	64	62	55	+20.0
15.....	119	143	135	154	170	+30.0
16.....	225	278	272	345	345	+34.7
17.....	374	365	352	435	436	+14.2
18.....	533	556	607	680	736	+27.5
19.....	778	772	766	905	1,004	+22.5
20.....	895	959	841	958	1,115	+19.7
21.....	943	1,012	1,027	960	1,138	+17.1
22.....	992	1,024	983	1,189	1,141	+13.0
Federal juvenile offenders whose cases were disposed of:						
Total.....	1,999	2,130	2,433	2,543	2,628	+23.9
Under 12.....	32	19	13	39	10	-68.7
12, less than 15.....	242	216	277	262	271	+10.7
15, less than 17.....	898	1,055	1,130	1,236	1,302	+31.0
17 and over.....	827	840	1,013	1,006	1,045	+20.8
Federal juvenile offenders whose cases were disposed of by diversion to State authorities:						
Percent.....	343	314	454	452	519	-----
	17.1	14.7	18.6	17.7	19.7	-----

VIII. JUVENILE DELINQUENCY IN THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA— A FOLLOWUP REPORT

In December 1953 and January 1954 the subcommittee devoted 5½ days to hearings on the problem of juvenile delinquency in the District of Columbia. The subcommittee's interim report issued in March 1954 contained a number of recommendations for remedial action.

Some of its recommendations have been acted upon, others have not. Because the Congress is directly responsible for conditions and services in the District of Columbia, the subcommittee offers the following followup report of juvenile delinquency in the District—1 year later.

SIZE AND SCOPE OF THE PROBLEM

The subcommittee report states:

While there seemed to be some dispute in the testimony presented as to the exact percentage of the rise in juvenile delinquency in the District, there was almost universal agreement that, in the past years, it has taken a decided turn upward.

Figures presented indicated that the upward trend of complaints against juveniles brought to the attention of the juvenile court was accentuated by an increase of 60 percent in the fiscal year 1953. Whether the increase in juvenile complaints for the fiscal year 1953 was 60 percent and represented an actual increase in the number of delinquents during that period, or whether the figure should have been lower—as some witnesses contended—because changed policies of presenting complaints against juveniles to the court resulted in a portion of the increase is, in the opinion of the subcommittee, immaterial. The fact remains that juvenile delinquency in the Nation's Capital is on the increase, and has been on the increase for the past 10 years.

The subcommittee now reports with satisfaction that preliminary figures for 1954 indicate that 3,205 children were complained about during the year, a decrease of 197 from 1953 when 3,420 children were the subjects of complaints to the court. While we are in no position even to guess at the reason for this decrease, it is to be hoped that it indicates the start of a long continuing downward trend.

HOUSING CONDITIONS CONTRIBUTING TO JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

To examine into the effects of slum conditions upon juvenile delinquency, the subcommittee, among other steps, made an across-the-board study of a particular slum area selected as a sample of slum living. This area was known as Dixon's Court, an alley in southwest Washington containing 41 houses having a total of 160 rooms in use. Approximately 222 persons lived in Dixon's Court, about half adults and half children. The average was 3 adults and 3 children in each house. None of the housing facilities had any gas or electricity, most had outside water taps, and the only toilet facilities were outhouses.

The arrest record for persons living in Dixon's Court or crimes committed there showed that from 1948 to the date of the hearings, there had been 219 adults arrested, of whom 18 were women. In the same period of time 38 juveniles had been arrested. In addition, the Park Police reported that from 1950 to 1953 a total of 24 juveniles living in Dixon's Court had been arrested, 17 of them for sex offenses. The offenses for which juveniles were arrested by the Metropolitan Police and the Park Police ran the gamut from truancy to murder.

This part of the city is one for which extensive redevelopment plans have been made and, since the hearings, it was announced that the Department of Justice had invoked the powers of eminent domain to give the District Redevelopment Land Agency title to the Dixon's Court area. Further, the subcommittee was advised that Dixon's Court was demolished the summer of 1954; all families moved out. Two-thirds of the families resident there were eligible for public housing and all, with the exception of one man whom the Redevelopment Land Agency could not locate, have been provided with decent, safe, and sanitary homes.

This is merely a beginning. It is the hope of the subcommittee that additional slum-clearance projects will be brought to completion in the immediate future.

PREVENTIVE SERVICES IN THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

An outstanding lack in the preventive field in Washington disclosed by the testimony at the hearings, was in the field of protective services. According to the testimony of Mr. Gerard Shea, Director, Department of Public Welfare:

when complaints are received by the Department of Public Welfare as to situations in which a child may be found which are dangerous to the child, his staff of 14 caseworkers, serving the entire population, are in a position to recognize the need for some services for the child and the family but are not in a position to see that those services are provided.

The subcommittee learns that repeated requests for funds to employ additional caseworkers have been refused, and we recommend that more sympathetic consideration be given to such requests in the future.

The subcommittee hearings also revealed that the Department of Public Welfare is handicapped in its preventive activities in another area. Many a case of a neglected child can be prevented from ripening into delinquency by appropriate foster-home placement. In addition, some delinquent children can be placed in suitable foster homes at far less cost than if such child is placed in an institution. Testimony was adduced at the hearing to the effect that the cost of maintaining a child in one of the Department's institutions is more than double the cost of maintaining that child in a foster home. And yet, District zoning restrictions make no distinction between foster homes and commercial boardinghouses. On December 21, 1953, Mr. Gerard Shea, Director of Public Welfare, testified that he was attempting to secure an amendment to the zoning regulations differentiating a foster home from a boardinghouse. A recent check (January 1955) with the Department reveals that no action has been taken on Mr. Shea's request. We urge that immediate steps be taken to discover the reason for this delay and that vigorous action toward amending the zoning regulations be instituted.

In another section of this report the subcommittee recommends legislation to permit a taxpayer who provides a home for any foster child placed in his home by a licensed agency to treat such child as a dependent for Federal income-tax purposes. It is believed that such legislation, if passed, will aid in procuring more good foster homes here in the District and elsewhere in the Nation.

RECREATION

In each community visited by the subcommittee the members were impressed with the importance of the role of recreation in the fight against juvenile delinquency. In the course of the subcommittee hearings on juvenile delinquency in the District of Columbia, we were told of children playing in poorly lighted streets and dark alleys, while nearby were school athletic fields complete with expensive lighting equipment—fields walled off to children by high cyclone type fences—and used only on Friday nights for varsity games. As Mr. Robb stated:

Dark corners and dimly lighted areas encourage and breed nearly all forms of crime and delinquency. Indeed it is not too much to say that juvenile delinquency could be reduced in some of our neighborhoods by better lighting.

In its interim report, the subcommittee stated in this connection:

The subcommittee realizes that funds available for recreation purposes have been cut and that there is probably need for additional funds. However, the subcommittee is also convinced that much more could be done in the field of delinquency prevention recreationwise than is now being done with available staff and facilities by regearing existing programs to meet the problem. We must meet new problems with new methods. Recreation programs that are not geared to meet the needs of those needing services fall short of making their full potential contribution. Recreation programs designed without taking into consideration the desires of the children who are to benefit therefrom do not meet existing needs. For example, the hours during which playgrounds are to be open seem to be set more in relation to the convenience of the supervisors than to their maximum utilization by the children who need such play areas.

The question of staggering the hours of operation of the playgrounds was discussed at the hearing with the Superintendent of Recreation, District of Columbia Recreation Department, who explained that the problem is primarily one of custodial services. He pointed out that the school custodians are on duty during the normal school hours, but when they are required to work beyond those hours they become employees of the Board of Recreation and must be paid by that Board. And the budget of the Board was cut to the extent that it was necessary to close 39 playgrounds on Saturdays during the summer, close 33 youth centers 1 or more nights per week, and reduce the staff 35 percent on all other nights during the fall and winter. In addition it was necessary to close all school buildings, operated on a neighborhood basis, after 4 p. m. on weekdays and all day on Saturdays during the fall, winter, and spring seasons. This situation remains unchanged and it seems to the subcommittee to be a situation in which the District is being pennywise and pound foolish. The Superintendent of Recreation can deploy his staff on a staggered system of hours, but if custodial services are not available to provide access to sanitary or first-aid facilities, drinking fountains, supplies or equipment, or shelter from inclement weather, the use of outdoor facilities will be handicapped. Here again is a situation which the subcommittee feels should receive more sympathetic consideration from the Congress and the Budget Officer of the District of Columbia when budgets are under study.

COMMUNITY ACTION

The subcommittee is happy to report that the Commissioners' Youth Council of the District of Columbia, under the leadership of Mrs. Henry Grattan Doyle, has taken an approach in organizing the fight against juvenile delinquency which seems to offer great promise. Mrs. Doyle, in her testimony before the subcommittee in December 1953, explained that the Council came into being as a result of the concern of the Commissioners of the District with the increase in juvenile delinquency in the community. The Council consists of 15 members representing citizens' organizations, parent-teacher groups, boys' clubs, social agencies, the motion-picture industry, medicine, and religion, as well as the schools, the Public Welfare Department, the Recreation Department, and the Metropolitan Police Department. The Council has two purposes: (1) To study ways and means of reducing juvenile delinquency in the District of Columbia, and (2) to develop and execute a program to reduce and control juvenile delin-

quency in the District. Mrs. Doyle outlined for the subcommittee the philosophy of the Council as follows:

The problem of prevention of juvenile delinquency is best attacked on a neighborhood level. A neighborhood uses the same churches, schools, playgrounds, stores, movies. It knows both its own problems and its own facilities to cope with those problems. Juvenile offenses for the Nation, even for a city, may be just statistics to many; but juvenile offenses in one's neighborhood are real and important to the residents of a neighborhood. The Council realizes that the family is the strongest unit in the prevention of juvenile delinquency and is of the opinion that families can best be reached in their own neighborhoods. Then, too, neighborhoods within the District of Columbia are different, and the problems of juvenile behavior are different in various neighborhoods.

The thinking of the Council is that neighborhood committees will each analyze its particular problems in the field of juvenile behavior, work out ways to meet them, and execute such a program. The Youth Council plans to provide the area committees with advice on successful techniques used in other cities and to distribute information and experience among the area committees * * *.

A recent check (January 1955) with the office of the Youth Council reveals that 23 area committees have been organized, each consisting of 15 to 20 members, making a total of approximately 500 active volunteers at work. Of these area committees, 17 are interracial, while 3 are all white and 3 others all Negro, conforming to the racial composition of the areas.

The Youth Council decided to initiate a pilot project in one area of the city, from which techniques would be forthcoming which might serve as useful guides to committees in other areas. The United Community Services loaned a professional staff member to guide the project and a grant was obtained from a foundation to finance the work.

The area selected for the pilot project is a section of the city in which half the population is white and half Negro. There are 27 churches, several good playgrounds—and a high delinquency rate. Informal reports indicate that the project seems to be off to a successful start. It seems likely that this demonstration will be very useful as a guide to the other area committees. The approach taken by the Youth Council in organizing the fight against juvenile delinquency on an area or neighborhood basis offers great promise.

TREATMENT SERVICES

In our interim report we stated:

A juvenile in the District of Columbia—a boy or girl under the age of 18—who comes in conflict with the law may come in contact with a number of public and private agencies. The public agencies which may be involved would include the Metropolitan Police Department, the Park Police of the Department of the Interior, the juvenile court, the Department of Public Welfare, the Department of Justice, and the Office of the United States Marshal in the District of Columbia. If the boy or girl involved is to be successfully rehabilitated, these agencies must be properly and adequately staffed and have available facilities designed to provide the necessary treatment. But equally important is the fact that if the rehabilitation process is to be successful the agencies, all of them, must cooperate closely. The work of all these agencies is interrelated. As in any such "chain" operation, the success or failure of the process is as strong as its weakest link. Constant bickering and lack of cooperation and coordination of effort among the agencies involved will nullify the best laid plans.

Testimony adduced at the hearings before the subcommittee, and summarized in our interim report issued in March 1954, indicated all too clearly that there exists among these agencies a serious lack of

cooperation. The results of a recent check of some of the items mentioned in the interim report discloses only a few improvements:

INTERIM REPORT, MARCH 1954

The Park Police are handling delinquent children (on an informal basis) without routinely sharing the information in their possession with the Metropolitan Police. The latter, however, are informed of every case referred to the juvenile court by the Park Police.

The juvenile court is not making available to the police and school officials information which these officials need to carry out their duties effectively.

The juvenile court has not developed effective procedures for making information as to support payments available to the Department of Public Welfare. The Department must have this information from the court and must have it promptly. Without it the Department is often forced to operate in the dark, with resulting injustice either to the recipients or to the taxpayers.

The Welfare Department and the National Training School for Boys are not giving the police information as to parolees and escapees promptly enough for effective police action and protection.

The Office of the United States Marshal is not executing promptly the attachments for juveniles issued by the juvenile court.

The subcommittee was and is seriously concerned over the evidence of great friction and wide lack of cooperation between these agencies, and hopes that the conversations which it understands are in progress among some of them will result in prompt correction of the situation. Without it, these agencies cannot utilize their limited resources most effectively.

POLICE SERVICES

At the subcommittee hearings in December 1953, Chief Robert V. Murray stated:

I believe that an adequate number of uniformed footmen on the street would be a deterrent not only to juvenile crime but to adult crime.

Approximately 1 year later the Metropolitan Police Department reports a decrease of 22.8 percent in serious crime in the District of Columbia in 1954. During the interim, Chief Murray instituted the system of increasing the effective utilization of his available men by employing them on some of their off hours for extra compensation. While the subcommittee realizes that the drop in serious crime in the District of Columbia cannot be attributed to any single fact, it cannot but feel that Chief Murray's actions, and the work of the men under his command, did contribute to that brighter picture.

JANUARY 1955

No change.

Information as to disposition of cases is available to the police in individual cases. Conferences between police officials and the judge of the court are in progress. Schools receive no formal reports from the court. However, the attendance officers can learn dispositions of truancy cases informally.

Conversations between welfare officials and the judge are in progress.

The National Training School promptly reports the names of parolees and escapees. Escapees from the Receiving Home are promptly reported as are runaways from other welfare institutions. Parolees' names are not reported, however.

The subcommittee learns that this situation has been corrected.

The subcommittee has also learned that, since the hearings, plans were put into effect for a reorganization of the juvenile squad involving integration into it of the women's bureau, the bicycle squad, the schoolboy patrol coordinator, and the management of the Police Boys Clubs. The new operation will be under the command of Inspector John Winters who reports that as soon as new quarters are available he will be ready to operate. A sergeant has attended the Delinquency Control Institute at Los Angeles, Calif., and the inspector will leave shortly to attend the institute. The philosophy of the reorganized squad will emphasize prevention, according to Inspector Winters, rather than apprehension. The subcommittee is gratified to learn of this step toward the modernization of an important unit of Washington's Police Department, and hopes that it will enjoy the support necessary to its effectiveness in carrying out its mission.

THE JUVENILE COURT

In its interim report, the subcommittee stated:

In view of the great promise which the family court system holds for bringing to bear upon the whole gamut of juvenile decisions involving the family and its interrelationships all of the knowledge and findings from the other professions, the subcommittee believes that the solution (of) making the juvenile court part of a broader family court system should be followed.

This recommendation the subcommittee wishes to reiterate. And, in addition, the subcommittee feels that, whether or not the juvenile court is made part of a broad family court system there is, and will be, need for assistance for the juvenile court judge in the handling of the caseload of the court. Accordingly the subcommittee recommends the enactment of legislation authorizing the appointment of a referee for the juvenile court.

At its hearings, the subcommittee heard considerable testimony concerning the long delays by the juvenile court in investigating and acting upon complaints. In its interim report the subcommittee stated:

Testimony indicated that in the majority of the cases referred to the juvenile court the investigation by the social work division took from 6 to 12 weeks, with some cases taking from 18 to 24 weeks * * *. The subcommittee believes that a 6- to 12-week period for investigation is all out of proportion to the time reasonably necessary to make a thorough investigation * * *. Lack of availability of appropriations for mileage reimbursement was given as a reason for the delay.

Since the hearings, the subcommittee has learned that mileage reimbursement at the rate of 7 cents per mile for the use of the social workers' automobiles has been appropriated and, further, that good progress is being made toward holding to 6 weeks the interval between the filing of a complaint and the petition for a hearing. It was also reported to the subcommittee that a comparative analysis of the number of complaints filed and social studies completed during the months of June through October in 1953 and 1954 revealed that during those months in 1953, 1,003 complaints were filed and 917 social studies were completed, while in the comparable period in 1954 a total of 885 complaints were filed and 1,096 social studies were completed. This is evidence of what can be accomplished by revising

investigatory procedures and providing faster travel facilities for the social worker, and if it has not resulted in any deterioration of the quality of the social studies, is an accomplishment to be commended.

TREATMENT FACILITIES

In its interim report the subcommittee had this to say about treatment facilities for juvenile delinquents in the District of Columbia:

Both the testimony presented at the hearings and personal inspection by the members of the subcommittee of the two training schools and the Receiving Home in the District of Columbia leaves very little doubt in the mind of the subcommittee that the many earnest men and women striving to fight juvenile delinquency in Washington are doomed to failure unless they are provided with far better tools to do the job.

At the time it made its first interim report, the subcommittee specifically called attention to conditions at the Receiving Home for Children—conditions which were so bad as to justify the label of “national disgrace.” The home is unbearably overcrowded—so much so that it is an impossibility to expect the staff of the home to work out for their charges any kind of a program. Better provisions are made for the animals in our zoo.

The subcommittee learns that \$550,000 has been included in the budget of the Department for the fiscal year 1956 for the purpose of enlarging the institution to care for 100 children. This will relieve to a small degree the present intolerable situation in which an average of 91 children are crowded into accommodations for 43 every day. It seems to the subcommittee, however, that in view of the predictions of a rapidly increasing juvenile population this action, while a small step forward, still does not give the District a facility which will be anything but too small.

The Industrial Home School for White Children, which has for years been housed in a greatly deteriorated plant, was moved to the new Children's Center at Laurel, Md., in July 1954, and the Industrial Home School for Negro Children, presently located at Blue Plains, is scheduled to move to Laurel about the middle of 1955. The subcommittee hopes that nothing will delay the execution of this plan which will provide all children in the care of the Department of Public Welfare with the advantages to be found in a modern, and we hope, adequately staffed institution.

CONCLUSION

During the year which has elapsed between the conclusion of the subcommittee's hearings in the District of Columbia and the publication of this report little has happened to give rise to more than moderate gratification. Such major needs as increased staff for the juvenile court, more caseworkers for the Department of Public Welfare, an adequate police force in terms of men, a larger staff to provide special services to children in our public schools, and correction of the shocking situation obtaining at the Receiving Home for Children remain major needs—items in the category of consummations devoutly to be wished. The subcommittee hopes that they will not long so re-

main. We urge the District Commissioners to be aggressive in presenting and articulate in defending their requests for adequate appropriations for basic welfare services, and the Congress to give these requests more sympathetic consideration than in the past. If this is done, the Congress will no longer be vulnerable to the charge, made at one of the subcommittee hearings, that "to the extent that Congress does not appropriate adequate funds for the basic welfare services, Congress indirectly shares in the responsibility for the high rate of juvenile delinquency in the District of Columbia."

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX 1

83D CONGRESS
1ST SESSION

S. RES. 89

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES

MARCH 4, 1953

Mr. HENDRICKSON submitted the following resolution; which was referred to the Committee on the Judiciary

APRIL 27 (legislative day, APRIL 6), 1953

Reported by Mr. HENDRICKSON, with amendments, and referred to the Committee on Rules and Administration

MAY 28, 1953

Reported by Mr. JENNER, with additional amendments

JUNE 1 (legislative day, MAY 28), 1953

Considered, amended, and agreed to

RESOLUTION

Resolved, That the Committee on the Judiciary, or any duly authorized subcommittee thereof, is authorized and directed to conduct a full and complete study of juvenile delinquency in the United States. In the conduct of such investigation special attention shall be given to (1) determining the extent and character of juvenile delinquency in the United States and its causes and contributing factors, (2) the adequacy of existing provisions of law, including chapters 402 and 403 of title 18 of the United States Code, in dealing with youthful offenders of Federal laws, (3) sentences imposed on, or other correctional action taken with respect to, youthful offenders by Federal courts, and (4) the extent to which juveniles are violating Federal laws relating to the sale or use of narcotics.

SEC. 2. The committee, or any duly authorized subcommittee thereof, is authorized to sit and act at such places and times during the sessions, recesses, and adjourned periods of the Senate, to hold such hearings, to require by subpoenas or otherwise the attendance of such witnesses and the production of such books, papers, and documents, to administer such oaths, to take such testimony, to procure such printing and binding, and, within the amount appropriated therefor, to make such expenditures as it deems advisable. The cost of stenographic services to report hearings of the committee or subcommittee shall not be in excess of 40 cents per hundred words. Subpoenas shall be issued by the chairman of the committee or the subcommittee, and may be served by any person designated by such chairman.

A majority of the members of the committee, or duly authorized subcommittee thereof, shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business, except that a lesser number to be fixed by the committee, or by such subcommittee, shall constitute a quorum for the purpose of administering oaths and taking sworn testimony.

SEC. 3. The Committee shall report its findings, together with its recommendations for such legislation as it deems advisable, to the Senate at the earliest date practicable but not later than January 31, 1954.

SEC. 4. For the purposes of this resolution, the Committee, or any duly authorized subcommittee thereof, is authorized to employ upon a temporary basis such technical, clerical, and other assistants as it deems advisable. The expenses of the Committee under this resolution, which shall not exceed \$44,000, shall be paid from the contingent fund of the Senate upon vouchers approved by the Chairman of the Committee.

APPENDIX 2

83D CONGRESS
2D SESSION

S. RES. 190

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES

JANUARY 15 (legislative day, JANUARY 7), 1954

Mr. HENNINGS (for Mr. HENDRICKSON, himself, Mr. LANGER, and Mr. KEFAUVER) submitted the following resolution; which was referred to the Committee on the Judiciary

JANUARY 18 (legislative day, JANUARY 7), 1954

Reported by Mr. LANGER, without amendment

JANUARY 20 (legislative day, JANUARY 7), 1954

Referred to the Committee on Rules and Administration

JANUARY 22, 1954

Reported by Mr. JENNER, without amendment

JANUARY 27 (legislative day, JANUARY 22), 1954

Considered, amended, and agreed to

RESOLUTION

Resolved, That section 3 of S. Res. 89, Eighty-third Congress, agreed to June 1, 1953 (authorizing the Committee on the Judiciary to make a study of juvenile delinquency in the United States), is amended to read as follows:

"SEC. 3. The committee shall make a preliminary report of its findings, together with its recommendations for such legislation as it deems advisable, to the Senate not later than February 28, 1954, and shall make a final report of such findings and recommendations to the Senate at the earliest date practicable but not later than January 31, 1955."

SEC. 2. The limitation of expenditures under such S. Res. 89 is increased by \$175,000, and such sum together with any unexpended balance of the sum previously authorized to be expended under such resolution shall be paid from the contingent fund of the Senate upon vouchers approved by the chairman of the committee.

APPENDIX 3

[S. Rept. No. 857, 83d Cong., 2d sess.]

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

Mr. LANGER, from the Committee on the Judiciary, submitted the following report (to accompany S. Res. 190)

The Committee on the Judiciary, to which was referred the resolution (S. Res. 190) amending the resolution providing for an investigation of juvenile delinquency in the United States, and increasing the limit of expenditures, having considered the same, reports favorably thereon, without amendment, and recommends that the resolution be agreed to.

STATEMENT

Investigation during the past 5 months by the subcommittee to investigate juvenile delinquency in the United States has disclosed the need for extending the investigation. Hearings, with the aid and advice of local community leaders in Denver, Colo., and Washington, D. C., have resulted in the compilation of information which bears this out.

Evidence received so far establishes that juvenile delinquency is a problem of sharply increasing severity and that annually since 1948 both its volume and rate have mounted. Nationwide, juvenile delinquency as measured by offenders in juvenile courts, increased almost 30 percent between 1948 and 1952. Larger rises are occurring in many States and communities.

During 1952 alone 37 percent of all persons arrested for robberies were under 21 years of age. This age group accounted for 47 percent of all arrests made for larceny, 68 percent of those arrested for auto theft, and 35 percent of all arrests for rape.

Public interest in the curbing of juvenile delinquency has mounted steadily since this investigation was begun. A reduction of juvenile delinquency would reduce our future criminal population, as facts will show that one-half of our hardened criminals began their lawless careers as juvenile offenders.

By 1960 it is estimated that 55 million Americans will be under 18 years of age, and it is this challenge to come up with something worthwhile in the solution of juvenile delinquency that brings forth this request that the authority be extended to January 31, 1955, and that an additional \$175,000 be made available for the purposes of carrying out this program.

APPENDIX 4

[S. Rept. No. 871, 83d Cong., 2d sess.]

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

Mr. JENNER, from the Committee on Rules and Administration, submitted the following report (to accompany S. Res. 190)

The Committee on Rules and Administration, to whom was referred the resolution (S. Res. 190) amending the resolution providing for an investigation of juvenile delinquency in the United States, and increasing the limit of expenditures, having considered same, report favorably thereon without amendment and recommend that the resolution be agreed to by the Senate.

This resolution will extend from February 1, 1954, to January 31, 1955, the current investigation of juvenile delinquency in the United States by the Committee on the Judiciary at a total cost of approximately \$175,000 in new and old funds.

A letter from the chairman of the Committee on the Judiciary submitting a budget, which was approved by the Committee on Rules and Administration, and the budget follow:

UNITED STATES SENATE,
COMMITTEE ON THE JUDICIARY,
January 21, 1954.

HON. WILLIAM E. JENNER,
*Chairman, Committee on Rules and Administration,
United States Senate, Washington, D. C.*

DEAR SENATOR JENNER: During the 1st session of the 83d Congress, the Senate approved a resolution directing that a study and investigation be made of juvenile delinquency in this country. I subsequently appointed a subcommittee of the Judiciary Committee to carry out this mandate. Senator Hendrickson, of New Jersey, was named chairman of that subcommittee. The senior Senator from North Dakota and his distinguished colleagues, Senator Hennings, of Missouri, and Senator Kefauver, of Tennessee, were also named on the subcommittee.

The approval of the original resolution, Senate Resolution 89, which created this subcommittee, expressed the grave concern we all have felt about the rising tide of delinquency among our youth. Our investigations of nearly 5 months demonstrate that this concern is indeed justified.

In these early stages of our work, the subcommittee has held public hearings into various national aspects of the problems of juvenile delinquency. It has

heard from the Department of Justice and the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare in the belief that we should reexamine our Federal programs involved in the prevention and treatment of juvenile delinquency. The subcommittee will be making recommendations in relation to certain aspects of these Federal programs. We are now, today and tomorrow, receiving testimony from our major church, civic, and national youth-serving organizations, on their approaches to the problem. Our subcommittee has held community hearings, with the aid and advice of local community leaders, in Denver and Washington, D. C., and next week we will visit Boston for the same purpose.

This community approach has the blessing and support of President Eisenhower, as well as having the basic objectives of our work. He has written Senator Hendrickson, as chairman, pledging the support of his executive agencies, and applauding our plan for a city-by-city, on-the-scene study. May I incorporate here his letter to Senator Hendrickson:

DEAR SENATOR HENDRICKSON: The subject of juvenile delinquency, which you and your colleagues of the Judiciary Committee of the Senate are now studying, is one of the most complex social problems facing the Nation today. Juvenile delinquency is a problem filled with heartbreak. I know that you share with me the fervent hope that your deliberations will result in suggestions for action which will reduce substantially the incalculable unhappiness which juvenile delinquency now causes our children, their parents, pastors, educators, and all who are concerned with the problem.

In your investigation you may count on the wholehearted assistance of those executive departments which are concerned with the problem. For a number of years, the Children's Bureau of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, in particular, has been collecting information about juvenile delinquency and evaluating the proposals advanced from time to time regarding its alleviation, which should be of value to you.

I am happy to know, too, that the subcommittee proposes to hold hearings in various other cities, including some smaller towns, in an effort to ascertain the effects of juvenile delinquency in specific localities. Although it is a problem of national importance, and one in which the Federal Government properly takes a keen interest, juvenile delinquency does vary from community to community in its nature and extent. Your subcommittee in seeking the concrete facts about delinquent children and youth in particular communities has taken note of that important fact.

It is my hope that one result of the present hearings will be to alert our community leaders and all of our parents to the responsibility that is theirs. I wish you every success in this important investigation.

With best regards,
Sincerely,

DWIGHT D. EISENHOWER.

The experience of the Subcommittee on Juvenile Delinquency has been brief but intensive. Our investigations are far from completed, but I would like to give a few highlights of some of the evidence we have received to date.

The evidence received conclusively establishes that juvenile delinquency is a problem of sharply increasing severity. Annually, since 1948, both its volume and rate has mounted. Younger children in larger numbers are becoming involved in serious crime.

Although individual communities may be excepted, we find that all sections of our country have experienced an aggravated juvenile delinquency problem. In terms of volume, we are waging a losing battle against juvenile delinquency. Nationwide juvenile delinquency as measured by offenders in juvenile courts increased almost 30 percent between 1948 and 1952. Even larger rises are occurring in many States and communities.

But involvement of younger persons in larger numbers in serious, even violent, forms of crime is equally ominous. It is hard for us to realize that children, sometimes of very tender ages, are actually found evermore frequently involved in such serious crimes as housebreaking, personal assaults, narcotic violations, even murder and rape.

During 1952, 37 percent of all persons arrested for robberies were under 21 years of age. This young age group accounted for 47 percent of all arrests made for larceny, 68 percent of those for auto theft, even 35 percent of all arrests for rape.

Testimony presented to the subcommittee indicates that heroin, the drug which has enslaved thousands of young Americans, is being methodically produced and poured into the world's markets by Red China. This Red tide of dope has reached our west coast and is moving eastward. We have received testimony

that New York City has today an estimated 7,500 juvenile addicts, and this city has not yet been hit by the tide from the Far East.

While there is some variance in the testimony of experts, total evidence indicates that during the past 5 years, there has been an increase in drug violations by juveniles in the majority of our large urban centers.

Our subcommittee is, however, more concerned about the future; how we may best handle the new situation, and what increased Communist production means for our young people in the next few years, than we are about the current narcotics situation.

But heroin is not the total of the drug menace to juveniles. Iowa is an agricultural State. Yet 25 percent of the girls admitted to its State training school for girls have used marihuana. Still other youngsters in search of a thrill or a kick, as they call it, have turned to barbiturates and amphetamines.

A recent investigation in Oklahoma City revealed that 250 juveniles between the ages of 13 and 18 were using these drugs regularly. Apartments were rented and used as "pads" for drug or so-called kick parties. The delinquents in this case all came from the better neighborhoods of the city and not from the wrong side of the tracks. Our subcommittee is now studying proposals which would better protect our young people from this evil practice.

The lawless conduct of juvenile gangs constitutes another serious problem for children in many communities. I do not refer to innocent play or interest groups of children and adolescents, and thankfully there are many more of these. I refer to the organized, predatory gangs which children in some neighborhoods must join for their own protection. Gangs in which robberies, extortion, drug traffic, assaults, and sexual irregularities are the order of the day.

Certain large cities—New York and Los Angeles for example—have made sound starts to bring this problem under control. But the gang problem is not restricted to large urban centers.

In order to tap grassroots experience on a broad basis, the Subcommittee on Juvenile Delinquency sent letters of inquiry to some 3,000 local police officials, educators, judges, welfare and mental-health officials. Many reported gang problems.

May I quote as an example from the reply of a police official in a small city in the State of Washington: "Gang warfare has reared its ugly head in our community and already reports have reached our ears of a number of beatings having taken place." He goes on to say that, "* * * numerous dangerous weapons which include whips made from car battery cables, car fan belts, along with a large collection of assorted knives and a homemade .22 pistol or two, have been seized."

Obviously, as a society, we must find ways to meet this problem on a broader front than through specialized programs in a few urban centers.

I could go on at length about the evidence we have received of many other forms of illegal conduct which is assuming larger proportions among our young people. From those 3,000 grassroot sources throughout the Nation we have received reports of increased school dropouts, increased truancy, increased use of alcohol by juveniles—indeed, an increase in almost every form of delinquent conduct.

But, in the last analysis, the exact forms that serious delinquency takes is unimportant except as it points to what is wrong—what is causing a small but increasingly large percentage of children in our times to become involved in delinquency and crime. This ominous development is not, cannot be without cause. Obviously juvenile delinquency is symptomatic that something is wrong in the life of a child. Increased juvenile delinquency means that there is something wrong in the lives of more children. In less than 5 months the Subcommittee on Juvenile Delinquency has not been able to produce the whole answer as to causes, but many factors have already come to light.

The evidence before the subcommittee indicates that we as a society have been deficient in developing and enforcing the laws necessary to better protect children from delinquency. We have been equally deficient in developing the machinery necessary to giving help to children in trouble.

Certain testimony presented to the subcommittee suggests that much of our basic thinking may be misdirected as to prevention and cure. Challenging questions have been raised as to methods and approaches. Are we reaching the truly delinquent child with our programs? Or are they beyond the scope of existing services? Is it just a matter of spending more money, or is it also a matter of using existing money to better advantage?

Juvenile delinquency is primarily a local problem, although there are significant interstate factors to which I will refer shortly. Juvenile delinquency develops in a child's own home and community and must basically be prevented at that level. But it is no indictment of individual local communities to say that they have not found the answer because the problem is common to all communities. Neither is it an indictment of old and tested methods to say that they don't meet new problems.

What is needed then is a new focus upon this problem; a clear-cut and factual definition of the problem and a marshaling of community resources to meet it. Individual communities are experimenting with new techniques and approaches. But no effective way exists for one community to benefit from the successes or failures of another.

I believe that the Subcommittee on Juvenile Delinquency is performing an invaluable and unique service to children by turning the spotlight of public attention boldly and factually upon the problem of juvenile delinquency. America has both the will and the intelligence to whip this problem. Through this subcommittee of the Judiciary Committee the Senate can provide the catalytic agent and the leadership necessary for effective action. Such action on the part of the Senate has, I believe, widespread public support.

The public interest which has been demonstrated in the work of this subcommittee has been most heartening to its members. Thousands upon thousands of pieces of mail have been received. Hundreds of letters and telegrams from organizations and individuals have reached the subcommittee, urging that its work be continued. Proninent citizens have testified to the importance and need for the subcommittee to continue its work. Only today, Judge Luther Youngdahl, United States district court, stated that in his opinion the importance of this investigation could not be overemphasized. Invitations to hold hearings have been received from dozens of communities.

The same kind of interest and support has been expressed by various public and private officials. The Governors of no less than five States—Maryland, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Washington, and New Jersey—have loaned personnel. Similar loans have been made by certain private organizations, including the National Probation and Parole Association, the American Public Welfare Association, and the Prisoner's Aid Society of Baltimore.

The problem of juvenile delinquency is not one, however, which can be entirely handled within individual communities or States. Juvenile delinquency crosses State borders and the solution of certain aspects of the problem will require direct Federal action.

As among States, for example, we permit the deserting father from one State to find refuge in another. Joined by the three other members of the subcommittee, I have already introduced legislation to help combat this serious contributing factor to delinquency.

We permit the runaway child from one State to be committed as a delinquent to the institution of another State because we lack the machinery to return him to his home. Many hundreds of such runaways are apprehended in single States alone, such as California and Florida each year. Our subcommittee is now studying alternative approaches to the solution of this and other interstate problems.

Much remains to be done far and beyond what we have been able to accomplish in less than 5 months. A start has been made and I, believe, a sound one. But, I am convinced that the protection of our children from the menace of delinquency makes it imperative that the Subcommittee on Juvenile Delinquency be enabled to complete its crucial task.

The completion of its work involves further attention to a number of problems already under study. I have already referred to a number of such problems. But there is also a number of additional matters to which the subcommittee must devote time and study if it is to discharge its function. We must, for example, evaluate the possible delinquency-producing influences exerted on children by TV, radio, comics, and other mass media. If it is determined that such influences are present, we must also attempt to determine what can be done to achieve their elimination.

The subcommittee should also consider the problem of juvenile delinquency among Indian children. Scattered information thus far received indicates that the problem is severe among certain tribal groups. In some instances the problem is made even more serious because such children may be denied the services and resources afforded non-Indian children in the same localities.

The subcommittee also plans to continue its city-by-city survey of juvenile delinquency. I have already expressed my belief that juvenile delinquency is

primarily a local problem. But I also believe that this subcommittee can render an invaluable service in stimulating local community action by focusing public attention upon the problem through public hearings, conducted in various parts of our Nation.

This, then, summarizes the work of the subcommittee to date and also points up the future work. Attached is the proposed budget for the Subcommittee on Juvenile Delinquency, showing how the requested funds would be disbursed in fulfilling the goals we have outlined.

The fight against juvenile delinquency is crucial to safeguarding our country's future. I urge the approval of the proposed budget since these funds would enable the subcommittee to make its invaluable contribution to that fight.

With kindest regards.

Sincerely yours,

WILLIAM LANGER, *Chairman.*

Propose dbudget of the Subcommittee of the Committee on the Judiciary To Investigate Juvenile Delinquency in the United States for the period of Jan. 31, 1954, to Jan. 31, 1955, inclusive

STAFF

Position	Number	Base salary	Gross salary	Monthly salary	Total for period of budget
Legal and investigative:					
General counsel.....	1	\$8,000.00	\$11,646.00	\$970.50	\$11,646.00
Assistant counsel.....	1	6,480.00	10,068.00	839.03	10,068.00
Do.....	1	5,400.00	9,073.03	756.08	9,073.03
Investigators.....	5	4,080.00	7,055.23	587.93	1 29,396.56
Editorial and research:					
Editorial director.....	1	6,480.00	10,566.16	880.51	10,566.16
Research assistants.....	4	4,080.00	7,055.23	587.93	1 23,220.90
Administrative and clerical:					
Chief clerk.....	1	3,720.00	6,481.67	540.13	6,481.67
Stenographers.....	5	2,220.00	4,091.85	340.98	20,459.25
Assistant clerk (file clerk).....	1	1,800.00	3,422.72	285.22	3,422.72
Total.....	20				124,334.23

¹ 10 months.

ADMINISTRATIVE

Travel (inclusive of field investigations, field hearings).....	\$25,000.00
Hearings (inclusive of reporters' fees).....	15,000.00
Witness fees, expenses.....	2,000.00
Stationery, office supplies.....	1,500.00
Communications (telephone, telegraph, postage).....	7,000.00
Newspapers, magazines, documents.....	500.00
Contingent fund.....	1,000.00
Total.....	52,000.00
Approximate unexpended balance, S. Res. 89, anticipated Jan. 31, 1954.....	1,500.00
Fund requested, S. Res. 190.....	175,000.00
Total.....	176,334.23

APPENDIX 5

There are three main periods of Indian relations with the United States Government. In reality these periods represent the different policies pursued by the Government in dealing with the Indians.

1. Period of extermination and later dispersal and dissemination. When extermination of the Indians proved too costly, the Government attempted to remove their cultural identity by forced attendance at nonreservation schools, etc.

2. Period of return to reservation and Indian culture. This period began in 1923 and was almost a complete reversal of former policy. Indians were taught only enough to get along with white men and emphasis was placed on Indian lore and crafts. Land was added to the reservations and it was thought that the preservation of tribal society would be best.

3. The modern period. This period began in the thirties and contains some of the concepts of both previous periods. The goal is to increase the Indians' interest

and understanding in the outside world and better his chances of competing with other Americans. Tribes are encouraged to organize and build their own governments on local level. The Indian Service is geared to eventual relinquishing of Federal participation in Indian affairs.

APPENDIX 6

Average annual income for Indian families

Arizona: San Carlos Reservation.....	\$750
California: Various.....	1, 100
Florida: Seminole Reservation.....	1, 000
Mississippi: Choctaw Reservation.....	775
Montana: Blackfeet Reservation.....	2, 639
New Mexico:	
Navaho Reservation.....	300
Pueblo Reservation.....	800
Apache Reservation.....	1, 000
North Dakota:	
Fort Berthold Reservation.....	1, 290
Turtle Mountain Reservation.....	750
Fort Totten Reservation.....	750
Standing Rock Reservation.....	500
Nebraska: Winnebagos.....	1, 000
Oklahoma: Alabama Coughatta.....	1, 300
Oregon: Klamath.....	5, 000
South Dakota:	
Pine Ridge Reservation.....	1, 290
Cheyenne Reservation.....	1, 620
Washington: Port Madison.....	800
Wisconsin: Winnebagos.....	980

APPENDIX 7

An interesting study of the records of 301 Indians from the Turtle Mountain Reservation was made by the North Dakota Employment Service in cooperation with the Placement Service of the Bureau of Indian Affairs. This study and the conclusions drawn from the study are as follows:

"Aptitude testing, counseling, and interviewing has indicated that the Indian is not predominantly an agricultural worker. Results of tests indicate that he fits into about the same occupational pattern as any other group of people. Actually, experiences in employment further prove these indications.

"Based on a survey made by Howard Welch, placement officer, Turtle Mountain Reservation and Ed Hanks, interviewer III, Rugby office of the North Dakota State Employment Service, we find that there is a very definite trend from agriculture to construction and railroad maintenance. This survey covered the work experience of 301 Indian workers from 1946 to June 30, 1952. A tabulation was made of jobs held by each.

Industry	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952
Agriculture.....	220	218	211	204	135	54	34
Construction (road building, dams, general)...	23	41	52	57	122	192	128
Railroads.....	4	3	3	4	12	31	61
Manufacturing (mining).....	3	3	1	3	11	15	5
Army ¹	39	10	9	10	1	1	1
Service (garages, hospitals, retail and whole-sale trade).....	12	13	14	14	9	5	4
Total.....	291	268	290	292	290	298	233
No record ²	10	13	11	9	11	3	1
Grand total.....	301	301	301	301	301	301	301

¹ Army breakdown is necessary to account for all time of individual to 1946.

² No record was necessary to account for new entrants into the labor market since 1946, many of which were previously students.

"There are several reasons why the trend toward nonagricultural employment has taken place:

- "1. In early years of Indian placement, local offices directed attention to seasonal agricultural employment;
- "2. Nonagricultural employment provided regular hours and longer periods of employment;
- "3. Eligibility for unemployment compensation during periods of unemployment; and
- "4. Most nonagricultural employment made it possible for the worker to live with his family.

"CARL F. FRYHLING,
"State Director, North Dakota State Employment Service."

APPENDIX 8

There are three distinct types of Indian courts:

1. *Traditional courts.*—These are the oldest recognized courts and operated under unwritten law and as occasion demanded. Pueblo and Hopi Indians still use this type of court.
2. *Courts of Indian offenses.*—These courts operate under a Code of Federal Regulations. Judges are appointed by superintendents of the reservations with the approval of two-thirds of the people. Cost of court and Indian police is borne by Indian Bureau.
3. *Tribal courts.*—Tribes organized under the Indian Reorganization Act may have tribal courts. These courts are organized by the tribes and operate under laws specifically designed for that tribe and adopted by that tribe.

Domestic relations among Indians have been left pretty much to tribal control through their own courts. The Interior Department has recognized the authority of tribal courts with relation to questions of paternity, marriage, divorce, and other domestic matters. Juvenile matters on the reservation are the concern of the Indians only. The inheritance laws of the country make the recording of custom marriages mandatory.

Jursidiction over crimes committed in Indian country has been left with the Federal Government as a general rule because it is recognized that the very people living close to the Indians are often their worst enemies and it is important that in order for the Federal Government to protect its wards, it must have jurisdiction.

APPENDIX 9

Penalties for violating certain laws in the State courts and in Indian tribal courts

Violation	Maximum tribal sentence	Maximum State sentence	Maximum Federal sentence
1. Nonsupport.....	3 months....	5 years.....	Condition or parole.
2. Adultery.....	30 days.....	3 years.....	3 years.
3. Fornication.....	25 days.....	30 days.....	6 months.
4. Unlawful cohabitation.....	30 days.....	1 year.....	
5. Kidnaping.....	6 months.....	20 years.....	Death.
6. Convey venereal disease.....	3 months.....	Conditional probation.....	
7. Bigamy.....		5 years.....	
8. Incest.....		10 years.....	
9. Sodomy.....		do.....	
10. Attempted rape.....		½ of life sentence.....	20 years.
11. Assault to commit rape.....		5 years.....	Do.
12. Attempted murder.....	6 months.....	½ of life sentence.....	3 years.
13. Receiving stolen goods.....		5 years.....	Do.
14. Forgery.....		10 years.....	5 years.

APPENDIX 10

States which contract with the United States Commissioner of Indian Affairs under authority of the Johnson-O'Malley Act of 1934 (48 Stat. 596)

State	1948			1949			1950		
	Expenditure	Pupils	Cost	Expenditure	Pupils	Cost	Expenditure	Pupils	Cost
Arizona.....	\$49,955	1,490	\$33.53	\$54,930	1,455	\$37.75	\$105,500	1,857	\$56.81
California.....	233,900	1,863	102.18	281,575	1,861	151.30	322,000	2,017	159.64
Idaho ¹	37,000	490	75.51	39,828	503	79.16	(²)	618	(²)
Minnesota.....	167,150	1,739	96.10	226,910	1,973	115.00	288,000	1,883	152.94
Montana.....	212,380	2,835	74.91	212,380	2,906	73.08	288,188	3,135	91.92
Nebraska ¹	47,126	261	182.88	48,220	266	181.27	48,220	276	174.71
Nevada.....	91,700	868	105.64	95,600	866	110.39	100,400	1,012	99.20
North Dakota.....	33,420	476	70.21	33,420	299	111.77	33,420	270	123.77
Oklahoma.....	280,000	7,636	36.66	320,633	6,908	46.26	320,000	7,691	41.60
Oregon.....	37,630	444	84.75	37,630	502	74.96	53,650	525	102.19
South Dakota ¹	71,151	740	96.15	70,850	740	95.74	87,889	662	132.76
Texas.....	6,000	108	55.56	6,000	108	55.56	18,000	101	178.21
Washington.....	90,000	1,928	46.67	90,000	1,892	47.55	120,700	2,031	59.42
Wisconsin.....	61,000	645	94.57	166,685	1,098	151.80	225,000	1,114	201.97
Iowa ¹	3,241	16	202.56	3,360	18	186.67	3,505	17	206.18
Kansas ¹	9,122	95	96.02	9,125	106	86.08	11,500	138	83.33
New Mexico ¹	20,208	201	100.53	13,810	251	55.02	17,400	270	64.44
Utah ¹	11,918	127	93.84	12,200	182	67.03	15,500	166	93.37
Wyoming ¹	16,390	111	147.66	16,400	162	101.23	20,300	170	119.04

¹States in which local school districts contract with the United States Commissioner of Indian Affairs.

²State contract, figure unavailable.

Sources: Library of Congress, material supplied by the Bureau of Indian Affairs; Statistical Supplement to the Annual Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs; Rex Lee as Acting Commissioner of Indian Affairs, June 13, 1951.

A COMPARISON OF PROBABLE PROCEDURES AND OUTCOMES UNDER PUBLIC LAW 874 WITH PRESENT PROGRAM UNDER JOHNSON-O'MALLEY OKLAHOMA STATE EDUCATION CONTRACT

JOHNSON-O'MALLEY PROGRAM

PUBLIC LAW 874

State does not deduct any State aid to any district because of payment under contract.

State department determines amount due each district under formula which allows more money to poorest districts.

Federal payments are justified by the fact that wherever lands are tax exempt an increased cost is placed on State due to equalization program.

State department of education assists local districts in preparing budget for expenditure of contract funds and super-vised expenditures.

Approximately \$50,000 of present contract funds are set aside to meet special needs; e. g., nonrecurring equip-ment, hot lunches, transportation, etc.

State did deduct half the amount received from Federal Government in computing aid due from State when payments were previously made to districts by Indian Service. State officials' deductions may again be made if any Federal agency again starts distributing funds directly to districts.

Public Law 874 funds would be paid direct to local districts without regard to local needs. The richest districts would benefit most.

Public Law 874 is based on loss of local taxes and not increased State equalization payments. Loss of local taxes is not a problem in most rural areas, since this loss is replaced through equalization payments.

Funds would be paid out on formula basis and no one would have opportunity to supervise expenditures.

No flexibility has been allowed under Public Law 874.

JOHNSON-O'MALLEY PROGRAM

PUBLIC LAW 874

The Indian Bureau and State education department have cooperated on many problems such as attendance, health, surveys, post-high-school education, boarding school enrollment (especially where transportation would remove the need).

The State department of education has been able to insist on home visitation as a means of promoting school attendance and has made this a condition for receipt of aid. It has also arranged for aided districts in two counties to cooperate in employment of attendance officers.

In fiscal year 1954, 500 pupils will stay at 3 boarding schools and attend public schools.

Practically every rural public school with a significant proportion of Indian children has a hot lunch program which in turn promotes better attendance and achievement.

Contract funds are justified on a statewide basis, taking into account increased State contributions because of tax-exempt lands. With full agreement between State and Federal officials, the funds can and are being used where needed.

Distinct progress was made when the Indian Bureau ceased dealing directly with local districts and began working through the State department of education.

The present Johnson-O'Malley Act contract results in enrichment of the minimum program in most needy districts, providing better school libraries, hot lunch programs, better teachers, physical education and playground equipment, modern desks and other equipment, etc.

Lack of contractual relationship would remove most of the incentive for such cooperation and would mean that at best 3 instead of 2 agencies are involved in complicated problems involving interagency responsibilities.

The State department of education would have little to do with distribution of funds under Public Law 874 and could do nothing in the way of bringing about better attendance of Indian pupils.

The initial special needs for equipment, buses, etc., could not have been provided under Public Law 874.

The poorest districts where lunches are most needed would not receive enough tax replacement money to operate a lunch program.

Very few districts in Eastern Oklahoma would qualify under Public Law 874 since the real problem is poverty rather than lack of local tax receipts. The computation of pupils living on tax-exempt lands would necessitate a large group of Federal employees, resulting in increased administrative cost and less efficiency.

To go back to such payments by another Federal agency would be anything but progress. The new Federal agency would have to secure part of its information from the State officials and part from the Indian Service as to land-ownership, thus creating a cumbersome problem and system.

Funds under Public Law 874 would be allotted to schools regardless of need, if Indian pupil's parents resided on federally owned property.

APPENDIX 11

(From Indian Education, vol. 251, March 15, 1954, published by Branch of Education, Bureau of Indian Affairs, Washington 25, D. C.)

HOLDING POWER—A SCHOOL PROBLEM

All schools are faced with the problem of children leaving school—the problem increases with age and grade of the student. The problem is not unique to Federal schools. Throughout the country only one-half of all the students who enter high school remain to graduate. And at the present time, only three-fourths of the country's youth of high school age are attending school. Two recent reports received in this office shed light on the holding power of Indian schools and point up some of the problems involved when students quit school.

How do Federal Indian schools compare with public schools in the holding power of students?

This question is answered in part in a progress report¹ of January 1954 of the guidance bureau of the University of Kansas. The study is based on data collected during the fall achievement testing program conducted by the Bureau of Indian Affairs and the University of Kansas in the Albuquerque and Phoenix areas in 1951. Achievement tests were given in all Federal schools of the two areas and in most public schools where Indian children were in attendance. The results show:

Public schools held 95.6 percent elementary and 30 percent high school white students.

Public schools held 49 percent elementary and 13 percent high school Indian students.

Federal schools held 84 percent elementary and 42.5 percent high school Indian students.

The reader should bear in mind that these results do not reflect the holding power of all public schools in the Albuquerque and Phoenix areas as only public schools with substantial Indian enrollments were asked to participate in the achievement testing program.

What can be learned from students the schools fail to hold?

Mr. Henry Balliet, boys' adviser, Cheyenne Agency, S. Dak., provides many of the answers to this question in a thesis prepared for the University of North Dakota. Since many of the facts revealed by this study have implications for other schools in the service, a condensation of the entire study is given in the pages which follow.

HILDEGARD THOMPSON,
Chief, Branch of Education.

A SURVEY OF HIGH SCHOOL DROPOUTS AT CHEYENNE AGENCY, S. DAK., DURING A
4-YEAR PERIOD

1. Dropouts returning questionnaire, 90.
2. Period studied, 1949 through 1953.
3. Problems to be answered:
 - (a) Who are the dropouts?
 - (b) What are their attitudes toward education?
 - (c) What are their interests?
 - (d) What are their plans for the future?
4. Cheyenne River holding power from grades 9 to 12 is one-fifth of United States average.
5. Dropouts have a larger percentage of deceased parents than the general student body.
6. Average education of dropouts, 9 years.
7. Average education of parents of dropouts, 7 years.
8. 55.5 percent of dropouts are 4/4 Indian, 14.43 percent of dropouts are 3/4 Indian, 18.87 percent of dropouts are 1/2 Indian, 11.1 percent of dropouts are 1/4 Indian; 41.9 percent of 1952-53 student body are 4/4 Indian, 17.2 percent of 1952-53 student body are 3/4 Indian, 25.2 percent of 1952-53 student body are 1/2 Indian, 12.5 percent of 1952-53 student body are 1/4 Indian.
9. 1.11 percent of dropouts quit school at the age of 13, 7.77 percent of dropouts quit school at the age of 14, 6.66 percent of dropouts quit school at the age of 15, 48.84 percent of dropouts quit school at the age of 16, 12.21 percent of dropouts quit school at the age of 17, 14.43 percent of dropouts quit school at the age of 18, 8.88 percent of dropouts quit school at the age of 19.
10. Present occupations of dropouts:

	<i>Percent</i>
Unemployed.....	52. 17
Helping at home.....	14. 43
Housewife.....	8. 88
<u>Farm labor</u>	<u>7. 77</u>
Common labor.....	4. 44
Odd jobs.....	4. 44
Babysitting.....	3. 33
<u>Waitress</u>	<u>2. 22</u>
<u>Ranching</u>	<u>1. 11</u>
Changed schools.....	1. 11

¹ The Effect of Pre-School Language on the Educational Achievement of Indian and White Children in the Southwestern United States.

To find out why there were so many unemployed, inquiries were made among former employers. These answers were received:

- (a) He did not stay on the job.
- (b) Was not on job when needed most.
- (c) Took several days off without notice.
- (d) Was not dependable.
- (e) Quit after first pay day.

	<i>Percent</i>
11. Length of time dropouts have held present position:	
3 months or less	11
6 months	4
1 year	4
2 years	3
12. Reasons for dropping out of school:	
Difficulty at home	19
Failed in studies	16
No interest in subjects	15
Disliked dormitories	15
No reason	11
Help at home	10
To accept a job	9
To join Armed Forces	7
Illness	5
Trouble with teachers	4
Trouble with matrons or advisers	4
Too old	3
Interested in marriage	3
Parents transferred	1
Expelled from school	1
Homesick	1
13. Time of year dropouts quit school:	
End of year	61.05
During year	38.85
14. Subjects liked best by dropouts:	
Shop	24.42
Agriculture	17.76
Home economics	16.65
Bookkeeping	8.88
English	8.88
History	5.55
None	5.55
Mathematics	5.55
Typing	3.33
Science	3.33
15. Subjects disliked by dropouts:	
English	33.3
None	31.08
Mathematics	17.76
Science	7.77
Bookkeeping	3.33
Biology	2.22
Psychology	2.22
Home economics	2.22
16. Subjects dropouts would like to take which were not offered:	
None	71.04
Farm shop	11.10
Shorthand	6.66
Auto mechanics	6.66
Electricity	2.22
Typing ¹	1.11
Bookkeeping ¹	1.11
17. What dropouts liked best about school:	
Being with others	29.97
Athletics	21.09
Extracurricular activities	14.43

¹ Now offered.

17. What dropouts liked best about school—Continued		<i>Percent</i>	
Dormitory life.....		11.	10
The feeling of achievement.....		5.	55
Shop.....		4.	44
General classwork.....		4.	44
Agriculture.....		3.	33
Nothing.....		2.	22
Band.....		1.	11
Typing.....		1.	11
No preference.....		1.	11
18. Preference as to boarding or day school:			
Boarding school.....		71.	04
Day school.....		26.	64
None.....		2.	22
19. Number of dropouts who attended other schools:			
Yes.....		65.	49
No.....		34.	41
20. Whether high school had helped dropouts:			
Yes.....		79.	92
No.....		19.	98
21. Whether dropouts would complete high school if they were of school age:			
Yes.....		93.	24
No.....		6.	66
22. Responses of dropouts if it were wise to quit school:			
Yes.....		14.	43
No.....		85.	47
23. Responses as to whether they would have finished if they could have lived at home:			
Yes.....		24.	42
No.....		75.	48
24. Number whose parents encouraged them to finish schooling:			
Yes.....		78.	81
No.....		21.	09
25. Number who received encouragement to finish from other than parents:			
Yes.....		93.	24
No.....		6.	66
26. Attitude of the dropouts toward educational facilities available to them:			
Subjects taught are interesting to the average student:			
Yes.....		26.	64
No.....		73.	26
Need more vocational training:			
Yes.....		94.	35
No.....		5.	55
State should support the school rather than the Federal Government:			
Yes.....		3.	33
No.....		96.	57
Education is an opportunity for everyone:			
Yes.....			
No.....		99.	9
27. Favorite recreation of dropouts:			
Movies.....		33.	3
Dancing.....		21.	09
Rodeos.....		16.	65
Sports.....		9.	99
Hunting.....		9.	99
Church activities.....		8.	88
28. Smoking and drinking among dropouts:			
Do you smoke?		<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
Yes.....		39	31
No.....		9	11
Do you drink?			<i>Percent</i>
Yes.....		28	53. 28
No.....		20	46. 62

	<i>Percent</i>
29. Spare-time activities of dropouts:	
Personal chores.....	44. 4
Visiting.....	15. 54
Reading.....	13. 32
Horseback riding.....	11. 10
Sewing.....	6. 66
Loafing.....	3. 33
Odd jobs.....	2. 22
Traveling.....	1. 11
Writing letters.....	1. 11
Babysitting.....	1. 11
30. Future plans of dropouts:	
None.....	59. 94
Ranching.....	18. 87
Military service.....	7. 77
Further education.....	4. 44
Marriage.....	3. 33
Mechanics.....	2. 22
Build a good house.....	1. 11
Go to a trade school.....	1. 11
Plan to do nothing.....	1. 11

Summary

CONCLUSIONS

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. The largest percentage of school leavers of the Cheyenne River Boarding School are of the 16-year age group and the majority of students discontinue their education after completion of the eighth grade. Apparently, the compulsory attendance law accounts for both of these findings.

2. A serious problem exists regarding the attraction of the students to rodeos in the surrounding area. Because of it, the enrollment is considerably lower in the early weeks of school and the students reporting several weeks late interfere with the school program and with the progress of the students themselves.

3. Less than half the dropouts are employed. Those who have work are practically all in low-paid positions without either future or security.

4. The majority of respondents who are employed have not been in their positions more than 1 year. Their opportunities are few and most of those are of the common labor type.

5. The dropouts considered show a higher average number of years of education per individual than that of their parents.

1. Recognition of trouble in the early school years is of prime importance. Little can be done after a student reaches the age of 16 and has been dissatisfied in school for several years. If action is taken in time, certain adjustments can be made for these pupils that will forestall the development of these undesirable attitudes.

2. Introduce a high-school rodeo, well supervised, to be held about 5 or 6 weeks after the beginning of school, designed to satisfy the urge of the students to attend or participate in rodeos. Qualifications for participation must include a certain standard of grades, attendance, and conduct.

3. More careful investigation should be made regarding who is entitled to receive aid from the Federal Government. Without this aid, more of the able-bodied people would support themselves.

4. Little can be done for these unfortunate people after relations with the school have been severed. Occupational information should be made available to all students while they are in attendance. The importance of selecting the right job for a certain individual cannot be stressed too strongly.

5. School officials should work to gain parent confidence as well as student confidence. They should be informed about the school program, the aims of the school relative to their children, and helped to understand the advantages of a high-school education for their children. The most impressive way of doing this would be through home visits by the proper school employees.

CONCLUSIONS

6. The parents of the subjects have an indifferent attitude toward the school.

7. Failure in academic work is a common reason given for quitting school.

8. Economic need is the cause for approximately 10 percent of the dropouts from Cheyenne River Boarding School.

9. Vocational subjects are more interesting to the majority of students than academic courses. Pupils taking all academic subjects are more apt to get discouraged than those who take both vocational and academic courses.

10. About 51 percent of the school leavers dislike either English or mathematics.

11. Social contact with fellow students, athletics, dormitory life, and extracurricular activities are most popular as favorite activities of the school leavers.

12. Seventy-one percent of the school leavers express their preference of boarding-school life.

13. There is considerable changing from one school to another among the high school dropouts.

14. The Sioux benefit is not always used to the best advantage.

RECOMMENDATIONS

6. Plan a school organization which will bring parents and staff members together for the purpose of working out problems which concern the students. Better informed parents will tend to improve the relationship between the school and the home. Encourage parents to visit the classrooms.

7. More effective means must be found for determining the interests, abilities, and limitations of the pupils and this information should be used in planning each individual's program.

8. Provisions should be made whereby needy students may work part time at the school or in the nearby community if they are willing. Inform all students of this service so that they will feel free to request assistance rather than drop out of school because of lack of finances.

9. Revise the curriculum to include both vocational and academic courses. Seek to identify student aptitudes and interests.

10. Teachers should be informed of this large percentage disliking certain subjects, if they are not already aware of it. Then there must be staff agreement as to the steps to be taken to correct the difficulty. Grade-school teachers should work together toward arousing student interests in these subjects which are first introduced in the early school years.

11. Continue and expand the recreational program to include more variety in activities, especially educational functions such as literary clubs and musical organizations.

12. More Indian youth should be exposed to the many valuable educational experiences connected with living in dormitories. Even though the percentage of day school students is small, provisions should be made to include all students in attendance. This would equalize opportunities and would improve the attendance situation.

13. School administrators of the schools of a vicinity should work out some sort of agreement whereby students could not change from one school to another during the school term without a reasonable explanation, such as moving to a different locality.

14. The Sioux benefit should be reserved for them until after the completing of high school or the 21st birthday (rather than the 18th). In addition to this, the money should be allotted as necessary for educational purposes or for some provident investment.

CONCLUSIONS

15. There is definite need for a more extensive guidance program.

RECOMMENDATIONS

15. A guidance program should be organized which will reach all the pupils in all their areas of need. It should include all school-age children whether in school or not; especially those of high-school age. Many more may be persuaded to come to high school or to take up some type of apprenticeship. Also under an efficient guidance program, potential dropouts may be identified and appropriate action can be taken before the student decides to leave.

APPENDIX 12

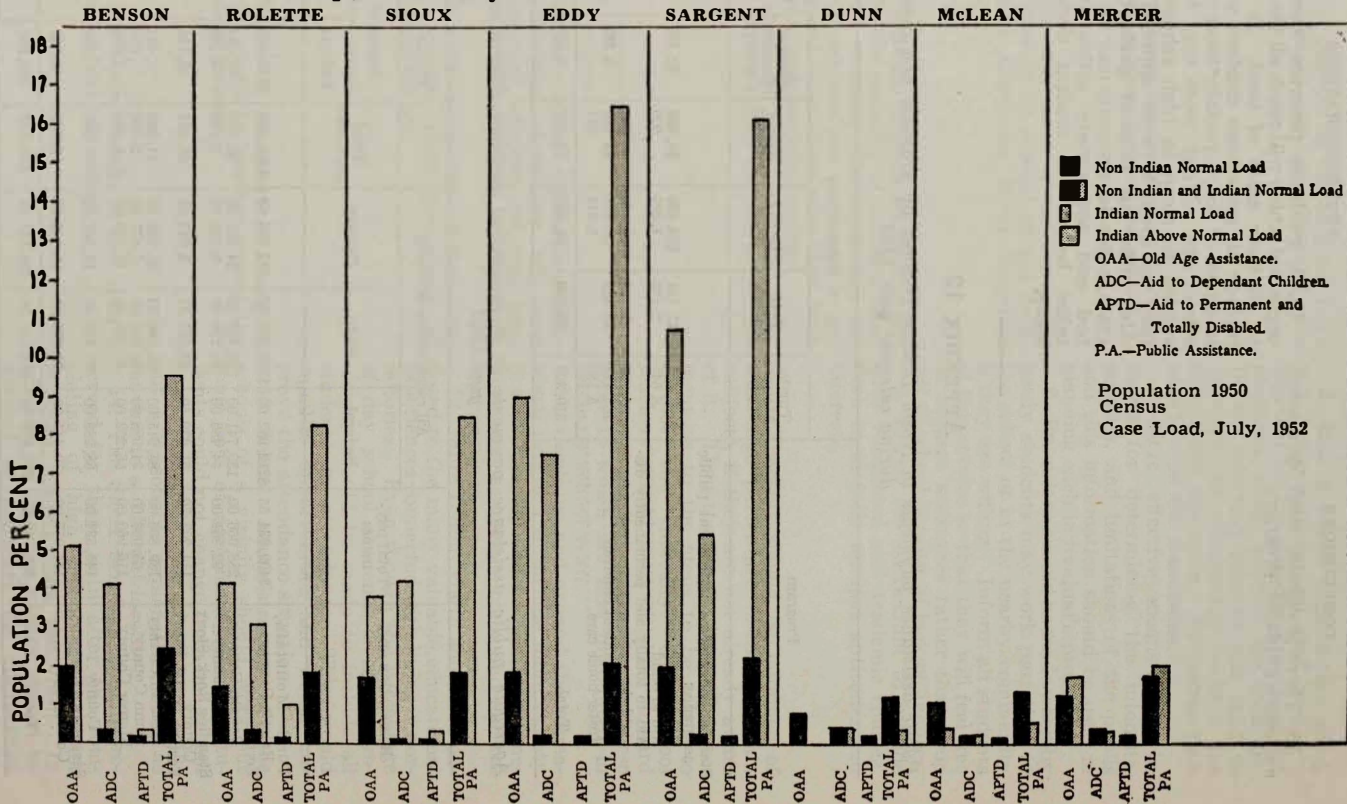
Public assistance payments to North Dakota Indians by program and reservation during calendar year 1952

Program	Reservations					Total, all reservations
	Turtle Mountain	Fort Totten	Standing Rock	Fort Berthold	Sisseton (Sargent County)	
State public welfare department public assistance:						
Old-age assistance.....	\$106,155	\$37,131	\$28,400	\$4,939	\$2,753	\$179,378
Aid to blind.....	8,641	2,136	1,825	500	-----	13,102
Aid to totally and permanently disabled.....	25,222	1,857	2,978	685	-----	30,742
Aid to dependent children.....	165,110	52,422	45,845	13,189	3,582	280,148
Foster-home care.....	5,180	-----	1,619	354	-----	7,153
Total.....	310,308	93,546	80,667	19,667	6,335	510,523

Aggregate public assistance payments in 9 reservation counties during calendar year 1952

Reservation and county	Total payments	All races, source of funds			Indian		
		Federal	State	County	Total payments	Source of funds	
						Federal	State
Turtle Mountain, Rolette County.....	\$409,034.55	\$212,952.00	\$183,253.87	\$12,828.68	\$310,308	\$169,952	\$140,356
Fort Totten:							
Benson County.....	288,066.00	139,741.00	123,843.00	24,482.00	88,388	51,034	37,354
Eddy County.....	92,961.00	44,486.00	29,226.00	9,249.00	5,158	3,248	1,910
Standing Rock, Sioux County.....	114,203.70	61,639.50	49,517.37	3,046.83	80,667	46,794	33,873
Fort Berthold:							
McLean County.....	189,806.00	85,915.00	81,986.00	21,905.00	11,033	5,463	5,570
Dunn County.....	65,090.00	34,998.00	22,215.00	7,877.00	2,646	1,519	1,127
Mercer County.....	116,960.00	56,252.00	45,588.00	15,120.00	5,443	2,886	2,557
Mountrail County.....	145,524.00	68,989.00	57,948.00	18,587.00	545	339	206
Sisseton, Sargent County.....	144,057.00	70,441.00	58,574.00	15,042.00	6,335	3,325	3,010
Total.....	1,565,702.25	775,413.50	652,151.24	128,137.51	510,523	284,560	225,963

Comparative Study of Public Assistance Between Indian and Non-Indian



APPENDIX 14

UNIFORM RECIPROCAL ENFORCEMENT OF SUPPORT ACT AS AMENDED (1952)¹

PART I—GENERAL PROVISIONS

Section 1. *Purposes.* The purposes of this act are to improve and extend by reciprocal legislation the enforcement of duties of support and to make uniform the law with respect thereto.

Section 2. *Definitions.* As used in this act unless the context requires otherwise, (1) "State" includes any state, territory or possession of the United States and the District of Columbia in which this or a substantially similar reciprocal law has been enacted.

(2) "Initiating state" means any state in which a proceeding pursuant to this or a substantially similar reciprocal law is commenced.

(3) "Responding state" means any state in which any proceeding pursuant to the proceeding in the initiating state is or may be commenced.

(4) "Court" means the [here insert name] court of this state and when the context requires, means the court of any other state as defined in a substantially similar reciprocal law.

(5) "Law" includes both common and statute law.

(6) "Duty of support" includes any duty of support imposed or imposed by law, or by any court order, decree or judgment, whether interlocutory or final, whether incidental to a proceeding for divorce, judicial [legal] separation, separate maintenance or otherwise.

(7) "Obligor" means any person owing a duty of support.

(8) "Obligee" means any person to whom a duty of support is owed.

Section 3. *Remedies Additional to Those Now Existing.* The remedies herein provided are in addition to and not in substitution for any other remedies.

Section 4. *Extent of Duties of Support.* *Duties of support arising under the law of this state, when applicable under Section 7, bind the obligor, present in this state, regardless of the presence or residence of the obligee.*

PART II—CRIMINAL ENFORCEMENT

Section 5. *Interstate Rendition.* The Governor of this state (1) may demand from the Governor of any other state the surrender of any person found in such other state who is charged in this state with the crime of failing to provide for the support of any person in this state and (2) may surrender on demand by the Governor of any other state any person found in this state who is charged in such other state with the crime of failing to provide for the support of a person in such other state. The provisions for extradition of criminals not inconsistent herewith shall apply to any such demand although the person whose surrender is demanded was not in the demanding state at the time of the commission of the crime and although he had not fled therefrom. Neither the demand, the oath nor any proceedings for extradition pursuant to this section need state or show that the person whose surrender is demanded has fled from justice, or at the time of the commission of the crime was in the demanding or other state.

Section 6. *Relief from the Above Provisions.* Any obligor contemplated by Section 5, who submits to the jurisdiction of the court of such other state and complies with the court's order of support, shall be relieved of extradition for desertion or nonsupport entered in the courts of this state during the period of such compliance.

PART III—CIVIL ENFORCEMENT

Section 7. *Choice of Law.* *Duties of support applicable under this law [act] are those imposed or imposed under the laws of any state where the obligor was present during the period for which support is sought. The obligor is presumed to have been present in the responding state during the period for which support is sought until otherwise shown.*

Section 8. *Remedies of a State or Political Subdivision Thereof Furnishing Support.* Whenever the state or a political subdivision thereof furnishes support to an obligee, it has the same right to invoke the provisions hereof as the obligee to whom the support was furnished for the purpose of securing reimbursement of expenditures so made and of obtaining continuing support.

¹ Italicized words indicate new language added by the 1952 amendments approved and promulgated by the National Conference of Commissioners on Uniform State Laws.

Section 9. *How Duties of Support Are Enforced.* All duties of support are enforceable by action [petition] [proceeding] [complaint] irrespective of relationship between the obligor and obligee. Jurisdiction of all proceedings hereunder shall be vested in the [here insert title of court desired].

Section 10. *Contents of Petition [Complaint] for Support.* The petition [complaint] shall be verified and shall state the name and, so far as known to the plaintiff [petitioner] [complainant], the addresses and circumstances of the defendant [respondent], his dependents for whom support is sought and all other pertinent information. *The plaintiff [petitioner] [complainant] may include in or attach to the petition [complaint] any information which may help in locating or identifying the defendant [respondent] including, but without limitation by enumeration, a photograph of the defendant [respondent], a description of any distinguishing marks of his person, other names and aliases by which he has been or is known, the name of his employer, his finger prints, or Social Security number.*

Section 11. *Officials to Represent Plaintiff [Petitioner, Complainant].* The District Attorney [prosecuting attorney, county attorney, county solicitor, county adjutor, friend of the court, or such other official as may be appropriate], upon the request of the court [a state department of welfare, a county commissioner, an overseer of the poor, or other local welfare official], shall represent the plaintiff [petitioner, complainant] in any proceeding under this act.

Section 12. *Petition for a Minor.* A petition [complaint] on behalf of a minor obligee may be brought by a person having legal custody of the minor without appointment as guardian ad litem.

Section 13. *Duty of Court of This State as Initiating State.* If the court of this state acting as an initiating state finds that the petition sets forth facts from which it may be determined that the defendant [respondent] owes a duty of support and that a court of the responding state may obtain jurisdiction of the defendant or his property, it shall so certify and shall cause three copies of (1) the petition [complaint] (2) its certificate and (3) this act to be transmitted to the court in the responding state. If the name and address of such court is unknown and the responding state has an information agency comparable to that established in the initiating state it shall cause such copies to be transmitted to the state information agency or other proper official of the responding state, with a request that it forward them to the proper court, and that the court of the responding state acknowledge their receipt to the court of the initiating state.

Section 14. *Costs and Fees.* A court of this state acting either as an initiating or responding state may in its discretion direct that any part of or all fees and costs incurred in this state, including without limitation by enumeration, fees for filing, service of process, seizure of property, and stenographic service of both plaintiff [petitioner] [complainant] and defendant [respondent], or either, shall be paid by the county [city, municipality, state, or other political subdivision thereof]. Where the action is brought by or through the state or an agency thereof, there shall be no filing fee.

Section 15. *Jurisdiction by Arrest.* When the court of this state, acting either as an initiating or responding state, has reason to believe that the defendant [respondent] may flee the jurisdiction it may (a) as an initiating state request in its certificate that the court of the responding state obtain the body of the defendant by appropriate process if that be permissible under the law of the responding state; or (b) as a responding state, obtain the body of the defendant by appropriate process.

Section 16. *State Information Agency.* The [Attorney General], [State Attorney], [Welfare Department], [or other information agency] is hereby designated as the State Information Agency under this act, and it shall be his [its] duty:

(1) To compile a list of the courts and their addresses in this state having jurisdiction under this act and transmit the same to the State Information Agency of every other state which has adopted this or a substantially similar act.

(2) To maintain a register of such lists received from other states and to transmit copies thereof as soon as possible after receipt to every court in this state having jurisdiction under this act.

Section 17. *Duty of the Court of This State as Responding State.* When the court of this state, acting as a responding state, receives from the court of an initiating state the aforesaid copies, it shall (1) docket the cause, (2) notify the [here insert the name of the official charged with the duty of carrying on the proceedings], (3) set a time and place for a hearing, and (4) take such action as is necessary in accordance with the laws of this state to obtain jurisdiction.

Section 18. *Further Duty of Responding Court.* If a court of this state, acting as a responding state, is unable to obtain jurisdiction of the defendant [respondent] or his property due to inaccuracies or inadequacies in the petition [complaint] or otherwise, the court shall communicate this fact to the court in the initiating state,

shall on its own initiative use all means at its disposal to trace the defendant [respondent] or his property, and shall hold the case pending the receipt of more accurate information or an amended petition [complaint] from the court in the initiating state. [Section 19. Procedure. The court shall conduct proceedings under this act in the manner prescribed by law for an action for the enforcement of the type of duty of support claimed.]²

Section 20. *Order of Support.* If the court of the responding state finds a duty of support, it may order the defendant [respondent] to furnish support or reimbursement therefor and subject the property of the defendant [respondent] to such order.

Section 21. *Responding State To Transmit Copies to Initiating State.* The court of this state when acting as a responding state shall cause to be transmitted to the court of the initiating state a copy of all orders of support or for reimbursement therefor.

Section 22. *Additional Powers of Court.* In addition to the foregoing powers the court of this state when acting as the responding state has the power to subject the defendant [respondent] to such terms and conditions as the court may deem proper to assure compliance with its orders and in particular

(a) To require the defendant [respondent] to furnish recognizance in the form of a cash deposit or bond of such character and in such amount as the court may deem proper to assure payment of any amount required to be paid by the defendant [respondent].

(b) To require the defendant [respondent] to make payments at specified intervals to the clerk [probation department] [bureau] of the court or the obligee and to report personally to such clerk [probation department] [bureau] at such times as may be deemed necessary.

(c) To punish the defendant [respondent] who shall violate any order of the court to the same extent as is provided by law for contempt of the court in any other suit or proceeding cognizable by the court.

Section 23. *Additional Duties of the Court of This State When Acting as a Responding State.* The court of this state when acting as a responding state shall have the following duties which may be carried out through the clerk [probation department] [bureau] of the court:

(a) Upon the receipt of a payment made by the defendant [respondent] pursuant to any order of the court or otherwise, to transmit the same forthwith to the court of the initiating state, and

(b) Upon request to furnish to the court of the initiating state a certified statement of all payments made by the defendant [respondent].

Section 24. *Additional Duty of the Court of This State When Acting as an Initiating State.* The court of this state when acting as an initiating state shall have the duty which may be carried out through the clerk [probation department] [bureau] of the court to receive and disburse forthwith all payments made by the defendant [respondent] or transmitted by the court of the responding state.

Section 25. *Evidence of Husband and Wife.* Laws attaching a privilege against the disclosure of communications between husband and wife are inapplicable to proceedings under this act. Husband and wife are competent witnesses [and may be compelled] to testify to any relevant matter, including marriage and parentage.

[Section 26. *Rules of Evidence.* In any hearing under this law, the court shall be bound by the same rules of evidence that bind the [here insert the name of some court in the state that has relaxed the requirement that the technical rules of evidence must be followed, such as the Juvenile Court, the Domestic Relations Court].]

Section 27. *Application of Payments.* Any order of support issued by a court of this state when acting as a responding state shall not supersede any previous order of support issued in a divorce or separate maintenance action, but the amounts for a particular period paid pursuant to either order shall be credited against amounts accruing or accrued for the same period under both.

[Section 28. *Effect of Participation in Proceeding.* Participation in any proceedings under this act shall not confer upon any court jurisdiction of any of the parties thereto in any other proceeding.]

Section 29. *Severability.* If any provision hereof or the application thereof to any person or circumstance is held invalid, such invalidity shall not affect other

² Editor's Note (not action by Uniform Law Commissioners): As an alternative to this sec. 19, some States may wish to follow New Jersey's language, which reads as follows—"In any proceeding under this Act the court may order interrogatories or depositions to be taken within or without the state, pursuant to the provisions of law applicable to a court of record." It is felt that this would clearly indicate that the "shuttling" of papers back and forth would be authorized when the respondent makes counterclaims.

provisions or applications of the act which can be given effect without the invalid provision or application, and to this end the provisions of this act are declared to be severable.

Section 30. *Repealer.* The following acts are hereby repealed.

(Enumeration)

Section 31. *Time of Taking Effect.* This act shall take effect on -----

APPENDIX 15

THE COUNCIL OF STATE GOVERNMENTS,
New York, N. Y.

SUMMARY OF BASIC DUTIES OF SUPPORT IMPOSED BY STATE LAW (Revised and corrected as of January 1954)

(The purpose of this summary is to provide information for persons interested in the operation of reciprocal-support laws. Most of the reciprocal acts do not enumerate the specific duties of support which may be enforced in the enacting State and hence it is felt that a brief summary of the basic support laws in such States would be helpful. Where the reciprocal act sets forth the duties of support which may be enforced reciprocally, this information is presented in lieu of the other basic support laws of the State)

ALABAMA

1. Husband is liable for the support of his wife.
2. Any parent is liable for the support of children under 18.
3. Father of illegitimate child is liable for its support, statute of limitations 1 year from birth of child.
4. Father, mother, adult child, brother, grandparent, or grandchild, is liable to be sued to recover support of pauper relative indicated.¹
5. Father, mother, husband, wife, son, and daughter liable for support of public-assistance applicants and recipients.

ALASKA

1. Husband is liable for support of his wife.
2. Any parent or guardian is liable for the support of children or wards under the age of 16 years.
3. Parent is liable for support of any illegitimate child under the age of 16 years.
4. Every needy person must be supported while living and, upon dying, be given a decent burial, by the spouse, children, father, mother, grandfather, grandmother, grandchildren, brothers, or sisters of such needy person, if they, or either of them, be of sufficient ability, in the order named (enforceable by civil action).

ARIZONA

1. Husband is liable for support of his wife.
2. Father is liable for support of children to 21.
3. Every child is the legitimate child of its natural parents, and is entitled to support. Mother may bring action to establish parentage within 1 year.

ARKANSAS

1. Husband is liable for the support of his wife.
2. Father is liable for the support of a child, or an illegitimate child which he has acknowledged as his own, under 16 years of age.
3. Father is liable for support of an illegitimate child until the child is 14 years of age if the parentage has been proven in a county court before the child is 7 years of age.
4. Wife is liable for the support of pauper husband.
5. Mother is liable for the support of a child under 14 years of age.
6. Father, mother, stepparent, the person in loco parentis to a child, or adult children, are liable for the support of pauper relative indicated.¹

¹ See footnote 1, p. 150.

CALIFORNIA

1. Husband liable for support of wife.
2. Wife liable for support of husband if infirm or unable to take care of himself.
3. Parent (man or woman) is liable for support of minor children.
4. Parent (man or woman) is liable for support of illegitimate children.
5. Father, mother, or adult child is liable for support of pauper relative indicated.¹

COLORADO

1. Husband liable for support of wife.
2. Father is liable for support of children up to 16.
3. Father is liable for support of illegitimate children up to 16.
4. Father, mother, brother, sister, adult child, grandparent, or grandchild is liable for support of pauper relative indicated.¹

CONNECTICUT

1. Husband is liable for support of wife.
2. Wife is liable for the support of a needy husband.
3. Father is liable for support of minor children.
4. The mother of an illegitimate child is liable for its support, while the father is liable only if his paternity is established in a bastardy action or if he acknowledges paternity in writing.
5. Father, mother, adult child, grandparent, or grandchild is liable for the support of pauper relative indicated.¹ A minor child also is liable for the support of his needy parents or grandparents.

DELAWARE

The Delaware reciprocal support law refers to support of a wife, child, and/or poor relative. This has been interpreted to include:

1. Husband liable for support of wife.
2. Parents liable for support of minor children.
3. Parents liable for support of illegitimate children. Paternity must be established in a court of competent jurisdiction.
4. Father, mother, adult child, grandparent, or grandchild is liable for the support of pauper relative indicated.¹

FLORIDA

1. The Florida reciprocal support law sets forth the enforceable duties of support in the act itself namely:
 - (a) Husband is liable for support of wife;
 - (b) Father is liable for support of child under 17 years of age (child is defined to include foster child or adopted child);
 - (c) Mother is liable for support of child under 17 years of age whenever the father of such child is dead, or cannot be found, or is incapable of providing support;
 - (d) Both parents are liable for support of a child 17 years of age or older if child is unable to maintain himself and is likely to become a public charge;
 - (e) Child is considered legitimate if marriage ceremony is performed after its birth, or if parents hold themselves out as husband and wife by virtue of a common-law marriage recognized as valid by the laws of the initiating and responding State; wife is deemed legitimate under similar circumstances.

GEORGIA

1. The Georgia reciprocal support law sets forth the enforceable duties of support in the act itself namely:
 - (a) Husband is liable for support of wife;
 - (b) Father is liable for support of child under 17 years of age (child is defined to include stepchild, foster child, or legally adopted child);
 - (c) Mother is liable for support of child under 17 years of age whenever the father is dead, or cannot be found, or is incapable of providing support;
 - (d) Both parents are liable for support of child 17 years of age or older if child is unable to maintain himself and is likely to become a public charge;

¹See footnote 1, p. 150.

(e) Child is considered legitimate if marriage ceremony is performed after its birth, or if parents hold themselves out as husband and wife by virtue of a common-law marriage recognized as valid by the laws of the initiating and responding States; wife is deemed legitimate under similar circumstances;

(f) Husband is liable for the support of any other dependent (defined to include a wife, child, mother, father, grandparent, or grandchild who is in need of and entitled to support).

HAWAII

1. Husband is liable for the support of his wife.
2. Married parents are liable for the support of their children up to the age of 20 years.
3. Unmarried mother is liable for the support of her child up to the age of 20 years.
4. Unmarried father, whose paternity has been legally established, is liable for medical expenses connected with the mother's pregnancy and confinement plus the support of child up to the age of 16 years.
5. Adult children (20 years of age and over) are liable for the support of their parents.

IDAHO

1. Husband is liable for support of wife.
2. Wife is liable for support of husband.
3. Father and/or mother is liable for support of minor children.
4. Father, mother, or adult child is responsible for support of pauper relative indicated.¹

ILLINOIS

1. The Illinois reciprocal support law sets forth the enforceable duties of support in the act itself, namely:
 - (a) Husband is liable for support of wife;
 - (b) Father is liable for support of child under 17 years of age (child is defined to include stepchild, foster child, or adopted child);
 - (c) Mother is liable for support of child under 17 years of age whenever the father is dead, or cannot be found, or is incapable of providing support;
 - (d) Both parents are liable for support of a child 17 years of age or older if child is unable to maintain himself and is likely to become a public charge;
 - (e) Child is considered legitimate if marriage ceremony is performed after its birth, or if parents hold themselves out as husband and wife by virtue of a common-law marriage recognized as valid by the laws of the initiating and responding States; wife is deemed legitimate under similar circumstances;
 - (f) Husband is liable for the support of any other dependent (defined to include a spouse, child, mother, father, person in loco parentis, brother or sister who is in need of and entitled to support).

INDIANA

1. Husband is liable for support of wife.
2. Parent (man or woman) liable for support of children to age 14.
3. Father liable for support of children to age 16 (boys) or 17 (girls).
4. An adult child is liable for the support of parents.
5. The obligations imposed upon parents to support their legitimate children are imposed upon the parents of children born out of wedlock.

IOWA

1. The Iowa reciprocal support law sets forth the enforceable duties of support in the act itself, namely:
 - (a) Husband is liable for support of wife;
 - (b) Father is liable for support of child under 17 years of age (child is defined to include a stepchild, foster child, or legally adopted child);
 - (c) Mother is liable for support of child under 17 years of age whenever the father of such child is dead, or cannot be found, or is incapable of providing support;
 - (d) Both parents are liable for support of a child 17 years of age or older if child is unable to maintain himself and is likely to become a public charge;

¹ See footnote 1, p. 150.

(e) Child is considered legitimate if marriage ceremony is performed after its birth, or if parents hold themselves out as husband and wife by virtue of a common-law marriage recognized as valid by the laws of the initiating and responding States; wife is deemed legitimate under similar circumstances;

(f) Husband is liable for the support of any other dependent (defined to include a wife, child, mother, father, grandparent, or grandchild who is in need of and entitled to support).

KANSAS

1. A husband is criminally and civilly liable to support his wife.

2. A wife is not criminally liable to support her husband, but she is civilly liable to support her husband if he is in one of certain State hospitals or feeble-minded schools.

3. A parent or parents must support children under the age of 16 years according to the Criminal Code, but they are civilly liable to support their children under the age of 21 years if the child is unmarried, or under the age of 18 years if the child is married.

4. The putative father is liable for the support of an illegitimate child the same as a legitimate father, but the fact of putative fatherhood must be established by bastardy proceedings.

5. No individual is liable to support pauper relatives merely because his relatives are without funds. However, spouses, parents, and children are liable at the present time for a \$12 per week charge for the care of their relatives in certain State institutions.

KENTUCKY

1. The Kentucky reciprocal support law sets forth the enforceable duties of support in the act itself, namely:

(a) Husband is liable for support of wife;

(b) Father is liable for support of child under 17 years of age (child is defined to include stepchild, foster child, or adopted child);

(c) Mother is liable for support of child under 17 years of age whenever the father is dead, or cannot be found, or is incapable of providing support;

(d) Both parents are liable for support of a child 17 years of age or older if child is unable to maintain himself and is likely to become a public charge;

(e) Child is considered legitimate if marriage ceremony is performed after its birth, or if parents hold themselves out as husband and wife by virtue of a common-law marriage recognized as valid by the laws of the initiating and responding State; wife is deemed legitimate under similar circumstances;

(f) Husband is liable for the support of any other dependent (defined to include a wife, child, mother, father, grandparent, or grandchild who is in need of and entitled to support).

LOUISIANA

1. Husband is liable for support of wife.

2. Wife is liable for support of husband.

3. Parent (man or woman) is liable for support of children, including illegitimates.

4. Father, mother, adult child, grandparent, or grandchild is liable for support of pauper relative indicated.¹

MAINE

1. Husband is liable for support of wife. Wife is liable for support of husband if he is recipient of public assistance.

2. Father is liable for support of children to age 16 (or age 18 if in school).

3. Father, mother, adult child, grandparent, or grandchild is liable for support of pauper relative indicated, or of relative receiving public assistance.

(NOTE.—Pauper assistance is a separate category in Maine.)

MARYLAND

1. Husband is liable for support of wife.

2. Parent (father or mother) is liable for support of minor children.

3. Father, mother, or adult child is liable for support of pauper relative indicated.¹

¹ See footnote 1, p. 150.

MASSACHUSETTS

1. Husband is liable for support of wife.
2. Parents are liable for support of minor children, including illegitimate children.
3. Adult children are liable for support of parents.
4. Parents, adult children, and minor children are liable for support of persons aided under various statutory programs of public assistance.

MICHIGAN

1. Husband is liable for support of wife.
2. Father is liable for support of minor children.
3. Father, mother, or adult child is liable for support of pauper relative indicated.¹
4. Grandparent is also liable for support of needy grandchildren under 17 years of age.

MINNESOTA

1. The Minnesota reciprocal support law is self-contained and the only enforceable duties of support (on an interstate basis) are those enumerated in that act, namely:

"Obligee means the spouse, divorced spouse, legitimate or illegitimate minor child of an obligor to whom the obligor owes a duty of support."

MISSOURI

1. Husband is liable for support of wife.
2. Parent (man or woman) is liable for support of minor children.

MONTANA

1. Husband is liable for support of wife.
2. Wife is liable for support of husband.
3. Father is liable for support of children to age 16.
4. Father, mother, sister, brother, adult child, grandparent, or grandchild is liable for support of pauper relative indicated.¹

NEBRASKA

1. Husband is liable for support of wife.
2. Parent (man or woman) is liable for support of children to age 21.
3. Parent (man or woman) is liable for support of illegitimate child to age 21.
4. Father, mother, sister, brother, adult child, grandparent, or grandchild is liable for support of pauper relative indicated.¹

NEW HAMPSHIRE

1. Husband is liable for support of wife.
2. Parent (man or woman) is liable for support of minor children.
3. Father, mother, or adult child is liable for support of pauper relative indicated.¹

NEW JERSEY

1. Husband is liable for support of wife.
2. Parent (man or woman) is liable for support of minor children.
3. Child born out of wedlock is entitled to same support as if legitimate.
4. Father, mother, adult child, grandchild, or grandparent is liable for support of pauper relative indicated.¹

NEW MEXICO

1. Husband is liable for support of wife.
2. Wife is liable for support of infirm husband where there is no community property.
3. Parent (man or woman) is liable for support of children under age 10; father liable for support of minor children over age 10.
4. Mother owes duty to support bastard same as if born in wedlock; father owes duty to support bastard until age 16 (or until majority if unable to work).

¹ See footnote 1, p. 150.

NEW YORK

1. The New York reciprocal support law sets forth the enforceable duties of support in the act itself, namely:

(a) Husband is liable for support of wife;

(b) Father is liable for support of child under 17 years of age (child is defined to include a stepchild, foster child, or legally adopted child);

(c) Mother is liable for support of child under 17 years of age whenever the father is dead, or cannot be found, or is incapable of providing support;

(d) Both parents are liable for support of a child 17 years of age or older if child is unable to maintain himself and is likely to become a public charge;

(e) Child is considered legitimate if marriage ceremony is performed after its birth, or if parents hold themselves out as husband and wife by virtue of a common-law marriage recognized as valid by the laws of the initiating and responding State; wife is deemed legitimate under similar circumstances.

(NOTE.—The New York act has been held to be applicable to illegitimate children in courts outside New York City, but not in New York City. An amendment to remedy the New York City situation is expected to be presented to the 1954 legislature.)

NORTH CAROLINA

1. Husband is liable for support of wife.
2. Parent (mother or father) is liable for support of children to age 18.
3. Both parents are liable for support of children born out of wedlock to age 18.

NORTH DAKOTA

1. Husband liable for support of wife.
2. Wife liable for support of husband.
3. Both parents liable for support of children to age 16.
4. Both parents liable for support of illegitimate children same as though born in wedlock.
5. Father, mother, or adult child is liable for support of pauper relative indicated.¹

OHIO

1. Husband liable for support of wife.
2. Wife liable for support of husband.
3. Both parents liable for support of children to age 18; if physically or mentally handicapped, to age 21.
4. Both parents liable for support of illegitimate children to age 18; if physically or mentally handicapped, to age 21.
5. Adult children liable for support of parents.

OKLAHOMA

1. Husband liable for support of wife.
2. Wife liable for support of husband.
3. Both parents liable for support of children.
4. Father, mother, or adult child is liable for support of pauper relative indicated.¹

OREGON

1. Husband is liable for support of wife (criminal).
2. Husband and wife are liable for the support of female children under age 18 and male children under age 16 (criminal).
3. Adult children are liable for the support of indigent parent (criminal).
4. Father is liable for the support of an illegitimate child.
5. Father, mother, or adult child is liable for the support of needy relative indicated.¹ This statute enables the welfare commission to enforce the duty of support by civil action against relatives of needy persons who are eligible to receive or are receiving public assistance.

PENNSYLVANIA

1. Husband is liable for support of wife.
2. Wife is liable for support of husband.
3. Both father and mother are liable for support of children.
4. Children are liable for support of parents.
5. Father is liable for support of illegitimate child if paternity has been established or if it has been acknowledged by the reputed father.

¹See footnote 1, p. 150.

PUERTO RICO

1. The following persons are obliged to mutual support:
 - (a) Husband and wife.
 - (b) Legitimate ascendants and descendants.
 - (c) Parents and legitimated children and the legitimate, natural, and illegitimate descendants of the latter.
 - (d) Parents and illegitimate children and the legitimate, natural, and illegitimate descendants of the latter.
 - (e) The adopter and the person adopted.
 - (f) Brother and sister also owe their legitimate brothers and sisters even where only on the mother's or the father's side.
2. On and after July 25, 1952, there are no illegitimate children in Puerto Rico according to article II, section I of the Commonwealth's constitution.

RHODE ISLAND

1. The Rhode Island reciprocal support law is self-contained and it enumerates the following duties of support:
 - (a) Husband is liable for support of wife over 50 years of age or physically incapacitated.
 - (b) Husband is liable for support of children under 18 years of age and any other dependent.
 - (c) Mother is liable for support of children under 18 years.
 - (d) Both parents are liable for support of a child 18 years of age or older who is unable to maintain himself and is likely to become a public charge.
 - (e) Adult children are liable for support of parents who are incapable of self-support and who may become public charges.

SOUTH CAROLINA

1. The South Carolina reciprocal support act sets forth the enforceable duties of support in the act itself, namely:
 - (a) Husband is liable for support of wife;
 - (b) Father is liable for support of child under 17 years of age (child is defined to include stepchild, foster child, or adopted child);
 - (c) Mother is liable for support of child under 17 years of age whenever the father is dead, or cannot be found, or is incapable of providing support;
 - (d) Both parents are liable for support of a child 17 years of age or older if child is unable to maintain himself and is likely to become a public charge;
 - (e) Child is considered legitimate if marriage ceremony is performed after its birth, or if parents hold themselves out as husband and wife by virtue of a common-law marriage recognized as valid by the laws of the initiating and responding State; wife is deemed legitimate under similar circumstances;
 - (f) Husband is liable for the support of any other dependent (defined to include a wife, child, mother, father, grandparent, or grandchild who is in need of and entitled to support).

SOUTH DAKOTA

1. Husband is liable for support of wife.
2. Wife is liable for support of husband.
3. Both parents are liable for support of minor children (but husband is not liable for stepchildren).
4. Both parents liable for support of illegitimate child.
5. Duty of father, mother, and children of any poor person who is unable to maintain himself, to maintain such person to the extent of their ability.

TENNESSEE

1. Husband is liable for support of wife.
2. Both parents are liable for support of minor legitimate children.
3. Mother is liable for support of illegitimate child; father not liable unless he admits paternity or paternity is established through legal procedures as provided by Tennessee statute.

TEXAS

1. Husband is not liable for the support of his wife except for necessities. In the event of divorce, the wife may obtain support during the pendency of the divorce, but may not obtain alimony when the divorce is granted.

2. The father and the mother are both liable for the support of their children under the age of 18 years, in divorce cases (Senate bill 101, effective August 26, 1953). It is believed that under other dependency and neglect statutes the age 16 would be the maximum age for children for whom support may be required.

UTAH

1. Husband is liable for support of wife.
2. Father is liable for support of minor children.
3. Father is liable for support of illegitimate child.
4. Father, mother, brother, sister, adult child, grandparent, or grandchild is liable for support of pauper relative indicated.¹

VERMONT

1. The Vermont reciprocal support law is self-contained and it enumerates the following duties of support:

- (a) A parent to support a minor child;
- (b) A person to support a present spouse provided such persons have not lived separate and apart more than 3 years without one contributing or receiving support from the other, unless such failure has been in violation of a court order obtained during that time;
- (c) A person to support a former spouse under a court order, decree, or judgment.

VIRGINIA

1. Husband is liable for support of wife.
2. Both parents are liable for support of male children under 16, female children under 17, or children of any age who are crippled or incapacitated for earning a living.
3. Father who admits paternity of illegitimate child in open court is liable for support of such child.
4. Children 16 years of age or over (of sufficient income and after reasonably providing for their own family needs) are liable for support of their aged or needy parents.

VIRGIN ISLANDS

1. The Virgin Islands reciprocal support law sets forth the enforceable duties of support in the act itself, namely:

- (a) Husband is liable for support of wife;
- (b) Father is liable for support of child under 17 years of age (child is defined to include a legitimate, illegitimate, or legally adopted child);
- (c) Mother is liable for support of child under 17 years of age whenever the father is dead, or cannot be found, or is incapable of providing support;
- (d) Both parents liable for support of child 17 years of age or older if child is unable to maintain himself and is likely to become a public charge;
- (e) Child is considered legitimate if marriage ceremony is performed after its birth;
- (f) Husband is liable for the support of any other dependent (defined to include a wife, child, mother, father, grandparent, or grandchild who is in need of and entitled to support).

WASHINGTON

1. Husband is liable for support of wife.
2. Both parents are liable for support of minor children.
3. Father is liable for support of illegitimate child.
4. Father, mother, sister, brother, adult child, grandparent, or grandchild, is liable for support of pauper relative indicated.¹

¹See footnote 1, p. 150.

WEST VIRGINIA

1. Husband is liable for support of wife.
2. Both parents are liable for support of minor children.
3. Father is liable for support of illegitimate child if paternity has been legally established.
4. Father, mother, brother, sister, or adult child is liable for support of needy relative indicated.¹

WISCONSIN

1. Husband is liable for support of wife.
 2. Father is liable for support of minor children.
 3. Father is liable for support of illegitimate child.
 4. Father, mother, or child is liable for support of pauper relative indicated.
- Note that minor children, if able, are liable for the support of the parents except that children of school age shall not be compelled to work contrary to the child labor laws.

WYOMING

1. Husband is liable for support of wife.
2. Father is liable for support of children under 16.
3. Father is liable for support of illegitimate child.

SUMMARY OF 1953 STATE LEGISLATION ON RECIPROCAL SUPPORT (JULY 1, 1953)

Alabama	Session recently convened—nothing introduced by June 16.
Arizona	New act—chapter 34 of 1953. ²
Arkansas	Chapter 170 of 1953—amendments.
California	Assembly bill 1229 passed—amendments.
Colorado	No action in 1953—bill died.
Connecticut	Public Act 353, 1953 (uniform act replaces New York version).
Delaware	No action in 1953.
Florida	New act—chapter 27996. ³
Georgia	No action in 1953 as yet—session in long recess.
Idaho	Chapter 246 of 1953—amendments.
Illinois	Senate bill 250 passed—effective July 1—minor amendments.
Indiana	Chapter 148 of 1953—amendments.
Iowa	No action in 1953.
Kansas	House bill 464 passed, effective July 1, 1953—amendments.
Kentucky	No session in 1953.
Louisiana	Do.
Maine	Chapter 248 of 1953—amendments.
Maryland	Chapter 498 of 1953—amendments.
Massachusetts	Subject referred to judicial council for study (ch. 5, resolves).
Michigan	Public Act 202 of 1953, effective October—amendments.
Minnesota	Chapter 495 of 1953—amendments.
Mississippi	No session in 1953—has no reciprocal law.
Missouri	Bill reported pending.
Montana	No action in 1953—bill died.

¹ Support of pauper relative indicated means the following where listed: Father for pauper child; mother for pauper child; adult child for pauper parent; brother for pauper brother or sister; sister for pauper sister or brother; grandparent for pauper grandchild; grandchild for pauper grandparent.

² Uniform Reciprocal Enforcement of Support Act, as amended by CUSL. Citation is ch. 34. Attorney general is to act as information agent. County attorney in each county will serve as petitioner's representative. Cases will be heard by superior courts.

Any part or all fees and costs will be paid by the county if the court in Arizona so directs. There is no filing fee when a case is brought by or through a governmental agency.

Petition, etc., requirements same as for Alaska.

³ Based on New York's support of dependents law. Cited as ch. 27996, Laws of Florida, Acts of 1953. Richard W. Ervin, attorney general, State Capitol, Tallahassee, will serve as information agency on an informal basis. Petitioner's representative is State attorney unless there is private counsel. Circuit courts will handle cases. Fees will vary, information to be secured from court clerks. The following should be sent to Florida: judge's certificate, exemplified copy of verified petition, copy of sending State's act, exemplified copy of summons with affidavit that respondent cannot be located in sending State.

SUMMARY OF 1953 STATE LEGISLATION ON RECIPROCAL SUPPORT (JULY 1, 1953)—CON.

Nebraska.....	Bill reported pending.
Nevada.....	Assembly bill 298 died—has no reciprocal law.
New Hampshire.....	Chapter 191, 1953—amendments.
New Jersey.....	Senate bill 308 passed legislature—amendments.
New Mexico.....	New act—chapter 17 of 1953. ⁴
New York.....	New York version amended by 4 chapters—431, 443, 455, 456.
North Carolina.....	No action reported in 1953.
North Dakota.....	Do.
Ohio.....	House bill 14 reported pending.
Oklahoma.....	Enrolled house bill 971 approved June 8 (uniform act replaces New York version).
Oregon.....	Chapter 427 of 1953—amendments.
Pennsylvania.....	House bill 60 reported pending.
Rhode Island.....	Chapter 3118 of 1953—amendments.
South Carolina.....	No action in 1953—bill died.
South Dakota.....	Chapter 41 of 1953—amendments.
Tennessee.....	Chapter 188 of 1953—amendments.
Texas.....	House bill 753 approved June 8—amendments.
Utah.....	No action in 1953—bill died.
Vermont.....	New act—House bill 428. ⁵
Virginia.....	No session in 1953.
Washington.....	No action in 1953.
West Virginia.....	New act—chapter 48 of 1953. ⁶
Wisconsin.....	Chapter 247 of 1953—amendments.
Wyoming.....	Chapter 86 of 1953—amendments.
Alaska.....	New act—chapter 31 of 1953. ⁷

⁴ Uniform Reciprocal Enforcement of Support Act as amended by CUSL. Citation is ch. 17. Attorney general is information agent and district attorney in each county is petitioner's representative. District courts will handle cases. Act does not take effect until July 1, 1953.

Any part of or all fees and costs will be paid by the county if the New Mexico court so directs.

Petition, etc., requirements same as for Alaska.

⁵ Uniform Reciprocal Enforcement of Support Act as amended by CUSL (with certain additional changes). House bill 428, approved May 27, 1953. Department of institutions is State information agency. County courts handle cases. State's attorney or city grand juror designated as petitioner's representative. Court may direct that fees be paid by obligor. Petition, etc., requirements same as for Alaska.

⁶ Uniform Reciprocal Enforcement of Support Act without amendments. Citation is ch. 48, art. 9. Information agent not designated by act. Petitioner's representative is the prosecuting attorney in each county. Circuit court handles cases.

⁷ Uniform Reciprocal Enforcement of Support Act as amended by CUSL. Citation is ch. 31, approved Mar. 13, 1953. Department of public welfare to serve as information agency and attorney general to act as petitioner's representative. Cases will be handled in United States District Court for the District of Alaska.

Any part of all fees and costs will be paid by the Alaskan government if the court in Alaska so directs.

Three copies of petition, certificate, and act should be sent to Alaska as responding State; no special type of authentication required.

NOTE.—All States have now enacted reciprocal support legislation with the exception of Mississippi and Nevada.

APPENDIX 16

SUGGESTIONS OF THE NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE ON RECOMMENDATIONS RELATING TO VOCATIONAL NEEDS OF YOUNG PEOPLE

I. Employment after school hours and during vacation periods

The National Child Labor Committee recognizes the desirability of suitable part-time work experience for young people and appreciates that for some children such experience may be a deterrent to antisocial conduct. It is important that part-time employment be carried on under conditions that will not impose too heavy a workload on a school child, jeopardizing his health, interfering with his school work, or depriving him of opportunities for recreation, and also that the young worker be under good supervision and not in an environment that may lead to bad associations. The standards generally recommended as desirable for such employment (a minimum age of 14 years, prohibition of hazardous work, and limitations on hours and night work appropriate to different age groups) should be observed.

It is, therefore, recommended that the States which have not yet enacted legislation to incorporate these standards in their child labor laws be urged to do so.

II. The minimum age for school leaving

While recognizing that compulsory attendance to 16 years creates problems for high schools by keeping in school children who are not academic minded and children with serious behavior problems, the National Child Labor Committee does not believe that the release of such children for employment will prevent delinquency. Such children need the guidance and supervision that the schools can provide but that industry is not prepared to give. These children, if permitted to leave school, take their unsolved problems and their hostile attitudes with them. They usually drift from job to job and their antisocial attitudes are accentuated rather than ameliorated.

We therefore recommend that the 16-year minimum age for school attendance be maintained; that States which now permit children to leave school for employment at 14 and 15 years be urged to raise their school attendance standards; that school systems be urged to expand their guidance services and develop a curriculum, including a school-work program, that will meet the needs of students who will be going directly into employment when they leave high school.

III. Counseling and placement of young workers who have left school

Since early employment experience may determine a young person's attitude toward work and this is an important factor in his general social adjustment throughout life, it is essential that young people be assisted in making the transition from school life to working life and in finding employment suited to their interests and capacities and offering opportunity for their vocational development. Although such services should be available for all young people, they are especially necessary for delinquents and potential delinquents, who need to develop a sense of vocational direction.

We therefore urge that the Wagner-Peyser Act be amended to authorize specifically that the Employment Service extend its services for young workers and make available to secondary schools its facilities for the employment, counseling, and placement of high school graduates and dropouts; and to provide funds to enable the States to develop services along these lines.

APPENDIX 17

TREATMENT OF FEDERAL OFFENDERS

1. State the number of judicial districts throughout the United States where the Youth Corrections Act is in operation. Fifty-one.¹
2. In those judicial districts where the act is effective, enter below the number of persons 22 years of age and under who have been convicted in the courts, according to age group and offense:

Offense	Number of persons convicted (by age)				
	Total	16 and under	17-18	19-20	21-22
Auto theft.....	180	2	75	81	22
Bank robbery.....	4		1	2	1
Burglary.....	5		1	4	
Damage Government property.....	1				1
Extortion.....	1			1	
Forgery.....	14		3	10	1
Fugitive.....	4		4		
Illegal uniform.....	1				1
Kidnap.....	3			3	
Larceny.....	19	1	4	10	4
Liquor laws.....	4			4	
Mann Act.....	2			4	2
Manslaughter, involved.....	1		1		
Narcotics laws.....	2				2
Postal laws.....	5		2	3	
Robbery.....	1			1	
Selective service laws.....	3			1	2
Total.....	255	4	91	121	39

¹ The act is in operation in 51 judicial districts, 36 of which have made commitments under the act.

TREATMENT OF FEDERAL OFFENDERS—Continued

3. Disposition of the court ((c) through (f) =total above), Dec. 14, 1954:	
(a) Number of youth offenders on whom the court suspended the imposition or execution of sentence and placed on probation	3
(b) Number of youth offenders committed to the attorney general for observation and study	29
(c) Number of youth offenders sentenced to the custody of the attorney general for treatment and supervision for less than 6 years	239
(d) Number of youth offenders sentenced to the custody of the attorney general for treatment and supervision for more than 6 years	6
(e) Number of youth offenders sentenced under any other applicable penalty provision	1
(f) Number of youth offenders committed to the attorney general for observation and study, disposition still pending	9
<hr/>	
1. State the number of youth offenders handled by the youth-correction division	255
2. List the number of committed youth offenders that have undergone treatment in institutions, as follows:	
(a) In custody, Dec. 3, 1954:	
Ashland	199
National Training School	1
Chillicothe	17
El Reno	1
Alderson	4
Englewood	1
Lewisburg	1
Total	224
(b) Not in custody:	
Released on parole	6
Transferred to State facilities	1
On probation	3
In transit, Dec. 3-14	21
Total	255
3. List the number of committed youth offenders that have undergone treatment in:	
Training schools	1
Hospitals	1
Farms	0
Forestry camps	0
Other:	
Correctional institutions	252
Penitentiary	1
Total	255
4. On the basis of recommendations received from a classification center or agency, state the number of committed youth offenders:	
(a) Released conditionally under supervision	6
(b) Granted parole, release imminent	7
(c) Transferred or committed to an agency or institution for treatment	² 238
(d) Confined and afforded treatment under conditions believed best designed for the protection of the public	³ 1
(e) Placed on probation	3

² Shows number committed to Federal agencies or institutions.

³ 1 youth offender transferred to a State facility. Use of State and community resources will be expanded in the future through guidance afforded to the division by 2 groups: Advisory Corrections Council, provided by 18 U. S. Code 5002; Committee on Community Resources, recommended by division to attorney general.

TREATMENT OF FEDERAL OFFENDERS—Continued

5. Release of youth offenders. State the number of committed youth offenders:	
(a) Released conditionally under supervision.....	6
(b) Granted parole, release imminent.....	7
(c) Discharged unconditionally at the expiration of 1 year from the date of conditional release.....	0
(d) Committed under sec. 5010 (b) of the Federal Youth Corrections Act released conditionally under supervision on or before the expiration of 4 years from the date of conviction:	
(1) Released conditionally under supervision.....	6
(2) Granted parole, release imminent.....	7
(e) Committed under sec. 5010 (c) of the Federal Youth Corrections Act released conditionally under supervision not later than 2 years before the expiration of the term imposed by the court.....	0
(f) Whose sentences were commuted in accordance with rules prescribed by the director with the approval of the division....	0
6. Supervision of released youth offenders. State the number of youth offenders conditionally released that are under the supervision of:	
(a) United States probation officers:	
(1) Released conditionally under supervision.....	6
(2) Granted parole, release imminent.....	7
(b) Supervisory agents appointed by the attorney general.....	40
(c) Voluntary supervisory agents approved by the division.....	40
7. State the number of unconditionally discharged youth offenders who have been apprehended and returned to custody.....	0

⁴ No special supervisory agents or voluntary supervisory agents have been used thus far. However, it is planned that they will be used extensively in the future as a result of the work of the Advisory Corrections Council and the Committee on Community Resources. (See item 4 (d).)

