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Book Reviews

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BOOK REVIEWS

TROUBLEMAKERS: REBELLIOUS YOUTH IN AN AFFLUENT SOCIETY. By T. R. Fyvel. New York: Schocken Books, 1962.

Criminologists are cautious about the alleged increase in delinquency since World War II. We know that official statistics reflect public concern and police policy as well as actual adolescent misbehavior. We also are conscious of the massive urbanization of the world and of other demographic factors which can increase the volume of youth crime without involving new causal factors.

T. R. Fyvel is not a criminologist. He boldly assumes that youth in contemporary industrial societies are more rebellious than youth of previous generations. In search of an explanation, he reports his interviews with and observations of young people (mostly in England). Fyvel is more than a sensitive and intelligent journalist, however. He relates his field work to basic social forces in industrial societies. I found his analysis extremely persuasive—despite doubts as to the validity of the assumption that the youthful rebellion of today is fundamentally different from the youthful rebellion in past eras.

It would be unfair to Fyvel to represent him as giving a single explanation for adolescent delinquency. At one point or another of his book he considers a multiplicity of factors from earlier physiological maturity (p. 121) to imitation of misbehavior reported in the mass media (p. 70). Nonetheless, Fyvel does have a central theme, namely, that lower-class adolescents—especially boys—are attracted to the Teddy boy subculture (1) because they feel themselves outcasts vis-à-vis the main stream of contemporary society and (2) because the Teddy boy subculture offers readily available commercial pleasures: cars, clothes, cafes. While neither of these ideas is new, Fyvel's treatment of them adds new dimensions.

Thus, Fyvel attributes lower-class alienation to *increased* educational opportunities in post-war Britain (pp. 48, 226-27). Without explicitly using the concept of "relative deprivation," he points out that it is psychologically "worse for the also-rans" in a society where able lower-class youngsters are creamed off by the educational system and given improved chances of achieving a middle-class style of life. Lipset and Bendix have demon-

strated in *Social Mobility in Industrial Society* that opportunities for social ascent are remarkably similar in the different industrial countries. So it appears that the factor which Fyvel is identifying, the increased psychic distress of failures, is not a British phenomenon but a reflection of the structure of affluent industrial societies. It is rather discouraging to consider the possibility that the expansion of educational and occupational opportunities in the contemporary world may *increase* the feeling of deprivation of the also-rans.

Fyvel relates the Teddy boy phenomenon to the development of the adolescent market as well as to increased alienation on the part of the also-rans. He stresses the impact of the mass media on adolescent desires for money and the things money will buy. He calls attention both to the explicit messages of the advertisers and to the implicit suggestions of the glamorous role models on the screen and in the newspapers. Although he does not mention Leo Lowenthal's study of the changed emphasis in biographical articles published in popular magazines from heroes of production to heroes of consumption, Lowenthal's study provides documentation for Fyvel's point: a tendency for alienated youngsters to feel increasingly that the meaning of life consists of enjoying commercial delights.

This orientation to consumption without a concomitant commitment to educational and occupational roles, aesthetic experiences, or religious values seems to be an increasing characteristic of industrial societies. It permeates most strata, not merely that of lower-class adolescents, and it contributes to other phenomena besides delinquency, e.g., ostentatious expenditures for food, clothing, travel, housing. However, I think that Fyvel is correct in stressing the impact of commercialism on lower-class adolescents. Somehow these youngsters have less opportunity to experience art, literature, serious music, science, religion, and meaningful work, than they have of being attracted to the gadgets and entertainments available in the marketplace. This isolation of lower-class youths from what are generally conceded to be the most significant accomplishments of industrial civilization may partially account for the brutality they sometimes manifest in their interpersonal relations. As Nelson Algren put it in his paraphrase of a

literary idea of Richard Wright, ". . . when a crime is committed by a man who has been excluded from civilization, civilization is an accomplice of the crime."¹ Selective exposure to industrial society is not merely an internal problem. Anthropologists have called attention to the selective "diffusion" of culture traits to underdeveloped societies.² Interestingly enough, trinkets, tools, hard liquor, and Coca Cola are easier to export than arts and sciences or even religion. In short, on one level the gang delinquency of affluent societies may be explainable as due to socially structured barriers to communication.

JACKSON TOBY

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THE BOOSTER AND THE SNITCH. By *Mary Owen Cameron*. New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1964. \$5.95.

This is a study both of shoplifting and of selective processes operating through private police agencies that determine the character of both private and public criminal statistics. As to the latter, the author provides further evidence, if such is needed, that official statistics inaccurately reflect the amount of crime, the relative frequency of different types of crime, and the personal characteristics of the law violator. The portrait of the by far most common shoplifter, the snitch, is in sharp contrast to that found in other lines of criminal activity, as well as that of the rarer professional thief who engages in shoplifting. Most frequently the apprehended shoplifter is an adult female from a respectable background without evidence of contact with a criminal subculture or of marked symptoms of psychopathology and who, once detected, rarely becomes a recidivist. Cameron's explanation of this type of behavior contains some of the old and some of the new. On the social psychological level she borrows heavily from Cressey's work on embezzlement. Shoplifters, like embezzlers and other peripheral (non-professional) thieves, employ theft in the course of their everyday legitimate pursuits to augment their attempts at achieving middle class goals. They are able to rationalize these acts in such a manner as to be consistent with their middle class values.

The structural distribution of the behavior is

¹ Algren, *Remembering Richard Wright*, 192 *NATION* 85 (1961).

² Firth, *Primitive Economics of the New Zealand Maori* (1929).

explained in the Ohlin and Cloward tradition with somewhat of a novel twist—even some of the middle class cannot achieve middle class goals through legitimate means. Unfortunately, this attempt is not entirely consistent with the position of Cohen, Ohlin, and Cloward, as well as others who have used the same argument to explain the assumed higher frequency of criminal and delinquent behavior in the lower class. Her explanation as to why the peripheral criminal has a low rate of recidivism once arrested is an interesting and fruitful application of self-theory. Because arrest and public exposure represent a severe threat to a self-conception that does not include the role of thief and to the network of relations that maintains this conception, the reaction is strongly to reject this role. In contrast, the professional or vocational thief experiences no such shock. He conceives of himself as a thief and has ingroup support for this conception, which is in no way threatened by the experience of arrest.

This monograph compares favorably with other recent works in the field. The author is understandably limited by the character of her data, yet whenever possible she attempts to bring these data to bear on a number of significant issues in criminology. At points, she may be open to the criticism of attempting to present too neat a picture in support of her conclusions. On page 147 she concludes that those shoplifters included in the study were not slum dwellers, but that their residential distribution was approximately that of the Lost and Found claimants of Lakeside Company, a measure presumed to typify shoppers in that store. On page 97-100, however, we find that this approximation is only slight, at least for her store sample of shoplifting (coefficient of mean square contingency of .13). In fact, at this point she concludes that the shoplifter represents a somewhat lower socioeconomic group than Lakeside shoppers. Yet the point should not be lost that the socioeconomic distribution of these offenders is not markedly concentrated in the lower socioeconomic groups as is reflected in arrest or conviction statistics for most other types of offenses and, as she notes, for those prosecuted in the courts for shoplifting as well.

Like most recent monographs in criminology, this report is strong on theory and somewhat weak on facts, particularly the kind that would substantiate crucial points in the theoretical argument. This, of course, reflects the current trend in

this area—considerable elaboration of theory to explain what is thought to be but certainly is not adequately demonstrated to be the facts.

This work does have considerable potential significance for the trend in current sociological explanations of crime. It may bring a number of theorists back to the significance of what has long been known, but appears to have been neglected in recent years. Law violating behavior is widely distributed in the social structure. Current structural strain theories of criminal and delinquent behavior which emphasize the criminality of the disadvantaged groups must be modified to handle this type of criminal behavior.

CARL W. BACKMAN

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A PROFILE OF THE NEGRO AMERICAN. By *Thomas F. Pettigrew*. Princeton: D. Van Nostrand Company, 1964. Pp. 250. \$5.95.

A systematic summary of the significant sociological and social psychological findings relating to the Negro American has been attempted by Thomas Pettigrew in his compilation entitled *A Profile of the Negro American*. Several basic contentions serve to integrate the numerous and diverse findings presented:

(1) Contemporary biological and behavioral scientific findings serve to refute the white supremacists' assertions that there exist different behavioral patterns peculiar to those races socially defined as superior and those defined as inferior. Furthermore, data affirm that behavioral responses are not innately predetermined or fixed.

(2) The history of the Negro in America has led to a conceptualization of the "role of Negro," i.e., the Negro is socially expected to play the "lowly role of social inferior."

(3) Stemming from the Negro's subordinate position in American society, certain socially disorganized conditions have evolved as "handmaiden of oppression"—family disorganization, poor health conditions, impaired intellectual and educational achievement, peculiar crime patterns, underdeveloped occupational standing, inadequate housing accommodations, etc.

(4) The Negro American has always desired to co-participate fully in American society. He manifests no social or cultural patterns peculiar to himself, other than those he has been compelled to develop as measures of accommodation to a forced

separate and socially inferior existence. Thus, the Negro wants nothing that is foreign to the American way of life. Recent civil rights efforts attest to the Negro's interest in narrowing the gap between the "American way of life" and the "way America lives" so that he, too, may share in all that is his as an American citizen.

(5) Race relations must be viewed in a broader context than just discrimination and segregation. Economics, personality, health, intelligence, and crime all "join with racial rejection to form the pattern of meager and undeveloped lives for most Negroes."

"What happens to a dream deferred" is the pervasive question posited. What are the effects of this dream for full equality on: (a) Negro American personality (Part I), (b) racial differences—health, intelligence, and crime (Part II), and (c) Negro American protest (Part III).

In discussing the concept of race and race differences, Pettigrew cites studies on Negro American health, intelligence, and crime to illustrate that racial differences do, in fact, exist. The first sentence of chapter 6, "Negro American Crime," states, "Crime IS prevalent among Negro Americans." However, all his explanatory references are geared toward the refutation of the racists' claim that any Negro-white behavioral differences indicate innate inferiority on the part of the Negro. In this instance, he attempts to disclaim the contention that prevalence of crime among Negro Americans indicates "the Negro is innately more prone to criminal acts than Caucasians." Pettigrew accepts an alternate, social explanation, that "racial discrimination and social class factors . . . account for the group differential in crime."

Though racial discrimination may exist at every stage of the judicial process—arrest, conviction, sentencing, and parole—this discrimination alone cannot account for the discrepancy, he contends.

He introduces two broad, though not complementary, sets of factors as explanations for the Negro crime rate. Socio-economically, "Negroes are concentrated in those social sectors which exhibit high crime rates regardless of race." Negroes more frequently than whites manifest those social factors which correlate with crime, viz., lower class, poverty, slum residence, family disorganization, youth, and unemployment.

The other explanation advanced for the Negro's apparent high crime rate is, in substance, the

theoretical construct of Ohlin and Cloward, though Pettigrew neither acknowledges nor indicates his awareness of this. Blocked from achieving through socially sanctioned means, many Negroes turn to crime. He asserts that "crime may thus be utilized as a means of escape, ego-enhancement, expression of aggression, or upward mobility."

Of the three chapters treating racial differences—excluding chapter 3 which merely repeats already adequately summarized data on the concept of race—they may be rated in descending quality of excellence as follows: chapter 5, "Negro American Intelligence"; chapter 4, "Negro American Health"; and chapter 6, "Negro American Crime."

In the "Preface" Mr. Pettigrew acknowledges his indebtedness to Gordon Allport "for suggesting such a book in the first place." Perhaps such a compendium of others' works addressed to the complex and multi-faceted study of the Negro American is needed; if so, it is suggested that such an undertaking cannot be successfully carried out in a mere 201 pages of textual material. Such is the length of Mr. Pettigrew's work, excluding references and indices. Coverage is too scanty on each subject area treated, even allowing for the summary nature of the treatment. Perhaps the author might have further delimited the scope of his survey and concentrated more intensively on the selected areas.

Mr. Pettigrew's wide knowledge of the works in the field of race relations is amply demonstrated through his extensive bibliography, containing references to 565 books, articles, and studies. *A Profile of the Negro American* promises to be especially helpful to criminologists interested in gathering references to works dealing with any of the numerous social factors related to the Negro American pattern of crime. The researcher could consult the book's indices, note the citations in the text, and refer to the bibliography for the suggested references dealing with one's specific interests.

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CRIMES OF VIOLENCE. By F. H. McClintock.
London: Macmillan & Co, 1963. Pp. 284.

The main purpose of this Cambridge statistical study was to provide an assessment of the nature and trends in crimes of violence occurring in England and Wales, and more specifically in the

Metropolitan Police District (including London and surrounding environs) for the decade 1950-1960.

The author selected from *Criminal Statistics*, under the heading of "Indictable Offenses of Violence Against the Person," those offenses which he determined to involve an element of personal violence. The offenses chosen for detailed examination were classified according to legal criteria into five classes: I. homicides and attempts; II. felonious woundings; III. malicious woundings; IV. assaults for rape and other sexual offenses accompanied by violence; V. possession of firearms and other offensive weapons. Robbing and robbery with violence were excluded because they were dealt with in an earlier report.¹ Small samples of offenders arrested and found guilty of the following non-indictable offenses were used sparingly throughout the study for comparative purposes, e.g., aggravated assault, assault on constable, common assault, possession of offensive weapons.

The writer judiciously utilized legal categories in his classification schema, thus avoiding the pitfalls of some American criminologists who have substituted their own amorphous nomenclature for the more precise legal norms. The exclusion of robbery weakened the overall statistical appraisal. There is evidence that robbers comprise an important group of violent offenders.²

From an analysis of data in the annual *Criminal Statistics* (offenses recorded by the police from 1950-1960) on indictable offenses of violence, an estimation was made of trends in crimes of violence for England and Wales. A small proportion (two per cent in 1960) of all indictable crimes were recorded as offenses of violence against the person; however, these offenses have shown a steep upward trend over the past decade, 14.3 to 34.4 per 100,000 persons. This increase was reflected statistically throughout the country, but less in the South of England than in the North, but no more than average in the Metropolis. There was also an increase in non-indictable crimes of violence. As the author recognized, one of the chief difficulties precluding a realistic estimate of official recordings of crimes of violence was the overlapping in definition and nature of indictable and non-indictable offenses. In 1950 there were 4,282 indictable

¹ McCLINTOCK & GIBSON, ROBBERY IN LONDON (Cambridge Studies in Criminology, Vol. XIV, 1961).

² Roebuck & Cadwallader, *The Negro Armed Robber as a Criminal Type: The Construction and Application of a Typology*, 4 PAC. SOC. REV. (1961).

assaults and 21,394 non-indictable assaults; in 1960, 1,828 malicious wounding (indictable) and 8,259 non-indictable assaults. Obviously, the exclusion of non-indictable offenses weakened the author's evaluation. In addition to crimes per 100,000 population, crime rates related to age and sex differentials were requisites not in evidence.

The main study in the Metropolitan Police District was based upon 3,000 indictable crimes of violence recorded by the Metropolitan Police in the years 1950, 1957, and 1960. Additionally, 700 cases in which offenders were arrested and found guilty of non-indictable assaults and "kindred offenses" were included. Ninety per cent of the indictable crimes of violence were either felonies or malicious wounding. In the period 1950 to 1960 the number of crimes recorded by the police doubled in each of the first four classes (see paragraph 2 above). A series of spot maps (1950, 1957, and 1960), including locales of crimes of violence and residences of assailants and victims, demonstrated that violent offenses occurred overwhelmingly in the inner divisions of the Metropolitan Police District. These divisions were densely populated slum areas. The outer suburbs remained virtually free from violent crime. The increase was confined to those districts with a high incidence of violent crime at the beginning of the decade. Again, crime rates reminiscent of the Shaw and McKay delinquency area studies were required.

Recordings of indictable crimes of violence by the police and individual criminal records were sources for examination of the circumstances in which each crime was committed (1950, 1957, and 1960). Findings revealed that attacks in and around public houses, cafes, and streets accounted for approximately one-half of all recorded crimes; violence resulting from family and domestic disputes, one-third; attacks on police and civilians, twelve per cent; sexual assaults, six per cent; and miscellaneous attacks (on prison officers, injury from criminal negligence, attacks by persons of unsound mind), two per cent. There was an increase in all types of violent crime (almost doubled in all legal categories); however, a greater than average increase occurred in violent street attacks. Excluding attacks on police, in more than one-half of the crimes, the offender and victim were known to each other prior to the offense. The proportion of attacks on strangers was highest in sexual attacks and in attacks on the street. The majority of violent crimes was committed among working

class people in slum neighborhoods. Three-fourths of the victims were males; 70 per cent were between the ages of 21 and 50. The assailants were almost all males, 94 per cent, and two-thirds were over 21. During the decade, the proportion of victims and assailants under 21 increased significantly. More than 7 in 10 of the attacks were by one offender on one victim. A more refined age breakdown was needed here—minimally, age medians. More than one-half the assailants used no weapon and attacked by punching and/or kicking. The number of victims killed, those who suffered permanent disablement or disfigurement, and those detained in the hospital for more than a month comprised only three per cent of the victims. Most of these crimes were not committed in conjunction with other offenses, but rather reflected violent patterns of social behavior indigenous to the area of residence and social class of the victims and assailants.

To get at "dark figures" or undiscovered and unrecorded crimes of violence occurring in London in the ten year period, discussions were held with the police, probation officers, juvenile court officials, magistrates, and other persons living or working in neighborhoods with a high incidence of violent crime. The conclusion was that in the past ten years there was an increase in uniformity and completeness in recording crimes of violence. There was *real* increase in violent, sexual crime; racial antagonism resulting in violence; violent behavior by Irish laborers, colored immigrants, and youth (referred to as "hooliganism"). A more objective method of obtaining "dark figures" could have been used, e.g., interviews with convicted offenders designed to ascertain their unofficial, unrecorded offenses of violence, and interviews with male residents of different age groups living in various neighborhoods to elicit responses concerning their unreported offenses. Admittedly, this method would prove difficult; however, recent research in the United States indicates that various deviant groups may be reached for research purposes providing they receive assurance of immunity from exposure.³

The social backgrounds of offenders convicted of crimes of violence in the Metropolis during the years 1950 (all cases—911), 1957 (all cases—1,388), 1960 (estimate based on a fifty-per-cent sample of cases taken from the first six months of the

³ BECKER, *OUTSIDERS: STUDIES IN THE SOCIOLOGY OF DEVIANCE* (1963); *THE OTHER SIDE: PERSPECTIVES ON DEVIANCE* (Becker ed. 1964).

year—1,856) were investigated. Included were those charged and convicted of indictable crimes of violence and those charged with an indictable crime of violence but convicted of a non-indictable assault only. Much was made of the point that 80 per cent of the violent offenders had no previous convictions for violent crime. However, inspection of their criminal records showed that 20 per cent had engaged in previous indictable, violent behavior for which they were not convicted, e.g., fighting while drunk, intimidation and attacking citizens, disturbances in public places, and gang fights. Violent offenders in general were frequently single, unskilled residents of high crime areas living away from home. Irish and "colored" immigrants accounted for a high proportion of them. Recorded charges of violence (not resulting in conviction) in the records of the 80 per cent, non-recidivistic population should have been reported. Population figures for Irish and colored male immigrants in the Metropolitan District were unfortunately lacking.

A hard-core group of violent recidivists (convictions for three or more violent offenses) comprising 20 per cent of the violent recidivists and four per cent of the total number of persons convicted for crimes of violence in 1950 and 1957 composed, in the reviewer's mind, the most significant class of offenders in the study. The following behavior patterns occurred more frequently in their records than in the records of other offenders convicted of violent crime: serious property offenses, malicious damage, sex offenses, borstal training, repeated sentences of detention, short term sentences, fights and attacks in public houses, attacks on police, serious attacks on strangers and neighbors, aggressive behavior in everyday life, long records of unreported acts of violence.

In the concluding chapter, methods of punishment and recidivism were discussed in their relationship to a population of offenders convicted of violence in the Metropolis in 1950, 1957, and the first half of 1960; and a follow-up study of offenders convicted in 1950 and 1957. Ninety-five per cent of the convicted offenders were dealt with by traditional methods: imprisonments, fine, probation or discharge. Less than ten per cent of the convicted offenders were put on probation. The trend was toward an increase in the use of fines and discharges. Methods of treatment introduced by the Criminal Justice Act of 1948 (attendance centers, detention centers, corrective training, pre-

ventive detention, and psychiatric treatment as a condition of probation) were rarely used (four per cent of the cases). The author is in accord with these methods. The reviewer disagrees and thinks that all offenders convicted of crimes of violence should undergo psychiatric screening. Referral for psychiatric treatment would depend on their requirements and susceptibility to treatment. The English Criminal Justice Act of 1948, Section 4, makes specific provisions for this suggestion.⁴ Additionally, the more frequent use of preventive detention could also be employed in the cases of some hard-core recidivists.

The author concludes from an inspection of violent offenders' reconviction rates that no single method of treatment is prescribed. He views the problem of treating violent offenders as part of the wider problem of dealing with recidivists in general. He fails to recognize the hardcore, violent, recidivist as a criminal type, despite the fact that he found in a five-year, follow-up study of this type (convicted in 1950) that 60 per cent were reconvicted for indictable crimes. Moreover, one-half of this 60 per cent had subsequent convictions for violent offenses.

The author, wittingly or unwittingly, has unveiled a hard-core group of violent recidivists. This is his major contribution. To point out that violent offenders also commit crimes against property (more than 80 per cent of violent recidivists had previous non-violent convictions, primarily property offenses) does not preclude their sociopsychological differences from many non-violent, recidivistic property offenders. A research design to ferret out and compare these two tentative types is demanded. Hopefully, the author will confine his proposed extensive research into the origin and nature of recidivism to hard-core, violent recidivists.

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STONE WALLS NOT A PRISON MAKE: THE ANATOMY OF PLANNED ADMINISTRATIVE CHANGE. By Joseph W. Eaton. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas, 1962. Pp. 212. \$7.50.

Joseph W. Eaton's *Stone Walls Not a Prison Make* concerns itself with 18 years of planned administrative and professional change in the

⁴ GRUNHUT, PROBATION AND MENTAL TREATMENT (London, 1963).

California Department of Corrections under the leadership of Richard A. McGee, one of America's, and the world's, most outstanding correctional administrators. Mr. McGee's contributions to the correctional field are even more outstanding when one considers the overwhelming problems that have confronted, and continue to confront him, i.e., problems of a socioeconomic, political, personnel, and budgetary nature. It is because of these things that this reader was somewhat disappointed with the content of Eaton's text, which did little in the way of documenting and illustrating in a more thorough manner the total "Anatomy of Planned Administrative Change."

This text is well written, interesting, and informative in those aspects of California Corrections discussed in its context. Interesting and well-documented data on staff attitudes, and especially on the group treatment approach, were well organized and presented to give a good description of the nature of these phases of California corrections over the years. Group treatment was particularly well documented with fact and discussion, and it is perhaps in this area that this text is most accomplished.

The author orients his study around the scientific correctional reform movement in California, but has done little to document the reforms in planned administrative change. An analysis of the life cycle of a social movement encompasses a series of stages from its origin to the success of the movement. The emphasis is on change in all its facets and should give detailed, factual, data on the movement's leadership, ideology, tactics, membership, etc. These factors are only superficially dealt with, if at all.

The author does not present an adequate model or discussion of the scientific reform movement theory. Furthermore, this reviewer fails to comprehend the comparison of the essentially non-scientific Freudian psychoanalytic movement with that of scientific social change in the California Department of Corrections. This reviewer also questions the author's contention that psychoanalysis is having a significant influence on the correctional movement.

The author should be especially complimented for making the following statement: "Prisons are staffed by persons trained in many helping professions The uncertainty that exists in the prisons, about how to treat inmates, is only a special instance of a more general behavioral

science problem." Too often one hears the radically doctrinaire views of some disciplinary representative(s) claiming to be the ultimate authority in all matters behavioral, and thus correctional.

A social movement involves a distinctive perspective and ideology, a strong sense of solidarity, and orientation toward action. Within these precepts, the author should have dealt in more detail with the scientific method and other important aspects of "planned administrative change."

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PUNISHMENT WITHOUT CRIME. By *Isidore Zimmerman*, with *Francis Bond* and Introduction by *Drew Pearson*. New York: Clarkson N. Potter, 1964. Pp. xiv, 304. \$5.00.

PRISON. A symposium edited by *George Mikes*. New York: Horizon Press, 1964. Pp. xxi, 215. \$4.95.

Both books have a great deal in common, and yet both books are quite different kinds of reading material. The first title tells the story (partly told in the first person, and partly by the ghost-writer as a narrative addendum) of "a man who spent twenty-four years in prison for a crime he did not commit." The first 250 pages, or three fourths of the book, tell the history of the crime (the murder of a New York police officer, for which three others went to the electric chair) as well as the story of the author behind several prison walls. As the outstanding feature (as told by the author and by Drew Pearson, who gave the book the sendoff), the reader learns that the author has not become "bitter." But to me, the really "bitter pill" is the author's heart-rendering description of his futile job-hunt in his eighth and last chapter, entitled "The Wait." It is the more realistic, as few ex-prisoners will not have undergone a similar experience as has the author: it is society, all of us, who are to be blamed for a terrific waste intra- and extramurally. And we cannot and should not be able to afford this kind of nonsensical waste. The reader will put this book aside, probably with a frown on his face and, if honest with himself, angry at himself!

The second title is similar to the first only in that all of the contributors, eight altogether, had been incarcerated for various reasons, on various occasions, and at various places. But there the similarity stops, except that all of the authors con-

tribute some philosophical thinking to their incarceration, whether Eugene Heimler speaks of the "Children of Auschwitz," or the world-famous novelist, Arthur Koestler, of "A Personal Affair," or Walter Musgrave of "Warrant to Nowhere," or Krishna Nehru Hutheesing of "In British Hands." Or it may be called "hospital," which Jeremy Bryan discusses in "True Madness," his electro-shock treatment. The editor of the book states that he himself has never been in prison. Although he was urged to "visit" prisons before writing the "Preface," he was unable to follow this advice. He states: "If I go to prison, I shall have to go as a prisoner, not a visitor." His "Preface" nevertheless has been written extremely well, and some of his points seem to be well taken. Thus he writes: "If there exists a desire to imprison others, there also exists a desire to be imprisoned by others—the prison-wish." The editor refers correctly to Freud and his disciple, Rank, and the latter's *The Trauma of Birth*. In connection with Rank's long-dead theory, the editor asks himself: "Is there not a strong parallel between the birth-trauma and the release-from-prison trauma?"

Both books make good and thoughtful reading and, in their variety of ideas and concepts, should be welcome by even the most casual reader.

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SEXUALFORSCHUNG. *Stichwort und Bild*. By Armand Mergen. Hamburg, Germany: Verlag fuer Kulturforschung, 1964. Pp. 1036 (2 vols.). DM 225.—.

MODERNE ENZYKLOPAEDIE DER EROTIK. *Sexologica-Lexikon*. Edited by Lo Duca. Munich, Germany: Verlag Kurt Desch. Pp. 800 (2 vols.). DM 98.00.

As the titles indicate, both works comprise the researches of many scientists and artists in an encyclopedic arrangement, i.e., the topics are arranged alphabetically. Also, they are richly illustrated, often with de luxe color plates.

Of the two works, the first is more research-oriented and focusses on the various paraphilias (a phrase coined by Karpman) or sexual perversions and aberrations, whereas the second work presents a picture of eroticism—not necessarily sex aberrations—of all ages. The second may rightly be called a history of various phases of eroticism; it is illustrated by reproductions of famous art

works, starting from the Egyptians of the Old Kingdom around 4000 B.C. to the Kubists and Existentialists of our day. The first volume is particularly likely to interest the criminologist. Nowhere have I seen an encyclopedia in the specialty of sexology arranged with so much care as to detail, special articles and good reference material, which will give the researcher a thorough and quick hand at grasping the desired material at once; the illustrations are almost irrelevant, the text is dominant. For instance, under the letter "F" the reader will find the following topics: family, fecundatio, fellatio, fetishism, fire, film, film-photos, flagellantism, photo-camera, photo-model, frigidity, frotteur, fertility, early puberty (*Fruehreife*), fructose-test, etc. Each item in the index indicates the national origin of the author.

Sexualforschung, however, is more than just an encyclopedic reference for criminologists. It also combines with its topics other disciplines. For instance, the topic "Housing" leads the anonymous writer (the articles are merely signed by initials) into economics (slums, luxurious dwellings), streets in various parts of the world and their sociological and anthropological significance (streets in Cairo, Bombay, Merian-Germany), or the disposition of rooms in houses and apartments throughout the world. On the whole, some of the topics make gruesome reading, and some of the pictures make Frankenstein look like an innocent babe in the woods.

On the other hand, *Erotik* has been edited more along artistic, historic and literary lines, and the topics are less oriented toward sex perversions and more toward diversity of topics, including many names of authors famous in the arts, science, literature, and music, including mythology. For instance, many pages are devoted to witchcraft, to religion and sexuality, or fairy-tales. *Erotik* also contains many more topics relating to artists (Rodin, Titian, Gauguin, et al.), scientists (Albert and Havelock Ellis, et al.), or brief descriptive articles about the libido theory. Of course, there are overlapping topics, essentially with the same information but with quite different illustrative material.

Both works can be used for research without the knowledge of German. The information in both works is laid out in a universal way, presenting the reader with all information of all places and all scientists, and bringing up to date all material no matter where it originated. To the criminologist,

these reference volumes seem to be a priceless source.

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THE SENTENCING OF ADULTS IN CANADA. By *Stuart King Jaffary*. University of Toronto Press, 1963. Pp. 122. \$4.95.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE SEMINAR ON THE SENTENCING OF OFFENDERS. Edited by *Alan W. Mewett*. Queen's University, Kingston, Ontario, 1962. Pp. 47.

Here are two publications dealing with the structure, objectives and problems of sentencing in Canada. *The Sentencing of Adults in Canada* is written by a Professor of Social Work and well reflects the traditionalistic social work philosophy and approach, which, in many respects, is also advocated by most informed and progressive thinkers in corrections, including judges.

Jaffary points to the usual problems in the sentencing of adults, not only in Canada, but in the United States, and I would presume in most countries. There is nothing startling or new in the suggestions made to cope with the disparity in sentencing and the problem of "fitting" a sentence according to individual needs, which may really be the individualizing of disparate sentences.

Jaffary's short, descriptive, statistical study can be used more as a publication communicating to the public and responsible officials the typical problems of sentencing in Canada, i.e., disparity in sentencing due to inadequate sentencing guides, Councils, and communication between the correctional services and the courts. In general, the author does this well; however, I feel he is too quick to support a non-legal rationale in favor of a social one which may give immense powers to experts not familiar with the legal rights and guarantees of offenders. Jaffary's quick dismissal of the concept of deterrence is questionable, for we do not know how many might commit crimes if it were not for legal sanctions, nor do we know that with recidivists—the offenders usually cited as not being deterred—would an intensive program of rehabilitation be more successful. We have been and are failing with this type of offender in the United States in spite of intensive treatment programming.

Jaffary in Chapter 8 was to delineate "A Social Rationale" in Canada, but the chapter dealt more

with a brief socio-economic history of Canada than it did with a specific social rationale for sentencing and corrections. The reader, at times, is confused as to the author's reference to a social versus a legal rationale in sentencing, indicating they are inseparable. The Sociology of Law tells us the law is the formalized representation of society and its values. The law must change with time, but the legal institutions are also basic to social order. Too rapid, or impulsive, law changes create chaos and social disorganization making it impossible for even a progressive correctional program to operate.

Again the author emphasizes a contemporary philosophy of individualized treatment which is commendable, but not without serious shortcomings, i.e., we can't concentrate so intensively on individual needs as to lose sight of the impact of such in terms of general societal stability and the necessity to conform to the important norms of a community.

Again, much is being said about stigmatizing an offender. True, excessive and destructive ostracism of one who violates the law is undesirable. However, we also know that, within bounds, stigmatizing deviancy is an effective method of social control.

In general, the Jaffary text touched on problems of sentencing and did this well. Basic, however, to the many problems of sentencing is the lack of sufficient and qualified personnel and correctional facilities, i.e., an adequate budget.

Proceedings of the Seminar on the Sentencing of Offenders is a short pamphlet containing the edited versions of proceedings on the sentencing of offenders. The seminar was held at the Law School, Queen's University, and included four distinguished speakers, two from the United States, Judge Talbot Smith, District Court, Eastern District of Michigan, and Mr. Warren Olney III, Director, Administrative Offices of the United States Courts; and two speakers from Canada, Mr. A. S. MacLeod, Commissioner of Penitentiaries and Mr. J. G. Street, Chairman, National Parole Board.

This seminar brought together people from different disciplines, for two weeks, to discuss the facets of sentencing. Many pertinent and technical questions relative to sentencing were discussed, e.g., techniques of sentencing, pre-sentence aids, types of sentences, the offender before and after sentencing, and the philosophy of punishment.

Emphasis is made concerning the difficult

judicial functioning of sentencing. Judge Smith well indicated that, "Our vital problem is not really disparate sentencing at all . . . but the problem of correlating the punishment to the offender . . . for simple equality is not necessarily equality, but may indeed be the grossest inequity." It is this very important point which, I felt, Jaffary failed to comprehend in his study above.

The Sentencing Council of Michigan and the Sentencing Institutes of the United States Courts were properly discussed by Judge Smith and Mr. Olney as active attempts in this country to bring about greater understanding and agreement in the sentencing process.

Mr. Street spoke of the Canadian practice of reviewing potential parolees with a sentence of two years or more only after serving a third of the sentence, or a minimum of one year in prison, whichever is the lesser. Apart from this, every man's case is reviewed every four years. Mr. Street is critical of the United States Parole Board's practice of sending one member to interview inmates, although the Canadian Parole Board, "is unable to interview all the inmates . . . in the majority of instances."

Mr. Street indicated that their parole violation rate is about nine per cent a year, as compared to the American violation rate of 12 per cent. How-

ever, he does say that they parole only 27 per cent of the offenders, as compared to the American rate of up to 35 per cent. I question Mr. Street's comparison of two different parole systems functioning in different societies and within different legal structures.

Mr. Street further indicates that only a certain per cent (50% at most) could ever be put on parole, indicating his unawareness that the same argument supports the contention that all the poorest parole risks need the most supervision.

Many and varied comments and conclusions were made concerning the pre-sentence report, the philosophy of sentencing, and the outlook for the future.

This seminar appears to have been a most rewarding experience for those in attendance. Much information and interdisciplinary communication and agreement ensued. However, hopefully more direct and aggressive action will be taken to make operational the conclusions reached by the conferees.

This pamphlet will be a valuable addition to the library, active and reserve, of those interested in and responsible for correctional administration.

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