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Reviews and Criticisms

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REVIEWS AND CRITICISMS

THE INTELLIGENCE OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED. By *Alfred Binet* and *Th. Simon*. Translated by Elizabeth S. Kite. Baltimore: Williams and Wilkins, 1916. Illustrated. Pp. 328. (Publication of the Vineland Training School.)

The translator has here made available in English three articles which appeared during the years 1908 and 1909 in *L'Année Psychologique*. This work as now published is a sequel to "The Development of the Intelligence Among Children." It is characterized by an intensive study of a few subjects, reproductions of conversations with these subjects, and discussions of these conversations.

Part I, on The Intelligence of the Feeble-Minded, extends through about one-half of the book. In this, the authors present "a new method of psychology, which may be called psychogenetics." In carrying out this method, they find all such faculties as attention, memory, judgment, reasoning, suggestibility, etc., present in some degree in all defectives. However, in the case of "practical acquisitions" such as reading, writing, and gaining a living, a different type of ability is required: ability to direct, adapt, and criticize one's thought. Here, the investigators find an absence of abilities which are possessed by the normal mind.

In Part II, on The Language of the Feeble-Minded, appears a detailed account of the application of the psychogenetic method to the measurement of the abilities of several subjects to use language. In several chapters, especially those upon the psychological conditions of speech and the relation between thought and language, the authors discuss issues which are of great interest to the general psychologist as well as to the psychiatrist.

Feeble-Mindedness and Dementia are discussed in Part III. After criticizing some current definitions of dementia, the authors give illustrations of the application of a measuring scale of intelligence. They distinguish between demented and defectives by contrasting the functioning of intelligence with its development. That is, data given show the demented's loss to be one of ability to evoke the facts of experience, and the defective's one of inability to develop; senile demented thus show better ability in matters of judgment than do defectives, although the senile demented is unable to call up specific ideas. This instinctive or attitudinal existence of demented gives rise to the distinctive difference between dementia and feeble-mindedness.

As stated above, this book treats of matters which are of interest to the general psychologist. Its special appeal is, however, to the psychologist who is particularly interested in abnormal mental development. Besides giving further illustrations of Binet's use of his measuring scale, it adds greatly to our knowledge of the feeble-minded.

Northwestern University.

W. L. UHL.

STUDY OF ORGAN INFERIORITY AND ITS PSYCHICAL COMPENSATION. A Contribution to Clinical Medicine. By *Alfred Adler*. (Trans. by Jelliffe.) *Nervous and mental disease monograph series*. No. 24. Nervous and Mental Disease Publishing Co. New York, 1917, pp. X and 86. \$1.50.

This monograph originally appeared in German a decade ago. Its author, a Viennese psychiatrist of considerable fame, rejects the typically Freudian view of the sexual etiology of psychoneuroses, substituting therefor a theory in which the concept of "organ inferiority" plays the leading role. Neurosis is overcompensation for the feeling of insufficiency born of discrepancy between ambition and attainment. The inferiority of some organ is the obstacle preventing the realization of one's ideal personality; there supervenes in the unconscious a battle for supremacy and dominion; insofar as the weakness is not overcome collateral paths of realization are opened. For example one becomes jealous or preternaturally ambitious in some new direction. The genius belongs here. But the extreme picture of thwarting is offered by the psychoneuroses. On the physiological side: "The inferior organs incapable of compensation fall victims, under the influence of the outside world, to more rapid or slower destruction. On the other hand nature forms from inferior organs, under the morphology, structures which are in many cases quite capable functionally and even at times somewhat better adapted to external circumstances, since they have derived their increase in strength in overcoming these obstacles and have consequently stood the test." (P. 56.)

The theory of organ inferiority instances in a new field the well-known theorem of Le Chatelier that "a system tends to change so as to minimize any external disturbance." The suggestiveness of this theorem when applied to mental phenomena is unquestionable, but no one need read farther than the first instance cited by Adler to feel the necessity of caution. From such extremely general formulations no more is to be obtained than has previously been put in; explain everything by a simple formula and in fact you explain nothing. Even Adler apologetically remarks "I do not wish to deduce too much from this case" after describing as his first instance a boy who suffered injury in the right eye three times within a half year, twice through being jabbed by a schoolfellow's pen, and the third time through a coal-splinter, inquiry revealing various forms of pathological vision in relatives from his grandfather down. A straightforward statement that this affords evidence of hereditary defect in the conjunctival reflex would seem adequate. Following Adler, however, one learns in this particular case about defective use of the visual psyche, and ends by believing that "there is no organ inferiority without accompanying inferiority in the sexual apparatus." "Every organ inferiority carries its heredity through, and makes itself felt by reason of an accompanying inferiority in the sexual apparatus." (P. 53.) And if you are really of the initiated the following quotation will not strike you as obscure: "A fundamentally inferior psychomotor superstructure is placed over the organ which responds

deficiently to its surroundings, a superstructure which, with every physical overexertion even as in playing or learning, may fail, and which will only suffice as a cultural control of the organ for a time, if a lasting interest, an inner attention, watches over the ordinarily wanton activity of the organ." (P. 72.)

The clinical cases are very largely examples of defect in the urinary apparatus.

We wonder that at this late day there is a demand for this monograph in translation.

Yale University.

RICHARD M. ELLIOTT.

EFFECTS OF HOOKWORM DISEASE ON THE MENTAL AND PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT OF CHILDREN. By *Edward K. Strong, Jr.* - International Health Commission—Publication No. 1. Rockefeller Foundation, N. Y., 1916. Pp. 121.

In 1912 the Rockefeller Sanitary Commission and the U. S. Public Service undertook an investigation for the securing of detailed information on the subject of the causes and the effects of hookworm. The present monograph is the result of the investigation. The study was made under the direction of Dr. Strong, and it is a significant step in the application of mental tests to social problems. It is remarkable for its compactness and careful use of methods of analysis, as well as for its social contribution.

One hundred and fifteen children were selected from a hookworm infested country for individual examination, physical and mental. Of these, 102 were studied and specially compared, divided into the following four groups: 22 A's (negative controls, or unaffected children); 12 B's (positive controls, or hookworm infected but untreated children); 36 C's (infected, treated and completely cured children); and 32 D's (incompletely cured subjects). The conclusions reached were on the basis of the comparison of the efficiency of the groups at different examinations, and of the relative improvement of the groups during the interval between a second and a third testing, a period of approximately four months.

The mental tests used were (1) Opposites, (2) A constant increment calculation test, (3) Logical memory, (4) Memory span for digits, (5) Hand-writing, (6) Goddard formboard, (7) The Binet-Simon tests. These mental tests showed on the average a distinct differentiation between the normal and infected groups, both as to absolute standing and as to improvement. The logical memory test turned out to be the best so far as the discerning of sluggish mental improvement in those infected with the hookworm was concerned. As would be expected irregularities were present in some of the tests. With the Binet-Simon series the normal children averaged approximately a year behind, the mildly infected 1.5 years, and the severe cases 2.0 years behind.

The physical tests showed clear initial difference between the normal and the hookworm infected, as to height, weight, grip and

lung capacity. Speed in tapping, and the index of fatigue in this test were not as good diagnostics in this respect. The interference of the hookworm in the older subjects was not noticeably different from that of the younger so far as the physical tests were concerned. One important conclusion is that "the rate of improvement physically has not been interfered with to anything like the extent shown in the mental tests."

Treatment does affect the amount of improvement radically, especially the mental improvement. With children 10-12 years of age this is more decided than with the older children 12-16, indicating that "the longer the child has the disease the more he will lose mentally, and the less rapid will be his mental development after he has been treated."

Northwestern University.

E. S. JONES.

THE BINET SCALE AND THE DIAGNOSIS OF FEEBLE-MINDEDNESS. By *Lewis M. Terman*. This JOURNAL, Vol. VII, No. 4. November, 1916. Pp. 530-543.

In this article the author makes an attempt to answer certain criticisms that have been made against clinical psychology, as related to the employment of the Binet-Simon scale of intelligence tests. The points about which his discussion is focussed are the following:

1. That most of the psychologists who use the Binet scale believe it to be a perfect instrument of measurement;
2. That they believe its use in the diagnosis of feeble-mindedness renders unnecessary any consideration of medical, neurological or sociological data concerning the subject;
3. That they regard the degree of intelligence, as determined by the scale, as the sole measure of the subject's fitness to be at large;
4. That they deliberately encourage persons without psychological training to undertake research with mental tests;
5. That the infallible criterion of feeble-mindedness in the adult subject is failure to pass the 12 year tests.

The article is well written and interesting, but the bias upon which it is predicated is at once apparent; that the real psychologist who is to determine the mentality and measure of a feeble-minded individual, should be a person qualified by a training in psychology, uncontaminated by medical knowledge. The author takes the usual position of the average non-medical psychologist, that the diagnoses of feeble-mindedness made by those who are psychological diagnosticians only, are superior to those made by individuals who are trained both in psychology and medicine. We will consider briefly the points that have been raised.

1. "Does the system of tests left us by Binet measure the intelligence with perfect accuracy?" The only reason this question ever could have been raised, if it ever was seriously raised, was the attitude which pedagogical psychologists took when the Binet-Simon scale of intelligence tests was first imported from Europe. Psychologists unwarrantedly, as they sprung up all over the country like mushrooms, appropriated the Binet-Simon scale of intelligence tests as their shib-

booth and went about promiscuously dealing out labels of feeble-mindedness without fear or conscience. Even though feeble-mindedness is dependent upon pathology these persons without clinical training with the feeble-minded or insane, and utterly lacking in a knowledge of pathology, went about giving out inaccurate data concerning feeble-mindedness. They seemed to think it was a great achievement to label this and that individual but six and seven years of age mentally as if they thought "There is an end to it." These erroneous practices might be charged by some to the amateur psychologist, but where can you find a psychologist who will admit that he is an amateur? If this attitude had not been taken there would have been no need for this question to arise, but it is now taken for granted that no real trained conservative psychologist would assume such a position. This scale is a measure of education only; no test for mental status can be made perfect. No one will deny the value of the Binet-Simon scale, for it is of very great value, and one of the best instruments we have for the determination of intelligence, and yet it is not absolutely to be depended upon without first making some qualifications. As said before this test is the measure only of education. It does not give any definite idea of the capacity for achievement. It does not determine the ability of an individual to adapt himself to his environment. It does not take into consideration the mental habits or racial characteristics, and these are very serious objections.

2. "Do psychologists who use the Binet tests countenance the failure to utilize medical, neurological, sociological and other supplementary data?"

The demeanor of superiority which unfortunately seemed to be assumed by some psychologists did lead to the erroneous idea that real investigators of mental intelligence failed to utilize medical, neurological, sociological and other supplementary data. Feeble-mindedness is dependent upon pathology and to attempt to measure human intelligence and still ignore its etiology is as futile as it is absurd. Research had long been inaugurated in medicine, in neurology, in abnormal psychology concerning feeble-mindedness before Goddard ever turned his attention to the Binet-Simon scale of intelligence and as Terman says, "it is safe to say that no responsible person engaged in the study of the feeble-minded doubts the absolute necessity of co-ordinating these various lines of approach." The diagnosis of feeble-mindedness should never be made alone for educational guidance, since the problem of mental defect is one of preventive medicine, of psychiatry, of sociology and psychology. As White says the advances that have been made in psychology are largely due to the studies made of the abnormal aspect of this subject. On account of the regrettable fact that some psychologists have superciliously tried to ignore the psychiatric and neurological aspect of enfeeblement, many cases have been, and many cases of positive mental diseases are being labelled falsely.

Every day cases of organic brain diseases, hyperthyroidism, cretinism, juvenile paresis, hysteria, dementia praecox and in rare instances

psychopathic states occurring in febrile diseases are receiving the diagnosis of feeble-mindedness from those who are psychological diagnosticians only. It was my experience to hear a prominent psychological authority apply a "psychological diagnosis" to the delirium of typhoid fever. A few hours later the interne on whose service the patient happened to be, did a Widal test thereby clearing at once the diagnosis and prognosis in the case. This instance well illustrates the need that the average psychologist, who attempts to measure feeble-mindedness, has for a training in pathology. The psychologist is not alone at fault, however; the average physician is as poorly equipped in the elements of psychology as the psychologist is in the rudiments of pathology. We need today psychopathologists, that is individuals who are trained in psychology, in psychiatry, supplemented by institutional training and experience. Professor Terman has criticized the supplementary information called for in clinical examination blanks. He says such data is worthless, and that such blanks are the survival from the pre-scientific period. He oversteps the mark. If we wish to know the mental status of any individual we must place the results of our mental examination in proper relation with the individual's life history. We must make longitudinal sections of the individual, so to speak, and not mere cross sections.

3. "Do psychologists who defend the Binet method disregard the non-intellectual mental traits as co-determinants of a subject's social fitness or educational possibilities?" Unfortunately some psychologists who are ready to deny the appellation of amateurs have to a great extent disregarded the "non-intellectual traits," so-called, as co-determinants of the subject's social fitness or educational possibilities. Not so very long ago, the executive of one of the largest municipalities in the United States was classified as a moron, yet the person in question seems to administer the affairs of his city in a manner that is satisfactory even to those of opposite political faith. It is seriously doubted if this psychologist will ever attain to such prominence in his own field. There are many individuals living quiet, simple lives, who accumulate property who care for their children, who never come into conflict with the law and conventions of society, who are peaceful and law-abiding, self-supporting citizens, who never ask assistance from the state, and who would be classified nevertheless as morons and high grade imbeciles by the Binet-Simon system.

On the other hand there are individuals, many of them educated, even college graduates, who can pass this system with perfect ease, and yet they are absolutely lacking in judgment; childish and puerile in their behavior, and "incapable of conducting themselves with any degree of prudence," in business and social relations. They are in fact, lacking in "mother wit" and are really "educated fools."

4. "Do adherents of the Binet method hold that amateur Binet testers should be encouraged to attempt psychological diagnosis of the feeble-minded?" We agree with Professor Terman that only the trained psychologist should be permitted to make a real diagnosis. But there's the rub, who is the real psychologist? And since there is much

difference of opinion among them, who, as I stated before, will admit that he is an amateur? It is the writer's opinion that the psychologist who measures intelligence should be liberally trained in the arts and sciences; in psychology—didactic and laboratory—and in addition he should know pathology, since he is to deal with abnormal mental states. And that the psychologist *sine qua non* should be the holder of a medical degree. And as opposed to Professor Terman's idea, the positions of clinical psychology in the courts, reform schools, prisons and institutions for the feeble-minded should be in the hands of physicians, who have a psychological training, for these institutions are in fact museums of pathological cases.

5. "Do the responsible psychologists who use the Binet scale mechanically apply an automatic criterion in the diagnosis of feeble-mindedness?"

Unfortunately some psychologists have applied the Binet scale mechanically as an automatic criterion in the diagnosis of feeble-mindedness. If this had not been the case at least in some instances there would have been no necessity for asking this question and as Professor Terman has well said, if any psychologist ever hoped to find such a simple standard as 12-year intelligence an infallible criterion of fitness to be at large surely long since he has been disillusioned. There is a misunderstanding in the use of the term feeble-mindedness; in one instance it refers to a certain degree of intellectual mental defect as measured by an objective scale. This definition is psychological. But the one usually employed is a social definition since it refers to the adjustment of the individual to his environment. The psychological definition or rather the psychological criteria which we employ in our laboratories is perfectly all right in the laboratory, but we must depend more upon the social criterion even though it may be shifting and indefinite and somewhat regulated by geographical position. The information that is to be given to the public concerning the feeble-minded must be given in social terms, for the problem of feeble-mindedness cannot be solved in the laboratory. There are two conceptions of insanity; one a medical and the other a legal one and the confounding of these terms leads to confusion and erroneous ideas concerning the social problems of insanity. For the prevailing idea of insanity is purely a legal one and so the prevailing definition of feeble-mindedness is a social one. And in addition the ultimate test of mental capacity is the ability of the individual to adapt himself to his environment.

Michigan City, Ind.

PAUL E. BOWERS.

THE OFFENDER AND HIS RELATION TO LAW AND SOCIETY. By *Burdette G. Lewis*, Harper and Brothers, New York, pp. 371, Illustrated, Net \$2.00.

The author of this book, which is one of "Harper's Modern Science Series," is Commissioner of Correction of the City of New York. As stated by the publishers, therefore, "experience, science and common sense have gone to the making of this book."

It may be said, however, to be a running account of conditions and theories, past and present, rather than a scientific treatise. The much needed classic on penology to date is hardly discovered here. At the same time its discussion of the individual offender gives emphasis to the deductions of Dr. Wm. Healy and other recent writers who have made more intensive studies of the delinquent.

While the volume is divided into two parts, dealing first with society and the offender, and secondly with the prevention of crime, and has eighteen chapters and subjects, one gets the impression that the author's abundant material should have been more carefully classified. The reader finds penology, criminology, prison building, theories of education and government, psychiatry and methods of administration dealt with in practically all chapters and under various titles. Mr. Lewis is full of ideas and enthusiasm, however, and has apparently dictated his impressions at odd hours out of a busy life administering the correctional institutions of America's largest municipality.

On the whole, the author of "The Offender" is constructive in his criticisms and proposals, and exceedingly ambitious in his program. Classification of offenders and centralization of administration are two points upon which the greatest stress is laid. These and other essentials to the modern solution of the crime problem are set forth without much reference to such little difficulties in the way as expense, public sentiment, political opposition, etc. For example, the proposal that each state should have a correctional system consisting of some twenty different institutions for various classes and purposes, would seem to be wholly impracticable. Neither taxpayers or legislators are likely to be convinced of the necessity, especially in view of the well-known industrial inefficiency of most prisons.

The author's most frequent references are naturally to New York conditions and institutions. He apparently forgets that the size and prison population of most states would make such an ambitious scheme out of the question.

The assurance of this book, almost to the point of dogmatism, is hardly warranted by the present stage of experimentation in the field of criminology and penology. For instance the statement is frequently made: "We now know" this or that as to the offender or heredity or theories of training in a way which reminds us of the man who said he would rather not know so much, than to know so much that isn't so. This same element of finality is found in the author's discussion of theories of administration. His "there must be no compromise on this point," oft repeated, would perhaps find many objectors among those who have already proven other methods successful.

"The Offender" is highly suggestive, stimulating and decidedly worth reading. A lengthy appendix contains several articles descriptive of penal methods. The illustrations are chiefly of plans for correctional institutions in New York State and City. A list of authors quoted is given and a classified index makes ready reference to subject matter possible.

Chicago.

F. EMORY LYON.

THE MAN IN COURT. By *Frederick DeWitt Wells*. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1917, pp. 283. Price \$1.50.

This series of essays, written by a justice of the Municipal Court of New York, gives a vivid picture of what to the average layman appear to be the shortcomings of court procedure. It is well described as a "humorous visualization" of the complexities of legalistic methods. The author's description of "The Judge," "The Anxious Jury," "The Strenuous Lawyer," and "The Worried Client," are at once whimsical and truthful. The average court scene is set forth as both a stage setting, with all the elements and figures of a drama, and an arena for combat between the contending attorneys, with His Honor the Judge acting as umpire. The red tape, technical objections, farcical methods of selecting a jury and interminable delays in the disposal of calendar business, all come in for their share of ridicule. Much of this has been done before, but seldom in so readable a form, and perhaps never before by a member of the bench.

One naturally wishes that the judge would offer a remedy for this obvious and long deplored inefficiency in the courts. In this, however, the reader is somewhat disappointed, though some effort is made to show that many of the difficulties are unavoidable.

The principal constructive suggestion is found in the author's proposal that modern business efficiency be applied in the effort to secure justice by the application of present laws, and in securing better ones. Much of the waste of time and money in court procedure might be saved, Judge Wells truly states, "by an intelligent bureau for the administration of court business." He is perhaps correct in believing that the tendency in that direction is encouraging inasmuch as most lawyers are coming to be business men, rather than merely jury pleaders.

In a final chapter, the author gives a "Looking Backward" picture of possibilities in the application of business principles in the legal realm as seen by an imaginary Columbia graduate in 1947. This dissertation describes a "Judicial Corporation" which has grown to be a successful private enterprise, a co-operative but well established institution for the administration of justice.

The human interest of this volume, it should be said, centers in the first chapter, rather than the last. Here Judge Wells describes typical scenes in the Night Court. The veritable human laboratory which streams through this court each night is a real revelation to the novice as to how the other half lives. The fact that 47 per cent of this social drift-wood comes back to the mill again and again is ascribed to social conditions generally rather than to either court methods or the short-comings of correctional institutions.

The author gives this striking conclusion for the public to ponder: "The ordinary man knows that those who go under are such a small proportion of those who escape, that it seems either a ghastly joke or a terrible tragedy. The whole paraphernalia of the court room merely accents the contrast between those who are caught and those who go free."

Chicago.

F. EMORY LYON.

THE ORIGIN OF FINGER PRINTING. By *Sir William J. Herschell, Bart.* Oxford University Press, London, 1916. Pages, 41. 50c.

The purpose of this interesting little book is to record the beginning of the finger print method of personal identification in Bengal in 1858; to trace its development up to its public demonstration in Bengal from 1877-78; to examine the evidence that this method had been foreshadowed in Europe more than 100 years ago and had been general, especially in China, in ancient times. The pamphlet contains 20 illustrations.

Northwestern University.

ROBERT H. GAULT.

PRISON REFORM. Compiled by *Corinne Bacon.* The Hand Book Series. The H. W. Wilson Company, White Plains, New York, 1917. Pages 309. \$1.00 net.

The purpose of this book is to give the reader a general knowledge of prison reform in the United States. The sections included in the book are reprints of articles that have appeared in many places and are arranged under the following heads: History of Prison Reform; Conditions and Methods in Prisons and Reformatories; Sing Sing and Warden Osborne; Psychopathic Clinics and Classification of Prisoners; Convict Labor; Indeterminate Sentence; Probation and Parole; Jails and Centralized Control of Penal Institutions. An article by Mr. Thomas M. Osborne entitled "The Prison of the Future," completes the volume. Most of the articles are altogether too brief and sketchy to be of any use to a student of penology. The book will serve a good purpose however in bringing to the eye of the general reader in a small space the general subject of prison reform.

Northwestern University.

ROBERT H. GAULT.

STANDARDIZED FIELDS OF INQUIRY FOR CLINICAL STUDIES OF BORDER-LINE DEFECTIVES. By *Walter E. Fernald, M. D.,* Mental Hygiene, Apr. 1917. Pp. 211-34.

On the basis of the examination of some 1,500 individuals for diagnosis as to the presence or absence of mental defect at the outpatient clinics of the Massachusetts School for the Feeble-Minded, the following ten "Fields of Inquiry" were decided upon as furnishing a basis for individual case study:

1. Physical examination.
2. Family history.
3. Personal and development history.
4. School progress.
5. Examination in school work.
6. Practical knowledge and general information.
7. Social history and reactions.
8. Economic efficiency.
9. Moral reactions.
10. Mental examination.

The items of information were obtained from reliable sources. The examinations were made on the spot; intelligence tests were made

by the psychologist in the laboratory. Final diagnosis is made by graphic presentation of positive and negative findings in each field of inquiry. The minus sign is used to represent defect.

The charts accompanying the article are based on the diagnosis of 860 cases, 614 of whom were classed as feeble-minded. In comparing the cases diagnosed as "feeble-minded" and "not feeble-minded," the latter show some handicapped in physique, family history and developmental history, but the height of the curve is the field of moral reactions, showing that their bad behavior was the principal reason for being brought to the clinic. Of the feeble-minded group, 314 were morons, and 235 imbeciles. As a group the imbeciles get as high a percentage of minuses as possible in each field except family history and morals. The moron group are quite regular in their deficiencies, showing probability or corroboration of defect in almost every field.

The children diagnosed as backward show 86% minus in school progress, the common character of the group. By comparison, only 48% are minus in general information. Comparison with the defective group in general information, economic efficiency, and mental examination makes the diagnosis of backwardness seem only fair, especially in view of handicaps such as language and race difference. Of the cases on whom diagnosis was deferred the curve shows much the same condition. The basis of differentiation between this group and the backward was evolved by practice and from a thorough individual study rather than *a priori* classification of terms.

To summarize, in a definitely feeble-minded person, evidence of mental defect is found in almost all fields of inquiry; even in the borderline cases, where the defect is slight as a rule, definite evidence of mental defect will be found in nearly all the fields. In cases which are not mentally defective the synopsis of findings is usually equally significant and consistent. If a patient has a normal mind his personal history, school progress, practical knowledge, etc., are those of a normal person. Social history and reactions and moral reactions are constantly modified by environmental influences, and if deficiencies are found in these fields only, it is probable that they are due to causes other than mental deficiency.

Evanston, Ill.

ELIZABETH PETTY SHAW.

HOW MAY WE DISCOVER THE CHILDREN WHO NEED SPECIAL CARE?

By *Robert M. Yerkes*. *Mental Hygiene*, Apr. 1917. Pp. 252-59.

As a practical approach to the task of better suiting educational treatment to the needs of the individual child a classification is suggested according to the major characteristics of mind: (1) the intellectually superior or super-normal; (2) the intellectually inferior or subnormal; (3) the intellectually dependent; (4) the affectively or instinctively defective; (5) the mentally normal or average.

The first class are those who give promise of becoming the leaders of the community, and are handicapped in our schools by insufficient opportunities. They need special attention and care, as upon them

human progress chiefly depends. The intellectual inferiors are the morons; they need intensely practical, industrial and vocational, training. The intellectual dependents are those who are incapable of self-supporting activity. These belong in special institutions. The instinctively or emotionally or morally peculiar children, the affective deviates, are characterized by underdeveloped, overdeveloped, or unusually related instincts. The juvenile delinquent and incorrigible are found here, and needless to say, need special study and care. The normal children make up 80-90% of the total number.

How select these groups? The method suggested aims at a relatively inexpensive way. A staff of experts, including a physician, a psychologist, an educator, and a social worker should be organized. First, the children should be given physical, medical and psychological examinations in groups of 20-50. The physical and medical examinations should be inspectional, while the psychological, a series of mental tests. The 10-15% of those belonging to the first four categories should be selected by this means. Next, a reasonably thorough examination, physical, medical and psychological, should be made of each exceptional pupil. Finally, a detailed report of findings and the recommendations of the experts should be made.

Evanston, Ill.

ELIZABETH PETTY SHAW.

THE PUBLIC DEFENDER; A NECESSARY FACTOR IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE. By *Mayer C. Goldman*—Foreword by Justice Wesley O. Howard, Appellate Division, New York Supreme Court. G. B. Putnams Sons, New York, 1917. Pages 96. \$1.00 net.

This little book is a timely contribution to a subject that is very much in the public mind. The author has contributed already an article to this Journal on the subject of the Public Defender (see Vol. V, 5, 660 ff, and Vol. VI, 4, 557 ff). The volume before us comprises 8 chapters on the following subjects: The Public Defender Idea; The Injustice of the Assigned Council System; Public Prosecution and Prosecutors; Analysis of the Public Defender; The Ancient Conception of Crime; Specific Objections Considered; Other Remedies Inadequate; The March of the Movement; Appendix.—The Public Defender Chronology.

The author confidently asserts that the following advantages might accrue from the establishment of the office of public defender: (1) The theoretical safeguard surrounding the accused will be rendered more effective, (2) Cases will be more honestly and ably presented, (3) Manufactured defenses will be reduced, (4) Unfair discrimination will be eliminated, (5) Disreputable attorneys will be unable to prolong cases, (6) Pleas of guilty will be minimized, (7) The truth will be more available, (8) Expense will be decreased, (9) The criminal courts will be improved, (10) Guilty persons will not receive excessive punishment, (11) Confidence in the law and respect for it will be increased.

The final chapter and the appendix contain in summary a good historical resumé of the public defender idea. It will be useful to the student.

Northwestern University.

ROBERT H. GAULT.

CONVICT LABOR FOR ROAD WORK. By *J. E. Pennybacker*, Chief of Division of Road Economics, *H. S. Fairbank*, Highway Engineer, Office of Public Roads and Rural Engineering, and *Dr. W. F. Draper*, Past Assistant Surgeon, United States Public Health Service, Bulletin No. 414, U. S. Department of Agriculture.

Of late there has been a growing interest in the utilization of convicts in road building and in the preparation of road materials. The practices and methods followed in such utilization have varied considerably. No state or community has been acquainted with the policies of other states or communities. No central source of information has existed, and no attempt has been made by any group or body of persons interested to fix standards or to offer constructive suggestions. Public officials and those interested generally in this question are to be considered fortunate in now having for the first time in convenient and readily accessible form a most excellent and admirable study of the problem entitled "Convict Labor for Road Work," issued by the U. S. Department of Agriculture.

The report is based upon a most thorough investigation conducted during 1914 and 1915 by means of personal visits and interviews with prison officials in twenty-two states, supplemented by correspondence and by an intensive survey of all published data. It was the purpose of the authors to prepare a monograph which would cover "as nearly as possible all the questions that might arise in connection with either the adoption of a policy relating to the use of convict labor in road work or the actual working out of such a policy." The purpose has been fully realized.

After very briefly but completely discussing the various systems of convict labor in general and showing that the trend has been toward "those systems under which the convict is entirely employed by the state," the bulletin plunges into a presentation of the pros and cons of road work for convicts. The efficiency and economy of convict labor, the systems of management and discipline, the character, preparation and sort of food, the proper kinds of records and cost accounts, sanitation, the care of the sick and injured, etc., are all fully covered. Charts, diagrams, photographs, tables and specimen book-keeping forms add to the value of the work. The report also contains a complete bibliography as well as an appendix containing a digest of state laws relating to the employment of convicts on road work.

The authors conclude that no field can be selected in which prison labor may be more advantageously employed to the benefit of the state and the prisoner than in the improvement of the highways. It may be carried on with as much efficiency as industrial labor within the penitentiaries and with far greater benefit to the convict himself. In considering the efficiency and economy of convict labor as contrasted with

that of free labor, the authors wisely state that it is practically impossible to secure precise information on that point. Estimates are of no avail inasmuch as they usually rate the relative efficiency of the convict at from 50 per cent to 150 per cent of that of free labor. In two of the three cases cited in which reliable cost data were available, free labor was shown to be more efficient than convict labor, while in the third case, the extremely high price of free labor, due to certain political causes, was an important factor in giving convict labor its advantage.

As to systems of management, the authors state that there can be no stereotyped plan of control prescribed for all states and for all conditions, yet it is believed that as a rule the best results may be secured only when the responsibilities of prison and highway departments are clearly defined and separated, the former retaining administration of the penal law, while the latter supervises the road construction, the maintenance of proper housing conditions, the feeding, and also the disciplining of the convicts, but the latter should be done in accordance with the rules of the prison department.

It is impossible to do justice to the excellence of this document in a short review. The authors have been most careful in selecting their data and in drawing their conclusions. The report will prove to be a handy and valuable manual for prison officials and others interested in this field.

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