

GLOBAL
EDITION



Criminal Behavior

A Psychological Approach

ELEVENTH EDITION

Curt R. Bartol • Anne M. Bartol

CAUTION CAUTION C



Pearson

Eleventh Edition

Global Edition

CRIMINAL BEHAVIOR

A PSYCHOLOGICAL APPROACH

This page intentionally left blank

Eleventh Edition

Global Edition

CRIMINAL BEHAVIOR

A PSYCHOLOGICAL APPROACH

Curt R. Bartol, PhD

Anne M. Bartol, PhD



Pearson

Harlow, England • London • New York • Boston • San Francisco • Toronto • Sydney • Dubai • Singapore • Hong Kong
Tokyo • Seoul • Taipei • New Delhi • Cape Town • Sao Paulo • Mexico City • Madrid • Amsterdam • Munich • Paris • Milan

Editorial Director: Andrew Gilfillan
Senior Acquisitions Editor: Gary Bauer
Editorial Assistant: Lynda Cramer
Director of Marketing: David Gesell
Marketing Manager: Thomas Hayward
Product Marketing Manager: Kaylee Carlson
Marketing Assistant: Les Roberts
Program Manager: Tara Horton
Project Manager Team Lead: Bryan Pirrmann
Project Manager: Patricia Gutierrez
Project Manager, Global Edition: Ruchi Sachdev
Senior Acquisitions Editor, Global Edition:
Sandhya Ghoshal
Senior Project Editor, Global Edition: Daniel Luiz
Project Editor, Global Edition: Rahul Arora

Manager, Media Production, Global Edition:
M. Vikram Kumar
**Senior Manufacturing Controller, Production,
Global Edition:** Trudy Kimber
Operations Specialist: Deidra Smith
Creative Director: Andrea Nix
Art Director: Diane Ernsberger
Manager, Product Strategy: Sara Eilert
Product Strategy Manager: Anne Rynearson
Team Lead, Media Development & Production: Rachel Collett
Media Project Manager: Maura Barclay
Cover Designer: Lumina Datamatics, Inc.
Cover Image: batphotos/Shutterstock
Full-Service Project Management: Integra Software Services, Inc.
Composition: Integra Software Services, Inc.

Credits and acknowledgments borrowed from other sources and reproduced, with permission, in this textbook appear on the appropriate page within the text.

Acknowledgements of third party content appear on page with the borrowed material, which constitutes an extension of this copyright page.

Unless otherwise indicated herein, any third-party trademarks that may appear in this work are the property of their respective owners and any references to third-party trademarks, logos or other trade dress are for demonstrative or descriptive purposes only. Such references are not intended to imply any sponsorship, endorsement, authorization, or promotion of Pearson's products by the owners of such marks, or any relationship between the owner and Pearson Education, Inc. or its affiliates, authors, licensees or distributors.

Pearson Education Limited
Edinburgh Gate
Harlow
Essex CM20 2JE
England

and Associated Companies throughout the world

Visit us on the World Wide Web at:
www.pearsonglobaleditions.com

© Pearson Education Limited 2017

The rights of Curt R Bartol and Anne M. Bartol to be identified as the authors of this work have been asserted by them in accordance with the Copyright, Designs and Patents Act 1988.

Authorized adaptation from the United States edition, entitled Criminal Behavior: A Psychological Approach, 11th edition, ISBN 978-0-13-416374-1, by Curt R. Bartol and Anne M. Bartol, published by Pearson Education © 2017.

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise, without either the prior written permission of the publisher or a license permitting restricted copying in the United Kingdom issued by the Copyright Licensing Agency Ltd, Saffron House, 6–10 Kirby Street, London EC1N 8TS.

All trademarks used herein are the property of their respective owners. The use of any trademark in this text does not vest in the author or publisher any trademark ownership rights in such trademarks, nor does the use of such trademarks imply any affiliation with or endorsement of this book by such owners.

ISBN 10: 1-292-15771-2
ISBN 13: 978-1-292-15771-9

British Library Cataloguing-in-Publication Data
A catalogue record for this book is available from the British Library.

10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1
14 13 12 11 10

Typeset in 11/13 Times LT Pro by Integra.
Printed and bound in Vivar, Malaysia.

To Shannon

For the love, fun, beauty, and sheer joy you bring to our lives.

CONTENTS

Preface 19

Chapter 1 INTRODUCTION TO CRIMINAL BEHAVIOR 23

<i>Chapter Objectives</i>	23
<i>Theories of Crime</i>	24
<i>Theoretical Perspectives on Human Nature</i>	26
<i>Disciplinary Perspectives in Criminology</i>	28
Sociological Criminology	29
Psychological Criminology	30
■ BOX 1-1: Hate or Bias Crimes	30
Psychiatric Criminology	32
<i>Defining and Measuring Crime</i>	34
Uniform Crime Reporting System	34
■ BOX 1-2: The Problem of Internet-Facilitated Crime	39
Self-Report Studies	41
Victimization Surveys	43
<i>Juvenile Delinquency</i>	45
<i>Recap: Defining Crime and Delinquency</i>	46
<i>Summary and Conclusions</i>	48
Key Concepts	49
Review Questions	49

Chapter 2 ORIGINS OF CRIMINAL BEHAVIOR: DEVELOPMENTAL RISK FACTORS 50

<i>Chapter Objectives</i>	50
<i>Cumulative Risk Model</i>	51
<i>Developmental Cascade Model</i>	52
<i>Social Environment Risk Factors</i>	54
Poverty	54
Peer Rejection and Association with Antisocial Peers	55
Preschool Experiences	58
After-School Care	59
Academic Failure	59
<i>Parental and Family Risk Factors</i>	60
Single-Parent Households	60
Parental Styles and Practices	61
Parental Monitoring	64
■ BOX 2-1: Monitoring, Middle School, and Family Relationships	64
Influence of Siblings	66
Parental Psychopathology	66
<i>Psychological Risk Factors</i>	67
Lack of Attachment	67

Lack of Empathy	68	
Cognitive and Language Deficiencies	70	
Intelligence and Delinquency	71	
Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder	73	
■ BOX 2-2: ADHD: Which Treatment to Use?	74	
ADHD and Criminal Behavior	75	
Conduct Disorder	76	
Oppositional Defiant Disorder	77	
<i>Summary and Conclusions</i>	78	
<i>Key Concepts</i>	80 • <i>Review Questions</i>	80

Chapter 3 ORIGINS OF CRIMINAL BEHAVIOR: BIOLOGICAL FACTORS 81

<i>Chapter Objectives</i>	81	
<i>Genetics and Antisocial Behavior</i>	82	
Behavior Genetics	82	
Studies of Twins	83	
The Twins' Early Development Study	85	
Twin Study of Child and Adolescent Development	86	
Adoption Studies	86	
Molecular Genetics	88	
<i>Psychophysiological Factors</i>	88	
Temperament	89	
<i>Environmental Risk Factors</i>	92	
Neurotoxins	92	
Lead	93	
Cadmium	94	
Manganese	95	
Mercury (Methylmercury)	95	
Protective Properties of Micronutrients	96	
Prenatal and Postnatal Malnutrition	97	
■ BOX 3-1: Malnutrition in Infants	97	
Nicotine, Alcohol, and Drug Exposure	98	
Traumatic Brain Injury	100	
Brain Development Abnormalities	101	
Hormones and Neurotransmitters	102	
<i>Neuropsychological Factors</i>	102	
<i>Summary and Conclusions</i>	103	
<i>Key Concepts</i>	104 • <i>Review Questions</i>	104

Chapter 4 ORIGINS OF CRIMINAL BEHAVIOR: LEARNING AND SITUATIONAL FACTORS 105

<i>Chapter Objectives</i>	105
<i>Behaviorism</i>	107
Skinner's Theory of Behavior	108

Behaviorism as a Method of Science	108
Behaviorism as a Perspective of Human Nature	109
Skinnerian Concepts	109
Operant Learning and Crime	110
<i>Social Learning</i>	111
Expectancy Theory	112
Imitational Aspects of Social Learning	113
Differential Association-Reinforcement Theory	114
<i>Frustration-Induced Criminality</i>	116
The Socialized and Individual Offender	116
Frustration-Induced Riots	117
Frustration and Crime	118
<i>Situational Instigators and Regulators of Criminal Behavior</i>	118
Authority as an Instigator of Criminal Behavior	119
■ BOX 4-1: National Security Interrogations—Psychology’s Role	122
Deindividuation	123
The Stanford Prison Experiment	125
The BBC Prison Study	126
Deindividuation and Crowd Violence	127
The Bystander Effect	128
■ BOX 4-2: Do Security Cameras Affect Bystander Apathy?	130
<i>Moral Disengagement</i>	131
<i>Summary and Conclusions</i>	132
Key Concepts	133
Review Questions	134

Chapter 5 HUMAN AGGRESSION AND VIOLENCE 135

<i>Chapter Objectives</i>	135
<i>Defining Aggression</i>	136
Hostile and Instrumental Aggression	137
■ BOX 5-1: Aggression in Recent High Profile Cases	137
Interpretation by Victim	139
<i>Theoretical Perspectives on Aggression</i>	139
Psychoanalytical/Psychodynamic Viewpoint	140
Ethological Viewpoints	140
Frustration-Aggression Hypothesis	141
Weapons Effect	142
Cognitive-Neoassociation Model	143
Excitation Transfer Theory	143
Displaced Aggression Theory	144
<i>Social Learning Factors in Aggression and Violence</i>	144
Modeling	145
Observation Modeling	146

<i>Cognitive Models of Aggression</i>	147
Cognitive Scripts Model	147
Hostile Attribution Model	147
■ BOX 5-2: Dealing With Anger—What Works and for Whom?	150
The General Aggression Model	151
I ³ Theory	152
<i>Overt and Covert Acts of Aggression</i>	152
Reactive and Proactive Forms of Aggression	153
Gender Differences in Aggression	154
<i>Effects of Media Violence</i>	155
Copycat Crime or Contagion Effect	158
■ BOX 5-3: Copycat Gamers	159
<i>Summary and Conclusions</i>	161
Key Concepts	162
Review Questions	163

Chapter 6 JUVENILE DELINQUENCY 164

<i>Chapter Objectives</i>	164
<i>Definitions of Delinquency</i>	165
Legal Definition	165
Social Definition	166
Psychological Definitions	166
<i>Nature and Extent of Juvenile Offending</i>	167
Status Offenses	169
The Serious Delinquent	170
Gender Differences in Juvenile Offending	170
<i>Developmental Theories of Delinquency</i>	173
Moffitt's Developmental Theory	174
■ BOX 6-1: Emerging Adulthood as a Developmental Stage	176
Steinberg's Dual Systems Model	179
Coercion Developmental Theory	180
Callous-Unemotional Trait Theory	182
<i>Prevention, Intervention, and Treatment of Juvenile Offending</i>	183
Treatment and Rehabilitation Strategies	183
Characteristics of Successful Programs	184
■ BOX 6-2: Gender Responsive Programming	185
Classification of Prevention and Treatment Programs	187
Primary Prevention	189
Selective or Secondary Prevention	190
■ BOX 6-3: The Fast Track Experiment	191
Treatment Approaches	192
<i>Summary and Conclusions</i>	197
Key Concepts	199
Review Questions	199

Chapter 7 PSYCHOPATHY 200

<i>Chapter Objectives</i>	200
<i>What Is a Psychopath?</i>	201
Antisocial Personality Disorder	201
Examples of Primary Psychopaths	202
<i>Behavioral Descriptions</i>	203
Behavioral Characteristics	204
Psychological Testing Differences	205
Psychopaths and Mental Disorders	205
Psychopaths and Suicide	205
Other Principal Traits	206
<i>The Criminal Psychopath</i>	207
Prevalence of Criminal Psychopathy	208
Offending Patterns of Criminal Psychopaths	208
Recidivism of Criminal Psychopaths	209
<i>Psychological Measures of Psychopathy</i>	209
The PCL-R	210
Criticisms of the PCL-R	211
■ BOX 7-1: Corporate Psychopaths	211
<i>Core Factors of Psychopathy</i>	212
The Two-Factor Position	212
The Three-Factor Position	213
The Four-Factor Model	213
The Boldness Factor	213
The Meanness Factor	214
<i>The Female Psychopath</i>	214
<i>Racial/Ethnic Differences</i>	215
<i>Juvenile Psychopathy</i>	216
Can Juvenile Psychopathy Be Identified?	216
■ BOX 7-2: Treating Adolescents with Psychopathic Features	217
Ethical Considerations	218
Measures of Juvenile Psychopathy	219
<i>Neurobiological Factors and Psychopathy</i>	220
Genetic Factors	220
Neuropsychology and Psychopathy	220
Central Nervous System Differences	221
Peripheral Nervous System (PNS) Research	224
Autonomic Nervous System Research	225
The Dual-Process Model of Psychopathy	228
<i>Childhood of the Psychopath</i>	229
<i>Treatment of Criminal Psychopaths</i>	230
Treatment of Children and Adolescents with Psychopathic Features	231

Summary and Conclusions 232
Key Concepts 234 • *Review Questions* 234

Chapter 8 CRIME AND MENTAL DISORDERS 235

Chapter Objectives 235
Defining Mental Illness 238
 The DSM 238
 Schizophrenia Spectrum and Other Psychotic Disorders 239
 Bipolar Disorder 240
 Major Depressive Disorder 241
 Antisocial Personality Disorder 241
 ■ **BOX 8-1: Does Serious Mental Disorder Cause Crime?** 242
Competency and Criminal Responsibility 243
 Incompetency to Stand Trial 243
 Criminal Responsibility 246
 Insanity Standards 249
 Guilty but Mentally Ill 252
Unique Defenses and Conditions 253
 Posttraumatic Stress Disorder 253
 Dissociation 255
 Dissociative Identity Disorder 256
 Dissociative Amnesia 257
Mental Disorder and Violence 258
 Research on the Violence of the Mentally Disordered 259
 The MacArthur Research Network 260
 Police and the Mentally Disordered 261
 Mentally Disordered Inmates 261
Dangerousness and the Assessment of Risk 263
 The Tarasoff Case 263
 Violence Risk Factors and Measures 265
Summary and Conclusions 267
Key Concepts 268 • *Review Questions* 268

Chapter 9 HOMICIDE, ASSAULT, AND INTIMATE PARTNER AND FAMILY VIOLENCE 269

Chapter Objectives 269
Definitions 271
 Criminal Homicide 272
 Aggravated Assault 273
Demographic and Other Factors of Homicide 273
 Race/Ethnicity 274
 Gender 274
 Age 275
 Socioeconomic Status 275

- Circumstances 275
- Weapons 275
 - BOX 9-1: Guns, Crime, and Cumulative Risk 277
- Psychological Aspects of Criminal Homicide* 278
 - General Altercation Homicide 279
 - Felony Commission Homicides 280
 - Juvenile Homicide Offenders 281
 - BOX 9-2: Boys, Girls, and Homicide: Why and How Do They Do It? 282
 - Psychological Characteristics of Juvenile Murderers 282
 - Treatment of Juveniles Who Kill 284
- Intimate Partner Violence* 284
 - IPV among Older Adults 286
 - IPV among Hispanics 286
 - Same Sex or Nonheterosexual IPV 287
 - IPV within Law Enforcement and Military Families 288
 - Psychological and Demographic Characteristics of Abusers 289
- Family Violence* 290
 - Prevalence 291
 - Victims 291
 - Child Maltreatment 293
 - Missing, Abducted, Runaway, and Throwaway Children 295
 - Munchausen Syndrome by Proxy 296
 - Abusive Head Trauma 297
- Infanticide* 298
 - Neonaticide 298
 - Filicide 299
 - Elderly Abuse 300
 - Sibling-to-Sibling Violence 302
 - Child-to-Parent Violence 303
 - Multiassaultive Families 304
 - The Cycle of Violence 305
 - The Effects of Family Violence on Children 306
- Summary and Conclusions* 307
 - Key Concepts* 308 • *Review Questions* 309

Chapter 10 MULTIPLE MURDER, SCHOOL AND WORKPLACE VIOLENCE 310

- Chapter Objectives* 310
- Investigative Psychology* 311
- Forms of Profiling* 312
 - Psychological Profiling 312
 - Suspect-Based Profiling 313
 - Geographical Profiling 313

Crime Scene Profiling	314
Equivocal Death Analysis	319
<i>Multiple Murders</i>	320
Definitions	321
<i>Serial Murders</i>	322
Choice of Victims and <i>Modus Operandi</i>	323
Geographical Location of Serial Killing	324
Ethnic and Racial Characteristics	324
Risk Factors and Psychological Motives	325
Research on Backgrounds	325
Female Serial Killers	326
Juvenile Serial Killers	327
<i>Mass Murderers</i>	327
Public Mass Shootings	328
A Mass Murder Typology	330
<i>School Violence</i>	332
School Shootings	333
■ BOX 10-1: Safety Drills in Schools: Unanticipated Consequences	334
Psychological Characteristics of School Shooters	336
<i>Workplace Violence</i>	337
Categories of Workplace Violence	338
Perpetrators of Workplace Violence	341
<i>Summary and Conclusions</i>	342
Key Concepts	343
Review Questions	344

Chapter 11 PSYCHOLOGY OF MODERN TERRORISM 345

<i>Chapter Objectives</i>	345
<i>Definitions and Examples</i>	347
<i>Classification of Terrorist Groups</i>	350
<i>A Terrorist Typology</i>	352
<i>Followers and Leaders: Who Joins and Who Leads</i>	352
Why Do They Join?	353
Quest for Significance Theory	354
Terror Management Theory	355
Suicidal Terrorism	355
Becoming a Terrorist: The Process of Radicalization	356
Terrorist Leaders	357
<i>Lone Wolf Terrorists</i>	358
Boston Marathon Bombers	359
■ BOX 11-1: The Marathon Bombing and Beyond	359
Fort Hood Shooter	360
The Times Square Bombing Attempt	360
<i>The Psychosocial Context of Terrorism</i>	362

Terrorist Motives and Justifications 363
 Additional Disengagement Practices 364
Psychological Effects and Nature of Terrorism 365
 Cognitive Restructuring 365
 Moral Development 365
Summary and Conclusions 368
 Key Concepts 369 • Review Questions 369

Chapter 12 Sexual Assault 370

Chapter Objectives 370
Definitions and Statistics 371
 Sexual Assault in Date and Acquaintance Relationships 373
 ■ BOX 12-1: Campus Sexual Assault 374
 Incidence and Prevalence of Rape 375
Impact of Sexual Assault on Survivors 376
 Psychological Effects 376
 Physical Injury 377
Sexual Assault Vulnerability Factors 378
 Situational Factors 378
 Location 378
 Age of Victims 378
 Relationship Factors 379
 Consumption of Alcohol 379
 History of Victimization 379
 Risk Taking Behaviors 379
Characteristics of Sexual Offenders: Who Offends? 380
 Ages of Sex Offenders 381
 Recidivism and Offending History 381
 Applying Crime Scene Analysis to Predictions of Recidivism 382
 Attitudes and Myths That Support Rape and Other Sexual Assaults 384
 Cognitive-Perceptual Distortions in Communication 385
 The Influence of Pornography 385
Classification of Rape Patterns 387
 Massachusetts Treatment Center Classification System 388
 ■ BOX 12-2: Sexual Burglary 390
 The MTC:R3 390
 MTC Version 4 392
 The Groth Typology 393
Treatment of Sex Offenders 394
Summary and Conclusions 396
 Key Concepts 397 • Review Questions 397

Chapter 13 SEXUAL ABUSE OF CHILDREN AND YOUTH 398*Chapter Objectives 398**Incidence and Prevalence of Child Sex Abuse 400*■ **BOX 13-1: Sexual Abuse: The Shame of Juvenile Corrections 401**

Situational and Victimization Characteristics 403

Incest 405

Types of Sexual Contact 405

*Psychological Effects of Child Sexual Victimization 406**Characteristics of Child Sex Offenders 406*

Age and Gender 407

Selection of Victims 408

Backgrounds 408

Interpersonal and Intimacy Deficits 409

Cognitive Distortions 410

Neurocognitive Functions 410

Recidivism and Risk Assessment 411

Risk Assessment 412

Classification of Male Child Sex Offender Patterns 413

The MTC:CM3 414

The Groth Classification Model 416

Female Sex Offender Typology 417

Internet-Facilitated Sexual Offending 418

Who Are the Offenders? 418

Who Are the Child Victims? 419

Online Sex Offenders Interested in Adolescents 420

*Sex Trafficking 420**Treatment of Child Sex Offenders 421**Summary and Conclusions 423**Key Concepts 424 • Review Questions 424***Chapter 14 BURGLARY, HOME INVASIONS, THEFTS,
AND "WHITE-COLLAR" OFFENSES 425***Chapter Objectives 425**Burglary 427*

Characteristics of Burglary 427

Who Commits Burglary? 428

Burglary Cues and Selected Targets 429

Burglar Cognitive Processes 430

Entry Strategies 431

How Far Do Burglars Travel? 432

Gender Differences in Methods and Patterns 432

Property Taken and Disposed 432

Motives	434
Burglar Typologies	435
Psychological Impact of Burglary	436
Home Invasions	437
<i>Larceny and Motor Vehicle Theft</i>	438
Motor Vehicle Theft	438
<i>Fraud and Identity Theft</i>	439
■ BOX 14-1: Identity Theft—Anyone Can Be Victimized	440
<i>Shoplifting</i>	442
Who Shoplifts?	444
Motives	446
Shoplifting by Proxy	447
Shoplifting as an Occupation	447
Methods of Shoplifting	448
Kleptomania: Fact or Fiction?	448
<i>White-Collar and Occupational Crime</i>	449
Green's Four Categories of Occupational Crime	450
■ BOX 14-2: Political Crimes—Unexamined Issues	451
Prevalence and Incidence of Occupational Crime	452
Corporate Crime	452
Justifications and Neutralizations	454
Individual Occupational Crime	455
Employee Theft	455
<i>Summary and Conclusions</i>	457
Key Concepts	458
Review Questions	458

Chapter 15 VIOLENT ECONOMIC CRIME, CYBERCRIME, AND CRIMES OF INTIMIDATION 459

<i>Chapter Objectives</i>	459
<i>Robbery</i>	460
Bank Robbery	461
Amateurs and Professionals	462
Commercial Robbery	464
Street Robbery	464
Motives and Cultural Influences	465
Robbery by Groups	466
<i>Cybercrime</i>	467
■ BOX 15-1: Cybercrime—Heists and Intrusions	468
Privacy Concerns and Cybercrime Laws	469
Psychological Characteristics of Cybercriminals	470
<i>Stalking</i>	471
Categories of Stalking	472
Cyberstalking	473
Cyberbullying	474

<i>Hostage-Taking Offenses</i>	476
Instrumental and Expressive Hostage Taking	476
FBI Categories of Hostage Taking	476
Strategies for Dealing with Hostage Takers	478
The Stockholm Syndrome	479
Rules for Hostages to Follow	479
<i>Arson</i>	481
Incidence and Prevalence	481
Developmental Stages of Firesetting	482
Persistent and Repetitive Firesetting among Adults	483
Female Arsonists	484
Behavioral Typologies and Trajectories	485
Psychological Disorders	486
<i>Summary and Conclusions</i>	487
Key Concepts	488 • Review Questions 488

Chapter 16 SUBSTANCE ABUSE AND CRIME 489

<i>Chapter Objectives</i>	489
<i>Juvenile Drug Use</i>	490
Who Is Selling to Juveniles?	492
Gender Differences in Juvenile Drug Use	493
<i>Consistent Findings on Illicit Drug Use</i>	493
Tripartite Conceptual Model	496
<i>Major Categories of Drugs</i>	497
Tolerance and Dependence	498
<i>The Hallucinogens</i>	499
Marijuana	499
How Is Marijuana Prepared?	500
Synthetic Marijuana	501
Synthetic Cathinones	502
Salvia	502
Cannabis and Crime	502
Phencyclidine (PCP)	504
PCP and Crime	504
<i>The Stimulants</i>	504
Amphetamines	504
Methamphetamine	505
Other Stimulants with Similar Effects	505
Cocaine and Its Derivatives	506
Psychological Effects	507
Adverse Physical Effects	507
Stimulants and Crime	507
Crack Cocaine	508

Crack and Crime	509
MDMA (Ecstasy or Molly)	509
<i>Narcotic Drugs</i>	<i>510</i>
Heroin	510
■ BOX 16-1: Prescription Medications: Fraudulent Distribution	511
Heroin and Crime	512
Fentanyl	513
Other Narcotic Drugs	513
OxyContin® and Vicodin®	513
OxyContin®, Vicodin®, and Crime	514
<i>The Club Drugs: Sedative Hypnotic Compounds</i>	<i>514</i>
Ketamine	515
Gamma Hydroxybutyrate (GHB)	515
Rohypnol	516
<i>Alcohol</i>	<i>516</i>
Psychological Effects	517
Alcohol, Crime, and Delinquency	518
<i>Substance Abuse and Violence</i>	<i>519</i>
<i>Summary and Conclusions</i>	<i>520</i>
<i>Key Concepts</i>	<i>522</i>
<i>Review Questions</i>	<i>522</i>
<i>Glossary</i>	<i>523</i>
<i>Cases Cited</i>	<i>536</i>
<i>References</i>	<i>537</i>
<i>Author Index</i>	<i>631</i>
<i>Subject Index</i>	<i>655</i>

PREFACE

In this text we focus on criminal behavior and antisocial behavior (because antisocial behavior is not always criminal) from a psychological perspective. More specifically, adults and juveniles who violate the law or who act antisocially are portrayed as embedded in and continually influenced by multiple systems within the psychosocial environment. Meaningful theory, well-executed research, and skillful application of knowledge to the “crime problem” require an understanding of the many levels of events that influence a person’s life course—from the individual to the individual’s family, peers, schools, neighborhoods, community, culture, and society as a whole.

The psychological study of crime has taken a decidedly developmental approach, while retaining its interest in cognitive-based explanations for antisocial behavior. Scholars from various academic disciplines have engaged in pathways-to-crime research, for example. A very common conclusion is that there are multiple developmental pathways to criminal offending; some begin to offend very early while others begin offending in adulthood. In addition, a variety of risk factors enable antisocial behavior, and protective factors insulate the individual from such behavior. The pathways approach does not always focus on psychological factors, but it coexists very well with psychological theories of child and adolescent development. In addition to developmental and cognitive research, much contemporary work is focusing on biopsychology and crime, or the way in which a range of genetic and biological factors may affect one’s behavior, particularly aggressive behavior.

We do not consider all offenders psychologically flawed, and only some have diagnosable mental illnesses or disorders. Persons with serious mental disorders sometimes commit crimes, but the vast majority do not, and crimes that are committed by the mentally disordered are most typically minor offenses. The exceptional cases, such as some mass murders or other particularly shocking crimes, attract media attention and lead many people to draw unwarranted conclusions about the dangerousness of the mentally ill. Many offenders do have substance abuse problems and these may co-occur with mental disorders. In addition, emotionally healthy people break the law, and sometimes emotionally healthy people end up on probation or in jails and prisons. Like the earlier editions of this book, the 11th edition views the criminal offender as existing on a continuum, ranging from the occasional offender who offends at some point during the life course, usually during adolescence, to the serious, repetitive offender who usually begins his or her criminal career at a very early age, or the one-time, serious offender.

The book reviews contemporary research, theory, and practice concerning the psychology of crime as completely and accurately as possible. The very long list of references at the end of the book should attest to its comprehensive nature. Nevertheless, it is impossible to do justice to the wide swath of behavior that is defined as crime, nor to the many models and approaches used in studying it. We have selected representative crimes and representative research. If your favorite crime, theory, model, or prevention or treatment program is not found here, we hope you will still appreciate what is offered.

An early chapter sets the stage by defining crime and describing how it is measured. It is important to stress that crime rates in the United States have gone down for most serious offenses, something which rarely comes to public attention. Then, the book is organized from broad to specific content. Early chapters discuss individual and social risk factors, developmental principles, and the psychology of aggression, including its biological basis. We include a complete chapter on psychopathy, because it remains arguably one of the most heavily researched topics in the psychology of crime. The specific crimes covered in the latter part of the book are both very common ones and crimes that are rare but attract media and research attention because of their serious nature.

NEW TO THIS EDITION

The 11th edition was completed with the help of extensive reviews of the previous edition. The most significant changes reflect recent theoretical developments and models in criminology as well as ongoing psychological research on specific topics and offenses. Every chapter includes updated citations and illustrations. We have retained the 16-chapter structure used in the past few editions. However, some topics have been deleted and others added, as we explain below.

- We have provided more coverage of contemporary antisocial behavior, including crimes that are facilitated by the Internet, such as cyberstalking and cyberbullying, as well as cybercrimes like computer intrusions.
- Several changes in UCR definitions are relevant to the gathering of statistics and the measurement of crime. They are indicated in the early chapters of the book.
- The chapter on individual risk factors includes information about specific environmental toxins (e.g., lead, cadmium, mercury, manganese) that can negatively affect brain development in young children.
- Two sex offending chapters have been revised extensively. This required the updating of information on the dominant sex offender classification systems and addressing sex offender typologies.
- All material relating to the DSM is updated to conform to its latest edition, the DSM-5. Diagnoses that are relevant to discussions of mental disorder and crime comport with diagnoses listed in the DSM.
- Early in the book we discuss cumulative risk and developmental cascade models, and reiterate throughout the book that risk factors for antisocial behavior both accumulate and interact with one another in a dynamic fashion during the life course.
- Material on juveniles continues to form a separate chapter, but it is also interspersed throughout the text in sections of many chapters (e.g., juvenile substance abuse, sex offenders, juveniles who kill).
- Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) is discussed in a separate section of the chapter that also includes family violence, to reflect increasing research interest in this area. This edition covers IPV in specific populations, such as the elderly, non-heterosexual couples, and law enforcement and military families.
- In addition to cumulative risk and dynamic cascade models, several other models are highlighted, including Steinberg's dual systems model of adolescent brain development, the dual-process model of psychopathy, and the three-path model of sexual offending. While new general theories of criminal behavior have not been proposed, new models for illustrating theoretical concepts have appeared and are recognized when relevant.
- New models of why people join terrorist groups and act as lone wolves are introduced in the chapter on terrorism.
- Material on substance abuse and crime has been substantially updated to encompass ongoing changes in substance use patterns and dangers therein.
- Every chapter includes at least one box, and most often two. Box topics were chosen thematically: the boxes either illustrate a contemporary issue (e.g., Internet-facilitated crime), a research project (e.g., research on bystander apathy), or a program (e.g., treatment program for juvenile sex offenders). As a pedagogical aid, boxes include questions for discussion.

In addition to the boxes, pedagogical materials include 68 tables, all of which are either author-created or available from public documents, and 16 figures. As for other recent editions, chapter objectives are listed at the beginning of each chapter, and key concepts and review questions are included at the end.

The book includes updated examples and illustrations of the crimes and concepts being discussed, but retains illustrations of some past events that reflect many of the psychological

concepts discussed (e.g., hostage taking, school shootings; sniper events). However, over half of the examples used refer to significant recent events, such as cases involving the insanity defense, mass murders, acts of terrorism, and corporate crime.

In addition to the above listed new features, the eleventh edition includes:

- More attention to female offending.
- More information on prescription drug abuse, especially among juveniles.
- Greater coverage of the role of neuropsychological factors in the development of antisocial behavior.
- Better presentation of structured professional judgment in risk assessment approaches.
- More emphasis on the importance of pre-school experiences for preventing antisocial behavior.

Readers familiar with previous recent editions of the text also may want to take note of the following:

As in the last two editions, there is less information on the juvenile justice process and the history of juvenile justice, and there is little delinquency material in Chapter 1. As noted above, however, a separate chapter is devoted to research on pathways to delinquency, and juvenile-related material is found in many other chapters. We have removed sections on boot camps for juveniles in favor of more coverage of evidence-based programs like Multisystemic Therapy, Functional Family Therapy, and the closely watched Fast Track experiment.

Also as in the 10th edition, we did not discuss some sex offenses such as prostitution and exhibitionism, nor did we cover in detail psychologically relevant issues relating to prisons and jails, such as violence, the effects of overcrowding, or conditions of confinement. Likewise, little attention is given to political crimes committed by agents of government, although we have included a box on this topic. Nevertheless, in light of their continued importance, we hope professors will find a way to incorporate some of these topics in their course content.

Criminal Behavior is designed to be a core text in undergraduate and graduate courses in criminal behavior, criminology, the psychology of crime, crime and delinquency, and forensic psychology. The material contained in this book was classroom-tested for over 30 years. Its emphasis on psychological theory and concepts makes it distinctive from other fine textbooks on crime, many of which are more sociologically based. The book's major goal is to encourage an appreciation of the many complex issues surrounding criminal behavior by citing relevant, contemporary research.

Once again, we have benefited from the encouragement and help of many individuals in completing this very long project. We cherish our main sources of emotional support—Gina, Ian, Soraya, Jim, Kai, Maddie, Darya, and Shannon. They are always there for us, and we continue to be awed by their goodness, their wit, their fun-loving spirit, the love they display, and their many accomplishments in so many different realms.

On the professional side, we are most grateful to the management, production, and distribution staff at Pearson Education/Prentice Hall, particularly Executive Editor Gary Bauer and his assistants Holly and Tara; Project Manager Susan Hannahs; Valerie Iglar-Mobley; Patricia Gutierrez; Marketing Coordinator Elizabeth Mackenzie Lamb; and editorial assistant Lynda Cramer. Philip Alexander and Sivakumar Krishnamoorthy, Project Managers at Integra Software Services led us to the finish line in a patient and professional manner.

Finally, we wish to acknowledge the following professors and scholars who reviewed the 10th edition of the book and provided many helpful suggestions for improvement: Larry Bench, University of Utah; Tomasina Cook, Erie Community College; Phyllis Gerstenfeld, California State University—Stanislaus; Edward Keane, Housatonic Community College; Kelly Roth, McCann School of Business & Technology; Christopher Salvatore, Montclair State University; Jeffrey Segal, College of Saint Elizabeth; and Ben Stevenson, University of Maryland University College. Our sincere thanks to all.

Curt R. Bartol
Anne M. Bartol

For their work on the Global Edition, Pearson would like to thank Bobby K. Cheon, Nanyang Technological University; Bruce Gillmer, Northumberland Tyne & Wear NHS Foundation Trust; Ashum Gupta; Pooja Thakur; and Manchong Limlunthang Zou, University of Delhi.

INSTRUCTOR SUPPLEMENTS

Instructor's Manual with Test Bank. Includes content outlines for classroom discussion, teaching suggestions, and answers to selected end-of-chapter questions from the text. This also contains a Word document version of the test bank.

TestGen. This computerized test generation system gives you maximum flexibility in creating and administering tests on paper, electronically, or online. It provides state-of-the-art features for viewing and editing test bank questions, dragging a selected question into a test you are creating, and printing sleek, formatted tests in a variety of layouts. Select test items from test banks included with TestGen for quick test creation, or write your own questions from scratch. TestGen's random generator provides the option to display different text or calculated number values each time questions are used.

PowerPoint Presentations. Our presentations offer clear, straightforward outlines and notes to use for class lectures or study materials. Photos, illustrations, charts, and tables from the book are included in the presentations when applicable.

To access supplementary materials online, instructors need to request an instructor access code. Go to www.pearsonglobaleditions.com/bartol, where you can register for an instructor access code. Within 48 hours after registering, you will receive a confirming email, including an instructor access code. Once you have received your code, go to the site and log on for full instructions on downloading the materials you wish to use.

Introduction to Criminal Behavior

CHAPTER OBJECTIVES

- Emphasize that criminal behavior has multiple causes, manifestations, and developmental pathways.
- Identify the different perspectives of human nature that underlie the theoretical development and research of criminal behavior.
- Introduce various theories that may help explain crime.
- Describe the three major disciplines in criminology: sociological, psychological, and psychiatric.
- Point out that the study of criminal behavior and delinquency, from a psychological perspective, has shifted from a personality toward a more cognitive and developmental focus.
- Define criminal behavior and juvenile delinquency.
- Introduce the reader to the various measurements of criminal and delinquent behavior.

Crime intrigues people. Sometimes it attracts us, sometimes it repels us, and occasionally, it does both at once. It can amuse, as when we read that two men dressed as “Spider-Man” and “Batman” were arrested after a brawl in Times Square in 2014. Many people chuckled, as well, at a YouTube video of a burglar who was sprawled and napping on a bed in the victims’ home, next to a bag containing jewelry he had stolen. Presumably, no one was seriously injured by the conduct in either of these instances (though some children may have been devastated that their heroes acted less than nobly), but the homeowners likely suffered emotional distress and faced inconveniences that accompany being victims of a crime. Although readers will cite some exceptions, you are likely to agree that most crime leaves victims in its wake; most crime harms.

Crime can frighten, especially if we believe that what happened to one victim might happen to us or those we love. News of a child abduction or even an attempted one places parents at heightened alert. Crime can also anger, as when a beloved community member is brutally killed, a person or animal is subjected to heinous abuse, or individuals have had their credit card data compromised or have been deprived of their life savings by fraudulent schemes. Fatal accidents caused by inebriated drivers are noteworthy for the anger they arouse—and the anger may be directed at the friends of the driver who did not stop him from driving, as well as the driver himself.

What is crime? Legally, it is defined as conduct or failure to act in violation of the law forbidding or commanding it, and for which a range of possible penalties exist upon conviction. Criminal behavior, then, is behavior in violation of the criminal code. To be convicted of crime, a person must have acted intentionally and without justification or excuse. For example, even an intentional killing may be justified under certain circumstances, as in defense of one’s life. Although there is a very narrow range of

offenses that do not require criminal intent (called strict liability offenses), the vast majority of crime requires it. Obviously, this legal definition encompasses a great variety of acts, ranging from murder to petty offenses.

While interest in crime has always been high, understanding why it occurs and what to do about it has always been a problem. Public officials, politicians, various experts, and many people in the general public continue to offer simple and incomplete solutions for obliterating crime, particularly violent and street crime: more police officers, video cameras and state-of-the-art surveillance equipment, armed teachers and more guns, sturdy locks, self-defense classes, stiff penalties, speedy imprisonment, or capital punishment. Some of these approaches may be effective in the short term, but the overall problem of crime persists. Solutions that attack what are believed to be root causes of crime—such as reducing economic inequality, improving educational opportunities, or offering substance abuse treatment—have considerable merit, but they require public commitment, energy, and financial resources.

Our inability to prevent crime is also partly because we have trouble understanding criminal behavior and identifying and agreeing upon its many causes. Explanations of crime require complicated, involved answers, and psychological research indicates that most people have limited tolerance for complexity and ambiguity. We apparently want simple, straightforward answers, no matter how complex the issue. Parents become impatient when psychologists answer questions about child rearing by saying, “It depends”—on the situation, on the parents’ reactions to it, or on any number of possible influences. Today, the preference for simplicity is aided by the vast array of information available in the media, including the Internet and social media. Search engines provide instant access to a multitude of both reputable and questionable sources. Discerning students are well served by this information explosion; they can find up-to-date research on virtually all topics covered in this book, for example. However, many people acquire information—but not necessarily knowledge—by clicking links, entering chat rooms, reading blogs and accompanying comments, and following friends and “friends” and friends of friends who may or may not be providing legitimate data. Thus, the selective and careful use of information technology is a crucial skill for all students to acquire.

Criminal behavior may be seen as a vastly complex, sometimes difficult-to-understand phenomenon. Our focus is the *psychological perspective*, although other viewpoints are also described. However, it is important to stress that there is no all-encompassing psychological explanation for crime, any more than there is a sociological, anthropological, psychiatric, economic, or historic one. In fact, it is unlikely that sociology, psychology, or any other discipline can formulate basic “truths” about crime without help from other disciplines and well-designed research. Criminology—the scientific study of crime—needs all the interdisciplinary help it can get to explain and control criminal behavior. To review accurately and adequately the plethora of studies and theories from each relevant discipline is far beyond the scope of this text, however. Our primary goal is to review and integrate recent scholarship and research in the psychology of crime, compare it with traditional approaches, and discuss strategies that have been offered to prevent and modify criminal behavior. We cannot begin to accomplish this task without first calling attention to philosophical questions that underlie any study of human behavior, including criminal behavior.

THEORIES OF CRIME

In everyday conversation, the term “theory” is used loosely. It may refer to personal experiences, observations, traditional beliefs, a set of opinions, or a collection of abstract thoughts. Almost everyone has personal theories about human behavior, and these extend to criminal behavior. To illustrate, some people have a personal theory that the world is a just place, where one gets what one deserves. “Just-worlders,” as they are called, believe that things do not happen to people without a reason that is closely related to their own actions; for example, individuals who experience financial difficulties probably brought these on themselves. In 2008–2009, when many homeowners in the United States were facing foreclosure because they could not afford high mortgage payments, a just-worlder would be likely to say this was more their own fault than the fault of bank officers who enticed them into paying high interest rates.

In reference to crime, just-worlders may believe both that a burglar deserved a severe penalty and that the victims did not protect their property sufficiently. Because the world is a just place, the battered spouse must have provoked a beating. The man who sent in a \$500 deposit to claim his million dollar prize should have known: if it's too good to be true, it isn't.

The above beliefs represent individual “theories” or assumptions about how the world works. However, psychologists have also developed a somewhat more elaborate *scientific theory* based on just-world ideas, and they have developed scales to measure one's just-world orientation (Lerner, 1980; Lerner & Miller, 1978). A variety of hypotheses—sometimes discussed under the umbrella term **just-world hypothesis**—have been proposed and tested. For example, people identified as just-worlders on the basis of their scores on the scales have been shown to favor capital punishment and to be nonsupportive of many social programs intended to reduce economic disparity between social groups (Sutton & Douglas, 2005).

Interestingly, the most recent research on just-world theory has identified two tracks: belief in a general just-world—described above—and belief in a personal just-world (Dalbert, 1999; Sutton & Douglas, 2005). Belief in a personal just-world (“I usually get what I deserve”) is considered adaptive and helpful in coping with dire circumstances in one's life. For example, Dalbert and Filke (2007) found that prisoners with a high personal just-world orientation evaluated their prison experiences more positively and reported better overall well-being than those without such an orientation. Belief in a general just-world, however, seems to be far more problematic because it is associated with less compassion for others and even a derogation of victims of crime.

Scientific theories like the above are based on logic and research, but they vary widely in complexity. A scientific theory is “a set of interrelated constructs (concepts), definitions, and propositions that present a systematic view of phenomena by specifying relations among variables, with the purpose of explaining and predicting the phenomena” (Kerlinger, 1973, p. 9). A scientific theory of crime, therefore, should provide a general explanation that encompasses and *systematically* connects many different social, economic, and psychological variables to criminal behavior, and it should be supported by well-executed research. Moreover, the terms in any scientific theory must be as precise as possible, their meaning and usage clear and unambiguous, so that it can be meaningfully tested by observation and analysis. The process of theory testing is called **theory verification**. If the theory is not verified—indeed, if any of its propositions is not verified—the end result is **falsification** (Popper, 1968). For example, a theory of child sexual abuse that includes the proposition that all child sex offenders were sexually abused as children would be falsified as soon as one nonabused offender was encountered.

The primary purpose of theories of crime is to identify the causes or precursors of criminal behavior. Some theories are broad and encompassing, whereas others are narrow and specific. Basically, theories of criminal behavior are summary statements of a collection of research findings. Perhaps, more importantly, they provide direction for further research. If one component of a theory is falsified or not supported, the theory is not necessarily rejected outright, however. It can be modified and retested. In addition, each theory of crime has implications for policy or decisions made by society to prevent crime.

Over the past few decades, many researchers have been interested in proposing models to accompany various theories. A **model** is a graphic representation of a theory or a concept, designed to enhance its understanding. Throughout the text, you will encounter different models pertaining to criminal and delinquent behavior.

Models are relatively new, but theories of crime have been around for centuries. During the eighteenth century, the Italian philosopher Cesare Beccaria (1738–1794) developed a theory that human behavior is fundamentally driven by a choice made by weighing the amount of pleasure gained against the amount of pain or punishment expected. Beccaria argued that in order to reduce or stop criminal offending in any given society, the punishment should be swift, certain, and severe enough to deter people from the criminal (pleasure-seeking) act. If people realized in advance that severe punishment would be forthcoming, and coming soon, regardless of their social status or privileges, they would choose not to engage in illegal behavior. This theoretical thinking, which emphasizes free will as the hallmark of human behavior, has become known as

classical theory. Both criminal and civil law are rooted in the belief that individuals are masters of their fate, the possessors of free will and freedom of choice. Many of today's approaches to crime prevention are consistent with classical theory, which in its modern form is also known as **deterrence theory** (Nagin, 2007). For example, surveillance cameras on the streets, shoulder cameras on police officers, and harsh sentences assume that individuals choose to commit crime but may be persuaded not to under the threat of being discovered or being punished with long prison time. However, even if people are not deterred by the prospect of long sentences, they must still be punished, because crime was an expression of their free will.

Another thread of theoretical thought originated with **positivist theory**, which is closely aligned with the idea of determinism. From that view, free will cannot be the major explanation for our behavior. Antecedents—prior experiences or influences—*determine* how we will act. The earliest positive theories of crime considered biological antecedents, such as one's sex, one's race, or even the size of one's brain. An early theorist from the positivist perspective, Cesare Lombroso (1876) conducted elaborate measurements on the skulls of both dead and live prisoners and drew conclusions about their criminal tendencies. Later, positivists saw social antecedents, such as negative early life experiences or lack of educational opportunity, as the culprits. According to the positivist school, human behavior is governed by causal laws, and free will is undermined. Many contemporary theories of criminology are positivist because they search for causes beyond free will. Furthermore, many approaches to crime prevention are consistent with a positivist orientation: They try to “fix” the antecedents of criminal activity, such as by providing support services for youth believed to be at risk of engaging in crime.

In summary, the classical view of crime holds that the decision to violate the law is largely a result of free will. The positivist or deterministic perspective argues that most criminal behavior is a result of social, psychological, and even biological influences. It does not deny the importance of free will, and it does not suggest that individuals should not be held responsible for their actions. However, it maintains that these actions can be explained by more than “free will.” This latter perspective, then, seeks to identify causes, predict and prevent criminal behavior, and rehabilitate (or habilitate) offenders.

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON HUMAN NATURE

All theories of crime have underlying assumptions about or perspectives on human nature. Three major ones can be identified. The **conformity perspective** views humans as creatures of conformity who want to do the “right” thing. To a large extent, this assumption represents the foundation of the humanistic perspectives in psychology. Human beings are basically “good” people trying to live to their fullest potential. Similarly, the branch of psychology called “positive psychology” focuses on studying the individual characteristics that make life worth living, such as contentment and intimacy (Peterson, 2006; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Thus, positive psychology is very much in tune with a conformity perspective.

An excellent example of the conformity perspective in criminology is **strain theory**, which originated in the work of sociologist Robert K. Merton (1957) and continues today in the theory of Robert Agnew (1992, 2006) and his followers. Merton's original strain theory argued that humans are fundamentally conforming beings who are strongly influenced by the values and attitudes of the society in which they live. In short, most members of a given society desire what the other members of the society desire. In many societies and cultures, the accumulation of wealth or status is all important, representing symbols that all members should strive for. Unfortunately, access to these goals is not equally available. While some have the education, social network, personal contacts, and family influence to attain them, others are deprived of the opportunity. Thus, Merton's strain theory predicted that crime and delinquency would occur when there is a perceived discrepancy between the materialistic values and goals cherished and held in high esteem by a society and the availability of the legitimate means for reaching these goals. Under these conditions, a strain between the goals of wealth and power and the means for reaching them develops. Groups and individuals experiencing a high level of this strain are forced to decide whether to violate norms

and laws to attain some of this sought-after wealth or power, or give up on their dream and go through the motions, withdraw, or rebel. Note that, although the original strain theory was formulated on American society, it can be applied on a global basis.

Following Merton's seminal work, other strain theorists emphasized that crimes of the rich and powerful also can be explained by strain theory. Even though these individuals have greater access to the legitimate means of reaching goals, they have a continuing need to accumulate even greater wealth and power and maintain their privileged status in society (Messner & Rosenfeld, 1994).

In developing his General Strain Theory (Strain Theory, 1992), Agnew used the word "strain" in a slightly different way, seeing strains as events and conditions that are disliked by individuals. The inability to achieve one's goals was only one such condition; others were losing something of value, or being treated negatively by others (2006). General Strain Theory, which has attracted much research and commentary, is continually being tested and evaluated and will be discussed again in Chapter 5; the point we make here is that it remains under the umbrella of a strain theory, representative of the conformity perspective on human nature.

A second perspective—the **nonconformist perspective**—assumes that human beings are basically undisciplined creatures, who, without the constraints of the rules and regulations of a given society, would flout society's conventions and commit crime indiscriminately. This perspective sees humans as fundamentally "unruly" and deviant, needing to be held in check. For example, the biological and neurobiological theories discussed in Chapter 3 identify genetic or other biological features or deficiencies in some individuals that predispose them to antisocial behavior, like aggressive actions. In recent years, some criminologists have emphasized the importance of biological influences on behavior, not as exclusive determinants of behavior but rather as factors that should be taken into consideration (DeLisi, 2009). They may be present at birth or appear during one's early formative years. It is important to point out that a nonconformity perspective does not blame people for their deviance. As readers will learn in Chapter 3, many theorists now believe that certain behaviors, such as aggressive actions, have their genesis in malnutrition and exposure to harmful elements in the environment. These are provocative claims that should ensure debate and discussion among readers.

Another good illustration of the nonconformist perspective is Travis Hirschi's (1969) social control theory. **Social control theory** contends that crime and delinquency occur when an individual's ties to the conventional order or normative standards are weak or largely nonexistent. In other words, the socialization that usually holds one's basic human nature in check is incomplete or faulty. This position perceives human nature as fundamentally "bad," "antisocial," or at least "imperfect." These innate tendencies must be *controlled* by society. Years after developing social control theory, Hirschi teamed with Michael Gottfredson to develop a **General Theory of Crime** (GTC; Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990). This theory, also referred to as **self-control theory** (SCT), represents one of the more prominent perspectives in criminology today. It suggests that a deficit of self-control or self-regulation is the key factor in explaining crime and delinquency. One controversial aspect of the theory is its contention that self-control is a stable trait that is fully in place in childhood, usually by the age of eight and is not likely to change thereafter. Many researchers have tested this aspect of SCT and have found that self-control can develop at later ages (e.g., Arnett, 2000; Sweeten & Simons, 2014; Zimmermann & Iwanski, 2014).

The third perspective—the **learning perspective**—sees human beings as born neutral (neither inherently conforming nor unruly) and subject to developmental changes throughout the life course. This perspective argues that humans learn virtually all their behavior, beliefs, and tendencies from the social environment. The learning perspective is exemplified most comprehensively by **social learning theory**, to be a main topic in Chapter 4, and the **differential association theory** of sociologist Edwin H. Sutherland (1947). Social learning theory emphasizes such concepts as imitation of models and reinforcements one gains from one's behavior. According to differential association theory, criminal behavior is learned, as is all social behavior, through social interactions with other people. It is not the result of emotional disturbance, mental illness, or innate qualities of "goodness" or "badness." Rather, people learn to be criminal as a result of messages they get from others who were also taught to be criminal. The conventional wisdom that bad company promotes bad behavior, therefore, finds validity in this theory.

TABLE 1-1 Perspectives of Human Nature

Perspective of Behavior	Theory Example	Humans Are...
Conformity perspective	Strain theory (Merton) General strain (Agnew)	Basically good; strongly influenced by the values and attitudes of society
Nonconformist perspective	Social control theory (Hirschi) Biological theories of crime General theory of crime/ self-control theory	Basically undisciplined; individual's ties to social order are weak; innate tendencies must be controlled by society; individual lack of self-control
Learning perspective	Differential association theory (Sutherland) Social learning theory (Rotter, Bandura) Developmental criminology	Born neutral; behavior is learned through social interactions with other people; changes over the life span affect behavior

From the mid-twentieth century to the present, many criminologists have embraced a developmental approach, viewing crime and other antisocial activity as behavior that begins in early childhood and proceeds to and sometimes through one's adult years. Developmental psychologists as a group identify periods in human development across the life course, sometimes conceived of as stages. Those interested in the study of antisocial behavior often examine these stages as they relate to crime. Over the past decade, emerging adulthood has been identified as a period covering the time between adolescence and adulthood—roughly ages 18 to the late 20s, with a particular focus on 18–25 (Arnett, 2000, 2014). Emerging adulthood is a time when people are generally expected to be independent from parental and other institutional controls but are still searching for self-identity. Thus, they may be carefree and exploring their options but also may be struggling to achieve adult status. Many emerging adults have not yet settled on a career choice or chosen a partner. As we discuss later in the book, emerging adulthood has prompted considerable research relating to antisocial behavior.

Developmental criminologists also have studied the life paths or “pathways” people take that lead to criminal behavior. For example, some begin antisocial activity at very early ages, while others begin in adolescence or later. Developmental criminologists identify risk factors to be addressed and protective factors to be encouraged. Some have learned that girls and women, as a group, take pathways that are quite different from those taken by boys and men, as a group, though researchers differ on the extent to which these differences occur. It is possible that cultural groups may differ in the pathways to crime, though this is not as intensely studied as gender differences.

Table 1-1 summarizes the three perspectives—conformity, nonconformist, and learning—and provides illustrations of each. Developmental criminology cannot be placed firmly in any of the three categories, although it would seem to be most at home in the learning perspective, so we place it there. Nevertheless, aspects of each perspective can be detected in the research and writing of developmental criminologists (e.g., Farrington, Ttofi, & Coid, 2009; Le Blanc & Loeber, 1998; Moffitt, 1993a, 1993b; Odgers et al., 2008; Patterson, 1982). We discuss these theories in some detail in Chapter 6.

DISCIPLINARY PERSPECTIVES IN CRIMINOLOGY

Criminology is the multidisciplinary study of crime. As noted above, several theories we cited were framed by sociologists. Over the years, the study of crime has been dominated by sociology, psychology, and psychiatry, but in recent years more disciplines and subdisciplines have been involved. These include, but are not limited to, anthropology, biology, neurology, political science, and economics.

Although our main concern in this text is with *psychological principles*, concepts, theory, and research relevant to criminal behavior, considerable attention is placed on the research knowledge of the other disciplines, particularly sociology, psychiatry, and biology. In fact, some psychologists today have extensive backgrounds in biology and the workings of the brain, and many specialize in the rapidly expanding fields of biopsychology and neuropsychology. It is not easy to make sharp demarcations between disciplines, because they often overlap in focus and practice. It is fair to say that all try to develop, examine, and evaluate strategies and interventions that have the potential to prevent or reduce criminal and antisocial behavior.

In addition, what distinguishes a given theory as sociological, psychological, or psychiatric is sometimes simply the stated professional affiliation of its proponent. Furthermore, alignments are not clear cut, because theorists and researchers today often work hand in hand with those from other disciplines: They obtain grants together, conduct studies, teach together, form consulting agencies, and even write books together. Finally, condensing any major discipline into a few pages hardly does it justice. To obtain a more adequate overview, the interested reader should consult texts and articles within those disciplines. **Table 1-2** summarizes the three dominant disciplinary perspectives.

Sociological Criminology

Sociological criminology has a rich tradition in examining the relationships of demographic and group variables to crime. Variables such as age, race, gender, socioeconomic status, and ethnic-cultural affiliation have been shown to have significant relationships with certain categories and patterns of crimes. Sociological criminology, for example, has allowed us to conclude that juveniles as a group are overrepresented in nonviolent property offenses. Young black males from disadvantaged backgrounds are overrepresented as both perpetrators and victims of homicide. White males are overrepresented in political and corporate crimes. The many reasons for this are reflected in the various perspectives and research findings that are covered in the book. Sociological criminology also probes the situational or environmental factors that are most conducive to criminal action, such as the time, place, kind of weapons used, and the circumstances surrounding the crime.

Many sociologists today are divided into structuralist and culturalist groups. With reference to crime, structuralists are more likely to look at the underlying foundation of society, such as lack of employment and educational activities or the quality of health services offered in a community. Culturalists view the values and patterns of living within a given group of people. In recent years, some dissension between the two groups has occurred, particularly relating to the issue of race in American society (Sanneh, 2015).

Another major contribution of sociological criminology is the attention it directs to topics that reflect unequal distribution of power in society. This often takes the form of examining how crime is defined and how laws are enforced. The sale of “street” drugs has been monitored more

TABLE 1-2 The Three Major Disciplinary Perspectives in Criminology

Perspective	Influence	Focus
Sociological criminology	Sociology Anthropology	Examines relationships of demographic and group variables to crime: focuses on the structure of society and the culture of groups and how these influence criminal behavior
Psychological criminology	Psychology	Focuses on individual criminal behavior; the science of the behavior, emotional, and mental processes of the criminal
Psychiatric criminology	Psychiatry	The contemporary perspective examines the interplay between psychobiological determinants of behavior and the social environment; traditional perspectives look for the unconscious and biological determinates of criminal behavior

closely than the sale of “suite” drugs, although they may be equally potent. The actions of corporate officials—for example, allowing environmental and workplace hazards that produce serious harm—are often not defined as crimes. Political crime, such as corruption, bribery, and abuse of power, is studied by sociologists much more than by other disciplines, although psychologists have begun to explore this area more in recent years. Sociological criminology also has a stronger tradition of addressing the underlying social conditions that may encourage criminal behavior, such as inequities in educational and employment opportunities. Conflict theories in sociology are particularly influential in questioning how crime is defined, who is subject to punishment, and in attempting to draw attention to the crimes of the rich and powerful.

Psychological Criminology

Psychology is the science of behavior and mental processes. **Psychological criminology**, then, is the science of the behavior and mental processes of the person who commits crime. While sociological criminology focuses primarily on groups and society as a whole, and how they influence criminal activity, psychological criminology focuses on individual criminal behavior—how it is acquired, evoked, maintained, and modified.

In the psychology of crime, both social and personality influences on criminal behavior are considered, along with the mental processes that mediate that behavior. Personality refers to all the biological influences, psychological traits, and cognitive features of the human being that psychologists have identified as important in the mediation and control of behavior. Recently, although interest in personality differences among offenders continues, psychological criminology has shifted its focus in several ways. First, it has taken a more cognitive approach to studying criminal behavior. Second, it has paid more attention to biological and neuropsychological factors. Third, it has adopted a developmental approach to studying criminal behavior among both individuals and groups.

COGNITIVE APPROACH. **Cognitions** refer to the attitudes, beliefs, values, and thoughts that people hold about the social environment, interrelations, human nature, and themselves. In serious criminal offenders, these cognitions are often distorted. Beliefs that children must be severely physically disciplined or that victims are not really hurt by fraud or burglary are good examples of cognitions that may lead to criminal activity. Prejudice is also a cognition that involves distortions of social reality. They include erroneous generalizations and oversimplification about others. Hate or bias crimes—highlighted in **Box 1-1**—are generally rooted in prejudice and cognitive distortions held by perpetrators. Many serial rapists also distort social reality to the point where they may

CONTEMPORARY ISSUES

BOX 1-1 Hate or Bias Crimes

Crimes committed against individuals out of bias, hatred, or racial, religious, and ethnic prejudice are nothing new; they are well documented in the history of virtually every nation. What is relatively new in the United States is the effort to keep track of such crimes and impose harsh penalties on those who commit them. This has been done with varying degrees of success. Bias crimes are widely underreported, not often prosecuted, and seldom punished.

Nevertheless, toward the end of the twentieth century, Congress and many states began to address the crucial problem of crimes—especially violent crimes—committed out of hatred, prejudice, or bias against someone because of their race, religion, sexual orientation, or ethnicity. Eventually,

characteristics such as gender, physical or mental disability, advanced age, and military status were added to the list of protected categories. Laws were passed requiring the gathering of statistics on these offenses and/or allowing enhanced sentences for someone convicted of a hate or bias crime. The first such federal law, the **Hate Crime Statistics Act** of 1990, required the collection of data on violent attacks, intimidation, arson, or property damage that are directed at people because of their race, religion, sexual orientation, or ethnicity. The law was amended in 1994 to include crimes motivated by bias against persons with disabilities and in late 2009 to include crimes of prejudice based on gender or gender identity (Langton & Planty, 2011).

(continued)