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Chapter 1 : Atank's Reforms - Wikipedia

January High-Risk Insurance Pools Expire: Pre-Existing Condition Insurance Plans (PCIPs), established in are scheduled to expire on January 1, once all of the major ACA reforms were in effect.

Welfare for Everyone How Welfare Began in the United States During the Great Depression of the s, local and state governments as well as private charities were overwhelmed by needy families seeking food, clothing, and shelter. In , welfare for poor children and other dependent persons became a federal government responsibility, which it remained for 60 years. MINNEAPOLIS—Several hundred men and women in an unemployed demonstration today stormed a grocery store and meat market in the Gateway district, smashed plate glass windows and helped themselves to bacon and ham, fruit and canned goods. Construction boomed, business flourished, and the stock market soared. Then on October 29, , the stock market crashed. The crash sent shockwaves throughout the economy. Millions found themselves out of work. The Great Depression, which would last through the s, had begun. When the Great Depression began, about 18 million elderly, disabled, and single mothers with children already lived at a bare subsistence level in the United States. State and local governments together with private charities helped these people. By , another 13 million Americans had been thrown out of work. Suddenly, state and local governments and charities could no longer provide even minimum assistance for all those in need. Food riots broke out. Desertions by husbands and fathers increased. Homeless families in cities lived in public parks and shanty towns. Desperate times began to put into question the old American notion that if a man worked hard enough, he could always take care of himself and his family. The effect of the Depression on poor children was particularly severe. School budgets were cut and in some cases schools were shut down for lack of money to pay teachers. An estimated , boys left home to wander the streets and beg because of the poor economic condition of their families. Most elderly Americans did not have personal savings or retirement pensions to support them in normal times, let alone during a national economic crisis. Those few able to set aside money for retirement often found that their savings and investments had been wiped out by the financial crash in . Senator Paul Douglas of Illinois made this observation in . The impact of all these forces increasingly convinced the majority of the American people that individuals could not by themselves provide adequately for their old age, and that some form of greater security should be provided by society. Even skilled workers, business owners, successful farmers, and professionals of all kinds found themselves in severe economic difficulty as one out of four in the labor force lost their jobs. Words like "bewildered," "shocked," and "humiliated," were often used at the time to describe increasing numbers of Americans as the Depression deepened. Although President Franklin D. Roosevelt focused mainly on creating jobs for the masses of unemployed workers, he also backed the idea of federal aid for poor children and other dependent persons. By , a national welfare system had been established for the first time in American history. Welfare Before the Depression A federal welfare system was a radical break from the past. Americans had always prided themselves on having a strong sense of individualism and self-reliance. During the 19th century, local and state governments as well as charities established institutions such as poorhouses and orphanages for destitute individuals and families. Conditions in these institutions were often deliberately harsh so that only the truly desperate would apply. Local governments usually counties also provided relief in the form of food, fuel, and sometimes cash to poor residents. Those capable were required to work for the town or county, often at hard labor such as chopping wood and maintaining roads. But most on general relief were poor dependent persons not capable of working: Local officials decided who went to the poorhouse or orphanage and who would receive relief at home. Cash relief to the poor depended on local property taxes, which were limited. Also, not only did a general prejudice exist against the poor on relief, but local officials commonly discriminated against individuals applying for aid because of their race, nationality, or religion. Single mothers often found themselves in an impossible situation. If they applied for relief, they were frequently branded as morally unfit by the community. If they worked, they were criticized for

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neglecting their children. In , President Theodore Roosevelt called a White House conference on how to best deal with the problem of poor single mothers and their children. The conference declared that preserving the family in the home was preferable to placing the poor in institutions, which were widely criticized as costly failures. In effect, poor single mothers would be excused from working outside the home. Welfare reformers argued that the state pensions would also prevent juvenile delinquency since mothers would be able to supervise their children full-time. They varied greatly from state to state and even from county to county within a state. These programs excluded large numbers of divorced, deserted, and minority mothers and their children. Few private and government retirement pensions existed in the United States before the Great Depression. The prevailing view was that individuals should save for their old age or be supported by their children. About 30 states provided some welfare aid to poor elderly persons without any source of income. Local officials generally decided who deserved old-age assistance in their community. Federal money flowed to the states to pay for public works projects, which employed the jobless. Some federal aid also directly assisted needy victims of the Depression. The states, however, remained mainly responsible for taking care of the so-called "unemployables" widows, poor children, the elderly poor, and the disabled. But states and private charities, too, were unable to keep up the support of these people at a time when tax collections and personal giving were declining steeply. In his State of the Union Address before Congress on January 4, , President Roosevelt declared, "the time has come for action by the national government" to provide "security against the major hazards and vicissitudes [uncertainties] of life. He also called for guaranteed benefits for poor single mothers and their children along with other dependent persons. By permanently expanding federal responsibility for the security of all Americans, Roosevelt believed that the necessity for government make-work employment and other forms of Depression relief would disappear. In his address before Congress, Roosevelt argued that the continuation of government relief programs was a bad thing for the country: The lessons of history, confirmed by the evidence immediately before me, show conclusively that continued dependence upon relief induces a spiritual and moral disintegration fundamentally destructive to the national fiber. To dole out relief in this way is to administer a narcotic, a subtle destroyer of the human spirit. It set up a federal retirement program for persons over 65, which was financed by a payroll tax paid jointly by employers and their workers. FDR believed that federal old-age pensions together with employer-paid unemployment insurance also a part of the Social Security Act would provide the economic security people needed during both good and bad times. In addition to old-age pensions and unemployment insurance, the Social Security Act established a national welfare system. The federal government guaranteed one-third of the total amount spent by states for assistance to needy and dependent children under age 16 but not their mothers. Additional federal welfare aid was provided to destitute old people, the needy blind, and crippled children. Although financed partly by federal tax money, the states could still set their own eligibility requirements and benefit levels. This part of the law was pushed by Southern states so they could control the coverage made available to their African-American population. This is how welfare began as a federal government responsibility. Roosevelt and the members of Congress who wrote the welfare provisions into the Social Security Act thought that the need for federal aid to dependent children and poor old people would gradually wither away as employment improved and those over 65 began to collect Social Security pensions. But many Americans, such as farm laborers and domestic servants, were never included in the Social Security old-age retirement program. Also, since , increasing divorce and father desertion rates have dramatically multiplied the number of poor single mothers with dependent children. Since the Great Depression, the national welfare system expanded both in coverage and federal regulations. From its inception, the system drew critics. Some complained that the system did not do enough to get people to work. Others simply believed the federal government should not administer a welfare system. In , candidate Bill Clinton, a Democrat, ran for president promising to "end welfare as we know it. For Discussion and Writing 1. How did needy Americans get help before ? In what ways were these pensions sometimes administered unfairly? Did President Franklin D. Facts on File, The Moral Construction of Poverty.

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Chapter 2 : Atatürk's reforms - All About Turkey

The reform program after did begin to address structural reforms, with changes in and the eventual abolition of the examination system, the establishment of more schools throughout the country which were to include Western subjects, support for student study abroad, the establishment of a new national army under a new army ministry, along.

Visit Website Did you know? Washington to dine with him and his family; he was the first president ever to entertain a black man in the White House. In , Roosevelt ran unsuccessfully for mayor of New York City. Upon the outbreak of the Spanish-American War in , Roosevelt left his post as naval secretary to become colonel of the First U. Once elected, Roosevelt displayed his characteristic independence and unwillingness to buckle to the pressure of party bosses. Roosevelt campaigned vigorously for McKinley, traveling by train for more than 21, miles to speak in 24 states, and McKinley and Roosevelt won in a landslide over Democrats William Jennings Bryan and Adlai E. McKinley died eight days later, and Roosevelt was sworn in as the 26th president. From the time of his First Annual Message to Congress in December , Roosevelt expressed the progressive belief that government should mediate between conflicting forces including capital and labor, isolationism and expansionism and conservation and development in order to stabilize American society. In , his government brought a successful suit under the previously ineffective Sherman Antitrust Act against the Northern Securities Company, a railroad combination formed by James J. That same year, he intervened in a prolonged coal strike in Pennsylvania , using a combination of negotiation tactics to halt the strike and gain a modest pay increase for the miners. Roosevelt also used his executive power to further his passion for conservationism. In June , the National Reclamation Act dedicated to large-scale irrigation projects in the American West became the first major legislative achievement of his presidency. In addition, Roosevelt set aside almost million acres—almost five times as much land as all his predecessors combined—for national forests, reserves and wildlife refuges. He was the first president to win reelection after gaining the White House due to the death of his predecessor. Roosevelt followed this big-stick policy most conspicuously in his dealings in Latin America. In , he helped Panama secede from Colombia in order to facilitate the beginning of construction on the Panama Canal , which he later claimed as his greatest accomplishment as president. Navy into a major international force at sea. After the White House As the election approached, Roosevelt prepared grudgingly to fulfill the campaign pledge he had made in not to seek another term, and threw his support behind Secretary of War William Howard Taft. Immediately after leaving office in early , Roosevelt left for a month African safari and a tour of Europe, where he enjoyed international acclaim. Upon his return, Roosevelt found that President Taft had failed to follow through on the promised program of progressive reforms, instead siding with the more conservative wing of the Republican Party. Incensed, Roosevelt campaigned against Taft for the Republican nomination in ; when that effort failed, he and his supporters bolted to form the Progressive Party, popularly known as the Bull Moose Party. Politically and physically active until the end, Roosevelt died in his sleep on January 6, , at his family home in Oyster Bay, New York, at the age of Start your free trial today.

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Chapter 3 : The Juvenile Justice System | Juvenile Crime, Juvenile Justice | The National Academies Press

The single-party regime was established de facto after the adoption of the constitution of Turkey after Atatürk's reforms, a pilot program had been.

He outlined a plan for maritime defense which included "building ships, making weapons, and learning the superior techniques of the barbarians. This approach came to be known as "self strengthening;" its principle goal was to maintain the strong essence of Chinese civilization while adding superior technology from abroad. The construction of modern coal mines and railroads followed. But for many reasons these projects did not succeed: It was in this period that Chinese nationalism developed, along with urgent appeals to the Qing court for more radical reform. The reform program designed by the scholars Kang Youwei, Liang Qichao, and Tan Sitong had a brief trial in the so-called "Hundred Days of Reform" of 1898, but it was not until after the Boxer Rebellion defeat in 1901 that wide-ranging reforms in education, military, economics and government were actually implemented. The reform program after 1901 did begin to address structural reforms, with changes in and the eventual abolition of the examination system, the establishment of more schools throughout the country which were to include Western subjects, support for student study abroad, the establishment of a new national army under a new army ministry, along with a new ministry of commerce, reform of the currency, and the promulgation of a commercial code. In spite of these changes and perhaps because of them, the dynasty collapsed in 1911. Thinkers such as Liang Qichao and Sun Yatsen had already abandoned not only the Manchu dynasty but also the imperial system and had argued for its replacement with a different form of government. Local assemblies had begun to meet in 1908 and the dynasty had worked out a timetable for creating a constitutional monarchy, with a constitution planned for 1911 and a parliament to be convened the following year. Sun went even further and called for a republican revolution. In the tumultuous years that followed, a number of visions for a new China were created by either mixing old and new, or by rejecting Chinese traditional ideas entirely. These efforts informed and fueled the May Fourth Movement, so named for the popular protests it engendered in China on May 4, 1919. Reform efforts also informed the reorganization of the Guomindang Kuomintang [KMT], or Nationalist Party, which nominally reunified the country in 1928 and tried to build a modern state, and the founding of the Chinese Communist Party in 1921, which saw itself as adapting Marxist ideas to Chinese realities. At first they were confused and uncertain about which direction to move. Pressured not only from the outside, they were troubled also by their own explosive population growth, unpredictable economic swings and internal rebellions throughout the century. The Chinese were at first fearful of major changes, believing that they would poison their traditions if they adopted too much from the West. Before they agreed on reform, leaders in the scholar-official class had first to accept the need for change. Others argued that this was impossible, faced with the challenge on Western arms. Much of the 19th century, therefore, was a time of debate about whether or not to modernize, and if so, how much? Some Confucian scholars called for the study the "barbarian" technology in order to resist the Western pressures. Feng Guifen Feng Kuei-fen was such a man. He wrote the selection on "Western Learning" in the 1860s, when China was defeated a second time by the West and had unequal treaties imposed upon it. Because of widespread hostility to his ideas, he did not publish it until much later. Feng argued that China should adopt Western technology while retaining Chinese values. Others, like the writer Yan Fu Yan Fu, felt this was impossible "that Western technology could not be borrowed without also borrowing Western science and the democratic system of government that fostered science. The debate continued in the later half of the 19th century as China was slowly partitioned into various spheres of influence. The southeast of China was occupied by the French, the northeast by the Germans, the south by the British, the northwest by the Russians, and the north by the Japanese. Only gradually did some thinkers come to believe that just bringing in Western guns and machines was not enough. The quest for a "new China" began in the 1890s as the Chinese of that period debated how they could borrow from the West and Japan what was useful yong for economic development or industrialization without losing the essence ti of

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Chinese culture. In the primary sources below, two scholars present counter-arguments. Feng Guifen argues for adopting Western techniques without altering Chinese "foundations," and Yan Fu argues that this would not be enough.

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Chapter 4 : Military Reforms | racedaydvl.com

With the establishment of the republic, Atatürk made language reform an important part of the nationalist program. The goal was to produce a language more Turkish, modern, practical, and precise, and less difficult to learn than the old language.

It was important at the time for the Republic of Turkey to be modernized in order to progress towards the level of contemporary civilizations and to be an active member of the culturally developed communities. Mustafa Kemal modernized the life of his country. These reforms were enthusiastically welcomed by the Turkish people. Chronology of Reforms Sultanate abolished November 1. Republic of Turkey with capital at Ankara proclaimed October Traditional religious schools closed, Sheriat Islamic Law abolished. Constitution adopted April Fez outlawed by the Hat Law November Veiling of women discouraged; Western clothing for men and women encouraged. Western Gregorian calendar adopted instead of Islamic calendar. New civil code ended Islamic polygamy and divorce by renunciation and introduced civil marriage. State declared secular April 10 ; constitutional provision establishing Islam as official religion deleted. State role in managing economy written into the constitution. For him, modernization meant Westernization. On one level, a secular legal code, modeled along European lines, was introduced that completely altered laws affecting women , marriage , and family relations. Turks were encouraged to wear European-style clothing. Titles of honor were abolished. The wearing of the fez, which had been introduced a century earlier as a modernizing reform to replace the turban, was outlawed because it had become for the nationalists a symbol of the reactionary Ottoman regime. These were regarded as "fundamental and unchanging principles " guiding the republic, and, as such, they were written into its constitution. The principle of republicanism was contained in the constitutional declaration that "sovereignty is vested in the nation" and not in a single ruler. The nation-state supplanted the Ottoman dynasty as the focus of loyalty, and the particulars of Turkish nationalism replaced Ottoman universalism. The President himself went out into the park in Ankara on Sunday, the newly established day of rest, to teach the Latin alphabet adapted to Turkish as part of the language reform. Populism encompassed not only the notion that all Turkish citizens were equal but also that all of them were Turks. What remained of the millet system that had guaranteed communal autonomy to other ethnic groups was abolished. Reformism legitimized the radical means by which changes in Turkish political and social life were implemented. The abolition of the caliphate ended any connection between the state and religion. The religious orders were suppressed, religious schools closed and public education secularized , and the Sheriat Islamic rule revoked, requiring readjustment of the entire social framework of the Turkish people. In the Grand National Assembly adopted a new constitution to replace the constitution that had continued to serve as the legal framework for the republican government. The constitution vested sovereign power in the Grand National Assembly as representative of the people, to whom it also guaranteed basic civil rights. A unicameral body elected for a four-year term by universal suffrage, the assembly exercised legislative authority, including responsibility for approving the budget, ratifying treaties, and declaring war. The new constitution did not provide for an impartial judiciary to rule on the constitutionality of laws enacted by the assembly, but rather empowered the elected legislature to alter or defer judicial decisions. The President of the republic was elected for a four-year term by the assembly, and he in turn appointed the prime minister , who was expected to enjoy the confidence of the assembly. Scarcely had this experiment begun, however, when an uprising broke out that quickly spread throughout the Kurdish region in southeastern Turkey. He and other dervish leaders urged their Kurdish followers to overthrow the "godless" government in Ankara and restore the caliph. Special courts with summary powers were established, and the Progressive Republican Party was outlawed. Meanwhile, the Turkish army swiftly extinguished the revolt. As a result of the inquiry, some of his former close associates were sent into exile. Whether there were specific connections between the Progressive Republican Party , the Kurdish revolt, and the assassination plot remained a subject of conjecture among historians. Another

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experiment with multiparty politics was made in the form of an authorized loyal opposition party, but this effort degenerated into factionalism and was quickly ended. Men started to wear hats rather than the fez. Thus with the civil code passed, Turkish women would now have the same rights as men, could be appointed to official posts, would have the right to vote and to be elected to Parliament. The monogamy principle and equal rights for women changed the spirit of Turkish society. He established the Turkish Historical Society in Constantinople. Within the Ottoman Empire, the Turks were merely one of many linguistic and ethnic groups, and the word Turk in fact connoted crudeness and boorishness. Members of the civil, military, and religious elite conversed and conducted their business in Ottoman Turkish, which was a mixture of Arabic, Persian, and Turkish. Arabic remained the primary language of religion and religious law. Persian was the language of art, refined literature, and diplomacy. What little Turkish there was usually had to do with the administration of the Ottoman Empire. Turkish not only borrowed vocabulary items from Arabic and Persian but also lifted entire expressions and syntactic structures out of these languages and incorporated them into the Ottoman idiom. Thus, pure Turkish survived primarily as the language of the illiterate and generally was not used in writing. Ottoman Turkish, on the other hand, was the language of writing, as well as the language spoken by the educated elite. Its multiple origins caused difficulties in spelling and writing Ottoman Turkish. The constituent parts - Turkish, Persian, and Arabic - belong to three different language families - Ural-Altaiic, Indo-European, and Semitic, respectively - and the writing system fits only the last of these. Phonological, grammatical, and etymological principles are quite different among them. During the nineteenth century, modernist intellectuals began to call for a reform of the language. They wanted to fashion a language that would be easier to use and more purely Turkish. Thus, the principle of Turkish language reform was intimately tied to the reforms of the period. Later in the nineteenth century, the demand for language reform became political. Turkish nationalists sought a language that would unite rather than divide the people. The goal was to produce a language more Turkish, modern, practical, and precise, and less difficult to learn than the old language. The republican language reform consisted of two basic elements - adoption of a new alphabet and purification of the vocabulary. The language revolution Dil Devrimi in Turkish officially began in May 1928. In May, numbers written in Arabic were replaced with their Western equivalents. In November the Grand National Assembly approved the new Latin alphabet that had been devised by a committee of scholars. Many members of the assembly favored gradually introducing the new letters over a period up to five years. With chalk and a portable blackboard, he traveled throughout the country, giving writing lessons in schools, village squares, and other public places to a people whose illiteracy was suddenly percent. On January 1, 1928, it became unlawful to use the Arabic alphabet. The new alphabet represents the Turkish vowels and consonants more clearly than does the old alphabet. Composed of Latin letters and a few additional variants, it contains one symbol for each sound of standard Turkish, which was identified as the educated speech of Istanbul. By adopting the Latin alphabet, Turkey turned consciously toward the West, severed a major link with the Islamic world, and rejected a part of its Islamic heritage. By providing the new generation no need and scant opportunity to learn the Arabic letters, the alphabet reform cut them off from the Ottoman past and its culture and value system. Specifically, this new generation could no longer be educated by the traditional establishment of religious scholars. Non-Turkish words were seen as symbols of the past, and there was great nationalist enthusiasm, supported by government policies, to get rid of them. Purification of the language became a national cause. Dictionaries began to drop Arabic and Persian words and sought to resurrect archaic terms or words from Turkish dialects or to coin new words from old stems and roots to be used in their place. The citizens at large were invited to suggest alternatives to words and expressions of non-Turkish origin, and many responded. In lists of new Turkish words began to be published, and in they began to appear in newspapers. The minds saw the height of the enthusiasm for language reform, and some of the suggested reforms were so extreme as to endanger the understandability of the language. Although purist and zealot opinion favored the banishment of all words of non-Turkish origin, it became obvious to many that some of the suggested reforms verged on the ridiculous. He suggested the historically preposterous but politically

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efficacious Sun- Language Theory, which asserted that Turkish was the "mother of all languages," and therefore all foreign words were originally Turkish. Thus, if a suitable Turkish equivalent for a foreign word could not be found, the loanword could be retained without violating the purity of the Turkish language. By the late s, considerable opposition to the purification movement had begun to surface. Teachers, writers, poets, journalists, editors, and others began to complain in public about the instability and arbitrariness of the officially sanctioned vocabulary. In the Turkish Language Society lost its semiofficial status, and eventually some Arabic loanwords began to reappear in government publications. The long-term effects of the language reform have been positive, but at a price. Reading, spelling, and printing are now infinitely simpler than before, and literacy has spread because of this. Modern Turkish is more concise and direct than Ottoman Turkish, and hence better meets the demands of modern life, including science and technology. The language reform has to some degree closed the language gap that used to exist between the classes of Turkish society, and a certain democratization of language and literature has occurred. The cost, however, has been the drastic and permanent estrangement from the literary and linguistic heritage of the Ottomans. Although some pre-republican writing has been transcribed in the new alphabet, its vocabulary and syntax are now barely understandable to a modern speaker of Turkish. The loss of old words and their rich connotations has resulted in some aesthetic impoverishment of the language. Language and language reform continued to be political issues in Turkey in the late s. Not surprisingly, language reform and modern usage were pushed forward during periods of liberal governments and de-emphasized under conservative governments such as those of the s. As for religious publications, they were not touched much by these reforms and continued to use an idiom that was heavily Arabic or Persian in vocabulary and Persian in syntax. In spite of the fact that coinages lack some of the rich connotations of the older lexicon, modern Turkish prose and poetry came into their own in Kemalist and, especially, post- Kemalist since Turkey, as writers and poets created powerful works in this new idiom. Secularist Reforms In the new nationalist regime abolished the Ottoman sultanate, and in it abolished the caliphate, which the Ottoman sultanate had held for centuries. Thus, for the first time in Islamic history, no ruler claimed the spiritual leadership of Islam; this was still the case in the late s. As Islam had formed the identity of the Ottoman Empire and its subjects, so secularism molded the new Turkish nation and its citizens. Establishment of secularism in Turkey was a process of distinguishing church from state or the religious from the nonreligious spheres of life. In the Ottoman Empire, all spheres of life were theoretically ruled by religious law, and religious organizations did not exist apart from the state.

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Chapter 5 : The Long Road To FATA Reforms – South Asia Program at Hudson Institute

These reforms demonstrated the future needs of the army well, resulting in the passage of a bill (The Large Program) through the Duma designed to finance the strengthening of the entire military establishment.

The evolution of these efforts and the reasons for their failure make for an intriguing lesson in American history, ideology, and character. Other developed countries have had some form of social insurance that later evolved into national insurance for nearly as long as the US has been trying to get it. Some European countries started with compulsory sickness insurance, one of the first systems, for workers beginning in Germany in 1883; other countries including Austria, Hungary, Norway, Britain, Russia, and the Netherlands followed all the way through. Other European countries, including Sweden in 1891, Denmark in 1892, France in 1898, and Switzerland in 1900, subsidized the mutual benefit societies that workers formed among themselves. So for a very long time, other countries have had some form of universal health care or at least the beginnings of it. The primary reason for the emergence of these programs in Europe was income stabilization and protection against the wage loss of sickness rather than payment for medical expenses, which came later. Programs were not universal to start with and were originally conceived as a means of maintaining incomes and buying political allegiance of the workers. In a seeming paradox, the British and German systems were developed by the more conservative governments in power, specifically as a defense to counter expansion of the socialist and labor parties. US circa 1890, including Reformers and the Progressive Era: The government took no actions to subsidize voluntary funds or make sick insurance compulsory; essentially the federal government left matters to the states and states left them to private and voluntary programs. The US did have some voluntary funds that provided for their members in the case of sickness or death, but there were no legislative or public programs during the late 19th or early 20th century. In the Progressive Era, which occurred in the early 20th century, reformers were working to improve social conditions for the working class. Therefore the first proposals for health insurance in the US did not come into political debate under anti-socialist sponsorship as they had in Europe. Theodore Roosevelt – During the Progressive Era, President Theodore Roosevelt was in power and although he supported health insurance because he believed that no country could be strong whose people were sick and poor, most of the initiative for reform took place outside of government. They were a typical progressive group whose mandate was not to abolish capitalism but rather to reform it. In 1901, they created a committee on social welfare which held its first national conference in 1902. Despite its broad mandate, the committee decided to concentrate on health insurance, drafting a model bill in 1903. The services of physicians, nurses, and hospitals were included, as was sick pay, maternity benefits, and a death benefit of fifty dollars to pay for funeral expenses. This death benefit becomes significant later on. Costs were to be shared between workers, employers, and the state. They found prominent physicians who were not only sympathetic, but who also wanted to support and actively help in securing legislation. Times have definitely changed along the way. There was disagreement on the method of paying physicians and it was not long before the AMA leadership denied it had ever favored the measure. They apparently worried that a government-based insurance system would weaken unions by usurping their role in providing social benefits. Their central concern was maintaining union strength, which was understandable in a period before collective bargaining was legally sanctioned. But because the reformer health insurance plans also covered funeral expenses, there was a big conflict. Reformers felt that by covering death benefits, they could finance much of the health insurance costs from the money wasted by commercial insurance policies who had to have an army of insurance agents to market and collect on these policies. But since this would have pulled the rug out from under the multi-million dollar commercial life insurance industry, they opposed the national health insurance proposal. Other efforts during this time in California, namely the California Social Insurance Commission, recommended health insurance, proposed enabling legislation in 1911, and then held a referendum. New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Illinois also had some efforts aimed at health insurance. But in the Red Scare, immediately after the war, when

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the government attempted to root out the last vestiges of radicalism, opponents of compulsory health insurance associated it with Bolshevism and buried it in an avalanche of anti-Communist rhetoric. Why did the Progressives fail? Opposition from doctors, labor, insurance companies, and business contributed to the failure of Progressives to achieve compulsory national health insurance. In addition, the inclusion of the funeral benefit was a tactical error since it threatened the gigantic structure of the commercial life insurance industry. Political naivete on the part of the reformers in failing to deal with the interest group opposition, ideology, historical experience, and the overall political context all played a key role in shaping how these groups identified and expressed their interests. By now, medical costs for workers were regarded as a more serious problem than wage loss from sickness. Medical, and especially hospital, care was now a bigger item in family budgets than wage losses. Concerns over the cost and distribution of medical care led to the formation of this self-created, privately funded group. The committee was funded by 8 philanthropic organizations including the Rockefeller, Millbank, and Rosenwald foundations. They first met in and ceased meeting in . The CCMC was comprised of fifty economists, physicians, public health specialists, and major interest groups. Their research determined that there was a need for more medical care for everyone, and they published these findings in 26 research volumes and 15 smaller reports over a 5-year period. The CCMC recommended that more national resources go to medical care and saw voluntary, not compulsory, health insurance as a means to covering these costs. Most CCMC members opposed compulsory health insurance, but there was no consensus on this point within the committee. We might have thought the Great Depression would create the perfect conditions for passing compulsory health insurance in the US, but with millions out of work, unemployment insurance took priority followed by old age benefits. It was therefore excluded. The Wagner National Health Act of . However, the election brought a conservative resurgence and any further innovations in social policy were extremely difficult. Most of the social policy legislation precedes . He passionately believed in a national health program and compulsory health insurance. Many of them, including Milton Romer and Milton Terris, were instrumental in forming the medical care section of the American Public Health Association, which then served as a national meeting ground for those committed to health care reform. First introduced in , it became the very famous Wagner-Murray-Dingell Bill. The bill called for compulsory national health insurance and a payroll tax. Opposition to this bill was enormous and the antagonists launched a scathing red baiting attack on the committee saying that one of its key policy analysts, I. Although the Wagner-Murray-Dingell Bill generated extensive national debates, with the intensified opposition, the bill never passed by Congress despite its reintroduction every session for 14 years! Had it passed, the Act would have established compulsory national health insurance funded by payroll taxes. The health care issue finally moved into the center arena of national politics and received the unreserved support of an American president. Though he served during some of the most virulent anti-Communist attacks and the early years of the Cold War, Truman fully supported national health insurance. But the opposition had acquired new strength. The chairman of the House Committee was an anti-union conservative and refused to hold hearings. It is to my mind the most socialistic measure this Congress has ever had before it. The AMA claimed it would make doctors slaves, even though Truman emphasized that doctors would be able to choose their method of payment. In , the Republicans took control of Congress and had no interest in enacting national health insurance. They charged that it was part of a large socialist scheme. Truman responded by focusing even more attention on a national health bill in the election. He declared socialized medicine is the keystone to the arch of the socialist state. Compromises were proposed but none were successful. Instead of a single health insurance system for the entire population, America would have a system of private insurance for those who could afford it and public welfare services for the poor. Discouraged by yet another defeat, the advocates of health insurance now turned toward a more modest proposal they hoped the country would adopt: Union-negotiated health care benefits also served to cushion workers from the impact of health care costs and undermined the movement for a government program. Why did these efforts for universal national health insurance fail again? For many of the same reasons they failed before: For the next several years, not much happened in terms of national health insurance

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initiatives. The nation focussed more on unions as a vehicle for health insurance, the Hill-Burton Act of related to hospital expansion, medical research and vaccines, the creation of national institutes of health, and advances in psychiatry. Predictably, the AMA undertook a massive campaign to portray a government insurance plan as a threat to the patient-doctor relationship. But by concentrating on the aged, the terms of the debate began to change for the first time. There was major grass roots support from seniors and the pressures assumed the proportions of a crusade. In the entire history of the national health insurance campaign, this was the first time that a ground swell of grass roots support forced an issue onto the national agenda. In response, the government expanded its proposed legislation to cover physician services, and what came of it were Medicare and Medicaid. Finally, in , Johnson signed it into law as part of his Great Society Legislation, capping 20 years of congressional debate. What does history teach us? What is the movement reacting to? The institutional representatives of society do not always represent those that they claim to represent, just as the AMA does not represent all doctors. This lack of representation presents an opportunity for attracting more people to the cause. There have been periods of acquiescence in this debate before. Those who oppose it can not kill this movement. Openings will occur again. We all need to be on the lookout for those openings and also need to create openings where we see opportunities. Vincente Navarro says that the majority opinion of national health insurance has everything to do with repression and coercion by the capitalist corporate dominant class. He argues that the conflict and struggles that continuously take place around the issue of health care unfold within the parameters of class and that coercion and repression are forces that determine policy. I think when we talk about interest groups in this country, it is really a code for class. Red-baiting is a red herring and has been used throughout history to evoke fear and may continue to be used in these post Cold War times by those who wish to inflame this debate. Grass roots initiatives contributed in part to the passage of Medicare, and they can work again. Such legislation does not emerge quietly or with broad partisan support. It took another decade for the rest of the country to catch on. That is about 50 years all together. We fought, we threatened, the doctors went on strike, refused patients, people held rallies and signed petitions for and against it, burned effigies of government leaders, hissed, jeered, and booed at the doctors or the Premier depending on whose side they were on. Although there was plenty of resistance, now you could more easily take away Christmas than health care, despite the rhetoric that you may hear to the contrary. Finally there is always hope for flexibility and change.

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Chapter 6 : Theodore Roosevelt - HISTORY

The Tanzimat is the name given to the series of Ottoman reforms promulgated during the reigns of Mahmud's sons Abdülmejid I (ruled) and Abdülaziz ().

This system was to differ from adult or criminal court in a number of ways. It was to focus on the child or adolescent as a person in need of assistance, not on the act that brought him or her before the court. The proceedings were informal, with much discretion left to the juvenile court judge. The very language used in juvenile court underscored these differences. Juveniles are not charged with crimes, but rather with delinquencies; they are not found guilty, but rather are adjudicated delinquent; they are not sent to prison, but to training school or reformatory. In practice, there was always a tension between social welfare and social control—that is, focusing on the best interests of the individual child versus focusing on punishment, incapacitation, and protecting society from certain offenses. This tension has shifted over time and has varied significantly from jurisdiction to jurisdiction, and it remains today. Page Share Cite Suggested Citation: Juvenile Crime, Juvenile Justice. The National Academies Press. This change in emphasis from a focus on rehabilitating the individual to punishing the act is exemplified by the 17 states that redefined the purpose clause of their juvenile courts to emphasize public safety, certainty of sanctions, and offender accountability Torbet and Szymanski, Inherent in this change in focus is the belief that the juvenile justice system is too soft on delinquents, who are thought to be potentially as much a threat to public safety as their adult criminal counterparts. It is important to remember that the United States has at least 51 different juvenile justice systems, not one. Each state and the District of Columbia has its own laws that govern its juvenile justice system. How juvenile courts operate may vary from county to county and municipality to municipality within a state. The federal government has jurisdiction over a small number of juveniles, such as those who commit crimes on Indian reservations or in national parks, and it has its own laws to govern juveniles within its system. States that receive money under the federal Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act must meet certain requirements, such as not housing juveniles with adults in detention or incarceration facilities, but it is state law that governs the structure of juvenile courts and juvenile corrections facilities. When this report refers to the juvenile justice system, it is referring to a generic framework that is more or less representative of what happens in any given state. Legal reforms and policy changes that have taken place under the get-tough rubric include more aggressive policing of juveniles, making it easier or in some cases mandatory to treat a juvenile who has committed certain offenses as an adult, moving decision making about where to try a juvenile from the judge to the prosecutor or the state legislature, changing sentencing options, and opening juvenile proceedings and records. Changes in laws do not necessarily translate into changes in practice. In addition to the belief that at least some juvenile offenders are amenable to treatment and rehabilitation, other factors limit overreliance on get-tough measures: Practice may also move in ways not envisioned when laws are passed. Whereas the traditional juvenile justice model focuses attention on offender rehabilitation and the current get-tough changes focus on offense punishment, the restorative model focuses on balancing the needs of victims, offenders, and communities Bazemore and Umbreit, Tracking changes in practice is difficult, not only because of the differences in structure of the juvenile justice system among the states, but also because the information collected about case processing and about incarcerated juveniles differs from state to state, and because there are few national data. Some states collect and publish a large amount of data on various aspects of the juvenile justice system, but for most states the data are not readily available. Although data are collected nationally on juvenile court case processing, the courts are not required to submit data, so that national juvenile court statistics are derived from courts that cover only about two-thirds of the entire juvenile population Stahl et al. Furthermore, there are no published national data on the number of juveniles convicted by offense, the number incarcerated by offense, sentence length, time served in confinement, or time served on parole Langan and Farrington, The center of the juvenile justice system is the juvenile or family court Moore

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and Wakeling. In fact, the term juvenile justice is often used synonymously with the juvenile court, but it also may refer to other affiliated institutions in addition to the court, including the police, prosecuting and defense attorneys, probation, juvenile detention centers, and juvenile correctional facilities Rosenheim, In this chapter, juvenile justice is used in the latter, larger sense. After providing a brief historical background of the juvenile court and a description of stages in the juvenile justice system, we examine the various legal and policy changes that have taken place in recent years, the impact those changes have had on practice, and the result of the laws, policy, and practice on juveniles caught up in the juvenile justice system. Throughout the chapter, differences by race and by gender in involvement in the juvenile justice system are noted. Chapter 6 examines in more detail the overrepresentation of minorities in the juvenile justice system. Department of Justice, has collected and analyzed juvenile court statistics since Data on the latter three categories are not now collected nationally. Children under the age of 7 were presumed to be unable to form criminal intent and were therefore exempt from punishment. The establishment of special courts and incarceration facilities for juveniles was part of Progressive Era reforms, along with kindergarten, child labor laws, mandatory education, school lunches, and vocational education, that were aimed at enhancing optimal child development in the industrial city Schlossman, Reformers believed that treating children and adolescents as adult criminals was unnecessarily harsh and resulted in their corruption. They were not to be accused of specific crimes. The act gave the court jurisdiction over neglected, dependent, and delinquent children under age The focus of the court was rehabilitation rather than punishment. Records of the court were to be confidential to minimize stigma. The act required separation of juveniles from adults when incarcerated and barred the detention of children under age 12 in jails. The act also provided for informality in procedures within the court. The idea of the juvenile court spread rapidly. By , a functioning juvenile court existed in every state except Maine and Wyoming Schlossman, They succeeded in diverting most children and adolescents from the criminal system, but they may Page Share Cite Suggested Citation: First, the clientele was overwhelmingly from the lower class and of immigrant parents. Second, boys and girls appeared in court for different reasons, and the courts disposed of their cases differently. Third, referral to court by agents other than the police, especially parents, relatives, and neighbors, was a far more common practice than it is today. This placed added burdens on already large case loads and widened the net of the court to embrace every conceivable form of nonconventional behavior. A case study of the Milwaukee juvenile court in the early 20th century Schlossman, found that probation officers had over cases, far too many for the individualized services envisioned by the Progressive Era reformers. The detention center lacked any serious diagnostic function and was sometimes used punitively. Furthermore, the court treated children who had committed no crime the same as those who had committed a criminal act. Unlike adults, juveniles could be detained and incarcerated without a trial, a lawyer, or even being made aware of the charges against them. Another set of critics charged the court with being too lenient on young offenders. These same criticisms continue today Dawson, ; Feld, Three Supreme Court decisions in the second half of the 20th century resulted in more procedural formality in the juvenile court, but other decisions maintained differences between juvenile and criminal courts. In , in Kent v. Justice Abe Fortas also called into question the fundamental fairness of the juvenile court: While there can be no doubt of the original laudable purpose of juvenile courts, studies and critiques in recent years raise serious questions as to whether actual performance measures well enough against theoretical purpose to make tolerable the immunity of the process from the reach of constitutional guaranties applicable to adults. There is evidence, in fact, that there may be grounds for concern that the child receives the worst of both worlds: United States, U. A year later, the decision of in re Gault U. Fifteen-year-old Gerald Gault was sentenced to a state reformatory for an indeterminate period that could last until his 21st birthday for making an obscene phone call. The case embodied nearly every procedural irregularity distinctive of juvenile courts: Gault was detained by the police and held overnight without his parents being notified; he was required to appear at a juvenile court hearing the following day; a probation officer filed a pro forma petition alleging Gault was a delinquent minor in need of care and custody of the court; no witnesses were called; there was no sworn testimony or written record of the court

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proceedings; and Gault was not advised of his right to remain silent or to have an attorney. In *In re Winship*, the Supreme Court raised the standard of proof necessary in juvenile court to that required in adult criminal court. In *Feld v. Omsberg*, the Court recognized juvenile court proceedings as criminal proceedings, not social welfare ones. Nevertheless, the Court did not grant full criminal procedural entitlements to juveniles. Some critics of the juvenile court argue that, given the punitive changes in juvenile justice legislation since the decision, the only remaining procedural differences between juvenile and adult criminal courts are access to juries and access to counsel. The lack of access to juries may have consequences for the outcome of a trial because judges and juries may decide cases differently. There is some evidence that juvenile court judges may be more likely than juries to convict. For example, a study by Greenwood et al. Furthermore, judges try hundreds of cases every year and consequently may evaluate facts more casually and less meticulously than jurors who focus on only one case. Judges may have preconceptions of the credibility of police and probation officers and of the juvenile in question. In contrast, jurors hear only a few cases and undergo careful procedures to test bias for each case. Also, judges are not required to discuss the law and evidence pertinent to a case with a group before making a decision, and they are often exposed to evidence that would be considered inadmissible in a jury trial. From their inception, juvenile courts had authority not only over children and adolescents who committed illegal acts, but also over those who defied parental authority or social conventions by such acts as running away from home, skipping school, drinking alcohol in public, or engaging in sexual behavior. These children and adolescents were deemed to be out of control and in need of guidance. Criticism of treating these status offenders whose acts were considered problematic only because of their status as children the same as children and adolescents who had committed criminal acts grew during the 1960s. The juvenile courts also had jurisdiction over abused and neglected children who had committed no offense. The Act provided federal leadership in the reform of the treatment of status offenders and nonoffenders. It required states that received federal formula grants to remove noncriminal status offenders and nonoffenders. The provisions for the deinstitutionalization of status offenders led to a decrease in the numbers of status offenders held in detention facilities and institutions by the early 1970s. Krisberg and Schwartz, National Research Council, Schneider, a. Schneider b, however, found that some children and adolescents who, prior to the move to deinstitutionalize status offenders, would have been charged with a status offense, were subsequently being charged with minor delinquent offenses. Therefore, Schneider asserted, they were still coming to the court at the same rate, but as delinquents rather than status cases. Amendments to the act in 1974 weakened the deinstitutionalization mandate somewhat by allowing detention and incarceration of noncriminal juveniles for violating a valid court order. Status offenders who did not comply with treatment ordered by the court could become criminal delinquents by virtue of being charged with criminal contempt of court. Young people who might formerly have been processed through the juvenile justice system for status offenses may now be institutionalized in other facilities, such as private mental health and drug and alcohol treatment facilities. Very little is known about the number of youngsters confined to such institutions, the length of their institutionalization, or the conditions of their confinement. Concern over housing juveniles with adult criminals led to other requirements under the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act. Sight and sound separation of juveniles and adults in detention and correctional facilities and removal of juveniles from adult jails and lockups were mandated. In 1978, the act was amended to require states to address disproportionate confinement of minority juveniles. At the same time the federal agenda and the voices of reformers were calling for deinstitutionalization procedures and more prevention, the states seemed to be moving in the opposite direction. Between 1975 and 1985, lawmakers in nearly half the states enacted some form of tougher legislation with regard to handling serious and chronic juvenile offenders. In a handful of states, provisions included making it easier to prosecute juveniles in adult court by lowering the age of judicial waiver three states; excluding certain offenses from juvenile court jurisdiction. Page Share Cite Suggested Citation: The impact of these reforms was an increase in the detention rate on any given day by more than 50 percent between 1975 and 1985.

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Chapter 7 : Tanzimat | Ottoman reform movement | racedaydvl.com

Based on the assumption that the power of the federal government was needed to get the country out of the depression, the first days of Roosevelt's administration saw the passage of banking reform laws, emergency relief programs, work relief programs, and agricultural programs.

Politics of Turkey Until the moment the republic was formally proclaimed, the Ottoman Empire was still in existence, with its heritage of religious and dynastic authority. The dynasty was abolished by the Ankara Government, but its traditions and cultural symbols remained active among the people though less so among the elite. The sovereignty rests with the Turkish Nation, who delegates its exercise to an elected unicameral parliament position in , the Turkish Grand National Assembly. The preamble also invokes the principles of nationalism, defined as the "material and spiritual well-being of the Republic" position in There exists separation of powers between the Legislative Power 7. The separation of powers between the legislative and the executive is a loose one, whereas the one between the executive and the legislative with the judiciary is a strict one. The Republic representative democracy [edit] The most fundamental reforms allowed the Turkish nation to exercise popular sovereignty through representative democracy. Constitutional history of Turkey The model for the system is Constitutional Republic. In the Turkish Constitutional Republic, government created and controlled by the Law of a Constitution. The Turkish Constitution of was the fundamental law of Turkey for a brief period from to It was a simple document consisting of only 23 short articles. The major driving force behind the preparation of a Constitution that derived its sovereignty from the nation and not from the Sultan, the absolute monarch of the Ottoman Empire. In October the constitution was amended to declare Turkey to be a republic. In April , the constitution was replaced by an entirely new document, the Turkish Constitution of This allowed the Turkish nationalist government in Ankara to become the sole governing entity in the nation. List of historical parties in Turkey and Multi-party period of the Republic of Turkey The bicameral system of the Ottoman parliament "composed of an upper house, the Senate of viziers, assigned by the Sultan, and the lower house, the Chamber of Deputies , selected by two-level elections" was dissolved, which had already been defunct since the Allied occupation of Istanbul in and consequently. The foundation of the Turkish Grand National Assembly followed the dissolution of the lower house of the Ottoman parliament. The new system, which gave primacy to national independence and popular sovereignty, established the offices of Prime Minister and President while placing legislative power within a unicameral Grand National Assembly. The Assembly was elected by direct election using proportional representation. It was based on Party system , which governance by political parties was adapted. The single-party regime was established de facto after the adoption of the constitution. There were other parties. It was banned after the Sheikh Said rebellion. In the elections , the Democratic Party won, becoming the first opposition party to win elections. Civic independence popular sovereignty [edit] See also: Secular state The establishment of popular sovereignty involved confronting centuries-old traditions. The reform process was characterized by a struggle between progressives and conservatives. The changes were both conceptually radical and culturally significant. The Ottoman Muslims had a strict hierarchy of ulama , with the Sheikh ul-Islam holding the highest rank. A Sheikh ul-Islam was chosen by a royal warrant among the qadis of important cities. The Sheikh ul-Islam issued fatwas, which were written interpretations of the Quran that had authority over the community. The Sheikh ul-Islam represented the law of shariah. Besides the political structure; as a part of civic independence, religious education system was replaced by a national education system on March 3, , and The Islamic courts and Islamic canon law gave way to a secular law structure based on the Swiss Civil Code , which is detailed under their headings. Abolition of Caliphate and Millet System[edit] See also: In European model of secularizing; states typically involves granting individual religious freedoms, disestablishing state religions, stopping public funds to be used for a religion, freeing the legal system from religious control, freeing up the education system, tolerating citizens who change religion or abstain from religion, and allowing

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political leadership to come to power regardless of religious beliefs. Under the reforms official recognition of the Ottoman millets withdrawn. This office was replaced by the Presidency of Religious Affairs. The abolishing of the position of Caliphate and Sheikh ul-Islam was followed by a common, secular authority. Many of the religious communities failed to adjust to the new regime. This was exacerbated by the emigration or impoverishment, due to deteriorating economic conditions. Families that hitherto had financially supported religious community institutions such as hospitals and schools stop doing so. Minority religions, like the Armenian or Greek Orthodoxy are guaranteed protection by the constitution as individual faiths personal sphere , but this guarantee does not give any rights to any religious communities social sphere. This differentiation applies to Islam and Muslims as well. The Treaty of Lausanne, the internationally binding agreement of the establishment of the Republic, does not specify any nationality or ethnicity. It simply identifies non-Muslims in general and provides the legal framework which gives certain explicit religious rights to Jews , Greeks , and Armenians without naming them. New capital[edit] The reform movement turned its back on the perceived corruption and decadence of cosmopolitan Istanbul and its Ottoman heritage, [11] as well as electing to choose a capital more geographically centered in Turkey. Secularism in Turkey Some social institutions had religious overtones, and held considerable influence over public life. Social change also included centuries old religious social structures that has been deeply rooted within the society, some were established within the state organisation of the Ottoman Empire. Public sphere and Discourse In the Ottoman public sphere religious groups exerted their power. Public sphere is an area in social life where individuals together to freely discuss and identify societal problems, and through that discussion influence political action. It is "a discursive space in which individuals and groups congregate to discuss matters of mutual interest and, where possible, to reach a common judgment.

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Chapter 8 : Liberian Security Sector Reform (LSSR) Program

The legislation established that States were required to reimburse E&T participants for expenses incurred through participation in an E&T program, but States could cap these reimbursements at \$25 per person per month.

History[edit] Prison populations of various countries in Prisons have only been used as the primary punishment for criminal acts in the last few centuries. Far more common earlier were various types of corporal punishment , public humiliation , penal bondage , and banishment for more severe offences, as well as capital punishment. Prisons contained both felons and debtors – the latter were allowed to bring in wives and children. The jailer made his money by charging the inmates for food and drink and legal services and the whole system was rife with corruption. This was the only place any medical services were provided. United Kingdom[edit] During the eighteenth century, British justice used a wide variety of measures to punish crime, including fines, the pillory and whipping. Transportation to The United States of America was often offered, until , as an alternative to the death penalty, which could be imposed for many offenses including pilfering. When they ran out of prisons in they used old sailing vessels which came to be called hulks as places of temporary confinement. The most notable reformer was John Howard who, having visited several hundred prisons across England and Europe, beginning when he was high sheriff of Bedfordshire, published *The State of the Prisons in* He proposed that each prisoner should be in a separate cell with separate sections for women felons, men felons, young offenders and debtors. The Penitentiary Act which passed in following his agitation introduced solitary confinement, religious instruction and a labor regime and proposed two state penitentiaries, one for men and one for women. These were never built due to disagreements in the committee and pressures from wars with France and jails remained a local responsibility. But other measures passed in the next few years provided magistrates with the powers to implement many of these reforms and eventually in jail fees were abolished. Quakers such as Elizabeth Fry continued to publicize the dire state of prisons as did Charles Dickens in his novels *David Copperfield* and *Little Dorrit* about the Marshalsea. Samuel Romilly managed to repeal the death penalty for theft in , but repealing it for other similar offences brought in a political element that had previously been absent. The Society for the Improvement of Prison Discipline , founded in , supported both the Panopticon for the design of prisons and the use of the treadmill as a means of hard labor. By , 54 prisons had adopted this means of discipline. The American separate system attracted the attention of some reformers and led to the creation of Millbank Prison in and Pentonville prison in By now the end of transportation to Australia and the use of hulks was in sight and Joshua Jebb set an ambitious program of prison building with one large prison opening per year. The main principles were separation and hard labour for serious crimes, using treadwheels and cranks. He also established a tradition of secrecy which lasted till the s so that even magistrates and investigators were unable to see the insides of prisons. He took the view that central government should break the cycle of offending and imprisonment by establishing a new type of reformatory, that was called Borstal after the village in Kent which housed the first one. The movement reached its peak after the first world war when Alexander Paterson became commissioner, delegating authority and encouraging personal responsibility in the fashion of the English Public school: Cross-country walks were encouraged, and no one ran away. Prison populations remained at a low level until after the second world war when Paterson died and the movement was unable to update itself. But in general the prison system in the twentieth century remained in Victorian buildings which steadily became more and more overcrowded with inevitable results. United States[edit] In colonial America, punishments were severe. The Massachusetts assembly in ordered that a thief, on first conviction, be fined or whipped. The second time he was to pay treble damages , sit for an hour upon the gallows platform with a noose around his neck and then be carted to the whipping post for thirty stripes. For the third offense he was to be hanged. The local jails mainly held men awaiting trial or punishment and those in debt. In the aftermath of independence most states amended their criminal punishment statutes. Pennsylvania eliminated the death penalty for robbery and burglary in , and in

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retained it only for first degree murder. Other states followed and in all cases the answer to what alternative penalties should be imposed was incarceration. Pennsylvania turned its old jail at Walnut Street into a state prison. New York built Newgate state prison in Greenwich Village and other states followed. But by faith in the efficacy of legal reform had declined as statutory changes had no discernible effect on the level of crime and the prisons, where prisoners shared large rooms and booty including alcohol, had become riotous and prone to escapes. In response, New York developed the Auburn system in which prisoners were confined in separate cells and prohibited from talking when eating and working together, implementing it at Auburn State Prison and Sing Sing at Ossining. The aim of this was rehabilitative: However, by the s, overcrowding became the rule of the day, partly because of the long sentences given for violent crimes, despite increasing severity inside the prison and often cruel methods of gagging and restraining prisoners. An increasing proportion of prisoners were new immigrants. As a result of a tour of prisons in 18 states, Enoch Wines and Theodore Dwight produced a monumental report describing the flaws in the existing system and proposing remedies. At the core of the design was an educational program which included general subjects and vocational training for the less capable. Instead of fixed sentences, prisoners who did well could be released early. But by the s, Elmira had twice as many inmates as it was designed for and they were not only the first offenders between 16 and 31 for which the program was intended. By the s drug use in prisons was also becoming a problem. At the beginning of the twentieth century, psychiatric interpretations of social deviance were gaining a central role in criminology and policy making. By , 67 prisons employed psychiatrists and 45 had psychologists. The language of medicine was applied in an attempt to "cure" offenders of their criminality. In fact, little was known about the causes of their behaviour and prescriptions were not much different from the earlier reform methods. At the same time they could revoke the probation status without going through another trial or other proper process. He also removed the striped dress uniform at Sing Sing and introduced recreation and movies. Progressive reform resulted in the "Big House" by the late twenties "prisons averaging 2, men with professional management designed to eliminate the abusive forms of corporal punishment and prison labor prevailing at the time. The American prison system was shaken by a series of riots in the early s triggered by deficiencies of prison facilities, lack of hygiene or medical care, poor food quality, and guard brutality. In the next decade all these demands were recognized as rights by the courts. Since the s the prison population in the US has risen steadily, even during periods where the crime rate has fallen. As a consequence sentencing commissions started to establish minimum as well as maximum sentencing guidelines , which have reduced the discretion of parole authorities and also reduced parole supervision of released prisoners. This War increased money spent on lowering the number of illegal drugs in the United States. As a result, drug arrests increased and prisons became increasingly more crowded. Recidivism remained high, and useful programs were often cut during the recession of " In , the U. Supreme Court in *Brown v. In addition they have a goal in ending Asset forfeiture practices since law enforcement often deprives individuals of the majority of their private property. The more modern use grew from the prison workhouse known as the Rasphuis from in Holland. The inmates, or journeymen , often spent their time on spinning, weaving and fabricating cloths and their output was measured and those who exceeded the minimum received a small sum of money with which they could buy extras from the indoor father. From the later 17th century private institutions for the insane, called the *beterhuis*, developed to meet this need. In Hamburg a different pattern occurred with the *spinhaus* in , to which only infamous criminals were admitted. This was paid by the public treasury and the pattern spread in eighteenth-century Germany. In France the use of galley servitude was most common until galleys were abolished in After this the condemned were put to work in naval arsenals doing heavy work. The use of capital punishment and judicial torture declined during the eighteenth century and imprisonment came to dominate the system, although reform movements started almost immediately. Many countries were committed to the goal as a financially self-sustaining institution and the organization was often subcontracted to entrepreneurs, though this created its own tensions and abuse. By the mid nineteenth century several countries initiated experiments in allowing the prisoners to choose the trades in which they were to be*

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apprenticed. The growing amount of recidivism in the latter half of the nineteenth century led a number of criminologists to argue that "imprisonment did not, and could not fulfill its original ideal of treatment aimed at reintegrating the offender into the community". Parole had been introduced on an experimental basis in France in the 1830s, with laws for juveniles introduced in 1845, and Portugal began to use it for adult criminals from 1826. The parole system introduced in France in 1826 made use of a strong private patronage network. Parole was approved throughout Europe at the International Prison Congress of 1872. As a result of these reforms the prison populations of many European countries halved in the first half of the twentieth century. Exceptions to this trend included France and Italy between the world wars, when there was a huge increase in the use of imprisonment. The National Socialist state in Germany used it as an important tool to rid itself of its enemies as crime rates rocketed as a consequence of new categories of criminal behavior. Russia, which had only started to reform its penal and judicial system in 1864 by abolishing corporal punishment, continued the use of exile with hard labor as a punishment and this was increased to a new level of brutality under Joseph Stalin, despite early reforms by the Bolsheviks. Postwar reforms stressed the need for the state to tailor punishment to the individual convicted criminal. In 1929, Sweden enacted a new criminal code emphasizing non-institutional alternatives to punishment including conditional sentences, probation for first-time offenders and the more extensive use of fines. The use of probation caused a dramatic decline in the number of women serving long-term sentences: Probation spread to most European countries though the level of surveillance varies. In the Netherlands, religious and philanthropic groups are responsible for much of the probationary care. The Dutch government invests heavily in correctional personnel, having 3,000 for 4,000 prisoners in 1990. Theories[edit] Retribution, vengeance and retaliation[edit] This is founded on the "eye for an eye, tooth for a tooth" incarceration philosophy, which essentially states that if one person harms another, then an equivalent harm should be done to them. One goal here is to prevent vigilantism, gang or clan warfare, and other actions by those who have an unsatisfied need to "get even" for a crime against them, their family, or their group. It is, however, difficult to determine how to equate different types of "harm". A literal case is where a murderer is punished with the death penalty, the argument being "justice demands a life for a life". One criticism of long term prison sentences and other methods for achieving justice is that such "warehousing" of criminals is rather expensive, this argument notwithstanding the fact that the multiple incarceration appeals of a death penalty case often exceed the price of the "warehousing" of the criminal in question. Yet another facet of this debate disregards the financial cost for the most part. The argument regarding warehousing rests, in this case, upon the theory that any punishment considered respectful of human rights should not include caging humans for life without chance of release—that even death is morally and ethically a higher road than no-parole prison sentences. Deterrence[edit] The criminal is used as a "threat to themselves and others". By subjecting prisoners to harsh conditions, authorities hope to convince them to avoid future criminal behavior and to exemplify for others the rewards for avoiding such behavior; that is, the fear of punishment will win over whatever benefit or pleasure the illegal activity might bring. The deterrence model frequently goes far beyond "an eye for an eye", exacting a more severe punishment than would seem to be indicated by the crime. Torture has been used in the past as a deterrent, as has the public embarrassment and discomfort of stocks, and, in religious communities, excommunication. Executions, particularly gruesome ones such as hanging or beheading, often for petty offenses, are further examples of attempts at deterrence.

Chapter 9 : From Reform to Revolution, to | Asia for Educators | Columbia University

Because of the importance of grassroots social movements, or "change from below," in the history of US reform, the relationship between social movements and demands for universal health care is a critical one.