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Reviews and Criticisms

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DIE PSYCHOLOGIE DES VERBRECHENS; EINE KRITIK. Von Dr. Med. u. phil. *Max Kauffman*. Julius Springer, Berlin, 1912. Pp. 344, M. 10.

In his *Vorwort*, the author of this volume expresses the belief that erroneous conceptions concerning crime and its causes are traceable in a large measure to the fact that it has not been made clear where and by what means we should study crime. He therefore proposes to discuss, in this book, the methods of investigation in this field and to point out the numerous sources of error which beset the student of crime. But before he launches out upon this program he devotes thirty-seven pages of the text to a brief discussion of a number of concepts which are frequently employed in the course of the work. Among these are the following: Will, motive, heredity, degeneracy, moral insanity, inborn egoism of the child, etc.

Following this are sixty pages devoted to the discussion and criticism of various sources of information. The prison physician and the psychiatrist; the intelligence test and laboratory experiment; the physiognomy and the lies of criminals; statistics and its sources of error; all these are among the topics that are brought forward in this portion of the text. No one source alone is adequate to afford a knowledge of the individual criminal. The psychiatrist and the prison physician are especially liable to the errors of analogy. Mental tests and laboratory experiments are inadequate for the purpose for which they are intended, because many criminals are the victims of weak wills and love of ease, and these are qualities that scientific tests do not themselves reveal. Furthermore, in the reviewer's opinion, the author makes a strong point when he urges that laboratory experiments, intelligence tests and other mental tests applied to delinquents behind the bars are likely to be misleading because there the criminal is not at his best; he is constrained, depressed and uncertain. To compensate for these and other shortcomings of the sources under discussion, the investigator is driven by necessity to mingling with delinquents in freedom and to observing them in such a situation throughout a considerable period of time. Dr. Kauffman has consistently pursued this method. In the volume under review he now and then refers to his stenographic notes, that were made when he was thus conducting his work, and quotes from them, *e. g.*, p. 92, where he quotes a stereotyped phrase from the conversation of criminals which recurred many hundreds of times in his notes. This phrase was to the effect that the delinquent had not thought about the nature and possible outcome of his criminal acts; that is was "all his own fault," etc.

In the second division of the text the author discusses criminal types in the space of 112 pages. One who has learned to know criminals in all situations, he believes, can, without doing violence to the facts, classify them according to two principles as the vagrant and the

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energetic type. In connection with his description of the first type he discusses the psychology of work; the mental, physical and social characteristics of the vagrant and the prostitute; the alcoholic criminal; the criminal by opportunity and the kleptomaniac. Throughout this section the author makes use of the results of statistical and laboratory investigations. He believes that we are not justified on the basis of intelligence tests in drawing the conclusion that the manner of life of the prostitute can be traced either to inborn mental weakness or to acquired weakness of intelligence. (*Intelligenzschwache*, p. 129.)

The second type of criminal includes the robber, the thief, the impostor, the gentleman swindler and the juvenile criminal. That such delinquents on the whole are inferior in intelligence to the groups in which they belong, Dr. Kauffman believes, is wholly untenable.

There is more or less transition from one type to another. It not infrequently happens that at the fortieth or fiftieth year of age the vagrant becomes energetic or vice versa.

Finally, in this part, the author discusses a certain atypical group, among whom are murderers. He believes that murder is usually incidental to the commission of other crimes, excepting in those cases in which the act is done by the insane.

In the third portion of the text Dr. Kauffman treats the causes of crime. There are individual causes such as the social impulse, improvidence, weakness of will, juvenile mentality, neurasthenia, alcoholism. On the other hand, there are social causes. The effects of education and culture even punishment may be a cause of crime (p. 250) in as much as, if it is improperly chosen and administered, its psychological effect may be, not to awaken ideals of good conduct, nor to renew allegiance to ideals, but to embitter the spirit of the one who endures the punishment.

In the last section, fifty pages are devoted to the discussion of the prevention of crime, including the psychology of punishment.

In the final section the author discusses the penal law in the course of 75 pages, the prevention of crime, and the reform of the administration of punishment. He has little faith in the indeterminate sentence, for how can any one determine that a convict who is under the rigid restraint of a prison, where he is not permitted even moderate freedom of self-expression, either is or is not fit to enjoy the freedom of normal life? At this point Dr. Kauffman does not appear to realize what seems to many of us to be the fact that the difficulty in this instance can be obviated by administrative means. Give a prisoner the limited freedom of the outdoor prison farm and the still greater freedom of the honor squad if possible. In such situations it should be possible to determine exactly whether he has become fit for normal social life or not.

Northwestern University.

ROBERT H. GAULT.

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ADOLF MERKEL. *DIE LEHRE VON VERBRECHEN UND STRAFE*. Edited by M. Liepmann. F. Enke, Stuttgart, 1912. Pp. XLII+371.

This book takes the place of the second edition of the late A. Merkel's Textbook of Criminal Law, which is out of print for some time. The title of the original book is a trifle misleading, since it is not so much a textbook to be used by the student in connection with a lecture course, as a critique of the fundamental notions of criminal law. The existing German law is taken as a context for developing a general doctrine of crime and punishment. Merkel's views have made themselves felt very widely, particularly by the change of front in regard to some vital points in the doctrine of Liszt's school. The larger part of the program of reforms advocated by Liszt—individual treatment of the criminals, importance of studying the causes and conditions of crime, necessity to combine educational preventive measures with imprisonment—are more or less generally recognized by criminologists, but this does not mean a victory of their theoretical basis. Two propositions may be regarded as essential for an idealistic conception of criminal law: first that criminal responsibility cannot exist without freedom of the will, and second that punishment has an absolute value of its own without reference to its useful effects for the future. Anthropology and sociology teach us to regard crime as a necessary result of existing conditions, wherein anthropology naturally emphasizes the necessity of reactions for a given character, while sociology accentuates the influence of existing social conditions on forming a character and provoking responses from it. Both sciences have made us familiar with the idea that will actions are causally determined, and the question arises whether we also have to accept their views in regard to crime and its punishment. On the point of free will, Merkel takes exceptions with both doctrines: against the idealistic school he insists that legal and criminal responsibility do not rest on free will, while he opposes the sociological and anthropological doctrines on account of the consequences they draw from the deterministic view in regard to crime and punishment.

The sociological and anthropological doctrines of crime and punishment are very much alike. They agree in their opposition against punishment as retaliation. Indeed, logically we can punish an action only if it could have been avoided, *i. e.*, if the person could have acted otherwise. Without free will, therefore, apparently no guilt, and without guilt no punishment. Determinism seems to take away from punishment every function except that of frightening off future criminals, a view which past experience has proved to be thoroughly unacceptable. Both doctrines insist that an action must not be judged isolated from the criminal, his antecedents, and his surroundings, but that the real danger for society lies in his character and what may be expected from it for the future. This is the point of Merkel's attack. He shows that the distinction between punishment as a retributive measure and punishment for a purpose is artificial and unsatisfactory. History shows that punishment always had the purpose of maintaining an existing order and that the amount of punishment reflected the im-

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portance which public opinion attached to the maintenance of this order and its disturbances. As government increases in its power, punishment ceases to be a personal reaction against pain inflicted and is meted out according to fixed laws. Punishment certainly has not the purpose to defend or establish an absolute moral law, as is seen from the considerations of public welfare, which frequently decide the amount of punishment given. Punishment refers to a past deed, but not in so far as it belongs to the past, but because it is an element affecting the present and the future by its consequences. Not the fact that somebody at some time in the past has fallen sick is the cause of medical treatment, but the actually existing conditions and the dangers arising from them call for the interference of the physician. Similarly it is bootless to ask whether we punish "quia peccatum est" or "ne peccetur."

To make the dangerous character of a criminal the object of punishment means the destruction of our present legal system. The criminal could not be punished any more than the lunatic. There would be no sense—not even that of frightening off possible wrongdoers in the future—in punishing a person who has become guilty through a combination of circumstances which never will arise again, if his reaction does not prove any dangerous tendencies within him. On the other hand, we would have to take preventive measures against individuals whom we recognize as dangerous, although they may not yet have committed any crimes. For the sociological and anthropological view the actual offense is nothing more than a symptom of the dangerous character of the individual, or a proof of his need for improvement. Punishment, for such a view, is a method of treating, or an experiment in removing certain anti-social qualities. The law could not threaten certain crimes with specified terms of imprisonment of given length, since there is no way of predicting when the cure will have taken effect, and since there obviously will be large individual variations. The person to judge the moral improvement of the criminal would have to be some prison official, on whom must devolve the duty to pass the final word on releasing the prisoner.

This double opposition of Merkel against the idealistic school of criminal law, and against the sociological and anthropological doctrines of criminology makes Merkel's book very delightful reading. The argumentation is subtle, but can be followed by a reader who does not profess to have any knowledge of the German criminal code.

University of Pennsylvania.

F. M. URBAN.

PROSTITUTION IN EUROPE. By *Flexner Abraham*, The Century Company, 1914, New York. Pp. IX + 455, \$1.30.

This is the second volume of a series of four announced by the Bureau of Social Hygiene of New York City. The first was by Geo. J. Kneeland, on Commercialized Prostitution in New York City.

To get the material, Mr. Flexner spent a year in Europe and spent a second year getting it in shape. Practically every large city from

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London to Budapest was visited and every opportunity to see the situation and to observe the working of police agencies was given. The result is the most valuable study we have of European conditions. Without attempting here to reproduce the evidence offered, we may summarize the findings.

Everywhere in Europe prostitution has undergone the same development in recent centuries. The medieval city was small. The prostitute was known to all, the line between her and the virtuous woman easily and accurately drawn. Now the big city has come, with its lack of personal acquaintance. There is a large floating population. There are all types of prostitutes and it is impossible to separate or list all of them, let alone recognize them. In many regions illegitimacy involves little disgrace. The total cost of prostitution is enormous, being estimated in Germany at between 300 and 500 million marks. Prussia spends on her entire educational system only 200 million marks.

The demand is enormous. Irregular sexual connections are taken for granted on the part of the man. A German authority is quoted as saying that "Among the working classes, city or country, abstinence is excessively rare, and in the higher classes, practically insignificant." Sex instruction is little regarded. Yet a change is coming. Debasing literature and pictures are coming under the ban and many organizations are advocating higher standards.

The prostitutes are largely drawn from the poorer classes and districts. Though feeble-mindedness and other defects are in part responsible, yet poverty, the breakdown of home influences, street amusements and early suggestions are largely to blame. Prostitution is distinctly an urban phenomenon. To considerable extent the demand and supply are both artificially stimulated.

Under current law, as in Germany, prostitution is a crime, but one who is frequently guilty and who is voluntarily or not enrolled on official lists is free to continue the commission of crime. The real opinion of the people makes light of the offense of the man, damns the girl, and insists that the traffic is necessary; so the real situation is the same, regardless of law. Increasingly rises the demand that prostitution be considered a vice, not a crime, and to this Europe tends.

Whether the policy be regulation, as it is on the continent, or abolition, as in England, the results are the same. The attempt to secure registration has proven absurd, and all authorities know and admit that only a small fraction of prostitutes, say one-eighth or one-tenth, are actually inscribed. Moreover, regulation makes escape from the life more difficult and puts the power into the hands of some officer. The absence of a habeas corpus provision, as in France, makes possible the continued persecution of any woman to whom an officer may be hostile. Regulation does not prevent trouble. The situation, even on the streets, is no better where there are bordells than in cities lacking them. Mr. Flexner thinks the abolition of the bordell weakens the power of the white slaver. Segregation, then, is really non-existent in Europe, in spite of popular opinion. Nowhere do even the in-

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scribed group live there. There is little difference between conditions in London—unregulated, and Berlin—regulated.

The attempt to control the spread of disease by medical supervision is pictured as little less than a farce. In Berlin the laboratory is well equipped; in Paris "the establishment does not yet boast a microscope." The time between examinations varies from once a week to once a month, and the time spent on each patient probably does not average a minute. Hospital accommodations are inadequate, and St. Lazare at Paris is an awful dungeon. In view of the small number inscribed, there is really no regular inspection. Moreover, so superficial the examination, so brief the detention even when disease is discovered, it is clear that the whole system has broken down. There is coming a marked opposition to regulation, and in France a special commission recommended its abolition. One factor delaying this reform is the desire of the "moral police" to keep in touch with the underworld. Picturing the police systems as a whole in favorable colors, Mr. Flexner feels that "moral police" are badly demoralized.

"Abolition does not mean laissez-faire; in all the countries that I visited, abolition of regulation is accompanied by definite statutory authority to deal adequately with prostitution in so far as it imperils order and decency." Copenhagen, Christiana are backed by a higher public opinion than Berlin, and actual conditions, Mr. Flexner thinks, are better. Abolition places all prostitutes on the same basis. In regard to the attitude of the people, Mr. Flexner thinks the Scandinavians are far ahead of England, and the former are definitely tackling the evil. It is said that a larger percentage of the diseased is now reached than formerly. "Repression, in order to realize its full possibilities, requires an abundance of institutional facilities, such as now nowhere exist."

The lesson for America, the author states, is repression—not regulation.

The last fifty pages are given to digests of the regulations of various cities.

The author is to be complimented upon the clearness of his style, the abundance of evidence and pertinency of his illustrations. He has given us an exceedingly valuable study, and has handled his material in such masterly fashion that only a prude can take offense. It is greatly to be hoped that Americans will not overlook this volume.

University of Pennsylvania.

CARL KELSEY.

"THE ENGLISH CONVICT." A statistical study. By *Charles Goring*, M. D., B. Sc., Deputy Medical Officer, H. M. Prison, Parkhurst. His Majesty's Stationery Office, London, 1913. Pp. 440; nine shillings.

In this blue book, Dr. Goring records the results of a very careful statistical investigation into the characteristics of the English criminal. The term "criminal" refers here to the convicted criminal, and not to those with equal anti-social tendencies, but sufficiently successful to

avoid conviction for their misdemeanors. The subjects investigated consist therefore of individuals who have been convicted of committing breaches of the law, sufficiently serious to be dealt with by imprisonment; and the author deals with this material in a detailed, objective manner. Again and again he emphasizes the importance of the statistical method, and shows how neglect of careful statistical work is largely responsible for the prominence of certain popular theories. The criminal has been held by some to be an atavistic anomaly; according to others he is morally insane; a third group would consider the criminal a rather poorly evolved individual, who, like a savage in a strange environment is insane relatively to the standards of that environment; the fourth group look upon the anomalies of the criminal as indicating his belonging to the large group of the generally degenerate. The author is extremely severe in his criticism of the theories of Lombroso, and emphasizes the impressionistic origin of the extremely sweeping generalizations of his school. The present investigation is divided into two parts. The first consists of an inquiry into the alleged existence of a "Physical Criminal Type;" the second deals with seven separate topics, all of which, however, are connected. The topic dealt with in the various chapters of the second part are:

Chapter I, The Physique of Criminals.

Chapter II, Age as an Etiological Factor in Crime.

Chapter III, The Criminal's Vital Statistics.

Chapter IV, The Mental Differentiation of the Criminal.

Chapter V, The Influence of the "Force of Circumstances" on the Genesis of Crime.

Chapter VI, The Fertility of Criminals.

Chapter VII, The Influence of Heredity on the Genesis of Crime.

In part I, dealing with an inquiry into the alleged existence of a "Physical Criminal Type," the author discusses the general statistical methods involved. He presents in detail the results of his investigations, and he comes to the following conclusions: No evidence has confirmed the existence of a "Physical Criminal Type," such as Lombroso and his disciples have described. Our data do show that physical differences exist between different kinds of criminals precisely as they exist between different kinds of law-abiding people. But when allowance is made for a certain range of probable variation, and when they are reduced to a common standard of age, stature, intelligence, and class, etc., these differences tend entirely to disappear. * * * In fact, both with regard to measurements and the presence of physical anomalies in criminals, our statistics present a startling conformity with similar statistics of the law-abiding classes. *There is no such thing as a "physical criminal type."*

In the first chapter of the second part, the author still deals with the physique of criminals, and he concludes that all English criminals, with the exception of those technically convicted of fraud, are markedly differentiated from the general population in stature and body weight; in addition, offenders convicted of violence to the person are characterized by an average degree of strength and of constitutional soundness

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considerably above the average of other criminals, and of the law-abiding community; finally, thieves and burglars (who constitute, it must be borne in mind, ninety per cent of all criminals); and also incendiaries as well, being inferior in stature and weight, are also relatively to other criminals and the population at large, puny in their general bodily habit. *These are the sole facts at the basis of criminal anthropology*; they are the only elements of truth out of which have been constructed the elaborate, extravagant, and ludicrously uncritical criminological doctrines of the great protagonist of the "criminal type" theory.

As to the mental differentiation of the criminal, the author took up the study of the differentiation of criminals in mental characters. He studied their temperament, temper, facility (or pliability), conduct, suicidal tendency, insane diathesis. His conclusion is that the one vital mental constitutional factor in the etiology of crime is defective intelligence. As to the influence of the "force of circumstances," the author disagrees absolutely with the criminal sociologists, who say that the source of crime must be sought in the adverse social and economic environment of the malefactor. His own conclusion is that "relatively to its origin in the constitution of the malefactor, and especially in his mentally defective constitution, crime is only to a trifling extent (if to any) the product of social inequalities, of adverse environment, or of other manifestations of what may be comprehensively termed the "force of circumstances." The criminal is unquestionably a product of the most prolific stocks in the general community, and therefore it is false to hold that criminals share in the relative sterility of all degenerate stocks. As to the role of heredity, the criminal diathesis revealed by the tendency to be convicted and to be imprisoned for crime is influenced by the force of heredity in much the same way, and to much the same extent as are physical and mental qualities and conditions in man.

The author is to be congratulated upon the successful completion of an arduous research, the results of which he has presented with remarkable lucidity, a quality which is, however, not gained at the expense of accuracy. The work is an extremely valuable contribution to our knowledge of the actual facts concerning the convicted criminal.

Johns Hopkins University.

MACFIE CAMPBELL.

KINDERAUSSAGEN IN EINEM SITTLICHKEITSPROZESS. By *Karl Marbe*. *Fortschritte der Psychologie und ihrer Anwendungen*, Vol. 1, 1913, Pp. 375-396.

Professor Marbe, who is now in charge of the psychological laboratory at Würzburg, was called upon to give expert testimony in aid of the defense of a school teacher accused of immoral sexual relations with seven of his girl pupils. The accusations against the teacher were due partly to the fact that he was accustomed to indulge in certain familiarities with his pupils that were unwise, though neither criminal nor immoral (caresses, tickling, etc.) and that these familiarities led to rumors which were speedily exaggerated and then used by some of his enemies in

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the village to foment prejudice against him. The interest in the case for the psychology of testimony lies partly in the example it affords of the development of rumors, and of the effect upon the minds of young girls of stories connected with alleged sex offenses, and partly in the role played by the psychological expert in coming to the defense of the teacher.

Professor Marbe presented to the court a fairly lengthy summary of the investigations made by psychologists into the nature of the testimonial process, in the course of which he made clear the necessity of taking a critical attitude toward the testimony of children, the necessity of eliminating suggestive questions when securing information from children, and of discounting evidence offered by young girls on a matter of sex, even when the testimony seemed at first to show general agreement among the various witnesses. His presentation was reinforced by the narration of a number of concrete examples of these principles.

Marbe then applied these principles to the case before the court and presented a very interesting analysis of the testimony offered by the young girls, showing how they had all been influenced by the testimony of a single girl, who was herself conclusively proved to be quite unreliable, how girls of this age might start from a few not clearly understood facts and weave from them a tissue of testimony that seemed to have verisimilitude, and how the collection of this testimony had been accomplished by the psychologically unwarranted method of asking questions that could be answered only by "yes" or "no," thus giving free rein to the operation of suggestion emanating from the examiner. The girls really did nothing but affirm what the questioner had implied in his questions. Their evidence was self-contradictory when put to the test of careful analysis, was logically absurd, and varied from day to day—usually growing in enormity of the alleged offences until Marbe took the stand, when they broke down and confessed to their false accusations, all save two girls whose evidence was eventually disproved by medical examination of their own persons. Marbe also criticized the court for failing to take exact stenographic reports of the evidence secured by the question-and-answer method, since the result of this failure was to obscure the precise statements of the girls, to distort their statements and to render it difficult to disentangle accurate statements of fact from invented and imaginary replies made to fit the form of the examiner's questions.

Marbe's testimony aroused considerable hostility on the part of the prosecution, but it had its due effect upon the court, so that the teacher was acquitted. The case, then, adds one more to the number in which the work of psychologists has been of direct concrete value in the courtroom.

Cornell University.

G. M. WHIPPLE.

GENERAL PARESIS. By *Prof. Emil Kraepelin*, Munich. Translated by J. W. Moore, M. D. Nervous and Mental Disease Monograph, Series No. 14. Pp. 197. Nervous and Mental Disease Publishing Co., New York, 1913.

Kraepelin's publications on psychiatric subjects have for several

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years been regarded as authoritative text books on mental disease, and this volume adds further proof of his ability as a psychiatrist and medical writer. The subject matter is presented in a lucid and comprehensive manner and covers the whole field of research work relating to the subject of paresis.

This monograph consists of seven chapters. The first chapter is introduced by a brief mention of the early history of paresis. This is then followed by a detailed review of the general symptomatology of this disease. Considerable attention is devoted to the discussion of the methods of the cytological examination as performed by Alzheimer, Schaefer, Nonne, Apelt, Wassermann and Plaut.

The second chapter describes the difficulties that have been encountered when endeavors were made to classify this disease on a physical or psychical basis, and though the author, for purposes of description, makes four chief clinical divisions, he very aptly states: "If we distinguish, as is the usual custom, the following principal forms of paresis, the demented, the depressive, the expansive and the agitated, we must not be deluded into believing other than that such a grouping is entirely arbitrary and that its only value is to facilitate the presentation of the subject. The same holds for any other of the numerous attempts to classify the clinical material solely in a basis of psychic or physical signs."

Kraepelin states that the demented form is the most frequent type of paresis with which he has to deal. He finds this type in 56 per cent of the men and in 73 per cent of the women, and he gives the average duration as 30.05 months in men and as 26.4 in the women. In the "classical" or grandiose form he found that convulsions were much less frequent and remissions more common than in the demented type. The expansive form was observed to occur later in life and more frequently in men.

The symptoms of the depressed and agitated forms are carefully portrayed and their clinical distinction made very clear. The course of the disease as observed by him is then compared with the findings of his German confreres, some of whom report cases of paresis lasting as long as twenty and thirty years, but Kraepelin has very serious doubts as to the accuracy of the diagnosis of these reported cases. He reports no cases of cure and he states that the regular termination is death and tacitly says: "In fact, one does well to regard with greatest skepticism cases of 'cured' paresis, since Nasse found that of six recovered cases observed by him, only one failed to have a relapse, and in this one the diagnosis was not free from doubt."

The third chapter is devoted to the discussion of the pathology of general paresis. The gross changes are described first and these are concerning the changes in the weight and shape of the bones of the skull, the loss of brain weight, atrophy, distortion of the convolutions and the characteristic inflammation of the meninges. Barratt in his chemical study of the brain substance found that the sulphur content of the brain was lowered. A complete survey of the most important histopathological work is given, including the studies of Tuzceck, Weigert,

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Fischer, Schaffer, Broadmann, Sciuti, Nissl, Sträussler, Alzheimer and Racke.

The cord affections which occur in general paresis are also described in this chapter, and these are said to be a degeneration of the lateral and posterior columns which resembles the pathological conditions found in tabes. The changes found in the viscera and the cardio-vascular system are also described. No mention is made, however, of the finding of the spirocheta pallida in the brain substance of paretics by Noguchi, and it is very probable that this monograph went to press before this discovery. The finding of the spirocheta pallida has, to my mind, absolutely established the pathogenesis of general paralysis, which has so long been a puzzle to the psychiatrist. The helplessness of the disease is thereby somewhat relieved. New methods of treatment may be evolved.

The subject of etiology is thoroughly discussed. It is pointed out that males are more susceptible than females, also that racial, climatic and geographical distribution exercise but little influence for the development of paresis. Concerning this subject Kraepelin forcibly states: "Nor can climate play any important role, since in all latitudes there are countries in which paresis is rare and, what is more significant, Europeans in other climates are just as apt to become paretic as in their home countries. We are drawn much rather to the conclusion, from the considerations mentioned, that paresis stands in some casual relation with the general habits of life, such as those which prevail in middle Europe and which have spread with Europeans to other lands."

Kraepelin found that the greater number of paresis develop between the ages of 35 and 45 years in men and between 40 and 45 in women, but it is suggested that the climacterium may exert an influence. Juvenile paresis also receives its full share in the chapter. While heredity plays the important part in juvenile paresis, its action is less potent in this disease than in any other forms of mental alienation. Schlegel reports defective heredity in 56.6 per cent cases.

"We must regard syphilis as the only essential cause of paresis. * * * The last link in the chain of proof of the syphilitic origin of paresis is closed through cytological and serological studies. Both have shown us that in paresis we regularly find those conditions which are characteristic of syphilis—increase of cells in the spinal fluid and occurrence of plasma cells and complement-fixation in this fluid and in the blood serum."

Chapter six is devoted to the discussion and the diagnosis. "The recognition of general paresis is one of the most important problems of psychiatrists, because upon it depend, almost always, important legal measures, especially of a domestic nature (separations, dissolutions of business)."

After stating the difficulties of early differential diagnosis, the author concludes this chapter by saying that the cytological and serological tests are the determining ones and that a lumbar puncture should be performed in every possible case.

The last chapter is introduced by the terse statement that "the combating of paresis must begin with prevention." Alcohol is a most

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pernicious factor, and if syphilis is to be restricted, so must be the use of alcohol.

The frequent examination of the spinal fluid and blood is necessary, and the necessity of continuous and vigorous anti-syphilitic treatment is demanded in all cases of syphilis. But once the paresis has begun, it is the universal opinion that the use of mercury is decidedly dangerous. The use of atoxyl, tuberculin, bacterial toxins, nucleinic acid, lecithin and paretic serum are briefly described, but not in any way approved. The author states that the value of "606" is still unknown and the future only can determine the results of its use. The treatment in general is dietetic, hygienic and symptomatic; much stress is laid on careful nursing and the importance of hydrotherapy in the form of warm baths.

In conclusion of this brief review it may well be said that those interested in psychiatry will do well to study this valuable contribution to that subject.

Indiana State Prison.

PAUL E. BOWERS, M. D.

KRANKHEIT UND SOZIALE LAGE. Three volumes, by *Dr. M. Mosse* and *Dr. G. Tugendreich*. J. F. Lehmanns, Münschen, 1912. Pp. 495, 230 and 696, M. 6, 6 and 3.

The editors of this handbook on the correlation between disease and economic condition asked several prominent physicians, statisticians and government officials for the contributed articles, hence the reason for slight differences of opinion in the work. It presents what German scientists believe to be an exact presentation of the interrelationship between disease and economic condition. As it is a handbook for Germany, its arguments are from a national point of view, and only occasionally are European statistics quoted. While differences in racial, climatic and social conditions prevent generalization, all countries will sooner or later have to meet similar perplexing problems. In the United States these problems will be particularly difficult to solve, owing to the lack of reliable statistical material and to the widespread puritanical point of view, which so successfully interferes with an absolutely free discussion of questions pertaining to sex and vice. It will be a distinct advantage to Americans to learn how an industrialized country on the other side of the Atlantic is trying to meet and handle these issues; on this account the book will be reviewed at some length.

In opposition to the bacteriological school, which attaches little value to economic conditions as disease furthering and breeding causes, the editors of the handbook desire to bring out their great importance. While natural causes like bacteria, dust and poisonous fumes are responsible for the morbidity and mortality of the population without class distinction, economic conditions, like housing, wages, hours of labor and others affect particularly the health of the lower strata of society.

Adequate morbidity statistics, except for a few diseases, for which Germany has compulsory notification, do not exist. Even if physicians published their case records, the material would be unsatisfactory. In

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spite of much progress made during the last decades, there is still a large part of the population, which either out of ignorance and superstition or on account of poverty, fails to seek medical assistance even in case of serious illness, especially in rural districts. The latest extension of the compulsory sick insurance to agricultural laborers and home workers will bring about a much needed change. There is little information about the relation between morbidity and mortality in the different classes of society, still less about the general state of health, except in countries with large standing armies.

While wealth has its specific dangers as well as poverty, rich people as a rule live longer than the poor, who are often unable to have good medical and hospital care. The principal discussion is concerned with diseases which are chiefly bred of poverty and of occupations in different dangerous trades.

Experts disagree on the question as to how far the density of population in overheated and ill ventilated quarters is responsible for the most deplorable infant mortality in Germany. Some experts contend that both breast nursed and bottle fed babies are affected equally by overcrowding, while others believe that almost exclusively, children who are improperly fed, are stricken.

Dr. Koelsch not only points out what Germany has accomplished in protecting and safeguarding machinery, but also how much remains to be done. The reader will remember Miss Josephine Goldmark's standard work on "Fatigue and Efficiency," in which she deals with the correlation between long hours of work in badly lighted and ill ventilated, dusty workrooms, sometimes in unnatural positions, and at machines too heavy for minors and children, and the state of health of the workers. It is evident that unhealthy conditions of work so further the spread of infectious diseases that they sometimes assume an epidemic form.

Some occupations, reputed as especially healthy, call for a strong, vigorous and healthy set of men, whose excellent physical constitution protects and safeguards them against some of the dangers inherent in the trade. By proper training and education of the workers it is possible to reduce the morbidity and mortality in quite a number of cases. Seeking medical aid immediately, is often a means of successfully preventing a long sickness or even a more serious result. The statistics of the sick fund of Leipzig show that many working women, when pregnant, prefer to become voluntary members. In this case they must pay the whole dues, while otherwise the employer contributes one third. Voluntary members can stop working and rest whenever they feel like it. As a result, they show only 0.3 per cent of premature births and 2.3 per cent of miscarriages, against 1.7 and 15.5 per cent of the others, who stop working only two weeks before confinement.

The following rules ought to be observed in order to reduce to a minimum the dangers of certain occupations:

A minor should select an occupation for which he is best fitted both physically and mentally.

The workers should use all protective appliances with which the shop is provided, and the employer should realize that proper sanitary

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and hygienic conditions in the workrooms are a paying investment instead of a financial burden on production.

Factory inspectors, assisted by physicians, should see that the laws are observed, and the courts should punish with imprisonment employers who willfully disregard the regulations.

Social legislation should keep up with social science.

Most industrial countries of Europe are now facing the serious problem of how to regenerate the population. This question came prominently before the English nation at the time of the Boer war, but other nations are suffering from the same phenomenon. In Germany from 1904 to 1908 only 53.3 per cent of the men were found fit for service. Weak constitution was the reason for rejecting 19.3 per cent of the people who were examined. Unfavorable economic conditions prevent many from getting the proper quality and quantity of food. Quite a number of men are rejected because their health has been impaired by their occupation. I remember from my own experience the difficulty encountered when the recruits came in. Many had forgotten the proper use of their limbs, which had become crooked and straightening them out was difficult. The best way of checking degeneration seems to be a shortening of the working days, a minimum wage for underpaid occupations, and above all, compulsory physical exercises in the continuation schools and the possibility of continuing all kinds of sport afterwards.

Prominent writers in the United States complain about the rapid increase of mental diseases, caused by the tremendous speed of life and work, and the difficulty, especially of the foreign born to adapt themselves to it. The same is true for Germany. Suicides and criminals seem to increase everywhere. Some people seemed to be inclined to attribute the former phenomenon to a relaxation in religious belief, the latter to greater educational facilities. Though better education has not checked crime, it has at least noticeably reduced its most atrocious forms. The greater economic differentiation and the fierce competition in the cities give greater opportunity of committing crimes than the rural districts. It is not possible to prove the connection between race, religious belief and crime directly, but it might be said that creeds which try to keep their followers in ignorance, contribute to their remaining at a lower level of society, prevent them from progressing economically and thus indirectly may cause their delinquency.

Few diseases are as intimately connected with economic and social conditions and relations of mankind as the venereal diseases. In some provinces of Russia, the Balkan states and Asia Minor, where housing and living conditions are extremely unsanitary and low, syphilis has become more of an endemic disease. Only Denmark and Norway have introduced the obligatory notification of these diseases, hence their statistics furnish reliable material for study. As the infection does not at the beginning oblige men to stop working, it does a lot of damage in the body before it is attended; many still prefer the services of quacks instead of a reliable specialist. The chance for infection is greater in cities than in rural districts, though their morals are about the same. The working classes enjoy in most European countries much sexual freedom, which

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finds a different expression in the cities and in the rural districts. In the latter a man keeps company with one girl, and often marries her when she expects a child; in the former relations are more temporary and changing. Moreover, the publicly licensed or the clandestine prostitute, the chief source of infection, inhabits urban centers.

Interesting are statistics of Denmark and Prussia, which show the number of infected per 10,000 population.

Denmark		Prussia	
Copenhagen	202	Berlin	187
Small cities	30	Prussia	62 to 75
Rural districts	3.8	Prussia.....	9.6

In Denmark the ratio of infected women to men is 1 to 4; in Frankfurt one to three. This means that one woman generally infects three or four men, or that one out of three or four men infects another woman. Blaschko believes that the number of infections is proportional to the marriage age.

The statistics of different sick funds in Berlin reveal the spread of these diseases. The actual number given therein is probably still below the number of infected:

Clandestine prostitutes	30 per cent
Students	25 per cent
Clerks	16 per cent
Working people	9 per cent
Army	4 per cent

The German army makes the best showing of all standing armies. The German soldier is not more moral, but he is told how to protect himself against infection. His pay is so small that he cannot think of going to a prostitute. He enters into relations with a girl of his class, and frequently marries her after his two years are over.

The most valuable part of the handbook is part four, in which the duties of the state and the municipality in preventing and fighting disease breeding economic conditions, are discussed.

The German Empire has a federal sanitary board with the following departments:

- Public health, including housing, heating, schools, baths, burial.
- Foodstuff.
- Pure water and sewage disposal.
- Factory hygiene.
- Epidemic diseases.
- Medical service in hospitals.
- Medicaments and poisons.
- Veterinary service.

While the most important matter is regulated by federal law, the individual states regulate minor matters, always in such a way that the regulations are uniform.

Whenever the legislature of the Empire is asked to take up a question, ample statistical data are furnished by the imperial statistical bureau, which constantly investigates social and economic conditions. As

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bad housing is responsible for many cases of illness and death, the Empire, the states, the municipalities and private organizations, either provide better houses for groups of people, or make it possible for their organizations to borrow money at low rates for building purposes. Compulsory housing inspection has not been introduced into the Empire, individual states and cities have it though, and the Prussian speech from the throne promised its introduction into Germany. The political influence of the house-owners is great in the city parliaments. As a class they are opposed to legislation which diminishes their profits and interferes with the control of their property. The modern regulations of the building police have, however, considerably curtailed the absolute domination of the house-owners. In a similar way, imperial legislation has obliged the manufacturers to provide dangerous machinery with safeguards, even though it interferes with the process of production. Legislation for limiting working hours, except for women and minors, has been less extended. Through the imperial legislation of insurance the laborer is sure of sufficient assistance whenever sickness or an accident prevents him from providing the necessities for his family. The more enlightened municipalities have recently even imported meat and other foodstuff from abroad for the masses of the population. In order to bring demand for and offer of labor together, employment agencies with a non-partisan board have been established throughout the Empire. The burning question of what to do with unemployed has been partly solved by municipal insurance in different forms, and by providing work, especially for the unskilled laborers. Money is appropriated for the execution of work, but it is undertaken only when winter reduces the number of regularly employed laborers. Different governmental undertakings follow the same policy.

The handbook contains an astonishing amount of exceedingly useful information for physicians, statesmen, social workers and the general public. It would be an immense gain if an investigation of the same conditions and their results could be made in the United States, a social survey of the whole country, instead of the many which depict and describe local conditions. Professor Tugendreich and Dr. Mosse's book will undoubtedly stimulate all who work for improving the conditions of the masses who live and work under highly unfavorable circumstances.

Chicago.

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