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## Book Reviews

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## BOOK REVIEWS

Alfred R. Lindesmith [Ed.]

**CRIMINAL BEHAVIOR.** By Walter C. Reckless. New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1940. Pp. 532. \$3.75.

Criminology is a field in the social sciences which can pride itself on an unusually high standard of its textbooks. Thus, every new publication is expected to make some specific contribution to the rapidly moving field of crime research or to suggest some new development in the teaching process. Reckless' *Criminal Behavior* certainly does not disappoint these expectations.

In research as well as in theory the problem of "crime causation" is in a state of reconsideration. In the 1939-edition of Sutherland's *Principles of Criminology* research in "behavior systems" of crime was emphasized. Stress was laid upon the descriptive interrelation of isolated "causes" in the individual criminal career. Reckless follows very much the same line of thought. He adds to the discussion in several ways.

His text is represented as an account of the changing role of crime in society. He uses all available anthropological, sociological and criminological material—historical descriptions, life histories, statistics and various documents—in order to give the student an insight into the social background of different types of criminal careers. He demonstrates that the interest in the "behavior systems" or "behavior sequences" of crime necessarily leads to a comparative point of view in criminology. It calls for an approach which focuses attention upon a configuration of concrete circumstances, limited historically as to time and space.

Thus, he finds himself compelled, to more or less break down the customary frame of reference in our criminological texts. Instead of the usual account of different isolated "causes" and their rela-

tion to crime, he reaches out to a description of historical changes and their social background in relation to different aspects of criminal behavior, punishment and crime prevention.

His chapter on "Social Disorganization and Crime" gives ample illustrative material from anthropological and sociological sources which partly do not yet belong to the customary stock of references used in our criminological textbooks. He quotes from Frank G. Speck, Margaret Mead and Ruth Underhill's "Autobiography of a Papago Woman." He accounts for conditions in premodern Chinese villages and quotes extensively from Walter A. Terpenning's "Village and Open-country Neighborhoods," in order to give an insight into the social control existing in modern European agricultural villages. Criminal behavior is explained as a process of demoralization caused by the contact of Western Civilization with primary group organizations in primitive society as well as in the European peasant community. This process of disintegration and readjustment is illustrated by examples dealing with the American Indian and the adjustment of the Southern Negro to conditions in the North of this country.

Especially instructive is the way in which Reckless combines the recording of existing conditions and the different theories of crime causation that arose on the basis of the corresponding field investigations. His chapter on "Areal and Regional Differences in Crime" stretches beyond an immediate account of spot-map investigations and related research in American cities to foreign and historical sources. In his discussion of "Organized Crime" he starts again with an account of previous forms of organized criminal pursuits, thus broadening the

approach beyond the limited phenomena of gangsterism and racketeering in the United States. The same tendency towards historical and international comparisons prevails in his discussion of the career of the professional criminal. The comparative point of view also guides him where he deals with problems of punishment and reform. In other chapters which lend themselves less to an historical arrangement of the material, such as those on biological and mental factors in crime causation, he gives an intelligent discussion of the development of theory and research.

To be sure, material on the history of crime and corresponding social conditions is scanty. Material on crime and its treatment abroad is very uneven. Reckless could not even attempt to give a complete comparative history of crime. However, he widens the perspective of the student and gives him an understanding of the specific features of conditions in the United States at present. In the discussion of the theoretical aspects of criminal behavior, Reckless does not convey to the student the illusion of a more or less established system of thought and information; the student is trained to work his way to an understanding of problems which occupy theory and research at the present time.

In this respect, Reckless' methodological remarks on the problem of crime causation deserve closer attention. His attitude toward the usual type of research in this field is rather negative: "Looking back over the numerous efforts to throw light on the causes of crime, it appears that more progress has been made in discounting or showing the inadequacy of findings than arriving at validated and scientifically accepted findings." . . . "The progress in the etiology of crime, it is true, has been more negative than positive" (p. 255). Reckless grants the importance of insight into differential crime risks. He recommends, however, supplementary studies of a somewhat different nature, namely: ". . . the investigation of the behavior sequences or processes by which individuals become criminal and develop criminal careers." This type of information would be useful as a guide

toward crime prevention: ". . . treatment could be geared to the blocking or surmounting of succeeding stages in criminal development" (p. 256).

As mentioned above, Reckless thus emphasizes a trend of research which attracts growing attention in the field of criminology. He contributes in this direction, as far as it is possible in the frame work of a textbook, by frequent use of descriptive material on typical criminal careers and their social setting. His epistemological evaluation of this type of research, however, is somewhat questionable. He wants to eliminate the problem of "crime causation" from realistic and comparative studies of criminal behavior. He holds that "the greatest influence retarding the progress of criminology has been the traditional emphasis on the study of the causes of crime" (p. 2). "In order to study such processes or sequences in criminal patterning of behavior, it is not necessary to know positively the specific causation of crime" (p. 256).

To be sure, Reckless is very careful in the formulation of his program for criminological research. He does not want to be identified with the customary vagueness of the life-history method. It seems, however, that in restricting himself to merely descriptive efforts, he avoids too easily a clarification of the underlying methodological problem.

Any description of a "process of criminal patterning" is bound to be selective. Data, referring to the individual life history, cannot be comprehensive but are collected and recorded within the perspective of a limited problem: Whether or not they are pertinent to those attitudes of the individual which finally make criminal behavior possible. They are selected according to conscious or intuitive assumptions about their bearing upon the problem of crime causation. The same, by the way, is true in regard to statistical research of differential crime risks. Research is guided by tentative assumptions as to causal relationships, which due to the interference of an infinite number of other variables never reveal more than "crime risks" of different importance.

It is by no means necessary to abandon the attempt at causal interpretation while

applying the life-history method. Obviously, the life-history method tends toward the construction of well defined types of criminal careers. These types are based upon experience and research, and, once defined in detail, it is possible to test their value as scientific instruments. Difficulties are involved in as far as these types are necessarily made up of a rather complicated configuration of circumstances, all of which might be of different importance and even replace each other in the individual case. Statistical control of the validity of the "type" might be too complicated and will probably not be applied very often; especially if there is no reason to doubt the original "theory of causation" and to check its validity against new and different assumptions. Statistical control, however, is not impossible on theoretical grounds.

Under this aspect, the two different types of research in the field of criminology come much closer to each other. Crime statistics, related to different "factors" (it is the conception of "isolated causes," not that of crime causation in general which should be abandoned) or environmental attributes, such as feeble-mindedness or housing conditions, reveal the inherent risk or chance of criminal behavior. Studies of behavior sequences or careers, on the other hand, endeavour to approach the construction of a theoretical type, correcting it and rearranging the importance of different circumstances involved, in order to attain the highest possible probability that criminal behavior will ensue. In both cases, "blocking the criminal career," as Reckless puts it, is the purpose.

It does not seem to endanger the integrity of the social sciences, if we talk about crime causation in regard to studies of the criminal career. We assume, of course, strict causal relations to exist in theory only, knowing well that the interaction of a plurality of uncontrollable influences will make it impossible for us ever to present the "ideal type" in reality. As far as research into the relationship between isolated "factors" and criminal behavior is concerned, it is certainly wise to think in terms of "crime risks," as Reckless suggests.

Undoubtedly, Reckless' textbook will be welcomed as a useful help in the teaching of criminology. The abundant comparative material makes it a stimulating source for the student who is interested in the relationship of criminology to the problems of social science in general. To the graduate student of criminology it will be a guide that introduces him into the problems of the field and opens new lines of research.

S. RIEMER.

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INTELLIGENCE AND CRIME: A Study of *Penitentiary and Reformatory Offenders*. By Simon H. Tulchin. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1939. Pp. xiii + 166. \$2.00.

The relation between intelligence and crime has been the center of a great deal of discussion. The topic has been particularly attractive to both students of crime and lay persons because it has seemed that its exploitation would furnish us with a simple and rather easy explanation of crime causation. If it could be demonstrated that people who commit crime are mentally inferior the problems of etiology are solved. At first glance it does seem plausible to think that people who commit crime do so simply because they do not know better. It seems also true that the capacity to know is dependent upon one's ability to learn. We must, therefore, conclude that persons of low mentality are apt to get into difficulties with the law.

In spite of the fact that many people assume that crime and inferior intelligence are causally related an appeal to facts has not revealed any such clear-cut and simple relationship. In fact research in this field has tended to cast a considerable amount of doubt upon the existence of such a relationship. Tulchin's excellent monograph belongs in this category of research. The results presented in this book make the cause and effect relation of mental deficiency and crime untenable.

Tulchin's study was inspired by an investigation made under the direction of Dr. Herman M. Adler. This investigation

had seriously challenged the assumption that criminal behavior is the result of inferior mentality. The monograph under review presents the results of a study made on 10,413 offenders incarcerated in three Illinois penal institutions during the seven year period, 1920 to 1927. The Pontiac Reformatory contributed 4,748 men, the Joliet Women's Prison 153 women, and the Joliet Penitentiary 5,512 men. The test results for these offenders are compared to the Army tests results for the State of Illinois. In this manner Tulchin gives to the scores of offenders meaning in terms of the mental characteristics of the general population as they are reflected in the Army tests results.

In classifying the intelligence of offenders Tulchin used three general categories: the inferior (men who scored 20 points on the Alpha test); the average (scores of 25 to 104 points on the Alpha); the superior (scores of 105 to 212 points on the Alpha). The utilization of these classes of intelligence in the comparison of offenders and the Illinois Army draft revealed some rather significant results. Thus it was found that 23.4 per cent of the Penitentiary group were classed as inferior while 25.9 per cent of the draft group were so classed. Sixty-four and eight-tenths per cent of the penitentiary group were found to be average and 63.5 per cent of the draft fell into this category. The penitentiary group contained 11.8 per cent of superior individuals while the draft contained 10.6 per cent superior men. The comparison of reformatory inmates with the draft group gave even more surprising results. Thus 15 per cent of the reformatory group were inferior and 13.0 per cent were superior. On the basis of these results it would seem that male offenders (at least those in the Illinois institutions covered in the study) do not materially differ from the general population in intelligence. This, however, does not hold when female offenders are concerned. In a total of 153 females tested 39.2 per cent were found inferior, 58.2 per cent average and 2.6 per cent superior. But as Tulchin points out it is doubtful whether this group is at all representative of female offenders. Many factors which would tend to determine whether a female

offender is sent or is not sent to the penitentiary may tend to make the group studied a biased sample of female offenders.

The correlation between race and intelligence revealed some interesting results. Tulchin found marked variations in the distribution of intelligence in the several national and racial groups studied. In general the results indicated that individuals born in countries of northern Europe made higher scores than those born in central and southern European countries. Of interest too is the fact that scores made by southern-born Negro offenders were on the whole lower than those made by northern-born Negro offenders. These results added to the fact that on the whole the percentage of foreign-born white offenders classed as inferior tended to decrease as the length of residence in the United States increased serve to demonstrate how necessary it is to be cautious in interpreting the results of intelligence testing.

Among the most significant findings presented in the study is a correlation between intelligence and specific types of crimes. Tulchin found that highest median Alpha scores were made by men who were committed for fraud while the highest percentage of men committed for murder and sex crimes was found among the inferiors. Data are also presented indicating that in general recidivists make higher median Alpha scores than do men who are serving their first sentence.

The results presented above are merely indicative of the wealth of materials to be found in this monograph. The author has studied the intelligence of these 10,413 offenders in relation to their race, nativity, recidivism, height, weight, age, socioeconomic characteristics, and types of crime they committed. The 166 pages of this book are literally teeming with significant and informative data. These data are presented in a manner that demonstrates that the author is fully aware of the limitations imposed upon him by the nature of the data. He is cautious and judicious in making conclusions and is never guilty of going beyond his facts. Tulchin has made a most significant contribution to our knowledge of the rela-

tion between intelligence and criminal behavior.

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TRENDS IN CRIME TREATMENT. Edited by Marjorie Bell. New York: National Probation Association. Pp. 272. \$0.50.

This treatise is a symposium of progressive thought and practice toward a solution of the crime problem. As the cream of current opinion on the treatment of delinquency there is here assembled the outstanding papers presented at the Thirty-third Annual Conference of the Probation Association.

Judges, Professors, Psychiatrists, Probation Officers and Administrators brought to Buffalo the results of their best thought and experience in the development and advancement of the Juvenile Court and all Probationary treatment of offenders.

The transition from the earlier conceptions of custodial care to an adequate study and understanding of the individual offender is made clear. The relationship of the community to delinquency, and its responsibility, has seldom been more clearly defined. That correction, or even surveillance without treatment, is futile is made evident in these papers. The complex factors are analyzed and clarified. The role of the police, the private agency, the school and the community in crime prevention is carefully defined.

It is of interest, however, to note as a trend, that the preponderant discussion relates to the more intensive attention and understanding of the individual delinquent, and to the possibilities of changing his attitude toward society. In spite of classical theories of heredity and of current discussions about defectiveness, we are here told by a leading psychiatrist: "Practical experience proves that personality can be changed, regardless of the constitutional structure and interest of the individual."

Likewise: "We need to understand the motivation" at the roots of human behavior—that it is often the expression of desires and urges thwarted and unsatisfied through family, group or community

influences beyond the individual's control. Measures for further study and care of the pre-delinquent child are described, and their extension recommended. A more careful study is urged of the delinquent's capacity, his emotional reactions, his home setting and his social environment. To this end psychiatric facilities wherever possible, should be considered an essential adjunct to any juvenile court.

An extensive description is given of the development of probation in Michigan on a state-wide basis during the period of 1903 to 1937. Successive enactments gave increasing recognition to the principle of probation, and ever widening powers to its administration. The function of the State Bureau of Probation is to encourage and develop adequate and uniform standards in all areas of the state, "but fundamental is the recognition that probation is basically a concern of the local governmental unit."

Extensive reference is made to the findings of the National Commission on Law Enforcement and Observance; to the widely quoted declarations of Attorney General Homer S. Cummings with reference to probation in the federal courts, and especially to the later more extensive Attorney General's Survey of Release Procedures. This report defines probation thus: "As applied by modern courts, probation seeks to accomplish the rehabilitation of persons convicted of crime, by returning them to society during a period of supervision, rather than to sending them into the unnatural and all too often social unhealthful atmosphere of prisons and reformatories."

In order to insure progress in such probation procedures, however, we are reminded by Judge Justin Miller, that all Judges administering it should have, not only an adequate knowledge of the law, but an "understanding heart" to properly deal with human problems. He further states: "It is becoming increasingly apparent, that pre-sentence investigation, followed by probation, is one of the most vital needs of the courts in the administration of criminal law." Such investigation, it is made apparent, should be made by qualified and skilled probation officers.

No amount of legislation can take the place of intelligent leadership in this field of Social Service. "Frankly," Judge Miller says, "Today in many of our courts, we are still in the stage of witchcraft and bloodletting."

However, as these papers reveal, steady progress has been made in this field. For this advancement the National Probation Association is largely responsible. As its director, Charles L. Chute, rightly says: "I believe that in no field of social welfare in this country, has there been better and sounder development within the last few years than in probation and parole."

The trend is all in the right direction of dealing with the offender rather than merely with the offense. Progress has been made through legislation, to which a chapter is given in this book, but more uniform and universal legislation is needed. But the greatest need of all, these writers point out, in order to make probation effective, is the thorough education of the courts and of the public in the significance of probation as a humane and crime preventive measure.

F. EMORY LYON.

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ANTROPOLOGIA CRIMINALE. By Benigno Di Tullio. Rome: Ditta Luigi Pozzi, Editore, 1940. Pp. 511. £50.

The author contends that ever since the study of the personality of the offender became a fact of fundamental importance in the execution of criminal law knowledge of criminal anthropology has become indispensable to all of those who are called upon to aid in society's fight against crime. It is, according to Di Tullio, noteworthy that all of the most modern laws directed at the suppression and prevention of crime largely center around the concept of individualization of treatment. This orientation of modern laws has made it increasingly necessary for us to know the personality of the offender. There cannot be individualization of treatment without full and thorough knowledge of the offender to be treated. This fundamental knowledge can be furnished by the science of criminal anthropology. Di Tullio believes that his discipline must be considered as the foundation of an

intelligent and effective administration of criminal justice. This belief furnishes Di Tullio with the chief reason for writing *Antropologia Criminale*, and it is his hope that the book will be of utility to all of those called upon to study the personality of the offender and the phenomenon of crime. The book is intended as a systematization of those concepts which can be considered as scientifically verified as well as serving as a guide for further research in criminal anthropology.

To anyone familiar with Di Tullio's earlier writings the present book will be surprising. To say that in his earlier writings Di Tullio was an out-and-out biological determinist is to put the thing mildly. In this latest effort, however, there is a considerable amount of discussion devoted to the necessity of viewing the offender as living in a social environment which may affect his behavior!

The method of study of the offender proposed in this book leaves little to be desired. It does seem, however, that if Di Tullio has applied this method which he so laboriously describes he has chosen to keep this fact a secret. The book is almost completely devoid of anything that even remotely resembles empirical research. Furthermore one keeps wondering about the characteristics which the author ascribes to the offender. Are these characteristics unique to the criminal population? How often are they found in the law abiding population? These and numerous similar questions remain unanswered. Di Tullio seems to have remained blissfully unaware of control groups. His criminal anthropology tends, therefore, to lack verification.

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CRIMINAL PROSECUTIONS UNDER THE SHERMAN ANTI-TRUST ACT. By Paul E. Hadlick. Washington, D. C.: Ransdell, Inc., 1939. Pp. 207.

This is a clear and careful analysis of the statute and the various phases of its enforcement. It was enacted in 1890 as a culmination of a prolonged and vehement public demand that the monopolistic tendencies of big business be curbed. For

half of the subsequent period it was hardly used for any purpose, and during the remainder of the period it has been used much more frequently in the prosecution of unions and of small concerns with little control beyond a small locality. In the period 1890-1910 the government lost 23 of the 36 prosecutions under this act, and in the other cases fines amounting to \$229,875 were imposed and Eugene V. Debs was imprisoned for contempt of court. During the period 1910-1938 the government lost 55 of 140 criminal prosecutions and in the other cases imposed fines aggregating \$2,630,061 and jail or prison sentence in 18 cases. The prison sentences, however, were very short in most cases, with four hours as the minimum limit, and most of them were imposed in labor cases. This very poor record of enforcement is due to the lack of interest in the enforcement of the law and to lack of funds for this purpose. Even in the administration of Theodore Roosevelt the Anti-Trust Division had only five lawyers and four stenographers; in 1939 it had 104 lawyers and economists and 72 clerks. Little effort is made in this book to give a general explanation of the manner in which the act has been enforced.

EDWIN H. SUTHERLAND.

Indiana University.

"MEN AGAINST MADNESS." By Lowell S. Selling, M.D., Ph.D. Greenberg, Publisher, Inc. New York, 1940. Pp. XII-342. \$3.50.

The author of this volume is Director of the Psychopathic Clinic of the Re-

corder's Court in Detroit. During many years he has been interested in the subject matter of this exceptionally readable volume. Preparation for it has taken him far and wide to the places where the history of the knowledge and treatment of mental disease has been made.

The book deals in nine chapters with mental alienation from the period of its early recognition by the "Dawn Men" who treated the disorders by crudely trephining the skull of the patient.

The treatment of mental disorders by the early Greek physicians; the contributions of Leonardo, the artist anatomist of the Renaissance; the humane attitude that arose in Paris in the course of the Revolution and the contributions of the great Pinel and much later of Dorothea Dix—all these are described most interestingly in the first four chapters.

The contributions of two great "quacks"—Gall and Mesmer—are elaborated at length, for both served the cause of research into the roots of alienation and its treatment.

How man's mind can be helpful in dealing with mental disorders begins to be apparent in the work of Mesmer—more particularly in that of his followers.

Finally Freud and the modern psychologists evolved new means for mental treatment, and insanity curbed.

Forty-one illustrations add immeasurably to the interesting and useful qualities of this book.

ROBERT H. GAULT.

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