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Book Reviews

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This is one of the best written monographs dealing with the most basic aspects of human behavior, guilt and shame. Our time-worn criminal law and our penal philosophy rest on the concept of guilt, disregarding its dynamics entirely. As Justice Cardozo declared in his famous address on November 1, 1928, before the New York Academy of Medicine on "What Medicine Can Do for Law" "I think the students of the mind should make it clear to the law-makers that the statute is framed along the lines of a defective and unreal psychology."

Dr. Piers, who is a Staff Member of the Institute for Psychoanalysis in Chicago, defines guilt as "the painful internal tension generated whenever the emotionally highly charged barrier erected by the Super-Ego is being touched or transgressed" and shame as "the anxiety aroused by failure to live up to internalized parental ideals under the unconscious threat of abandonment." This is very well elaborated by describing the properties of shame which differentiate it from guilt as follows:

1. "Shame arises out of tension between Ego and the Ego-Ideal, not between Ego and Super-Ego as in guilt.

2. "Whereas guilt is generated whenever a boundary (set by the Super-Ego) is touched or transgressed, shame occurs when a goal (presented by the Ego-Ideal) is not being reached. It thus indicates a real 'shortcoming.' Guilt anxiety accompanies transgression; shame, failure.

3. "The unconscious irrational threat implied in shame anxiety is abandonment, and not mutilation (castration) as in guilt.

4. "The Law of Talion does not obtain in the development of shame, as it generally does in guilt. . . . Behind the feeling of shame stands not the fear of hatred, but the fear of contempt which, on an even deeper level of the unconscious, spells fear of abandonment, the death of emotional starvation."

From the correctional-psychological point of view, it is extremely important to realize that, as Dr. Piers correctly emphasizes, "... guilt-engendered activity is at best restitution (sacrifice, propitiation) which rarely frees, but brings with it resentment and frustration rage, which, in turn, feed new guilt into the system." In the author's opinion, the shame-driven individual has better potentialities as to maturation and progress. This again points the direction for rehabilitation of offenders by creating an Ego-Ideal to follow, instead of generating frustrating feelings of guilt with its accompanying hopelessness and its dynamic successor aggression.

The second part of this publication is a paper by Milton B. Singer, Ph.D., who is Professor of the Social Sciences at the College of The University of Chicago, on "Shame Cultures and Guilt Cultures" which contains psychometric data on shame and guilt in American Indian cultures, among other valuable contributions, and represents a worthwhile addition to Dr. Piers' treatise.

This little book is the first psychiatric monograph of the American Lecture Series and the publisher, Charles C. Thomas, is to be congratulated for setting such a high level for this series.

MARCEL FRYM, J.D.
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This study, done under the sponsorship of the Citizens' Committee on Children of New York City, Inc., was made over a period of
many years and with thousands of children who had come to the attention of the Court. It is, perhaps, the first such study ever made for the purpose of evaluating the assets and liabilities of a major Juvenile Court; and it may well serve as a model for similar evaluations of other Juvenile Courts throughout the country. Moreover, it seems that the book as a whole is unique in the literature of social sciences. As far as I can ascertain, the Children's Court of New York City is the first one to attempt to treat the juvenile offenders or the neglected, deserted or mistreated child as a psychological, physiological, and social entity. In the best sense of the word, this is an empirical study, and a good one.

When a child, for instance, steals, all too often a Court, through a probation officer, will make an initial study which may or may not take into account the family situation; even if a thorough study is reflected in the probation officer's presentence report (which more often than not is lacking either because of the officer's heavy case load or his professional incompetence), it is in the judge's discretion to follow his probation officer's recommendations; and, if he does this, the Court often does not have the resources to follow up. Here the book has done a pioneering job for years to come. The reader, professional and lay alike, will come to understand that only complete cooperation and coordination between all competent and relevant social and medical agencies will effectively serve the common good. The lay reader, a responsible citizen, might learn that his own locality is deficient in these resources, let alone their coordination. These resources would include proper detention places, children's institutions, foster homes, child guidance clinics, outpatient medical facilities, and the like. The urgency of having, or getting, these social improvements is forcefully brought home to the lay reader.

Kenneth D. Johnson, Dean of the New York School of Social Work, who has written the Foreword, rightly urges the careful reading of Chapter X, "A Dream Still Unrealized." This chapter is an evaluation of the Juvenile Court of New York, which, despite the Court's fine performance as compared with other courts in this country, is a mighty blast of condemnation of the New York City community; coming from a qualified authority, it bears all the more the ring of truth. For, Mr. Kahn states, "A minority of children are served with both kindness and skill by those judges, probation officers, and other staff members who have understood the purpose of a children's court, are equipped to perform their tasks competently, and have at the same time had available to them needed community resources. The majority of children before the Court, however, receive service which does not reflect the juvenile court movement's aspirations or the kinds of help that fully qualified personnel with adequate community resources at their disposal would be able to provide." Mr. Kahn therefore feels that "it remains vital that the search for legal safeguards be regarded only as one phase in the effort to improve the Court; for, despite such safeguards, without careful case study, qualified probation officers, good judges, and sufficient community facilities, the Children's Court idea would be lost."

HANS A. ILLING
Los Angeles


The case histories of two hundred potential or actual delinquents in the British Army during World War II and the government's attempt to salvage and utilize this manpower comprise the subject matter of Mr. Trenaman's book. British soldiers who had failed to adjust themselves to the wartime discipline of the Army were assigned to Special Training Units, to camps especially formed to provide the psychological guidance, psychiatric treatment, and individual training necessary to channel the aptitudes, talents, and proficiencies of these youthful malcontents. These units were not intended to be punishment areas but rather training centers concerned with arousing and reclaiming the better motives of potential criminals and providing them with a fresh military start.
For two years the author, a trained psychologist, lived in close proximity with these soldier-offenders in one of the experimental units, analyzing broken backgrounds, listening to fears and aspirations, studying habit patterns, aiding in character rebuilding, and always recording observations and conclusions.

From his comprehensive explorations into the homes, schools, and civilian employments of his youthful charges, and from evidence obtained by tracing the interrelationships between an unsatisfactory home environment, truancy and backwardness at school, inner feelings of inadequacy and frustration, constant job-changing, and a succession of known criminal outbreaks, Mr. Trenaman confirms the oft-quoted conclusion that there is no such thing as an innate or inherent criminal disposition. Mr. Trenaman cites twenty-six factors which he finds to be "strongly associated with delinquency" and classifies these factors into five major groupings—physical, intellectual, emotional, economic, and domestic. In the main, the author emphasizes the consequences, both direct and indirect, of the economic, emotional, and domestic frictions and instabilities upon men in the delinquent groups, but minimizes the physical and intellectual irregularities of the group as directly responsible for delinquent behavior.

Mr. Trenaman has accumulated a substantial and valuable body of scientific statistics, sociological fact, and rational theory of wide application to both wartime and peacetime rehabilitation procedures. That over one-half (53.6 percent) of the Special Training Unit population proved to be satisfactory soldiers after a training period which lasted from four to six months amply justified the correctional program whose research findings Mr. Trenaman has evaluated.

HAROLD M. HELFMAN
Air Research and Development Command
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This volume is a posthumous work, left unfinished upon the author's death in 1950. The editor, Dr. William R. Galt, the Lifwynn Foundation, and numerous friends collaborated in finishing and publishing this testament of a great psychologist.

To be sure, Dr. Burrow was a controversial figure during his lifetime; and his theories, especially those of the neurosis, will probably continue to be controversial for some time to come. However, the attribute of "great" is applied because of the sincerity and wide scope of his research, encompassing physiology, sociology, medicine, bionomy, biology, anatomy, and radiology, all of which he brought into a new frame of reference for which he invented the term "phylobiology." According to his definition, phylobiology is "the science of behavior that studies the relation of the organism as a whole in its adaptation to the environment and to other organisms. Phylobiology posits a principle of functional unity and solidarity activating the behavior of individual and species." Dr. Burrow was a psychologist coming from the medical field. Generally, his conceptions of man's origin and of the cause of our neuroses are not new. In the field of the social sciences, Herbert Spencer is credited with having been the first to philosophize about society in terms of biological analogies, that is, to compare society in its structure and functions with organic life. Yet Spencer is hardly mentioned by Burrow. In Bionomy, the German neurologist J. H. Schultz is generally considered the outstanding exponent; Burrow does not even mention his name. Nevertheless, it remained for Burrow to integrate bionomy, "social" and medical biology, and other disciplines into a unity, phylobiology.

The central motif of Burrow's thesis is the well-being of the phylum (from the Greek, meaning "race"). Burrow rejects anything which concerns an individual apart from the phylum; he rejects anything dealing with therapies which are just for the individual (for it is the phylum which makes or breaks the individual); he rejects, therefore, all systems in which not everybody within the
phyllum is included and which do not accept the omnipotence of his science and of his therapy.

Small wonder then that his point of view differs from those of most healers, both ancient and contemporary. Plato and Aristotle as well as Freud and his followers have to bear the brunt of Burrow's scorn and contempt. For example, Freud employed "his esoteric methods (only) for a privileged few"; and, the author argues, a method that is not for everyone is not a scientific method. Since, however, the medical sciences are based upon principles that possess a universal value it apparently did not matter to Burrow that Freud's major principles were not derived from medical, but from social, science, the latter being by no means of a "universal value!"

Some chapters, such as "The Genesis of Man's Dissociation", "Phylic Principles in Human Behavior," or "The Emotional Factors in Man's disordered Personality" may be regarded as monuments to Burrow's power of thought and to his theory. Nor can even the most ardent antiphylobiologist deny his admiration to Burrow for fertilizing and stimulating the field of psychology.

The editor and his collaborators, in homage to the master, undoubtedly felt that they should leave as much of the original, unfinished manuscript as possible untouched. This has its advantages and its disadvantages. On the one hand, the reader will get a true picture of all the sides of Burrow's thinking. On the other hand, the shades loom larger and larger. For it seems to me that there are few psychologists of whatever school who do not recognize analytical psychology and its founder, Freud. To brand Freud "unscientific," as Burrow does, is quite ridiculous, the more so since Burrow was a student of Jung who, although he parted from Freud, always acknowledged his debt to Freud's analytical theories, which were nonexistent prior to Freud.

Even in Burrow's own bailiwick, medicine, psychiatry is recognized as an established and valid specialty. Yet, psychiatry gets a solid spanking throughout the entire treatise. For example, with respect to group therapy (as practised by psychotherapists but not by Burrow himself) Burrow feels "qualified to say that the individual and the group therapists, if they but knew it, are no different from the healers of old. While presumably analyzing disordered behavior, they are in fact but employing disordered behavior in analysing the behavior that is disordered!" It has been Burrow's experience that "nothing more effectually aggravates the blindness of a patient to his own condition than getting into a huddle with other people who are insisting upon the recognition of their right to attention for the same condition." To Burrow, "group" does not mean an outward relation but a "biological principle." "Group" stands for the species or race. Hence, his "group analysis" or "group therapy" has a totally different meaning from that usually employed by psychiatrists.

Burrow takes issue with the jargon of psychiatrists and maintains that "no foreign language" is needed to describe an illness. It seems that he might have a point here—if he were but consistent and would refrain from using jargon himself! His syntax is heavy and his vocabulary is loaded with terminology largely invented by him. Freud's phraseology of the ego is abandoned in favor of the "I-persona" and there are, also, "I-personae"! Not untypical is this: "Lacking recognition of a homeostatic basis of motivation as a phylum, or a basis of motivation that rests upon man's internal balance of reactions, a social collection of 'I'-personae, like the individual 'I'-persona, can only adopt the dichotomous promise embodied in man's traditional mores, and act and counsel action solely from the point of view of current tradition as descended to us from the 'I'-personae that are our racial antecedents." (P. 223) The reader has to go through more than 500 pages of this idiom.

Still, the book has signal merit, in being a memorial to Trigant Burrow and in containing his psychological and philosophical legacy to the generations to come.

HANS A. ILLING

Los Angeles
BOOK REVIEWS


The fruit of Dr. Hadfield's thirty odd years' experience as a psychotherapist, this is a book which compels respectful attention from all who are interested in the particular topics with which it deals. It constitutes, in the reviewer's opinion, a sane and admirably balanced approach to a variety of psychiatric and sociopsychiatric problems—delinquency, hysteria, compulsive-obsessive states, sexual deviations, etc.

Though the author makes no secret of his debt to Sigmund Freud (indeed, what worker in psychology or psychotherapy does not owe something to Freud?), the tenor of the present volume gives the reader the impression that Dr. Hadfield prefers to ally himself with no special school of thought or practice. For years Hadfield has been widely and justly known as the first to employ the technique called hypno-analysis (the word itself was coined more than thirty years ago); and more recently he has evolved the method he calls "direct reductive analysis," and which he now employs—apparently quite regularly—in his London practice. The author interestingly sets forth the more significant respects in which direct reductive analysis differs from the "orthodox" psychoanalysis of Sigmund Freud and his followers.

Hadfield's experience as a psychotherapist has led him to the conclusion that many if not all neurotic conditions originate in the sense of the deprivation of love, or in the striving to regain lost affection. Though there are analysts and therapists who would not emphasize this factor to the same degree, the reviewer must acknowledge that Dr. Hadfield presents his hypothesis in terms which are not only lucid but cogent.

It would be difficult to deny that the third chapter, entitled Types of Character Traits and Delinquency, constitutes one of the more successful portions of this study. Here the author presents us with a detailed and apparently quite logical classification of various types of delinquency, such as benign delinquencies, temperamental delinquencies, and simple delinquencies. In view of the increasing incidence of juvenile delinquency, Dr. Hadfield's descriptions are not only illuminating but very timely. This chapter should therefore prove of deep interest not only to the therapist but also to students of social science, to say nothing of lay persons to whom the care of young people is entrusted.

The author writes in a style which is direct, unpretentious, and for the most part refreshingly non-technical. Apart from whatever other merits it may have, a book like Psychology and Mental Health is particularly meritorious in that it represents an honest effort to liberate psychology and psychotherapy from the shackles of such rigid dogmatism as is usually typical of sectarianism.

NATHANIEL THORNTON
New York, N. Y.


This readable little book follows the operations of three boys in New York City and the gangs they led.

The authors believe that rejection by parents and by society generally is the root of the hostile gang. But some hostile gangs have been formed and led by the highly privileged and accepted sons of influential fathers and mothers. I have in mind a case in which both parents and son were social idols. The parents were determined that their son should become a lawyer and take over his father's lucrative practice. Bill was equally bent on being a big ranchman. Neither he nor his parents would budge because they weren't built that way. Then came gang life, crime, conviction, and probation to a farmer a hundred miles away. It came out all right when the boy owned a calf and really participated in planning and working the farm. Now he is the farmer's partner and is greatly respected in the community.

Being rejected or accepted is too simple. If we should once get well started we might—in two or three generations—produce parents...
and teachers who would nip hostile gangs before they are started.

The authors arrive at the usual conclusion—the "aroused public", etc. But the only usefully "aroused public" is one composed of wisely disposed parents and neighbors. It takes time and persistent effort and some revised techniques to furnish the ingredients of the "aroused public."

ROBERT H. GAULT
Evanston, Ill.


The author, an Associate Editor of this Journal, and Professor and Dean of Law in the University of Bonn, Germany, is no stranger to an American audience of criminologists: his Crime, Causes and Conditions, published in this country in 1947, is still remembered and respected. He has also published a number of works in Germany, such as Strafrecht und Auslese and Untersuchungen ueber den Sittlichkeitsverbrecher, apparently not yet translated.

His present book, intended as the first in a series of monographs based on recent research data, his experiences in the USA, and his reflections on both, is written with what the Germans call Griindlichkeit, a virtue not undesirable in a text as scientific and full of statistics as the present one. v. Hentig's book is divided into three chapters, dealing with theft, burglary, and robbery. In each chapter he examines the definitions and problems relevant to and distinctive of the specific crime, the types and variations of crimes and criminals, and its sociological and psychological aspects. So this book amounts to a comparative sociology of these three offenses in Germany, England, and America. The author is equally at home in the literatures of all three countries. His principal scientific source for Germany seems to be Bader; for England, it appears to be Benney; and for the USA, his decided preference is Sutherland.

One of the attractions of this book, which will not be overlooked by the reader, is the footnotes, which often tell so much of the story to be related to the reader that one wonders why they were not incorporated in the text. Another attraction, perhaps new to American sociologists and criminologists, is v. Hentig's skill in suggesting psychological factors in a subtle manner, without using psychological tools (such as theoretical hypotheses, analyses, or interpretations), by quoting from the words of an offender. For example, in explaining the action of burglary, the author quotes a burglar's statement taken from a report of Benney's: "I drew back and sat down on the stairs, trembling; I knew that I couldn't go ahead this night. I was physically ill. I shivered; then I stole downstairs and grabbed a topcoat and a hat from a hanger. Much too exhausted to keep on being cautious, I worked loudly around a keylock and went outside. The world seemed to me all grey. I lit a cigarette and said to myself: 'Damned coward.'"

Perhaps one of the greatest assets of the book is in the specific details: when to steal what, from whom, and how; or the idea and the types of thieves. One rarely meets with a relatively small volume packed with so much drama and tension, and scientific information. Just one instance. On several pages, Dr. v. Hentig examines the frequency of burglaries in the USA during the day and the night, in residential and business districts, and even the possible influence of the weather and the seasons.

American readers may wish for two further services: one, an early translation of this all too important work and, second, a bibliography presently available only in the footnotes spread over some two hundred pages. As a whole, the book can be warmly recommended not only to criminologists, for whom it was written, but also to all the allied social sciences, including the discipline of psychiatry.

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