Before science interested itself in criminality, the criminal and the prevention of crime, Plato and Aristotle, of Ancient Greece, debated the connection between rich and poor and theft while later on Thomas Morus, of Aquino, gave us a vision of a well-ordered state in the ‘Utopia’. Erasmus, Luther and Calvin discussed poverty and crime from a religious viewpoint. Thoughts about forensic medicine date back very far – Hippocrates displayed forensic expertise, as did Antistius after the murder of Caesar.

Criminal deeds and expertise were mentioned in the ‘Constitutio Carolina’ (1532). According to a general historical review, Cesare Lombroso is regarded as the founder of scientific criminology. Other researchers, however, paved the way and one of his forerunners was Beccaria who wrote Trattato dei Delitti e Delle Pene (1764), without doing any empirical research.

Baccaria thought about the problem of crime and sentence as a philosopher and a politician. At the same time Jeremy Bentham wanted to reform the English system of laws and sentences. In his State of prisons in England and Wales Howard (1777) wished to reform the prison system. Lavater, and especially Gall in his work Les fonctions du cerveau (1822), were the founders of criminal anthropology. In his main work, L’u­omo Delinquente, Lombroso thought he had found the criminal per se. According to his theory, which he changed somewhat later, he was convinced that the criminal was born as such. In a criminal he saw an atavistic type of human being with certain fixed stigmata.

What is special about Lombroso’s work is that he did empirical research – he did not merely write about things because he thought them to be so. More research studies among the normal population followed and soon controversial ideas were emanating from the theory regarding the surroundings of the offender.
The Italian jurist Ferri relativised the theories of Lombroso. To him social factors were also important and he was regarded as the father of criminal sociology. He was convinced that in certain social surroundings, under certain social and individual circumstances, there would be a fixed number of criminal acts. Garofolo, another Italian, was the first to call the science of crimes Criminology. The school of Lombroso, Ferri and associates was called the Italian Criminal-Anthropological School.

In contrast with the teachings of Lombroso is the theory of surroundings of France’s Lacassagne, who said that every society would have the criminals it merited. He was the founder of the criminal-sociological school of Lyons. One of his most famous forerunners was Rousseau, for whom the social factor was most important. Tarde went so far as to say: the whole world is guilty except the criminal.

In Germany it was mainly the School of Marburg, headed by Franz von Liszt, which played a role before 1950. Von Liszt aimed at a criminal science in which criminal anthropology, criminal psychology and criminal statistics play the same roles, which was a revolutionary idea to criminal law jurists at that time. To his thinking crime was the product of the individuality of the offender at the time of the criminal act as well as the circumstances under which the offender lived at that moment. Von Liszt initiated the International Criminalistic Association (1888). The ‘war’ between the school of Von Liszt and other schools has not yet ended.

Von Liszt has aroused interest in criminology, mainly among jurists and generally only in the field of criminal politics. He wanted a criminological research institute to be established, but this did not happen before 1950.

Among jurists who were interested in criminological problems in German-speaking countries are Franz Exner (Criminology, 1949), Metzger (Criminal Policy on Criminological Basis) and Sauet (Criminal Sociology).

The Austrian School was founded by the criminalist Hans Gross. He established the Imperial and Royal Institute of Criminology, the first such institute in Europe, in Graz in 1912. Important were the research studies on the psychology of criminal investigation. Gross wrote a Handbook for criminal investigators (1893). One of his followers was Ernst Seelig (Types of Offenders, Handbook of Criminology). The institute in Graz is now almost non-existent. In the footsteps of the traditional Austrian School followed Grassberger, of Vienna.

In addition to jurists, psychiatrists were also interested in criminological problems. Kraft-Ebing wrote Basic traits of criminal psychology (1872), Kraepelin discussed crime as a social illness, Birnbaum related criminal psychopaths and Hoche, in collaboration with Aschaffenburg, edited a Handbook of forensic psychiatry. Other psychiatrists were Kretschmer, Kurt Schneider and J Lange.

Since 1950

In the fifties criminology slowly began to develop into a science as such. Special chairs were established at the universities while institutes came into being at the beginning of the sixties. For the first time not only individual researchers were engaged in empirical research work, but also research groups from different disciplines. Criminology consequently separated itself slowly from criminal law.

Sociologists also became interested in criminological problems, but not in the same way as in the United States of America where criminology was, in general, the field of sociologists.

There were groups who were interested in the process of criminalisation, in social control, in research into the ‘dark field’, in research regarding the police, prosecutors and lawyers as well as victimology. For a time – because socio-criminal problems were in the forefront – psychiatry took a back seat and psychology played no important role for a long time. This science began to play a more important role lately when research into the importance of psychotherapy for offenders came to the fore.

In Austria virtually nothing is going on at the moment, as Pilgrim writes in his Kriminalogische Forschung in den 80er Jahren: Austrian criminology is located at university institutes for penal law and lacks an independent and strong organisational structure. The progress of criminology in Austria since the Vienna Congress on Criminology in 1983 was mainly stimulated by external sources, especially by political administration which improved the statistical documentation of crime and penal reactions and attempted to direct scientific interest to the high prison population.

Some professional groups within the judicial system also articulated growing practical problems such as psychiatric treatment and social rehabilitation of prisoners by reforming university education of law students, and by many interesting contributions by non-legal students (e.g. historical, social, addiction research) to criminological knowledge and reasoning.

The Ludwig Boltzmann Institute of Criminal Sociology, which was founded in 1973, is also almost non-existent because its last director was appointed professor at a German university. W Sluga, a forensic psychiatrist, performed well with other researchers, but this work came to a halt about ten years ago. He headed, for a while, a socio-therapeutic institution for offenders in Vienna, with quite good results.

The only Austrian Institute for Forensic Psychiatry existed in Salzburg under the direction of Professor
Harrer. Since he retired, this institute is also virtually non-existent. Another researcher, W Hauptmann, produces valuable articles and books from time to time, but it seems as if the driving force of Austrian scientists has passed.

In Switzerland there are several professors of criminal law who also give lectures and head courses in criminology, but they generally stop with 'introductory courses'. Students are interested in criminology, but as these studies have no future, not too many students follow these courses. Only at the University of Lausanne is there an Institute of Police Science and Criminology. However, this discipline plays a subordinate role.

There is only one professor of criminology in Switzerland who has graduated in law and sociology. As the courses are offered only in French this institute does not have a very great appeal. A minimal number of courses are offered and then only for a few terms. The students are postgraduates. The institute also undertakes some research, for example into victimology.

Literally nothing existed in Switzerland when the author (Dr W T Haesler) founded the Swiss Working Group of Criminology in 1972. This group has organised up to 1991 almost 20 congresses and has as its main aim to 'wake up' Swiss professionals. Dr Haesler also established a Criminological Bulletin in 1975 and edited it as well as the papers of the congresses until he became president of the group some years ago. Afterwards the director of a psychiatric clinic, the director of a penal institution and dr Haesler founded an Institute of Criminology, Criminal Law and Penology where they regularly organise conferences of internationally known specialists. They also edit an occasional Bulletin and intend to carry out limited research, mainly in the field of forensic psychiatry and psychology. The forum is seated at the Cantonal Psychiatric Clinic Königsfelden in Windisch, not far from Zurich.

A Criminalistic Institute at the University of Zürich offers some lectures, but does not undertake any research. The president is a judge. Here and there some researchers or students complete theses on criminological subjects.

In 1983 dr Haesler founded an Institute of Criminology and Penology where for some years renowned specialists, mainly from abroad, gave talks. Before the institute came into being, a survey among judges, directors of penal institutions and prosecutors showed that an institute for further training should be established. The necessary funds were, however, not allocated and especially the universities were opposed to the idea because a private institution should not do what, in theory, the universities should offer. Consequently the institute had to close some years ago.

Criminology as a subject of study and criminological research in the Federal Republic of Germany

The first chair in criminology at a German university was founded at Heidelberg in 1959. The establishment of the first criminological institute in Tübingen followed in 1962. The first professors or directors of these new institutions were psychiatrists who were also jurists. The collaborators were psychiatrists, jurists, sociologists and social workers.

As it became too expensive in the years that followed to have separate chairs for criminologists at most German universities, these professors and lecturers also had to offer courses in criminal law. Soon jurists could choose as one of their subjects for the state examination the group ‘Criminology, Criminal Law for Juveniles and Penology’. During the last ten years a postgraduate course in Criminology is being offered at the University of Hamburg for jurists, psychiatrists and psychologists.

At all German universities courses and seminars in criminology are now being offered by the law faculties. In addition to such university courses there are also state institutions which carry out research, for example in Lower Saxony. An all-German institute of criminology was established in Wiesbaden some years ago. This institute as well as the Bundeskriminalamt and the Max Planck Institute for Foreign and International Penal Law at Freiburg publish their research findings regularly.

Research topics of late were not so much basic research, but special problems relating to economic crimes, the importance of social control, the work and function of the police, social work, prosecution, court and penal institutions, ‘black field’ research on the basis of questioning offenders and victims, and research on the ideas of the public about criminality and sanctions. This research is mainly done under the supervision of jurists and sociologists.

Kaiser wrote about criminology in the eighties. Projects commenced in the seventies and include research in respect of sanctions and treatment, modern forms of crime and, to a lesser extent, on some aspects relating to offenders and victims.

Criminologically recognised objects of inquiry and criminal-legal social control (including its functional equivalents and alternatives) continued to dominate the studies. In the context of control strategies, diversion (sometimes linked with offender-victim compensation) has been an important field of research.

Abolition initiatives, derived from critical criminology, were combined in a movement which has to be reckoned with. It is still unclear, however, whether this is simply a trend in criminal policy, a theoretical perspective with real promise or merely a way of looking at things that organise otherwise disaffected po-
tential into a critical science of control and give direction to that potential.

The growing interest in socio-historical issues has enlivened the perspectives of historical criminology and has given it new impetus. If one asks what criminological thinking has brought forth in the 1980s by way of new ideas or stimuli, or what it has provoked, one can hardly report any new insights, discoveries or epochal breakthroughs. The social and political implications of an analysis of crime as well as the rapid changes in the scholarly questions that are posed do not permit any other evaluation accepted in respect of, for instance, medicine or the natural sciences.

Similarly, as a result of the institutionalisation and extensive acceptance of Anglo-American thinking, a series of changes have emerged ... changes that promise to be fruitful and to lead to future successes. If, on the other hand, one asks what in contemporary criminology is specifically German in comparison with other countries, one can point to issues concerning environmental crime and to a focus on so-called integrated general prevention. These are themes that can be counted upon in West Germany, both traditionally and emotionally, to find a special resonance. At the same time, the perfection of data protection, now also seen as a limit to criminological research, is surely also a typical German product.

If one asks what is missing in contemporary West German criminology one must note that both criminal-economic perspectives and initiatives on so-called feminist criminology are absent, as is the nurturing of interest in bio-social research.

Much research on forensic psychiatry as well as psychological studies have been conducted, but not so much on clinical criminology as in other European countries or the United States of America.

The University of Tübingen has a very large library of criminological books which students can use for reference purposes. Heidelberg has also established such a library during the last ten years.

The funding of such research studies is the responsibility of the universities, the ministries of justice or of foundations such as the Volkswagenwerk or the foundations of different political parties.

What is not so good at many German universities is the fact that professors in penal law who also lecture on criminology are no real criminologists and that they only teach what they have read in the literature on criminology. It is possible for a German law student to choose for the state examination 'Criminology, Penal Law for Juveniles and Penology'. Included in this group at Hamburg is also Criminal Psychology and Forensic Medicine, in Hessen Forensic Psychiatry, the Law of Criminal Procedure and a History of Penal Law. Initially many students wished to be examined on this choice group, but in the past few years there were no longer so many students as there is much more to study.

In Tübingen the courses encompass three steps, which also include excursions to penal institutions. Step 1 entails three lessons per week in which introductory courses are given (What is criminology? Where are its frontiers and what is its history? Criminological research, methods of criminology. What does one know today about empirical criminology and prognosis?). There are, in addition, seminars where students have to deliver papers in order to be introduced to criminality as a social phenomenon. Step 2 entails courses of four lessons per week where students have to prepare a longer paper at home and where they are examined in respect of their knowledge of the individual exploration of an offender. In the centre we have the offender in his social surroundings and the student has to explore him using a given questionnaire. Lectures are also given on psychological and psychiatric problems so that especially the law student gets an idea of what he should know when he has to defend or prosecute an offender.

In step 3 courses of three hours per week are provided regarding methods of empirical criminology. There are also individual cases of offenders which have to be studied and each student has to write a paper about an offender he visited and investigated in a penal institution. In this study special courses are sometimes offered where certain fields of criminology, e.g. victimology, are explored.

The institute at Tübingen also offers advanced training (criminological colloquia) from time to time in which professionals from outside the university may participate. There is also a criminological workshop for jurists who meet several times a year for discussions on special topics or cases from real experience.

Although criminology is not a special profession in Germany as well as in other European countries, the student who has chosen this field as a special interest has a better opportunity to become elected as a judge of a criminal court, a prosecutor, a member of the police or a director of a penal institution.

**Criminology in the former German Democratic Republic**

About the middle of the 1960s criminology began to take shape as an independent branch of social science in the German Democratic Republic. The first publications concentrated on the subject matter and tasks of criminology and on the characteristics that distinguish it from all other social sciences. In addition, a theory of the determination of criminality within socialism and the relevance of personality within the theory was developed in respect of select groups of criminal offences.
The narrow spectrum of criminological issues, the concept of personality (which was still limited to subjective characteristics), and the prevailing distinctions of (socialist) criminology in contrast to bourgeois criminology revealed the limited knowledge of that time. The seventies and eighties, a time in which the socialist society in the German Democratic Republic developed on an independent basis, also produced new insights for criminology. Despite economic and political progress regarding social conditions, the regular production and reproduction of criminality in a comparatively stable structure must be accepted. The so-called 'relies-theory' with regard to rudiments and characteristics of the old capitalist conditions as the main source for criminality was analysed in scientific and often controversial discussions. Views on the relevance of personality for the genesis of criminality were increasingly determined by the individual's situation in terms of private property (which results from its form of activity) and characteristic aspects of the social structure influencing criminal determination.

From the historical viewpoint the direct connection between exploitation, private ownership of the means of production and criminality proved to be outdated. General criminality within socialism is generated by actual contradictions between the individual and society which are not recognised and/or for which no social solutions are provided to help the individual develop his needs and interests to the advantage of society. These contradictions – at least a percentage of them – are therefore given spontaneous and destructive expression by means of criminal offences. The absence of exploitative social structures helps to improve the relationship between the individual and society, and facilitates the gradual decline of general criminality.

Empirical research results predominantly over issues on juvenile delinquency, recidivism and the social disintegration of delinquents.

Surveys on the correlation of sociological characteristics and individual relationships in the occupational activity of delinquents have recently attracted increasing attention.

What kinds of delinquency and criminality are there in Western Europe and where do the researchers go?

Seven fundamental categories of delinquency and criminality have been identified. The first is 'normal delinquency' (theft, burglary, murder and voluntary corporal injuries and rape), for example delinquent acts which have occurred in any epoch. What has changed is that these criminal acts have become more numerous than fifty or more years ago. And, as De Greeff says, these criminals are in general 'normal' people.

The second kind of delinquency, which is more prevalent than before, is the lack of adaptation of young people. In the fifties and sixties there were gangs of youngsters (e.g. the Teddy boys, the hooligans). In the sixties there were also young people who were called beatniks and hippies who took drugs and liked to travel in Eastern Asian countries. In the seventies young people became politically violent – they were against society. Today young people go from theft to drug-taking and drug-peddling, hetero- and homosexual prostitution, aggression, vandalism, vagrancy and suicide.

The third category of criminality nowadays is delinquency by imprudence: there are the homicides and corporal injuries on our roads, the accidents while on duty in factory plants or elsewhere, and the professional delinquent acts by surgeons, doctors and dentists.

The fourth kind of actual criminality is organised crime: gangsterism and violent methods of taking hostages, hold-ups, computer fraud, white-collar crimes. More and more of these crimes are witnessed in Western Europe and the USA nowadays.

The fifth type of 'new' crimes is in the economic sector. Here we have crimes against one's firm, the violation of the rules of free concurrence and the violation of economic prescriptions – duration of work, salaries, fiscal fraud, selling without an invoice. Corruption is also an important aspect.

A sixth point is social criminality: farmers block roads and dump agricultural products on the road; functionaries of an airline company go on strike at the beginning of public holidays in order to press for higher salaries; drivers of trucks block roads in front of a customs office so that private cars cannot pass – also to extort higher wages.

In addition there are ecological groups who enter the offices of a nuclear plant illegally in order to halt operations.

Lastly, there is terrorism.

When I was in Russia in July 1990 I was told that after the Stalin era criminality did not exist any more in the socialist country.

Since perestroika has taken its course under President Gorbachev, criminality does exist and to such an extent that responsible people do not know how to react to it. Only now organised crime is receiving attention at the Leningrad Advanced Training Institute for Criminal Investigators. Economic crimes are also being dealt with only now. At a large institute in Moscow, however, they were aware of this for a long time, but their hands were tied because the politicians did not wish to hear about it. There are still no statistics available as to how many people are in prison. One estimate put the figure at one hundred thousand, another source says the figure is double that or even more. What is possible now (if the prisons for 'hard cases', which are in Siberia, are to be opened to
foreign professionals) is that people from so-called capitalist countries, will be allowed to visit these prisons. The author was the first professional who could do so in the Leningrad area.

Criminologists from West Germany told me that colleagues from the former German Democratic Republic now visit universities in the German Federal Republic which up to now were closed to them. They come with all their Communist ideologies and want to learn what criminology means in the Western world.

It is impossible to say what is going on in every country in Europe in the field of criminology. Some general characteristics of criminology in certain countries will, however, be discussed.

The development in Western countries in comparison with Eastern ones is not the same. For example, the per capita income in Switzerland in 1985 was $15,118 while it was about half of that in the German Democratic Republic, namely $7,773. The per capita income in the USA at that time was $12,664, in the Soviet Union $4,689 and in France $10,551.

In 1983 the per capita income in Switzerland was $14,930, in Turkey it was $1,041 and in Portugal $2,055. These socio-economic differences must be acknowledged as they play an important role in the political regime of these countries.

In the socialist countries the political regime is the unifying force in spite of the notable differences between the Soviet Union and the socialist countries of the East as well as the Communist countries of the Third World. The First World countries, be they in the East or West, have some common traits: fear of a total war, not changing the rhythm of life and wishing that the living standard be higher tomorrow than it is today.

Although these traits have much in common, the criminality is different following the variances in the political, economical and social systems of these two categories of countries.

The general characteristics of Western criminality are: 'normal' criminality, juvenile lack of adaptation, delinquency by imprudence, organised criminality, economical criminality, social criminality and terrorism.

Criminology in Italy

The study of criminology in Italy belongs almost exclusively to forensic medicine. All police doctors have always enjoyed a profound criminological education. The fact that the institutes of criminology in existence in the medical schools in Italy explicitly contain the term Forensic Psychiatry in their titles highlights the importance of the criminological sector of forensic psychiatry. A new trainee of criminology is the social worker in local government organisations whose task it is to re-educate juvenile offenders. In the fifties universities taught only Criminal Anthropology – now they have added Medicine of Juvenile Delinquency, Criminological Medicine and Forensic Psychiatry as well as Forensic Psychopathology.

In the medical schools criminological subjects comprise four integrated courses: Hygiene and Public Health, Occupational Medicine, Community Medicine and Forensic Medicine. The teaching hours total 250. The criminological subjects are Criminology and Social Defence, as well as Forensic Psychopathology. They form part of the integrated course of forensic medicine which comprises the following subjects: Forensic Medicine, Deontology and Medical Ethics, Forensic Toxicology and Social Medicine.

In 18 out of 31 faculties of the medical schools at least one official course with a criminological content is offered. In some centres, such as Bari, Genoa, Modena, Naples, Rome and Siena, more courses are presented. Most of the lecturers are given by associate professors. About 55 per cent of the lectures are full-time instructors whose scientific background is a degree in medicine. The courses are theoretical as well as practical. The number of students who take the examinations every year is low. It must be pointed out that the number of students who attend the lectures without sitting for the examination is much higher.

As far as the law schools are concerned, lectures in criminological subjects are provided at 19 universities. In these schools the courses are optional: in eight cases there are lectures in Criminological Anthropology, in nine cases lectures in Criminology and in two cases lectures in Criminological Medicine and Forensic Psychiatry.

In most cases lectures are given by full-time lecturers who are either associate professors or supply staff (usually from the Faculty of Medicine). In some cases the courses exist, but there is not a lecturer in the faculty in question. In such cases students follow lectures given by lecturers of another faculty and then they are allowed to sit for the relevant examinations. The number of students who attend lectures and sit for examinations varies from one university to another. On average, however, it is much higher than in the Faculty of Medicine. There are only four universities where degree courses in Criminology are given in the Faculty of Political Science: Naples, Pavia, Siena and Bologna. In the Art Faculty in Padua and Rome (which offers a degree course in Psychology) a course in criminology can also be followed. In Padua the lecturer is a philosopher/sociologist whereas in Rome lectures are given by a sociologist who also lectures on Judicial Psychology. Both lecturers are full-time associate professors.

In the Faculty of Economics in Palermo there is a course in Judicial Statistics and lectures are given by an associate professor with a scientific background in
statistics. Textbooks are varied and reflect the teacher's prevailing frame of theoretical interest at the undergraduate level.

At the level of postgraduate teaching two different organisations can be mentioned: the schools of specialisation and the institutes of research. There are two very old schools of specialisation – the first is the School of Specialisation in Penal Law and Criminology founded in Rome by Enrico Ferri in 1911. Graduates in Law and Political Science are eligible for admission to this school. The Board of the school may, however, authorise the admission of graduates from medical schools or from any other faculty of any Italian or foreign university whose prior academic curriculum is considered adequate. In order to be admitted the student must pass an examination in Criminal Law and Criminal Procedure.

The main purpose of the school is to further the study of criminological subjects with an interdisciplinary orientation and specifically in relation to legal aspects. The school offers 22 courses. The duration of the course is two years. In order to obtain the Diploma for Specialisation in Criminal Law and Criminology the student must pass all the examinations and discuss a dissertation on one of the study subjects.

The second is the School of Specialisation in Clinical Criminology founded by Benigno di Tullio in Rome in 1970. Such schools are currently active at five universities: Genoa, Modena, Bari, Chieti and Milan. They offer a three-year course with different curricula: a forensic-psychiatric and medicopsychological curriculum (open only to graduates in medicine), and a socio-psychological curriculum (open to graduates in Sociology, Law, Education, Psychology, Political Sciences, Arts and Philosophy).

Courses in Criminology or Forensic Psychiatry are also offered at the Schools of Specialisation of Forensic Medicine (Forensic Medical Neuropsychiatry), Psychiatry (Forensic Psychiatry) and Psychology (Criminological Psychology, Judicial and Penitentiary Psychology and Mental Health).

Doctorate in Research is an academic title which has value only in the field of scientific research. This title is achieved when research produces original contributions to knowledge at a consortium of universities or a single university. Collaboration can be determined among different universities when there has been a noteworthy development of research studies on the subject in respect of which it is intended to confer the doctorate.

The title Doctor of Research is conferred by way of a discussion of a doctoral thesis where the candidate must show that he is fully competent in the methods of scientific research relevant to his particular field of study.

There are currently two doctorates of research: one in Criminology and Forensic Psychiatry (administrative seat: University of Modena; a consortium with the universities of Genoa, Milan, Torino and Padua) and the other in Criminology (administrative seat: Faculty of Political Science at the University of Bologna; a consortium with the universities of Milan and Rome). The first is interdisciplinarily oriented and the second has a socio-judicial orientation.

There are also courses in Criminology at the Military Academies.

The most significant changes which have taken place in Italy are:
- passage of 'clinical anthropometry' from science with a medico-pathological approach to a science with a psycho-sociological frame of reference;
- progressive adoption of the social science model in substitution for, or at least integrated with, the over-simplified medical model;
- ever-increasing integration with psychology, sociology and law;
- change of interest: from the criminal to the phenomenon (from the clinical diagnostic approach to the socio-judicial approach);
- progressive abandonment of the myth of corrections within the settings of total institutions;
- radical criticism of evaluation of danger (clinical prediction);
- re-assertion of the principles of individual responsibility and capacity;
- rationale for intervention as an 'offer of services'.

Criminological research in Italy is financed in part by state departments (the Ministry of the University and of Research, the National Council of Research), by public bodies (such as the regional administrative boards) and private individuals.

To further the development of criminological research considerable reference has been made to some 'centres' linked to universities or local government organisations, some of which have international standing (for example the International Centre of Clinical Criminology in Genoa, the International Centre of Sociological, Penal and Penitentiary studies at Messina, and the Centre for Crime Prevention and Social Defence at Milan).

Criminology in France

Criminology as a teaching subject is of minor importance in France. The French universities have three functions: to augment and impart knowledge, to develop research, and to mould human beings (e.g. professional formation).

As is the case in other countries, criminology is a new subject which is still developing.

The French universities offer three cycles: one of two years, which ends with the diploma of general university studies, another of two more years, which
ends with the 'licence', a kind of master's degree, and the third cycle which is subdivided into two parts: the first year ends with a diploma of higher specialised studies (which leads to a profession) or a diploma of profound studies which leads to research and may end with the preparation of a doctoral thesis.

The study programmes are regimented. Fundamental subjects are compulsory and there are also subjects where the university may decide what should be taught. In the compulsory section criminology has only a minor position. Courses are sometimes offered in Penal Law and Criminal Sociology, but they are not compulsory. There are only a few universities where Criminal Sociology is of special importance.

Fundamental courses in criminology are mainly given during the second cycle in the form of half-yearly courses, and they are sometimes combined with the teaching of penitentiary science. Each university is at liberty to offer other courses, for example Clinical Criminology or Comparative Criminology. These courses are mainly offered during the third cycle.

Doctorates in criminology have been suppressed. One may follow criminological courses, but will end up with a doctorate in law or medicine.

In extra-university institutions which prepare students for a career (professional diplomas) as a juvenile judge, a police officer, a lawyer, or an officer in a penal institution, criminology plays almost no role. Courses in the criminal sciences are also in constant regression as special courses for these professions are not interested in criminology, consequently mainly newcomers in the faculty have to teach this subject. Lecturers in criminology are chosen from professionals who work in one field of criminology.

There are national and university diplomas. For the national diploma there is, for example at the University of Bordeaux a diploma in penal law and criminal sciences. The diploma students may then prepare a doctoral thesis. For the university diploma there is a course in criminal sciences at the Law Faculty of the University of Pau (two years).

After a further two years a diploma in the sciences of maladaption and juvenile delinquency can be obtained at the University of Bayonne.

The University of Pau and the Spanish University of San Sebastian (in its Basque Institute of Criminology) offer international courses on criminological subjects. They have instituted the diploma Erasmus with an exchange of lecturers, researchers and students who have begun to work together with local administrations. They can therefore also offer practical work in the field of criminology.

The teaching of criminology, especially in order to obtain national diplomas, remains insufficient. Ottenhof calls criminology a poor relative of a miserable family.

To end this review on the situation in France mention should be made of the studies in the third cycle at the Universities of Bordeaux and Pau. A student has access to this cycle only if he has a master's degree in Law, Psychology, Education or a doctorate in General Medicine or Psychiatry.

The subjects are: General Elements of Criminal Politics (25 hours), Delinquency and Maladaptation of Juveniles (25 hours) and two seminars (of 15 hours each). To be introduced to the techniques of research there are seminars on the methodology of research, clinical criminology, informatics and judicial research as well as comparative criminology (foreign professors of Europe and Latin America are invited as guest lecturers): Control of these studies is regulated by two examinations during the year.

For the Certificate of Criminal Science a student has to take the following subjects: Criminal Politics (20 hours), Criminology (one semester), Penal Procedure (one semester), Judicial Police (one semester), Forensic Medicine (one semester). There are, in addition, practical courses as well as visits to penal institutions and other services.

The examinations consist of written papers of three hours each on Criminal Politics and Criminology. The oral examinations cover Penal Procedure, Judicial Police and Forensic Medicine.

For the university diploma in criminal sciences the compulsory courses are Delinquency and Juvenile Maladaptation (20 hours), Penitentiary Science (one semester), Special Penal Law or Economic Penal Law (one semester), Criminal Psychology (20 hours) and Criminal Psychiatry (20 hours). During a seminar of 20 hours counselling is given on the methodology of writing a thesis.

**Criminology in Socialist European countries**

The following discussion relates to criminality in the Socialist countries in Europe ... before perestroika. The theories of these countries on criminality are
linked with capitalism. If socialism works, criminality should disappear or be, at least, only a marginal factor.

In the Soviet Union, as in the other socialist countries in Eastern Europe, there is a comprehensive literature by jurists and criminologists as well as some statistics (which had never been published officially). Other publications deal with deductive developments arising from complex paraphrases of the Marxist-Leninist doctrine about criminality.

Accounts of the criminality in these countries, which will certainly change now, came from testimonies and from dissidents who came to the West. Other information came by way of the Soviet press which reported on special facts of criminality. There were also speeches by high ranking officials such as Gorbachev when he spoke of the fight against alcoholism, corruption and the carelessness of party officials. The subject was further highlighted by comparative studies, one of which (in 1975) treated the juvenile delinquency in France, Hungary, Poland and Yugoslavia. Scientific studies were also carried out by scientists and journalists of the West. It is very difficult to obtain a true picture of the volume, the tendencies and the geographical distribution of socialist criminology as there is a secrecy about almost everything in the Eastern states.

According to information given by the state authorities of the Soviet Union and the popular democracies the extent of criminality in the Soviet Union is much lower than in the West and it is steadily decreasing.

For the former German Democratic Republic this downward trend was quite spectacular - crime decreased from 1946 to 1965 from 500 446 to 128 661 cases and the criminal acts per 100 000 inhabitants declined from 2 771 to 756. Also in Poland the number decreased continuously between 1971 and 1977.

However, the preceding study looks less good when compared with figures for the West: the delinquency of young boys and girls (between 14 and 21 years) was higher in Poland than in France. It was also higher in Hungary in respect of girls. According to the Eastern press the picture was often worse than official publications maintained. It is possible that the number of criminals and criminal acts may be smaller in countries where police are everywhere and where neighbours watch one another.

Polish scientist Walczak declared that criminality in the Eastern states had changed after the Second World War. Apart from the delinquency of imprudence there seem to be five characteristic traits: the criminality of the functionaries of the regime, an important economic criminality, a political criminality linked to the principles of the Communist regime, a comprehensive criminality of young people (called hooliganism) and a bloody criminality of the state, which reflects its totalitarianism.

- Criminality of the functionaries of the regime: The socialist state not only organises economic life, but also political, social and cultural life. Possible actions in all these fields are therefore in the hands of the leaders of the Party and its functionaries. Abuses of power, which may be called criminality of the functionaries, such as corruption and falsifications, are numerous. This phenomenon is visible at all steps of the hierarchial ladder. It is equivalent to the white-collar crime of capitalist countries.

- The economical criminality: It is important to know how the socialist economy works. There are four distinct stages: At the top are the Army and the Police, who profit from the national product. Then follow those people who benefit from special shops reserved for them … people with dollars in the bank. Next are the ‘normal’ people who have to queue for hours in front of shops which are almost empty and where certain products are rationed. The last stage is the black market, also called the underground economy.

Economic delinquency is bound to flourish in such a system.

- Political criminality: The Soviet’s penal code as well as the codes of the other socialist countries, does not differentiate between political and common criminality. All these codes do have chapters concerning crimes against the state and here the paragraphs are so cumbersome that every manifestation of crime is regarded as opposition to the regime.

This kind of legislation has filled the forced-labour camps, the so-called gulags. This kind of delinquency seemed to have attained its maximum number in 1941 when there were about 13 million people in such camps. In 1985 there were about four million people in some 2 000 camps, i.e. about 1 in every 68 Soviet citizens. (The population of the USSR in 1985 was about 274 million.) These people form the fifth and lowest stage of the Soviet economy – they constitute a very cheap labour force.

Another kind of sanction against opponents is to hospitalise such people in psychiatric institutions. According to Amnesty International there were about 200 such political psychiatric patients between 1975 and 1983.

- Hooliganism: Another and important kind of delinquency against the state and its order is the aggressiveness of young people. This delinquency is described in detail in the penal code: violation of the public order, having no respect for society, and antisocial behaviour which instils fear in the population and adventurism.
Criminality of the state: Consider the Stalin era when about 40 million people were killed during his dictatorship of 35 years. The same happened last year when the Chinese state killed young people on the Place of Heavenly Peace in Peking. During the reign of dictator Mao Tse Dong many Chinese were sacrificed.

When the author was in Leningrad in July 1990, two women were appointed by the Ministry of Justice to change the prison system in accordance with the Minimal Rules of the United Nations.

To the criminality mentioned before one must add the supply of weapons and specialists in guerilla warfare to terrorist groups in other countries, and aiding the bosses of the drug Mafia to smuggle drugs to other countries.

Bibliography


