ready is insufficient for the support of the existing populations."

(B) A zone in which the transfer of land to Jews is forbidden except under certain conditions. Zone B includes "the plains of Asdraelon and Jezreel in Eastern Galilee, the maritime plain between Haifa and Tantura and between the southern boundary of the Ramleh subdistrict and Beer Tuviya and the southern portion of the Beersheba subdistrict (the Negeb)."

(C) All the rest of the Palestine exclusive of Zones A and B, which comprises "all municipal areas, the Haifa industrial zone, and roughly speaking, the maritime plain between Tantura and the southern boundary of the Ramleh subdistrict." In this zone, Jews may freely purchase land.

The regulations thus enacted, on the basis of protecting the Arab rights have roused a storm of protest, not only from Zionist circles but in the British legislative bodies as well. A motion of censure of the Government was introduced in the House of Commons by Philip J. Noel-Baker, M.P., on March 6th. *The New Judea,* in its March-April, 1940, issue, takes British Colonial Secretary Malcolm MacDonald sharply to task:

> "To talk of 'equal rights for both Arabs and Jews', as Mr. MacDonald is in the habit of talking, is, apart from all other considerations, obvious nonsense. How can anyone speak of equal rights for the Jews and at the same time prohibit or severely restrict Jewish colonization in about 5,000,000 acres of land? Out of a total of nearly 7,000,000 acres of the whole country, Jews are to be permitted free access in only about 163,750 acres, apart from the 350,000 acres already in their possession, or less than three per cent."

Analyzing the land regulations, the *New Judea* points out that the area of Palestine is 6,771,250 acres (exclusive of lakes) of which 385,750 acres, or 5.7% are in Jewish hands. Zone A, which is prohibited to Jews, contains 44,289,000 acres, or about 64% of the total; Zone B, in which Jewish land buying is restricted, 2,092,500 acres, or about 31%; Zone C, which is open to Jews, 335,750 acres, or just under 5%. In Zone C, 172,000 acres are now owned by Jews and 163,750 by Arabs. This area is all that Jews can now acquire without restrictions

OOK REVIEWS

edited by David I. Cedarbaum

The Educational Alliance, New York, N. Y.

LIUS ROSENWALD, The Life of a Practical Humanitarian, by M. R. Warner. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1939. 381 *pp.* $3.50.

Of all the fine arts, biographical writing may be said to be the most difficult. his is especially true when one attempts to write a biography of a public or semi-blic man whose life had many facets and at a time when his associates are still ve and can judge the portrait. Since none, not even the members of his immediate mily, is likely to have known him fully and in all his activity, the reader is bound to dge the work by that aspect which he knew best. But a biography must, at best, selective and cannot possibly include everything and everybody. Hence the com-eted work, if it is to be confined to one volume, cannot be altogether satisfactory. sually, the more intimately one knew the subject the less satisfactory is the bio-aphy.

The present work is no exception. Those who knew Julius Rosenwald and rked intimately with him, as did this reviewer, will close the book with a feeling dissatisfaction, which may be intensified by contemplating the photograph on the ver or the one opposite the title page. The photograph is by all odds the better eness. If the book is then laid aside, the original impression will remain; if how-er, the reader will pause to analyze the work, the original impression will be modi-d to a very considerable extent.

It is true that this is neither an inspired nor a great biography. Nevertheless, is a remarkably honest picture that the author endeavors to paint. (All honor to e family for not interfering with it.) While one has the feeling that the writer ew his subject only from secondary sources and that he had no very great en-usiasm for his task, his work is painstaking and thoroughgoing. If the total picture somewhat atomic and lacks the buoyancy and vibrancy of the original, the lines hich give it form and semblance are true and are carefully drawn.

The personality that emerges is an almost incredible complexity of contra-ctory characteristics and attitudes. Rosenwald is described as "one of the most odest rich men in the United States". (p. 356) Indeed, only a genuinely modest ch man could say: "I believe that success is 95 percent luck and 5 percent ability. never could understand the popular belief that because a man makes a lot of oney he has a lot of brains. Some very rich men who made their own fortunes ve been among the stupidest men I have ever met in my life. There are men in merica today walking the streets, financial failures, who have more brains and

more ability than I will ever have. I had the luck to get my opportunity. Their opportunity never came. Rich men are not smart because they are rich. They didn't get rich because they are smart. Don't ever confuse wealth with brains. They are synonyms sometimes, but none too often". (p. 357)

It was, no doubt, that same modesty that prompted him repeatedly to refuse honorary degrees from various educational institutions which sought thus to honor him because of his benefactions. (p. 260) This modesty, however, must be contrasted with the self-assertivenes which induced him to seek to influence American philanthropy against the establishment of permanent endowments. He failed or refused to recognize that endowed institutions played a tremendously important role in developing American culture and that but for their endowments they might have been very seriously handicapped. Rosenwald seems to have sensed this in a different connection, when he proposed the creation of a fund with which to support outstanding men who would devote themselves to the public good in order to free them from the burden of making a living. (p. 145) The author's verdict that Rosenwald's greatest contribution to the progress of philanthropy was his practice and propaganda against endowments (pp. ix, 321-323) would no doubt be questioned by most leading educators.

Rosenwald's continuous opposition to institutions for the care of dependent children was of the same type. Here, too, his usual modesty failed to warn him that he might be wrong, or to keep him from "taking a leading part in the fight against institutions for child care, not only in Chicago, but in other cities, and making several large offers to contribute to the care of orphans provided the institutions for them were abolished and home finding societies substituted". (p. 323) He displayed similar contradictory attitudes in other fields of endeavor. He was one of the staunchest supporters of a citizen's committee to enforce the Landis decision in the Building Trades strike in Chicago which was little more than a device for smashing the union by importing strike-breakers. But he also contributed generously and sought other contributions to the support of the Women's Trade Union League, an organization seeking to foster the trade union movement among women (pp. 266-267).

The man who gave away approximately $63,000,000 in his lifetime (p. ix) and thought little or nothing of offering $1,000,000, or $5,000,000 or even $10,000,000, for a single project, (p. 220) made his chauffeur return a box of razor blades because a box seemed wasteful. (p. 85) The man who spent millions on schools for negroes is reputed to have given his Pullman porter a tip which caused that disappointed negro to say: "I guess Mr. Rosenwald is more for the race than the individual". (pp. 335-337) The man who fought corruption and graft in public life wherever he met it saw nothing improper in offering compensation of $500,000 (inelegantly called a bribe) to a candidate for the U. S. Senate to withdraw from the campaign because he would bring (and in fact did bring) discredit

pon the Republican party of Illinois. The biographer is led to the comment that, Rosenwald's part in this transaction was characteristically *naive,* but it was also nexcusable and indicates his lack of appreciation of the democratic processes of overnment". (p. 309) But in all this he was human.

Rosenwald's business integrity, his loyalty to friends and associates, left little be desired. The author's statement that "his business philosophy was the rugged ndividualism of his contemporaries, and his political principles were more nearly epresented in national affairs by those of the Republican Party than by any other roup", (p. xi) does Julius Rosenwald scant justice. Certainly, he did not belong ith the corrupt "Ohio gang," with Dougherty, Falk, and their ilk, who were in ontrol of national politics and the Republican Party after the World War. Vhether it was good business (as some detractors claimed) or not, the fact remains hat when Sears Roebuck sold electric belts under fraudulent claims, Rosenwald nsisted upon full refunds to the purchasers with compound interest from the time f purchase (p. 50); that, under his direction, Sears labeled their food products ith complete information about their contents thereby anticipating the Pure Food aw (p. 63); that Sears Roebuck established the first laboratory for merchandise esting and supplied the advertising department with accurate descriptions of the oods listed (p. 64); that Rosenwald honored an unenforceable and unauthorized ontract of doubtful legality, given by one of his employees, thus taking a loss of lmost $200,000 at a time when his company was declining rapidly and could ill fford to take this loss (p. 227); that he pledged his personal fortune to the extent f jeopardizing it, to bolster up the credit of his company and the holdings of his mployees, associates and friends who bought Sears Roebuck stock because of their onfidence in him. (p. 240) So fine a sense of honor and *noblesse oblige* can be ound among few businessmen and politicians of his or the present generation.

Julius Rosenwald was in every sense of the term an American. He was the roduct of America and his is an American success story. He loved America nd served it whenever the opportunity presented itself, especially during the War. Ie gave his full time to war efforts, taking precautions that neither he nor his rm should profit from war contracts, and meriting the special commendation of ecretary of War Baker (p. 219), something which cannot be said of all "patriots" f his time. He sought to improve living conditions through such means as he nd his generation saw at hand. He was deeply sensitive to human suffering and ought to alleviate it wherever possible. He was the unquestioned pace-setter in ewish philanthropy, not only in Chicago but in the country. Discrimination of ny kind was abhorrent to him and he sought to give to others the opportunities for ducation and growth which might otherwise be denied them. His activities and chievements on behalf of negro education (p. 335), constitute one of the finest xamples of what far-sighted philanthropy can accomplish.

However, negro education was not the only instance of far-sightedness in

his philanthropic endeavors. The establishment of the Julius Rosenwald Fund which at one time was worth $40,000,000; the Rosenwald Family Association, to continue his philanthropic efforts; the Chicago Museum of Science and Industry; his munificent gifts to local, national, and foreign relief efforts and especially to the resettlement of Russian Jews on the land in the Crimea and the Ukraine, are all examples of large scale benefactions which required not only great generosity but vision, courage, and determination of a high order. Had he lived a few more years these qualities would have been tested as at no other time in his philanthropic career, by the problem of German refugees in relation to his attitude toward Palestine. It is an interesting and perhaps not altogether idle speculation as to what the result of the struggle would have been.

Julius Rosenwald was in many ways a rare personality. Perhaps the shrewdest characterization in the book is the one by an American intelligence officer who met him in France: "Met Julius Rosenwald. Vigorous, wholesome type, not at all *avisé*. As proud of his Catalogue as any author of his novel. Don't know what he's here for. Neither does he. Who *does* know why he's here? . . . Crude, unpolished, *naive,* but genuine and likeable and worthy of respect. Very friendly and democratic, stopping soldiers on street to introduce himself and get their names, so that he could write home about them. Not subtle, but refreshingly direct and honest. Disdainful of money, per se, but proud that world knows his business . . . Rosenwald seems so very wrong on so many things. But not smug. His soul not dead." (p. 212) Julius Rosenwald emerges as such from the biography under review.

Except for occasional reference, this reviewer missed the influence which the first Mrs. Rosenwald exercised upon her husband and their life together with their children which were such potent factors in shaping the life and career of Julius Rosenwald. But the shortcomings are of minor significance. What is important is the availability of this record of an outstanding American Jew, self-made, with all the limitations of such a background, but deeply and vibrantly human, eager to make life more endurable and the world a somewhat better place in which to live. Biographies of such men not only record, explain, and defend. They also inspire.

MAURICE J. KARPF

THE CHURCH AND ADULT EDUCATION, by Bernard E. Meland. American Association for Adult Education, N. Y. 114 *pp.* $1.00.

The Social Significance of Adult Education is the central theme of a series of studies by staff members of the American Association for Adult Education. *The Church and Adult Education,* the twenty-first in the series, is a brief yet thoroughly adequate survey of representative activities carried on with adults by churches, synagogues, denominational and interdenominational bodies. From the

standpoint of objectives as well as subject-matter and method, the adult education movement in the churches (and synagogues) is of considerable social significance on the American scene. As such it merits attention from the intelligent layman and the social worker, the educator and the clergyman.

Dr. Meland visited churches and synagogues throughout the country and found them to be busy places, actively engaged in educating their adults. He describes several outstanding forums and study groups as he observed them. Some churches and synagogues are, in effect, miniature universities. He describes the work of the denominations and church councils, their study courses and ambitious programs of social action which they have undertaken. Interesting are the developments in workers' education in a few of the churches and particularly in those churches which are organized wholely around the workers and his needs.

Modern churches and synagogues, Dr. Meland found, have become crusaders for a better world. Their adult education programs profess social change as the major objective; projects for social action are frequently-used educational techniques. There are, of course, variations in attitudes and practices among the various faiths as well as within each faith. On the whole, the progressive church, sensitive to the onrush of current events, aims in its educational programs with adults to bring light to bear on current social problems from its religious traditions, and provides a milieu for social action, and the impetus to that action out of the fervent and convinced idealism of its prophets and teachers.

Throughout these accounts of the Church's interest in social action and in adult education Dr. Meland raises some important problems. If the Church has become a bee-hive of activity devoting itself to the realities of the day, has it departed from its tradition as "a place of worship only" and has it lost its "sense of the eternal?" Since a distinctly doctrinal bent must of necessity characterize the church's educational efforts, is it likely that orienting instruction to a selective ancient heritage will limit the church's educational outreach? Even though scientific information has replaced theologic doctrine and the man-centered creed is gaining adherents in the liberal churches, is prophetic zeal, earnest but highly emotional, free from the danger of mistaking impulsions for insight as solutions for worldly problems? Some of the activities that go by the term "adult education" are neither adult nor, scientifically speaking, education; some have nothing whatever to do with the basic functions of religious institutions and should be left to the school or some other civic body. Raising the question of motives, some churchmen observe that the church is interested in adult education only in so far as it serves, or extends, its evangelical cause. Is it true that adult education, as promoted by the churches, is merely a device for stimulating church attendance?

Whatever the motives, Dr. Meland points out, eminently significant enterprises have developed in church and synagogue; and the movement for adult education in the Church is genuine and full of promise.

This provocative little volume will be of definite interest to the Jewish social worker. The need for social action is even more evident to the Jew as he recognizes the interdependence of the Jewish destiny and the destiny of mankind in general. The religious heritage of the Jew and of the Christian provide a common ethical base upon which the structure of a democratic society must be rebuilt. The return to the Synagogue and the widespread interest on the part of adults in Jewish education are expressions of their desire for guidance towards action in this crisis. The Synagogue is one agency in Jewish life which is attempting to prepare the Jewish adult for that job. How effective an instrument can it become?

The Jewish social worker will be interested, too, in the author's report of the courses which Jewish adults are pursuing under the aegis of the synagogue. The preponderance of interest seems to be, not in the traditional subjects of the Jewish school curriculum, but in problems of the family, parenthood, child psychology, etc. It may not be amiss to suggest that the Jewish social worker study this trend with the ultimate view of contributing of his professional training and knowledge to the social education of the Jewish adult.

Particularly commendable in this little volume, from the Jewish point of view, is the author's informed and impartial analysis of what he saw in the modern synagogue. "Some of the most progressive types of adult educational activities within organized religious groups have arisen in Reform Synagogues." A terse summary of the Reconstructionist movement indicates his firm grasp of the American Jewish scene as viewed by that group.

The account of Jewish educational efforts with adults falls, however, short of the complete picture. One can readily understand why the Jewish Center, the Institutes of Jewish Studies, the educational programs of Bnai Brith and others are not included in Dr. Meland's survey—they are not strictly in the category of "Adult Education in the Church." But, in the totality of Jewish life, where the dividing line between synagogue and community, between the religious and the secular, is not at all real, a considerable amount of Jewish religious education is carried on by many agencies other than the synagogue. Similarly, when the synagogue program does not include social action projects to the same degree as Protestant Churches, we must bear in mind that the Jewish community in recent years has been called upon for no end of action in connection with the needs of Jewry abroad and at home, and that these projects have not all been in the nature of "temporary palliatives." The synagogue in all this has been only one of the agencies of action as it has been only one of the agencies of education in Jewish life.

Adult Jewish education, now in the early stages of development, is bound to profit increasingly from the efforts of the American Association for Adult Education. This volume by Dr. Meland and all the rest of the series on "The Social Significance of Adult Education" are heartily commended to the readers of this review.

DAVID I. CEDARBAUM

HE PARTICIPATION OF MEDICAL SOCIAL WORKERS IN THE TEACHING OF MEDICAL STUDENTS, by Harriett M. Bartlett. American Association of Medical Social Workers, Chicago, 1939, 64 *pp.,* $1.50.

The Education Committee of the American Association of Medical Social Vorkers undertook to study the existing methods in medical schools of teaching ne importance of social factors in the diagnosis and treatment of illness. Since nere has been a growing demand on the part of teachers of medicine to include lustrations of significant medical-social interrelationships in clinical instruction, nedical social workers have been asked to participate in various ways in this nstruction. This report, prepared by Miss Bartlett for the Committee, is primarily imed as a guide to medical social workers who are participating in the teaching of nedical students.

Miss Bartlett describes in some detail the various ways in which medical social vork departments are now participating in their teaching in some medical shcools. She comments on both the positive and negative aspects of the different projects, ointing out that whatever the method may be, the most important factor to insure ne greatest contribution by the social workers is a knowledge of the medical chool curriculum in order that the phases of medical social work can be closely elated to the total teaching program. In line with this, it is essential to plan ooperatively with the medical instructors with whom the medical social worker vill be participating. The way in which this participation occurs varies according o the particular method set down by the medical instructors. In some schools he students prepares a case study. In others, case material is presented by the nedical social worker, and in still others, the broader aspects of social factors nay be presented by the medical instructor in lecture or seminar form, with the nedical social worker augmenting his comments. Whatever, the method, the major ontribution of medical social work seems to be in the interpretation and discussion f social aspects of medical care in relation to the individual patient and to the comnunity. This may be closely related to the actual handling of specific problems and ases but should always point to the broader implications so that the medical student an become aware of the social aspects of illness in all patients.

Since the report is quite detailed, it should prove helpful to medical social vork departments in the plans for teaching medical students. The reviewer feels hat it also may stimulate medical schools to initiate the participation of the medical ocial work departments in the teaching of its students where this is not now in ffect. Since this is a report of what is now in practice, no attempt was made to ndicate to what further extent medical social workers may increase their contribution n this field. It might be of interest for the committee of the American Association of Medical Social Workers to further explore this aspect.

MIRIAM FLEXNER

SOCIAL CASE WORK WITH CHILDREN: STUDIES IN STRUCTURE AND PROCESS. Edited by Jessie Taft. Pennsylvania School of Social Work, Philadelphia, 1939. *237 pp.,* $1.00.

This volume, the third in the series of publications by the Pennsylvania School, consists of twelve pages, devoted entirely to a consideration of work with children, for the most part of children living in private foster homes. The central theme, stated by Dr. Taft in her introduction, is a consideration "of the kind and degree of responsibility that is to be assumed professionally and the relation of that responsibility to the growth process going on in the child himself, to the adults on whom he depends immediately, and the community that supports him."

Out of the whole child welfare field, child placing stands out as distinctive and unique because it involves the handling of total human relationships and the responsibility for the actual living and development of many children. Workers in child placing agencies have privately recognized the difficulties inherent in the child placing job, but this same recognition has often blocked their understanding the nature of the problem. This may be due in part to what Dr. Taft calls the "adult dilemma" facing workers in child placing agencies. Their "conscientious compulsion to take too much responsibility or none at all," is due in large part to a lack of clarity as to attitudes and feelings in relation to the job they are doing. What are our attitudes toward the separation of children from parents? Can we accept the fact that a child must sometimes leave his own home and that a foster home might offer a constructive substitute? Can we bear the inevitable pain that removal from one's own home involves for us? Can we be identified with the function of our agency? In short, are we able to understand just how much responsibility is ours in any process and to leave the rest to the children or parents who, as human beings possessing their own strengths, can be helped to take their share of responsibility.

One of the articles, *Adoption as the Community Sees It,* by Mary Frances Smith, reviews material obtained in the New York Adoption Study conducted in 1939 by the Child Welfare League of America. In view of the current lay interest in adoption, this analysis on how the community regards "legitimate" adoption agencies and "bootleg" agencies is both interesting and instructive. Applicants have not always felt that they received as much sympathetic consideration in social agencies. If social agencies are to regain the confidence of the community they will have to offer to adoptive parents the same consideration and acceptance which case work stresses as its first service to any client with full recognition of the psychological implications involved in a person's seeking help from an agency.

A similar point of view is presented by Miss Laden in her article, *The Prospective Foster Parent as Client.* Succinctly and with conviction she states the many difficulties involved in trying to "evaluate" and "diagnose" the prospective foster parent and how our confusion has led us at times to consider foster parents in

relation to the agency as "volunteer workers," "staff members," "partners-on-the-job," etc. The approach to the foster parent as a client is based on the principle, "that the purpose or function of the agency determines the content and extent of its services." This function as a starting point provides the tangible factor around which both client and worker can decide about their going on together. The case work relationship "vitalizes" the various procedures that are set up and allows the client, on his own responsibility, to accept or reject the service. To the prospective foster parent who sees her need in terms of a foster child, our concern is whether she "will be able to accept the conditions which we have set up for the care of children in our custody." The agency and its procedures are the only real and concrete things the client can feel. These the worker uses. The resulting experience will determine both for the client and the agency where each stands in relation to the foster home. We can never predict how a home will work for a particular child but it is possible to know from this homefinding procedure what is of vital importance in any foster home relationship—how foster parents can work with the agency.

Some of the other articles treat of work with parents in placement, helping the very young child, and helping a child in placement take clinic treatment. Mr. Hanlon's paper will be of particular interest to men in the child placing field which has only recently seen fit to employ men in the case work job. Mrs. Lindenberg's article on helping a child with syphilis take treatment is a record of skilful and sympathetic handling. Almena Dowley likewise offers a brilliant summary of work with a Negro child.

All of these papers illustrate again this important point—that a client can be helped to assume responsibility in accepting the service the agency is set up to give. Social workers as well as lay people often shudder at the idea that a child can have a real part in meeting the demands of placement or medical treatment in view of the pain and difficulty involved. But it is this assumption of the child's helplessness which leads to taking over a complete responsibility by the adult or worker of the child's treatment with utter disregard for the consideration that the child's attitude and acceptance of the service are the real factors in movement. Mrs. Lindenberg brings this out forcefully in connection with syphilis treatment which is in a sense authoritative and where the general attitude often is that the child will have to get the treatment "by hook or by crook". It is amazing to see how in the dynamics of the case work relationship, which uses the existing reality of the child as a starting point, so much takes place that the child itself is ready to move on toward the acceptance of treatment. We are often afraid to recognize the reality of the child's negative attitude toward the very thing we are trying to help him with. Sympathizing with a child going through a painful experience is not sufficient. Giving support is basic in any case work relationship, but it is harnessing the energy expended in negative behavior around placement or any other function

which results in movement and acceptance for the client. In other words, it is the dynamics of the interrelationship which takes place between the child, workers, and agency, that enables the child to accept his situation. Such movement is truly dynamic and not the result of frustration or resignation.

The remaining papers deal with the child and the community. Of special interest is Miss Brownell's article. She traces historically the different forms of child care organized by religious, fraternal and political groups and how these forms are inevitably geared to the needs of the groups themselves. One of the limitations of the volume is the lack of sufficient emphasis on the part the worker, as a person, plays in the case work relationship. It is accepted by the authors that professionally trained persons can work best with a client and that it is through the worker that the function becomes a vital and dynamic factor in growth. But no matter how accepting a worker can be of this job, the intangible factors which make one individual different from another will always play their part in the case work relationship. The important thing then is for workers to recognize their differences and limitations in the utilization of their function. The latter thus becomes a unifying and tangible force giving direction in the work with the client.

There is a stimulating freshness about the Journal as a whole because it presents in written form a way of working which has met with success in the case work field. It is heartening to find a community which has pioneered in defining the actual day-to-day job based on a unique and distinctive point of view. There have been entirely too few such discussions in the field.

WILLIAM POSNER

CRIME AND SOCIETY: AN INTRODUCTION TO CRIMINOLOGY, by Nathaniel F. Cantor. Henry Holt and Company, 1939. 459 *pp.,* $3.00.

The distinguished author of *Crime, Criminals and Criminal Justice* has again made an outstanding contribution to current thinking in the field of prevention and control of delinquency and criminal behavior. An important feature of the present volume is the fact that the author has plumbed deeply into the basic philosophies and attitudes, as well as practices, in the field of criminology and crime control. However, the most outstanding contribution is its integrative approach to the total problem.

In this book, there is no effort to ride any hobby-horse. Neither economic nor human perversity, psychology nor law are in the ascendancy. Crime and its treatment is viewed as the outcome of conditions as man finds them, as response to existing pressures. The various problems of criminology in relation to each other are viewed by Professor Cantor in the total social setting. An integration of very complicated matters is made in highly skillful manner.

The approach and the method is rigidly scientific. The material at hand, as it exists in actual situations in America today, is carefully analyzed. Three ways of approaching the question are outlined: (a) What to do, (b) How to stop doing things which are false, (c) The limits within which the complex job of criminology can be carried on.

It is refreshing to read a work which deals fundamentally with sociology and human psychology, in which so many fields of coincidence and parallelism are pointed out, particularly in the physical, biological and social sciences. From a wide background of knowledge in many fields and evident serious and profound thinking, the author is able to inter-relate the forces that produce deviant human behavior. It is rather helpful, too, to find a book that indicates not only existing practices, but that indicates also rational techniques and methods of punishment and control.

Throughout the volume, Professor Cantor insists that the case method is the only suitable practice for an intelligent criminological system. He emphasizes, and rightly so, that no generalities are valid or helpful to meet the problem. There are no categories that suit the average. In fact, Professor Cantor vigorously attacks the concept of "average" as applied to individuals. "The correcting of the individual is an individual matter," he writes, "and the individual must be approached as such . . . in the living, concrete world of men and women, there are no actual 'average' situations or 'average' people or 'average' behavior. 'Average' is an abstract mathematical term, which refers to the common factors abstracted from living situations and which ignores the vital unique differences which make the particular situation just what it is."

The author also relates his special field of interest to logic, philosophy, as well as to the biological and social sciences, to illustrate and emphasize his conclusion. This further adds to the richness of the volume at hand. Professor Cantor is completely in accord with the modern view that the criminal is not a sinner, who must be punished, but an individual whose activities must be regulated by the legal representatives of society. The difference, he insists, lies in the moral as against the scientific approach. Although *Crime and Society* deals largely with historical and factual aspects of crime and punishment, it is dominated by the psychological and psychiatric approaches. In fact, the author suggests a disposition tribunal, in which "behavior experts" would be predominant, as against the legalistic disposition of deviant and so-called criminal behavior. The intelligent reader will welcome Professor Cantor's insistence upon a system of law that limits discretional apprehension and punishment by the police and judges. Being thoroughly convinced of the efficacy and hopefulness of the democratic procedure, the author holds that no opportunity should be given for autocratic application of personal bias and hostility on the part of those in authority. He recognizes that the administration of law democratically is a devious, complicated, and expensive method. But he, as

well as other enlightened people, prefer this inefficiency to the hazards that attend the autocratic method.

At several points, the author discusses the discretional powers of judges and police in totalitarian states. One is impressed with the danger of discretional power in criminology. We have no doubt that Professor Cantor would agree that, when the right person uses discretional power, it would be an advantage. But, people being what they are, it is not safe for many of us, if undefined authority were given, and unrestricted punishment made possible.

The book is really written as an introductory textbook. But it is more than that. It is a brilliant analysis of human culture, psychology, psychiatry, mental hygiene, education, as well as criminological philosophy and practices. It should be enlightening to the average person who is interested in society from this particular angle. This book can therefore be recommended not only to specialists in the subject, but to the average reader as well.

S. R. SLAVSON

PROBLEMS OF ADMINISTRATION IN SOCIAL WORK, by Pierce Atwater. University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1940. 319 *pp.* $3.50.

The recent head of the St. Paul Community Chest, and the present director of the Chicago Community Fund, presents an extremely readable and splendidly organized volume which fills a long felt need in social work literature. It is no exaggeration to say that no administrator of a social agency—large or small, public or private—can afford to be without it. Teachers and students of social work administration will find here an invaluable text book. To a lesser degree, board members and rank-and-file social workers will find it useful in understanding the problems, responsibilities and limitations of an executive.

That there are certain broad principles of administration that apply in social work as in business is doubtless true; just as it is true that certain other broad principles apply both in the fields of administration and case work. But the differences are by far larger and more important, especially as one gets down to the more special and detailed aspects of the job. A successful administrator must have fairly intimate knowledge of his field of social work, be familiar with its standards, objectives and methods. The time is fast disappearing when a clergyman, lawyer or businessman is regarded as necessarily possessing the qualification of a good social agency executive.

It is from this point of view that Mr. Atwater discusses the subject in 18 chapters, grouped under the following sections: (1) Personal Problems of the Executive, (2) Day-to-Day Administrative Problems, (3) Broad Problems of Administration, (4) Field Training for Administration. The author has no special philosophy of administration and no particular thesis to defend, and for this

reason the book does not lend itself to brief summarization. Its value lies rather in its discussion of every policy, practice or attitude that seems to have a bearing on administration—whether it is the subject of second hand office furniture, relations with unions, central planning or client attitudes.

Although the last section, field training for administration, is the shortest in the book, it calls for emphasis because the problem is handled far from adequately at present by the schools of social work. The author points to the fact of so many men and women placed in administrative positions are ill prepared for their responsibilities. Even practitioners who are not expected to become administrators would profit from this experience in a better understanding of what the administrator's job involves. "In carrying out their program for better professional status, they (the practitioners) often display so gross a misconception of executive controls as to be extremely irritating. The mature administrators lose patience, with some excuse, and what they say is just as offensive to the practitioners. It needs to be pointed out that this conflict is dangerous to the profession, as a whole, and if any possibility exists of improving the relationship by more effective training methods, every effort should be made to do so" (p. 292). Mr. Atwater outlines a fairly detailed program for field work for both nominal and intensive specialization in administration. Agencies and schools would do well to study this program.

HAROLD SILVER

INTEGRATING THE CAMP, THE COMMUNITY AND SOCIAL WORK, by Lowell J. Carr, Mildred A. Valentine and Marshal H. Levy. Association Press, 1939, 220 *pp.* $2.00.

The authors of this timely volume, all of whom are actively engaged in social work in Michigan, ask the question: "Why do boys continue to get into trouble in spite of the character building and guidance agencies in the typical American community?" They sought to discover whether it was because there were too few such agencies, or if those that exist are inadequately equipped for the purpose they are supposed to serve or because of the lack of coordination and integration of these agencies to accomplish their common end.

Ann Arbor, Michigan, was selected as the locus of the experiment and a selected group was chosen consisting of 88 boys who had proved hard to handle through the ordinary mediums. The results were appraised over a three year period against a comparable group of boys who did not have special treatment. The project started at the University Fresh Air Camp near Ann Arbor, where the boys went for an eight week diagnostic period. When the group returned to the city their cabin counselors returned with them and began the long course of companionship and personal guidance that constituted the heart of the experiment. The

agencies in the community, courts, social service agencies and schools were used instead of setting up a new organization.

The approach of social therapy was stressed in which the worker's function towards his client is one of participation rather than treatment. The camp was used as a diagnostic station and boys continued during the year in "normal" groups and "normal" community situations. This involved combining the case work approach with group work technique. The experiment struck difficulties chief among which were the shrinkage of the original groups and the emergence of new and serious behavior problems in the three year period.

The counselors, who did the major job of working with the boys, were selected from university students. Their personalities were outstanding and therefore they were equipped to play an important role in the work. It is to be questioned whether university students were adequately trained and experienced to do an effective case and group work job with the boys. On the average, while in the city, the counselors spent one third of their time in contact with the boys, one third in the home and the balance on research. Comparisons were made between the families of the subjects in several categories. These indicated that the most maladjusted children came from families having the highest deviation scores.

The camp program was an important means of affecting the behavior of the study group and the writers describe in some detail the camp program and cite instances to indicate the counselor's role in treatment.

The experiment also statistically demonstrates that the summer camp, instead of merely providing an escape from the city, can become, when properly staffed and directed, an agency for diagnosis of behavior difficulties. The authors make the error of suggesting that all short term camps be thrown out as valueless when compared with the product of the long term camp. Fortunately, social workers who work with children will not subscribe to this philosophy. The short term camp is of great value for the normal child who is too often neglected because of his normalcy. It is likewise true, that far-reaching results can be expected if, instead of handling cases in an office, the guidance clinic staff were to spend the summer living with them under camp conditions.

MORDECAI KESSLER