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Book Reviews

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BOOK REVIEWS.

REPORT OF THE VICE COMMISSION OF CHICAGO. THE SOCIAL EVIL IN CHICAGO. Chicago: Gunthrop-Warren Printing Company, 1911. Pp. 399.

In January, 1910, Dean Walter T. Sumner read an address before the Church Federation of Chicago, which finally led to the appointment by the Mayor of a Vice Commission of some thirty members, with Dean Sumner as chairman. This volume is the report of the Commission. It is noteworthy that by unanimous vote the city council authorized the appointment of the Commission, and gave it \$5,000 to cover the cost of the investigation.

The Commission appointed the following committees from its members, and the titles of these committees are, with a couple of exceptions, the titles of the main chapters of the book. They were: Committee on Existing Conditions in Chicago; Social Evil and Saloon; Social Evil and Police; Sources of Supply; Social Evil and Crime; Child Protection and Education; Rescue and Reform; Literature and Methods; Medical Questions, and Law and Legislation.

It is apparent that great care was taken to secure careful and reliable investigations of conditions, frequently second reports being made of particular matters by agents unknown to the first. The Commission was fortunate in securing Mr. George J. Kneeland as Director of Investigation, for he had had charge of the field work of the Committee of Fourteen in New York. In the volume no names or addresses are given, though key numbers are used.

It is impossible in a brief book note to condense, or even indicate, the evidence secured. The Commission itself could not print it because of its nature. I doubt sometimes if this judgment is sound, but it is certainly expedient. Summarizing as best I may the Commission's own summary: Prostitution appears as a "*commercialized business*" in Chicago, controlled largely by men and yielding profits of approximately fifteen million dollars per year. The business demands five thousand souls yearly to satisfy the lust of men. Side by side with the male exploiter is the "ostensibly respectable citizen," man or woman, who rents and leases property for exorbitant sums.

Instead of enforcing existing laws, the police have adopted regulations of their own. It is no wonder that the financial profits interfere with administration. About five thousand women are wholly engaged as prostitutes—the size of the clandestine and casual groups cannot be estimated. Assignment houses abound without legitimate reason. "The Commission has found in its investigation that the most dangerous immoral influence, and the most important financial interest, outside of the business of prostitution as carried on in houses, is the disorderly saloons." The investigators "were solicited by more than 236 women in 236 different saloons, all of whom, with the exception of 98, solicited for rooms, 'hotels' and houses of prostitution over the saloons." Vaudeville shows

BOOK REVIEWS

of a lewd nature are frequently conducted in rear rooms of saloons. The saloon and the business of prostitution should be immediately separated.

Children in many sections "are surrounded by immoral influences and dangers." Those who sell gum, candy, papers on the street, particularly at night, are early initiated into evil ways. Of messenger boys and newsboys it is said, "their moral sense is so blunted as to be absolutely blind." Decent amusement must be provided and sex education is necessary, but in such fashion that morbid curiosity is not aroused. Practically all of the servants in houses of prostitution are colored. Apparently vice is tolerated in districts inhabited by negroes more openly than in white districts. This is evidently very unjust to the negro children. Sexual perversion is apparently widespread and increasing. The supply comes from several sources. "The immigrant woman furnishes a large supply to the demand. Generally virtuous when she comes to this country, she is ruined and exploited because there is no adequate protection and assistance given her." Bad home conditions cause many to enter the life. "It has been demonstrated that men and women engaged in the 'white slave traffic' are not organized. Their operations, however, are so similar, and they use the same methods to such an extent that it is safe to infer that they are in some way working together. The Vice Commission, after exhaustive consideration of the vice question, records itself of the opinion that divorce, to a large extent, is a contributory factor to sexual vice."

Concerning the economic aspect the Commission says: "One who has not beheld the struggle or come in personal contact with the tempted soul of the underpaid girl can never realize what the poverty of the city means to her." The truth is that thousands of girls cannot live in decent comfort on wages received. "What is the result of such an industrial condition? Dishonesty and immorality, not from choice, but necessity—in order to *live*."

Many of these girls can be saved to decent life. Abolish the fining system. Try probation for first offenders under women officers.

The evidence for all these conclusions is to be found in the report. As a result of its deliberations the Commission believes in no system of recognition but that "constant and persistent repression of prostitution the immediate method. Absolute annihilation the ultimate ideal." It recommends for the city, (first) the appointment of a morals commission; (second) the establishment of a morals court.

It seems most significant that as to the important matters the Commission came to an unanimous opinion. Few people, I believe, begin to realize the things this volume sets forth. Surely, if parents knew, the children would be better safeguarded. Page after page of life stories, even though the same ones are sometimes retold needlessly in succeeding sections, have a tremendous influence on the reader. If all the people of Chicago, or any other city, were to read this volume something would be done. In my opinion this is the most significant

BOOK REVIEWS

inquiry yet made in this field in America. Gruesome and horrible in many ways, the report is yet of compelling interest. It deserves wide attention.

University of Pennsylvania.

CARL KELSEY.

PROBLEMES DE SCIENCE CRIMINELLE. By *Henri Joly*. Paris: Librairie Hachette et Cie, 1910, 3fr. 50.

The increase and the transformation in the character of crime is, perhaps, the most serious of the many problems which France to-day faces. According to M. Henri Joly, the author of the present work, the immediate causes of this are found in the alarming increase in juvenile crime and in the prevalence of vagrancy—causes which again must be explained by the sickly leniency of the French people, and the fatal loosening of the bonds of healthy family life. As regards the punishment of crime, M. Joly, reviewing the evolution of penal ideas, severely condemns the modern socialist program as being both impractical and demoralizing, not only to justice itself, but also to the future welfare of the state. According to our author, swift and severe punishment is at present the sole remedy for the situation in France. As an intense admirer of the Belgian prison system, M. Joly believes that with a few modifications, this system is most desirable in all respects for the adult criminal, whereas for the juvenile offender a graduated system of prison and correctional influences would be most efficacious. In this connection it may be of especial interest to Americans to read what he has to say regarding our juvenile courts, as well as the Anglo-Saxon conception of judicial functions. M. Joly likewise favors the reinstitution of capital punishment in France, although he would limit it to extraordinary cases. Together with this system of repression, he advocates a system of charitable assistance, which must, however, be left to private endeavor. For the present socialistic tendency to invest the latter system in the state is pronouncedly vicious, in that it has caused the state to neglect its fundamental function, which is that of repression. M. Joly's ideas find voice in the quotation from Vauvenargues, with which he closes his book: "Que la loi soit sévère et les hommes indulgents."

"Les Problèmes" is an excellent contribution of our author to criminological literature. It may be remarked in conclusion that the fundamental philosophical thoughts of the book are based upon Herbert Spencer's somewhat questionable theories.

University of Illinois.

JULIUS GOEBEL, JR.

ATLAS UND GRUNDRISSE DER GERICHTLICHEN MEDIZIN UNTER BENUTZUNG VON E. V. HOFFMANN'S ATLAS DER GERICHTLICHEN MEDIZIN. Herausgegeben von *Dr. Georg Puppe*, Professor der gerichtlichen Medizin in Königsberg mit 70 Vielfarbigen Tafeln und 204 Schwarzen Abbildungen. J. F. Lehmann's Verlag, München, 1908, parts 1 and 2, 692 pages.

These two volumes constitute volume 17, parts 1 and 2, of Lehmann's well-known series of medical atlases. Many of the illustrations

BOOK REVIEWS

are taken from an earlier atlas of similar scope by E. V. Hofmann, but new illustrations have been added and the text is very largely new. In reality, we have before us a short German text-book of legal medicine, richly illustrated, and especially suitable for German conditions. The illustrations, however, are of such character and scope that the atlas will be of value to all who are interested in legal medicine wherever they may be.

Chicago.

LUDVIG HEKTOEN.

MEDIZIN UND STRAFRECHT, EIN HANDBUCH FÜR JURISTEN, LAIENRICHTER UND ARZTE. By *F. Strassmann*, assisted by H. Hofmann, H. Marx and P. Fraenckel. Berlin: Verlag von Dr. P. Langenschmidt, 1911. Pp. 564, with 153 illustrations.

This is volume IX of the large "Encyklopädie der Modernen Kriminalistik," and is notable for the thoroughness and comprehensiveness of its mode of treatment of the relations between medicine and penology. It is not a mere text-book of medical jurisprudence, such as we are familiar with. A perusal of this book affords a wide range of learning, experience and deductive logic to anyone engaged with the medical aspects of criminal procedure. It is a well-founded matter of reproach in a certain proportion of American cases of crimes of violence against the person, that the medical testimony against or in behalf of the suspect is insufficient or downright incompetent. Such is most commonly the case in the ordinary coroner's inquest. The examination of persons who may have died through self-inflicted injury or by the hands of others is often made in a haphazard, superficial manner, the verdict "suicide," or that of "murder" is frequently reached with little hesitation; autopsies are done in a most perfunctory way; and the records of the findings are assembled in a slovenly and unmethodical manner, totally inadequate to the ends of justice.

Strassmann's work teems with reports of cases where the careful examination of the victim and the surroundings of the seat of crime revealed evidence of value in arriving at definite conclusions which were often quite unobvious at first sight.

Written in German, the work naturally conforms with the particulars of German law, but this fact does not materially affect the relationship of the medical expert in his formulation of the purely scientific aspects of crime. Strassmann is very emphatic in pointing out the proper limits of a doctor's activities as a true medical expert—not in the rôle of prosecutor or defendant. At the same time, he pleads that greater latitude should be given the expert in the use of his judgment as to what is of scientific value in the elucidation of the medical features of a case for the layman's better understanding.

The first chapter is an admirable epitome of the structure and function of the human body, including sections on pregnancy, birth, modes and signs of death, modes of identifying bodies and parts of bodies, the determination of spermia, blood-examination and identification of hair.

Chapter II is a very full description of various forms of violent

BOOK REVIEWS

death. Death by electricity is the only one omitted that the reviewer can ascertain; there are two cases of suicide on record, and deaths by industrial currents are increasing in importance in forensic medicine.

Chapter III concerns forensic psychiatry and is a thoroughgoing treatise on the insanities and mental degeneracies in their relation to crime. The fourth chapter deals with sexual crimes, infanticide and abortion. An appendix of 38 pages by Dr. P. Fraenckel gives a comprehensive account of the poisons and their effects as generally encountered in criminal cases. A noteworthy part of this section deals quite thoroughly with cyanide of potassium.

The illustrations throughout the book are exceptionally good and well selected, and each chapter is supplied with a bibliography; a good index closes the work.

The volume can be heartily recommended to medical court experts and to jurists desirous of dealing intelligently with cases of criminal violence.

EDW. ANTHONY SPITZKA.

Jefferson Medical College, Philadelphia.

LA SUGGESTIONE E LA SUA IMPORTANZA NELLA VITA SOCIALE. Di W. v. *Bechterew*, Professor di Psichiatria all'Università di Pietroburgo. Versione Italiana del Dott. Carlo Ruehl. Torino: Fratelli Bocca, Editori, 1909, pp. 236.

Suggestion in psychology and psychopathy is a term which is often used, but which has no fixed meaning. Definitions and descriptions of it are varied and multitudinous, and analyses of the concept are diverse. The author of this book supplies a further definition and an analysis of the concept of suggestion which seem to come near the conclusions of Mark Baldwin in his "Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology." Professor Bechterew refers to Baldwin, but he seems to know him only through B. Sidis' "Psychologie der Suggestion." B. Sidis quotes from "Baldwin, Psychologie, Vol. II." Evidently this is not the same book as J. Mark Baldwin's "Dictionary" above mentioned.

I dwell upon this fact because the claim of this volume to original contribution to our learning lies in great part upon the answer to the question: "Does the description here given of suggestion tally with that given in Baldwin's Dictionary?" Baldwin's is couched in abstract terms; Professor Bechterew's in more concrete and vivid language. Baldwin does not distinguish between the natural environment and the personal environment, and Professor Bechterew does. His great point is that suggestion is personal—from individual to individual. But it is the fact that the author impresses the far-reaching effects of personal influence by suggestion through many manifestations and activities of social life that makes this volume worthy of study. But the purpose of the author, so far as one can judge from the book itself, is to popularize the most advanced knowledge of the matter and to follow the applications of the fundamental principles of suggestion out into the various activities of social life. The merit of the work lies in the masterly marshaling of facts, and the lucid restatement of important principles.

BOOK REVIEWS

It lies in the logical arrangement of the chapters and in the vivid narrative.

No one can escape the banal or the beneficent influence of suggestion. The prevailing characteristics of the mind in the hypnotic state are concentration of attention and lack of opposition. Some soils are more fertile than others for the growth of suggestion. The nearer one approaches in the waking state the condition in hypnotic sleep, the closer one comes to perceiving the same effects of suggestion. The reason why religious faith has such a wonderful power of giving birth to pathological conditions, and of subjecting the individuals having it to the influence of others, is that it, above all things else, suppresses the critical self and causes concentration upon a single fact in consciousness. Witness the miraculous cures operated by the King's touch and by thaumaturgists (pp. 50-54). Suggestion and auto-suggestion in such cases work wonders, since the disorders set right are not organic but functional. The content of the delusion produced by suggestion in the educated and in the ignorant differs, but the fact of delusion remains.

The reader will be interested in the chapter dealing with the operation of reciprocal suggestion in the suicides of sectaries, in which the author describes the doings of Kowalew, who walled up alive twenty-five of his co-sectaries, among whom were his mother, one of his daughters, and his wife; the chapter treating of historical epidemics of convulsions, in which he mentions the noted "St. Vitus Dance," and the epidemics of flagellants; the chapter reviewing witchcraft and diabolism, where he shows that the traditions and the lore of the people made, and still make, rich soil for the luxuriant growth of the most devastating and pitiable epidemics; the chapter describing epidemics of demonopathy among the Clicuscians of modern Russia, which are identical in their causes and effects with the obsessions in the Middle Ages; the chapter on Maljowanny, the famous paranoiac of the last decade, but one of the Nineteenth Century, which is written from first-hand knowledge, telling of the large following this paranoiac with illusions, delusions, hallucinations and convulsions mustered together, and indicating the *à posteriori* proof that suggestion had done its work among his followers.

What is the value of this volume to criminologists? Collective hallucinations are brought about by suggestion from one individual to another and by auto-suggestion. Let us suppose a group of people to be gathered together. The principal actors in the scene are locked in struggle. Jack has a revolver in his hand. Jim has no weapon at all, either in his hand or anywhere about him. "Jack, look out for the gun," shouts one of the crowd of on-lookers. Jack, the murderer, is on trial for the killing of Jim. A dozen witnesses take the stand and swear positively that they at no time saw a weapon in Jack's hand, but that they had seen it in Jim's. Upon this testimony Jack is acquitted. The witnesses were honest, but the operating principle was Suggestion.

If suggestion is so powerful and persuasive, should all newspaper reports of crime be suppressed, or should they be only regulated? When

BOOK REVIEWS

people commit crimes that roar loud and thunder in the index, whose fault is it, and how, in the light of this work, should penologists treat them?

New York City.

ROBERT FERRARI.

"MARX'S 'ECONOMIC DETERMINISM' IN THE LIGHT OF MODERN PSYCHOLOGY. By *Charles A. Ellwood*. The American Journal of Sociology, Vol. XVII, No. 1, pp. 35-46.

The claim has been made that Marx, with his "materialistic conception of history," did for social evolution what Darwin did for organic evolution with his theory of natural selection; that is, he revealed the essential method of the mechanism of the evolutionary process in human society. His whole social philosophy presupposes that the economic factor is determinative of all other social phenomena. A revolution in economic life would therefore mean an equal revolution in all other phases of social life. All other forces must be considered as epiphenomena of the economic process. The author goes on to examine this theory in the light of modern psychology. Psychology considers the organism as responding in this and that way to various stimuli in the environment. The economic factor is only one among other stimuli which may or may not occasion response, or rather, we should say, may or may not occasion a particular kind of response. What response shall be made depends upon a variety of circumstances; for instance, upon the hereditary equipment and upon the acquired habits of the individual. The condition of the organism further, whether healthy or unhealthy, may go a long way toward determining the particular kind of response. If the type of response to one set of stimuli changes for any reason whatever, then the habits of response to other stimuli must change with it, for the mind is not a group of independently operating factors, but it is to be considered as an organism, the parts of which react upon each other. Modern psychology, therefore, leaves Marx's theory of economic determinism without scientific foundation.

The economic situation presents only the first step toward a response. Interposed between the first step and its response, the consequent behavior, is a more or less complex set of psychological processes. "The social life cannot be interpreted in terms of any one of its phases, or in terms of a single set of causes, but can be properly interpreted only by a synthetic view, which shall take into account all the different factors actually found in the social life process." The soundness of this point is emphasized in the author's citation of the fact pointed out by Tarde, that oftentimes social activity and institutions tend to be copied almost regardless of economic conditions in society.

In its somewhat revised form the doctrine of economic determinism affirms that occupation, or one's method of obtaining a livelihood, determines one's habits of thinking and acting, and therefore determines the activities of the mass of individuals composing a social group. On the other hand, it is notoriously true that one's method of passing one's leisure does more to determine character without regard to the class of society to which the individual belongs. This, by the way, supports the playground movement of our own day.

BOOK REVIEWS

The problem of crime goes no further toward supporting the theory of economic determinism than do the facts of history and ethnography. Studies in this field have shown that crime in society has three distinct roots:

(1) Biological. The causes of it are more or less independent of economic conditions.

(2) In the early acquired habits of the individual, these, too, are largely independent of the economic organization of society.

(3) In faulty social conditions which may be chiefly economic. These conditions depress the normal individual into the abnormal classes. Crime can be got rid of only by controlling physical heredity and moral training, as well as social organization. The large biological and psychological elements in such a social phenomenon as crime show very plainly that the purely economic element plays a much less important part in determining the social life than Marx supposed.

This paper by Professor Ellwood presents a thoroughly good psychological analysis of Marx's theory and its shortcomings.

Northwestern University.

ROBERT H. GAULT.

DER VERGELTUNGSGEDANKE UND SEINE PRAKTISCHE BEDEUTUNG VON
DR. AUGUST KOEHLER, A. O. PROFESSOR IN MUNCHEN. Leipzig:
Verlag von Wilhelm Engelmann, 1909. Pp. 288.

In this forcibly written and most readable volume Koehler does valiant battle for the retribution theory as the best possible basis upon which criminal justice may be administered. He begins by a discerning exposition of the theories actually underlying or suggested for reform of criminal law. The clearest expression of the differences can be obtained by putting the matter in this wise: Which shall determine the kind and extent of punitive measures, the gravity of the offense estimated by the value of the property involved and the extent of the damage done in the assault or, leaving aside consideration of the gravity of the offense, the measure of the possible danger of a repetition of the crime? In the latter alternative of course the measuring staff is applied to the criminal rather than to the crime. The author goes on in his first section from the above to the discussion of the intimate meaning of terms, such as "Gesinnungsstrafe" and "Vergeltungsstrafe," and throws into antithetical relationships the various theoretical propositions—a logical procedure which might well have been followed by some other German writers on criminal law reform had they desired to carefully enlighten readers as to their own meanings.

The writer urges that all good things may be achieved under the auspices of this idea of retribution, which is, after all, the only safeguard. To be sure, any mathematically exact compensation for the offense is, of course, impossible, but the idea in general of retribution administered by society contains the conception, and as much as possible, of a practical measure of settlement for the crime.

The antithesis of the retribution theory is set forth as the idea of administration of the law solely for the protection of society. Over and beyond this the question of retribution and its opposite involves also the problem of determinism—the extent to which free will is involved in

BOOK REVIEWS

the delinquent act. The author devotes a goodly number of pages to the old philosophical discussion—determinism versus free will. In his last section, on the practical outcome of the application of the retribution theory, a great many points are concisely considered. It is set forth that practical affairs, at least for the most part, are better adjusted under the guidance of this concept. This would come out particularly in the question of the individualization of punishment according to the kind and form of the offense as opposed to the individualization according to the potential or actual dangerousness of the intent. If one were to judge solely by intent it would frequently come within official ken that an attempted crime had back of it just as evil a forethought as a completed crime.

Altogether too short a space is devoted to the postulates of the author's concept in regard to the treatment of juvenile delinquents. The main point to be considered before application of the indeterministic and retributive theory is whether or not the young person shows the "symptoms" of having freedom of the will. Upon this diagnosis will hinge the treatment; if positive, then the retribution theory should obtain. In this matter the author avoids technical questions and details, and perhaps for his contention it is well that he does so.

So firmly is Koehler grounded in his beliefs that he warns against compromises. Every tendency to get into the way of adjusting criminal affairs by the appeal to intent signifies for him distinct damage to the interests of the constitutional government as it exists according to the culture-ideal of today.

The reviewer's criticism will be foreseen by anyone who knows anything of how his own opinion has come to be formed on this whole subject. Objection is general and fundamental rather than detailed. One might easily pick flaws in the various corners of Koehler's structure, but the underlying trouble seems to the reviewer to be a curious assumption that all is known regarding the causation of criminality. Just why we should be so cock-sure and keen to decide between dogmas on this subject when we are so ignorant with regard to most other affairs in which humanity is deeply concerned seems not at all clear. One who is engaged in the practical situation feels keenly the need for less dogma and for vastly more thorough-going study of causations and of the efficacies of measures already undertaken; such a one realizes strongly that the greatest need for the formulation of anything like ultimately valuable principles of criminal law is light—more light.

Chicago.

WILLIAM HEALY.

VERBRECHENSOPPHLAXE UND STRAFRECHT VON DR. JOHANNES NAGLER, PROFESSOR IN BASEL. Leipzig: Wilhelm Engelmann, 1911. Pp. 265.

One naturally expects a scholarly work from the pen of one of the chief editors of the "Kritische Beiträge zur Strafrechtsreform," and in this we are far from being disappointed. Professor Nagler has given us a polemic on the theoretical considerations underlying criminal law which it would be presumptuous to attempt to criticise or even thoroughly review in anything short of an extended essay. The reviewer must be

BOOK REVIEWS

content with stating the nature and limitations of the work and with giving its main features; those who are interested must read the work with care for themselves. Particularly with care because of the author's condensed style and his dealing in short shrift with the statements and theories of many authors.

The entire work is devoted to the consideration of the fundamental principles of criminal law and as such is, of course, theoretical and philosophical. A strong division is all along drawn between the classical and the so-called modern school of thought, and one does not have to read far in the polemic to see where the author stands. He realizes keenly that this is an age in which all things are made new and that in the turmoil and tendency to change for change's sake it is more than ever necessary to hold fast to well-founded leading principles. He recognizes that the present-day attitude of both the laity and the profession towards criminal matters is that of demanding protection for society. He gives reason after reason why the mere cry for protection should not stampede us into the upset of old and well tried legal considerations.

The scope of the work can well be indicated by the section headings and some of the chapter titles. He divides it into, first, *The Prophylaxis of Crime*; second, *The Relation Between Prophylaxis and Criminal Law*; third, *The Difference Between the Act of Repression and of Prevention*. One notable chapter, it seems to the reviewer, occurs under the curious caption of "*The Dangers of Protection*"—the author meaning, of course, the dangers of following the idea of the mere protection of society. In this chapter he makes three main points: that there is danger in the over use of the protection idea—first, to the guaranteed freedom of the individual; second, in the use of an abstract concept of what is anti-social for application to any given concrete act; and third, in the doubtful possibility of getting administration of the law corresponding to the ideal of prevention. He discusses elsewhere the fundamental concepts of punishment, the true principles which underlie the teachings of the retributionists, the elements of safety which exist in the idea of punishment as such and the relation between repression and prevention.

From the author's final summing up we learn that he believes that, practically as well as theoretically, on account of internal differences as well as of practical outcomes, the idea of punishment and of protective measures as such must not be confused, even though one may believe with John Stuart Mill that the aim of punishment is curative, albeit the administration of it is painful. The attempt to infuse the principles of criminal law with the ideas of special prevention must always lead to a confusion of juridical foundations. The great aim of the classical school has ever been that of the prophylaxis of crime, the nipping of the criminal in the bud, but the difficulty of actual prevention that same school has always seen. The golden age when there will be no criminals is not attainable; what can be done will be done when the criminalistic tide is partially stemmed. A sound principle to guide us is certainly that of social safety, but safety obtained only through efforts at criminal prophylaxis—in opposition to carrying out the mere idea of the protection of society.

The reviewer can not turn from this scholarly work, and the feel-

BOOK REVIEWS

ing of the inadequacy of his cursory review, without one contention, namely, that the author, in his probably conscious limitation of his polemic to theories underlying criminal law, utterly fails to do justice to the richness of human experience. It would be gratifying if one found somewhere in the volume acknowledgment that we are at the very beginning of things in regard to the understanding of criminality. The development of psychology, particularly the possibility of the future in the understanding of genetic processes, may be very great and already there has been acquired a mass of information, the realization of which gives one a feeling that any such discussion of bare theories does not tally with the varieties of human experience in criminality. The reviewer dares to say that growing appreciation of the underlying springs of conduct may well lead to the overthrow of many theoretical principles of criminal law, and that after a time we may see the value of the well known lines from the poet whom Nagler himself draws on for a foreword, "Grau, theurer Freund, ist alle Theorie und grün des Lebens goldner Baum."

Chicago.

WILLIAM HEALY.

THE INFLUENCE OF NEWSPAPER PRESENTATIONS UPON THE GROWTH OF CRIME AND OTHER ANTI-SOCIAL ACTIVITY. By *Frances Fenton*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1911. Pp. 96.

This thesis presents the results of a study of certain representative American newspapers with a view of ascertaining the amount of anti-social matter contained therein and its percentage of the whole news matter. There is obviously a question of classification involved on which there might be much difference of opinion. This seems to be allowed for, however, in the author's final statement of the results. She states that the highest percentage of the kind of news which is an obvious medium of suggestion considered on the basis of a comparison of news alone is 20.02, and the lowest 5.91; while an estimate based upon all mention of anti-social news makes the highest percentage 42.47, and the lowest 18.90. A study is also made of certain specific cases in which newspaper publications definitely influenced anti-social acts. The author concludes that the newspaper leads to anti-social activity in a number of ways. "These may be summed up by saying that it influences people directly, both unconsciously and consciously, to commit anti-social acts. It also has a more indirect anti-social influence on public opinion during criminal trials through its accounts of these trials and through its partisan selection of evidence; and, finally, it aids in building up anti-social standards, and thus in preparing the way for anti-social acts."

The author urges that suggestive anti-social matters should be excluded from the newspaper; not that all mention of such matters should be excluded; indeed it is desirable that the public be informed on crime and anti-social matters. But the news which gives them the information should not be couched in terms or details which make it criminally suggestive or factually misleading but should be confined to correct statements of fact. It is suggested that we read new and adequately enforced laws defining strictly the power of newspapers to deal with news, analogous to those regarding the use of the mails, billboards, etc.; that public opinion needs to be educated to support

BOOK REVIEWS

such laws, and further investigation of the relation of newspaper suggestion to crime should be made in order to establish a better basis for action in regard to the newspapers.

Warren, Pa.

EDWARD LINDSEY.

THE ANTE-MORTEM AND POST-MORTEM EXAMINATIONS OF THE CRIMINAL, JOHN JUNKINS. By *H. J. H. Hoeve, M. D.*, Illinois Medical Journal, Vol. XX, No. 2, pages 149-173.

This is an elaborate technical account of the results of an examination of what the author calls a born criminal. Dr. Hoeve, having studied Junkins, who was a colored murderer, during his trial, became convinced that a normal human being could not have done what this man was doing unless he was diseased or defective. Certain physical characteristics such as an enormous mandible, beef-like neck, the long upper extremities to which the hands were fitted like the blade of a spade, the large feet, etc., seemed to speak for the possibility of an atypically constructed brain and "therefore," says Dr. Hoeve, "I had no hesitation in pronouncing him a born criminal."

There follows a brief account of the family history of Junkins. His father died of delirium tremens; all of his father's relatives were drinkers. One of his mother's brothers had been a convict in the penitentiary for five years, and another brother was sent to jail for a holdup. One of his sisters had disease of the thyroid gland. There were no cases of insanity on either side of the family.

As to his personal history: Junkins was born August 6, 1886, in Ottumwa. By necessity he was early a tin-can tramp. His early habitat was as undesirable as could be imagined. Habitually he was addicted early in his life to alcoholics; he was extremely cruel, and withal he would willingly steal for a friend and never go back on a pal.

His early surroundings apparently brought forth his criminal traits, and at the age of nine years the boy was committed to a reform school for committing a robbery. After six and a half years he made his escape, after which he roamed the country and acquired all the vices which theretofore had been unknown to him.

On April 12, 1905, when he was nineteen years old, he was sentenced to the penitentiary for a term of five years for robbery. During this imprisonment he was punished at various times for insolence and bad behavior in his cell.

On February 5, 1909, twenty-four days after his release from prison, he committed a most brutal murder for which he was sent to prison June 2, 1909, and later condemned to hang July 29, 1910. On the latter date he was duly executed.

We have in the above an exceedingly bad personal and family history. And now the author goes on to describe minutely the results of the macroscopic and microscopic examination of the murderer's body. It is impossible in the space available for review to refer to all the contents of this study and we are compelled therefore to limit ourselves to general results.

A careful dissection of the body showed that the anomalies greatly surpass the average number found in criminals. The author names in

their order of frequency the most common anomalies in the skulls of male criminals and points out that Junkins had nine out of the total of sixteen. This is in itself significant, even though we omit prominent cheek bones and narrow forehead from the list on the ground that they are racial characteristics, for Kurella in an examination of 830 skulls of criminals guilty of serious offenses showed that 77 per cent had more than three and 43 per cent more than five anomalies.

The thickness of the skull was above the average and for a negro he had a large cranial capacity, but 104 c. c. smaller than that of a white athlete's (1,520 c. c.) of his build and size. His cranial capacity is within the limits of the skulls of negroes and Chinese (1,350 to 1,450 c. c.). Certain indications, such as those found in the cephalic index or in the orbital index, suggest white blood admixture.

The thickness of the skull may be of no special importance, as all kinds of variations are found in this respect, but the fusion of the two parietal bones in the sagittal line of the skull found in this criminal certainly have, the author thinks, some special bearing. It points to an early obliteration of the sagittal suture or an irregularity in the embryonic development of the parietal bones.

The brain of Junkins falls within the limits of the medium sized macrocephalic brains, which includes those weighing from 1,250 to 1,450 grams.

Junkins was right-handed and, therefore, the fact that the left internal carotid artery was one-third larger than its fellow on the other side need not cause surprise. It is surprising, however, that the other arteries on the left side supplied less territory than corresponding arteries of the right side, and that the actual blood supply of the left temporal lobe was much less than that of the right. For the purpose of obtaining a better idea of the value of measurements taken in this case the reader is referred to page 159 of the article under review for the tabular comparison of many aspects of the brain of this criminal and that of the deceased Russian scientist, Mendeljew.

Under the topic, "Fibre Dissection of the Brain," the author gives the results of his observations upon the location of the bundles of association fibres. To give a more convincing idea of the importance of the findings in this case he states that in the recent dissection of thirty-one hemispheres by his students all the bundles and interlacements were found normal in location and relation except two which were in a bad state of preservation. In the case of Junkins' brain, however, the large association bundles and many of the smaller were abnormal in these respects.

The results obtained by this dissection point again to atypical or defective formation.

I give below a few items taken from the author's summary:

1. "John Junkins had a bad family history and was a criminal by birth, by education and by environment.
2. By careful study it is possible to recognize defective or atypical human beings.
3. The body and the skull of Junkins showed a larger per cent of anomalies than appears in average bodies.

BOOK REVIEWS

4. The vessel findings seem to point toward the left temporal lobe as being of low development.

5. The measurements of the gyri and sulci of Junkins' brain compared to the measurements of fifty average brains point to great variations in the left parietal and the frontal and temporal regions.

6. Close study of the gyri and sulci shows that the frontal and parietal regions were late in maturing and that the temporal lobe had not yet reached its full complexity.

7. According to Professor Benedict's classification of criminal brains, we must classify Junkins' brain as slightly deviating from the school type.

8. Bolton's micrometric measurements of the primary cell and fibre laminae of the cortex seem to show a deficiency in gray matter.

9. The fibre dissection of the brain shows distinct under-development, anomalous development and atypical construction of the association bundles.

10. There is no doubt in my mind but that John Junkins was an atypically-constructed human being, an anatomical defective, and consequently the possessor of an atypically functioning mind.

11. Being convinced that in non-diseased criminals there must exist an anatomical basis for crime, and knowing also that criminals of this class cannot be recognized by juridical and psychologic methods only, *I do not hesitate in recommending the abolishment of capital punishment* and the erection of special establishments for the perpetual or indefinite seclusion of incorrigible criminals. This is recommended also by Lombroso in Italy, Leveille in France, Minzloff in Russia, May in England, Kraepelin in Germany, Wallberg in Austria, Guillaume in Switzerland, Van Hamel in Holland, Lucas in Portugal, and Wines and Wayland in America."

The science of Criminology stands in need of just such detailed studies as this of Dr. Hoeve's. It is to be hoped that many more may be forthcoming which will combine an intensive study of the mind of the criminal with that of his anatomy.

Northwestern University.

ROBERT H. GAULT.

ZUR PSYCHOLOGIE DER AUSSAGE: EIN VORTRAG, MIT EINEM ANHANG: UEBER DIE GESETZLICHE BESEITIGUNG DES ZEUGENEIDS. (Revised, 2d edition.) By *Dr. Johann Georg Gmelin*. Hanover, 1909. Pp. 98.

The first part of this pamphlet is a reprint, with some modifications of a portion of the third volume of the author's *Juristisch-psychiatrischen Grenzfragen*. In it, he discusses the chief conclusions that have come from the experimental investigation of testimony with respect to their application in jurisprudence. He particularly urges practitioners to make themselves acquainted with what experimental psychology has to offer them in this field, because, although lawyers and jurists often learn, after long practice, to disentangle the true and the false and to know by experience what kinds of testimony should be valid and what invalid, yet this kind of practical knowledge may be made conscious, systematic and scientific by the study of the psychology of testimony. Stern's demonstration that errorless testimony is the exception, not the rule, that

BOOK REVIEWS

most witnesses can not tell the truth when they want to, does not mean that we must give up the taking of testimony; rather that we must make the utmost effort to recognize and avoid or to allow for the existence of these errors. It is folly for jurisprudence to neglect or to try to minimize the work done by psychologists in the scientific study of testimony. Particular attention is called to the danger of false testimony that arises when the mind of the witness is in some respect abnormal (various forms of mental deficiency and disorganization in their mild or early stages) without this fact being recognized by the court. The author also deprecates the present methods of legal procedure in Germany, whereby the advantages of the "narrative" or "primary report" are lost and the accuracy of the best witness is injured by a series of detailed interrogations, often shot through with suggestive questions.

The second portion of the pamphlet discusses in detailed manner the problem of the oath, with reference, naturally, to the conditions obtaining in Germany. He points out that the necessity of a religious oath in the swearing of witnesses seems axiomatic to many jurists. However, Switzerland gets on without a religious oath and there are perfectly good grounds for dispensing with it in Germany. The relation of church and state in their mutual "proprietaryship" of the oath are treated at length. Gmelin speaks of the church as having lent or delegated the oath to the state. He argues that the church ought to be glad to have the oath dispensed with in civic life, that the state has no moral right to compel any person to take a religious oath, that the whole process of swearing the witness is a relic of primitive times, wholly out of place in modern civilization and culture, that the religious factor in the oath does not keep liars from lying nor make a good witness any better, while, as for the few who are kept from perjury by its use, most of them would be equally cautious if they were told that false testimony would be punished by ten years' imprisonment, and the handful that remain are not worth considering. The abolishment of the oath is one more step in the emancipation of the state from the forms of the church. But let us by no means consider the use of the facultative oath. To do so invites a colossal social danger. The religious oath should be abolished entirely and its place taken by a solemn affirmation of intent to tell the truth, supported by due warning on the part of the judge of the consequences of false testimony.

Cornell University.

G. M. WHIPPLE.

LE CHIEN DE GARDE, DE DEFENSE ET DE POLICE. By *Joseph Couplet*. Bruxelles: J. Lebegue et Cie, 1911. Pp. 261.

This book is divided into five chapters. The first chapter is devoted by the author to a consideration of the physiology of the dog. There is an excellent section devoted to the subject of hydrophobia, its detection, its differentiation from other distempers, and advice to those who may be bitten by a rabid dog. The value of this section is so great to the practical police officer that every policeman ought to be supplied with a translation of it for his personal use. The remainder of the first chapter is devoted to other diseases of dogs, the breeding of dogs, with explicit directions on the subject and the hygiene of dog management.

BOOK REVIEWS

Each subject is exhaustively treated and every possible question has been answered by the author.

The second chapter is devoted to the history and characteristics of the sheepdog, which is considered by the author as the best police and watchdog. In particular M. Couplet has pointed out the activities of these sheepdogs in their warfare against the wolves who attack their charges have made them peculiarly well fitted for modern police work. Many pages of this chapter are devoted to a minute description of the physical characteristics of the various varieties of the Belgian sheepdogs.

The third chapter contains instructions for the training of dogs. Emphasis is placed upon the great patience which the trainer of dogs must possess. The successive lessons in the training of the dog are the promenade, the recall, lying down, standing up; sitting down, acceptance of food from strangers, watching and attack and defense. Minute instructions are given to compel obedience to each of these commands.

In the fourth chapter the author devotes his attention exclusively to police dogs. For police work the dog must receive, in addition to the training outlined in the third chapter, additional training in getting over fences, in jumping, in seeking, bringing back and watching criminals, and in stopping a criminal when he runs away. The policeman must also be able to stop the attack of a police dog when such an attack has been ordered by him through an error on his part. The police dog must also of his own accord give assistance to a policeman who whistles for aid. In this chapter, also, the author gives full detailed instructions for the training of police dogs in the manner required for efficient police service.

The fifth chapter is devoted to the exhibition of police dogs and dog shows, and does not concern us as practical police officers. The appendices treat of the manner in which dogs may be broken of their bad habits of running after other dogs and chasing cats, as well as their work in the connection with the protection of sheep.

During the last few years many books and pamphlets treating of police dogs have been printed, especially in France and Germany. Some of these books furnish interesting reading; some possess value and some are neither interesting nor valuable. M. Couplet's book which the reviewer has seen on this subject is both interesting and extremely valuable. A copy of this French book ought to be on file at the police headquarters of every American city in which police dogs are regularly employed and police dogs ought to be employed by every police department operating wholly or partly in rural or suburban districts. If an English translation of this book were made available for use it would be strongly recommended that a copy be placed in the hands of every police officer. In nearly every American city in which police dogs are not officially employed the policemen pick up vagrant dogs on the street and have them accompany them on their late night tours for companionship and protection. With the assistance of this book every policeman could increase the usefulness of his dog companion by giving him the benefit of intelligent additional training in police work.

New York City.

LEONHARD FELIX FULD.

BOOK REVIEWS

CONTEMPORARY SOCIAL PROBLEMS. By *Achille Loria*. Translated from the Italian by John Leslie Garner. London: George Allen & Co., 1911. Pp. 156.

This is a series of popular lectures on contemporary social problems from a somewhat narrowly economic point of view. Professor Loria, as is well known, is an advocate of the sociological theory known as "economic determinism." According to him, "the sociological cosmos rests upon the economic element." "Under the most diverse phenomena of contemporary social life," he says, "the profound, the essential cause is some economic fact." It is from this point of view that he approaches the social problems of the present. Everything from death and disease to contemporary politics and religion receives its economic interpretation. The problems which the criminologist is interested in are especially due to economic conditions, Professor Loria tells us, and their solution must be sought through the change of those economic conditions. He finds that prostitution, suicide and alcoholism are all due to economic causes. "Crime," he says, "in its manifold forms, is essentially the product of economic factors." It is especially systems of land ownership, which, according to Loria, determine economic production and distribution, and so all other social conditions. The disappearance of free land, with the inevitable poverty and misery, which he thinks has been occasioned thereby, has given rise to the various forms of individual and social maladjustment.

Such are Professor Loria's views. They seem so extreme as to be scarcely worthy of serious criticism. Lombroso's discussion of the causes of crime would serve as a good antidote for Loria's extreme view. While Lombroso finds the causes of crime to be fundamentally biological, he very sensibly admits the influence of economic factors, but says that the importance of these factors is often overestimated. It may be noted that Professor Ferri has attempted to reconcile Loria's economic determinism with Lombroso's biological theory of crime by claiming that past bad economic conditions are the causes of that biological degeneration which Lombroso has demonstrated to exist so largely in the criminal class. But it must be added, unfortunately for Ferri's reconciliation, that modern biology offers no support for such a view. A safe conclusion is, therefore, that any such one-sided explanation of crime as Loria's is essentially unscientific.

University of Missouri.

CHARLES A. ELLWOOD.

REVIEW OF RECENT INVESTIGATIONS IN THE PSYCHOLOGY OF TESTIMONY.

[In the issue of the *Psychological Bulletin* of September 15 is a review of investigations in the "Psychology of Testimony," by Prof. Guy M. Whipple, the results of which have appeared in the literature of psychology within the past year. The review is quoted here in its entirety, with the permission of the editor of the *Psychological Bulletin*.—Ed.]

Relatively only a small amount of experimentation has been conducted during the past year upon the psychology of testimony. Binet,² indeed, who deserves credit for initiating the work in this field, speaks as if the earlier investigators had garnered substantially all the really

²Binet, A. Le bilan de la psychologie en 1910. *Année psychol.*, 1911, 17, v-xi.

valuable fruits of experimentation, and as if there remained but sparse picking for the investigator of to-day. But how can this be so, we are tempted to inquire, when the problem of testimony in its relation to historical investigation has hardly been touched upon, and when the problem of adapting the results of the experimental study of testimony to the practical needs of jurisprudence still calls for solution?

We may note in the recent literature signs that the legal profession is showing greater readiness to consider the results of experimental psychology. Thus, Gmelin⁶ has presented in an interesting manner the points of contact between the psychology of testimony and legal practice, and has urged the prime need that every jurist should familiarize himself with the work of the laboratory. Duprée⁷ has published in a popular form an extremely good summary of the net results of the laboratory studies of report, while Gross⁸, the eminent criminologist and jurist, declares that all testimony, from whatever source, ought to be investigated critically with the aid of the doctrines of "subjective criminal psychology," and suggests that experimentation may some day enable us to classify witnesses into groups (by age, sex, training, temperament, etc.), and to state for what sort of observation and report each of these groups presents peculiar gifts or defects, so that, in a specific case, given the type of witness and the type of event to be reported, we may be able to predict whether the witness can tell the truth, even if he wants to.

Aside from these general discussions of the relation of the psychology of testimony to law, we may note in the recent literature four chief queries: First, how important for practical application are the conclusions drawn from the standard picture-tests? Second, is the testimony of children as unreliable as has been claimed? Third, can the religious oath be set aside without appreciable loss of accuracy in testimony? Fourth, how great and of what order is the unreliability of the testimony of mental defectives?

Gross seriously questions the importance for law of the "discovery" in the laboratory of the possibility of classifying witnesses, by means of the picture-test, into those graphically (pictorially) minded and those not graphically minded. We can not, he says, argue from the outcome of this test to the grade of general intelligence of the witness, nor can we argue his ability to report correctly events that transpire in temporal sequence. For these reasons, Gross urges the extended use of the event-test in place of the picture-test, as being quite as simple to arrange, much more significant for the measuring of observation and report, and closer to the actual situation of the witness in court. Gerland,⁴ however, believes that the picture-test is significant for legal

⁶Gmelin, J. G. *Zur Psychologie der Aussage: ein Vortrag, mit einem Anhang; Zur gesetzlichen Beseitigung des Zeugeneids*. Hannover, 1909. Pp. 98.

⁷Dupree, E. *Le temoignage: etude psychologique et medico-legale*. *Rev. d. deux Mondes*, 1910, 55, 343-370.

⁸Gross, H. *Zur Frage der Zeugenaussage*. *H. Gross' Archiv*, 1910, 36, 372-382.

⁴Gerland, H. B. *Zur Frage der Zeugenaussage*. *H. Gross' Archiv*, 1910, 39, 116-119.

procedure, and that the test can be profitably carried out in court, both to test special ability to depict a scene and to test general ability to report.

Dr. Babinsky,¹ the expert German specialist in children's diseases, declares that children are the most dangerous of all witnesses, and demands that their testimony be excluded from court record wherever possible. Similar statements are made by Duprée. Gross, however, stakes his thirty years of experience in the court against the views of these physicians. He declares that a healthy half-grown boy is the best possible witness for simple events. He thinks that Baginsky may have been influenced by his professional contact with sick children, but that, more likely, he, like many another, has been led to generalize too hastily from a few instances of inaccuracy in children's testimony and without stopping to consider the equally numerous inaccuracies in the testimony of adults. Children, according to Gross, make different errors, but no worse ones than do adults. In some respects, *e. g.*, freedom from prejudice, erroneous interpretation, emotion, intoxication, etc., a child is better fitted than an adult to give accurate report. The present writer would suggest that the whole matter could be very simply cleared up by an appropriate experiment. Why not subject observers of different ages to a graded series of event-tests?

Duprée, briefly, and Gmelin, at length, inveigh against the use of the religious oath, on the ground that the oath is a relic of primitive conditions, and contrary to the spirit of modern civilization, that it neither increases the veracity of the honest, nor keeps liars from lying, nor lends intelligence to the mentally defective, and that its abolishment would make one more desirable step in the separation of church and state. A simple affirmation of the witness, supported by the control that would be exerted by a plain statement from the judge as to the punishment of perjury, would be just as effective in securing reliable testimony as the present religious oath.

A general account of the faulty testimony of defectives (the feeble-minded, epileptic, hysteric and insane) is contributed by Duprée, who warns emphatically of the peculiar danger that exists when the defect is latent or mild and unsuspected by the court. Especially interesting are cases of morbid confessions, and self-accusation (with or without the accusation of other innocent parties). Gregor² studied experimentally, by means of the picture-test, the reports of normal and of abnormal subjects under varying conditions of exposure and time-interval. Patients afflicted with various paralyses proved to be not appreciably poorer than normal subjects (nurses) when the conditions were favorable to report, but their reliability and their range of report fell off markedly and their resistance to suggestive questions was reduced when the conditions were unfavorable for report (long time-interval, interrogatory, etc.). Their defectiveness, in other words, is not so much in observation as in the recall and critical organization and formulation of what had been observed.

¹Babinsky, A. *Die Kinderaussage vor Gericht*. Berlin, 1910. Pp. 41.

²Gregor, A. *Beiträge zur Psychologie der Aussage von Geisteskranken*. *Monats. f. Psychiatr. u. Neur.*, 1910, 28, 290-304, 428-473.

BOOK REVIEWS

THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT AND THE LIQUOR TRAFFIC. By *William E. Johnson*, Chief Special Officer United States Indian Service. American Issue Publishing Company, Westerville, Ohio: 1911. pp. 275 with Index.

The book is a depository of facts. It may well be consulted for information within the area of its subject. Legislative, judicial and executive measures, or principles, or processes are furnished as authentic history. The constitutional limitations of the federal government in dealing with the drink problem and the corresponding powers of the states are brought into distinct contrast. Revenue from customs or internal tax is set forth with narrative and statistics, and the interest whether of meeting legitimate expense or requiring compensation for special ravages with the liquor business is taken into account. The regulations in force with the army and navy, beginning with the practice of allowance with rations, changing to the sutler's concession and passing to experiment with the canteen and to final discontinuance, are all reviewed. One of the most striking chapters has to do with the treatment of the American Indian and reproduces the story of national failures and offenses. The policy of the government within its own exclusive possessions is rehearsed, and the volume ends with a survey of congressional opinion and action.

The facts within the pages are illuminating. They may well be submitted to an interrupted reading or retained within reach for permanent consultation. The author proves his acquaintances with his subject and appeals to popular judgment as an authority. Though he does not strictly conceal his personal sentiment, he seldom advertises the advocate. The items he leaves largely to their own interpretation, and they are enough to stock a prohibition campaign. If the American citizen is concerned for "an eye-opener," he may do well to resort to the book rather than to the saloon.

The complicity of the federal government with a wicked and hurtful traffic is made clear, and the necessity of protecting dry territory from the attacks of interstate commerce is furnished practical demonstration. Congress is plainly confronted with the next thing. Measures to date, sometimes announced final and sufficient, are proven as far from successful in reducing the aggregate consumption of strong drink, but the decks are cleared for further, more effective action, and the present tone of testimony is decidedly optimistic.

Akron, Ohio.

HOUSTON W. LOWRY.

KURZER ABRISSE DER PSYCHOLOGIE, PSYCHIATRIE UND GERICHTLICHEN PSYCHIATRIE. By *Dr. Max Dost*. Leipzig: Vogel, 1908. Pp. 142. One plate and 21 figures.

This brief guide to lawyers and physicians first gives an anatomical physiological introduction, and a sketch of psychology; then passes to general psychopathology, discussing perception, intellectual activities, emotions and actions; then the etiology of mental disorders, the main types of psychoses, the diagnosis based on the expressive movements and activities; the methods of examining the intelligence and fund of knowl-

BOOK REVIEWS

edge, the therapy, and the relation of the different disorders to the civil and penal codes. A fairly comprehensive bibliography concludes the little book of 148 pages.

The book contains a large array of concise material and guidance for work and application of methods rather than discussion of theories. Indeed, it might be characterised as the memoranda of an earnest and able student, and a summary of the best literature. The expressive movements (pp. 52-56), writing (pp. 56-63, with 14 reproductions), and general activity, then the methods of examination, of intelligence and information of Rodenwald, Schultze and Rühs, Sommer, Ziehen-Redepenning; the problem of association; the elaboration tests of Bernstein, Ebbinghaus, Masselon, Möller, Finckh, Gunter, Henneberg, taking up pp. 69-111, are clearly put forth. The summary of the relation of the different mental disorders to the penal and civil law (pp. 114-138) offers in very concise form much material which would excellently supplement the usual wholesale discussions in American and English books. It shows plainly how an actual knowledge of the mental disorders should be used in addition to what the layman can discuss without training; and also how many chances for fishing in muddy water are eliminated by such information.

Johns Hopkins University.

ADOLPH MEYER.

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