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Reviews and Criticisms

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REVIEWS AND CRITICISMS

THE MENTALITY OF THE CRIMINAL WOMAN. By *Jean Weidensall*, Ph. D. Formerly Director of the Department of Psychology, Laboratory of Social Hygiene, Bedford Hills, New York. Educational Psychology Monographs No. 14. Warwick & York, Inc. 1916. Pp. 332+xx.

Three years is the maximum time for which a woman may be committed to the New York Reformatory for Women, located at Bedford Hills. During her time as superintendent, Mrs. Katherine Bement Davis realized that the greater part of this time was spent in learning to distinguish the type of person committed. The time required for classification and for the determination of the special training needed in the individual case was so great that there was none left for the purpose of re-education.

She believed that all cases convicted in the courts should be studied by experts before sentence was passed. This study of the case would result in the determination of the proper place of commitment and the correct and satisfactory method of training. Since the great majority of the women had led lives of sexual irregularity, many of them having been actually engaged in lives of prostitution, such a careful study would also afford data indicating the causes which lead the individual into this life.

Following out this idea, various attempts were made in the direction of establishing a system of examinations. Among other things, application was made to the New York Foundation for a grant sufficient to meet the expenses of employing a trained psychologist on the Reformatory staff. The outcome of these attempts was the establishment of a laboratory of social hygiene. The purpose of this laboratory was three-fold: (1) To work out a methodology which may be applied in all necessary cases in order to determine a rational treatment. (2) To make a practical use of the results of our studies in determining earlier in their careers the special needs of all those committed to the Reformatory with a view to classification and treatment. (3) To furnish a large body of data as accurate as is obtainable under conditions imposed, which will bear on the causes of prostitution and delinquency among women, and possibly point a way to, or emphasize the need of special social reforms.

Two methods of procedure were possible for the laboratory staff. (a) Those who were obviously unfit might be eliminated in the first examination and later the attempt could be made with those whose record made an immediate decision impossible. (b) An attempt could be made to determine norms and the range of ability displayed by law-abiding women whose schooling, social, and industrial opportunities were similar to those of the women in the Reformatory. Without such norms no assumption could be made as to the deviation of the latter from the ordinary type.

To the first method of procedure there was the very obvious objection that no methods by which even the first classification could

be justified were in existence. The only available material was the series of Binet tests and "Suffice it to say that only one subject succeeded in proving herself as old as twelve years by these tests. It follows that, unmodified, they were inadequate for our purpose, for all of the inmates of the State Reformatory are not less than twelve years old mentally. Among those who failed to pass all the Binet tests was one who was an expert stenographer and another who had been a successful teacher in the Brooklyn public schools for a number of years."

It was discovered that "the norms and the data we so much needed were being in large part formulated by the Bureau of Vocational Guidance . . . in Cincinnati." This Bureau furnished to the Reformatory laboratory a series of tests which it had standardized for a group of school children who applied for their working certificates. These standards were for children fourteen and fifteen years old and the Reformatory inmates were considerably older, being on the average over 21 years. This difference was an advantage rather than otherwise since the best of the Reformatory women "tested very little better and sometimes less well than the fifteen-year-old group in all the mental tests save one." The Reformatory women tested were consecutive admissions from number 1702 to 1829 with the exception of the colored group and those of the white group who were too ill for the purpose. There were 100 in the group tested, the records for only 88 of whom are included in the monograph. The others, twelve in number, were omitted because of foreign birth. These omissions "tend to eliminate more of the less intelligent and less schooled ones, so that the final tables and curves are a little better, rather than a little worse than would have been the case could we have tested the women in their own language and included the whole hundred."

The results of these tests applied to the Reformatory women and their comparison with standard results, constitute a considerable portion of the monograph. In Chapters II. and III. the results are presented in graphical and tabular form. The tests used are the following: (1) Height, (2) Weight, (3) Strength of Grip, Right and Left Hand, (4) Rapidity of Movement and Indexes of Fatigue, (5) Steadiness of Hand, (6) Card Sorting, (7) Cancellation of the Letter "a", (8) Memory Span and the Per Cent of Seven, Eight, and Nine Digits remembered, (9) Substitution, (10) Completion of Sentences, (11) Association by Opposites.

In addition to this series, a number of tests which are described in Chapter IV. were used. Some of these had been used in the Juvenile Psychopathic Institute in Chicago. "Their extensive use by Healy and their standardization for normal children by his former assistant . . . furnish norms in terms of which the criminal woman may be compared with the recidivists of the Juvenile Court and with the pupils in the first six grades in 'certain large private school . . . attended by children from unusually intelligent families.'" Other tests are: Hand-writing, the value of which has been determined by the use of both

Ayres' and Thorndike's Handwriting Scales; Ability to Follow Instructions; Formation of New Motor Habits; etc. The discussion of these tests is irrelevant to the remainder of the monograph and in reading "may be omitted without disturbing the continuity of the rest of the study."

Chapter V, discusses the Social, Industrial, and Physical records. The age at leaving school with the reason for leaving; the number of positions held, with wage and reasons for leaving each; the offences leading to commitment, both present and past; all these, and more, are included in the discussion of the social and industrial factors. In the medical record there was an attempt to determine not only the disease or diseases from which they now suffered, but also any history of illness was investigated. In reference to the reliability of the information concerning the social and industrial conditions, the writer clearly indicates a problem which anyone who attempts to work with similar subjects must appreciate. She reports the type of information obtainable; "They worked 'until they were married'—and how long ago was that? 'About three years'—it may have been two or four. 'I began to work after my baby . . . was born.' When was that? 'Well, let me see; I am twenty-one; the baby was born when I was seventeen, no, when I was sixteen, and that makes the baby four years old now, and so I must have been working about four years.' Or 'I held that job a long time.' How long? 'Three or four months,' or 'I was there six months or a year—I don't know.' The inquirer is baffled both by their heedlessness and their inventions."

The final chapter, even though it is designated "Summary and Conclusions," does not contain all the important conclusions. "In giving the directions to our subjects there has been throughout one divergence from the standard; we have spoken much more slowly and with greater emphasis than was necessary in the case of the Cincinnati group . . . Testing this type of woman steadily for three years with many varieties of test has brought the conviction that the essential thing which lies at the basis of their variation from the normal is *a slowness to understand what is required of them that is quite disproportionate to their absolute ability ultimately to comprehend and accomplish the task in question.*" Also "It is astonishing how long and uncritically some of the more stupid women will persevere in a task completely beyond their understanding."

In the final chapter the most striking fact is said to be, that in comparing the results of the tests obtained from the Bedford women with the standard results from the Cincinnati Bureau, the former show a bimodal distribution as opposed to the unimodal distribution of the latter. "In practically all the tests the curves of the Bedford group fall from one mode at a point near the better end of the Cincinnati curves, to rise again to form a second mode at the poorer end of the standard curves." The other tests tried also lead to this conclusion. "Reading, Writing, Direction Tests, etc., have added evidence that the Reformatory inmates constitute two pretty distinct groups with respect

to their intelligence." In analyzing the bimodal curve, it was found that those who had completed at least the 5th B grade in the schools formed a curve which paralleled very closely the curve of the Cincinnati fifteen-year-old group. Those who had not succeeded in making this much progress were the majority of those who collected around the lower mode.

The comparison of the standard group and this group of Bedford women results frequently to the disadvantage of the latter. In reference to some of the tests the statement is made, "*We may therefore set it down with some finality that approximately 40 per cent. of the Bedford group are decidedly less efficient in whatever these tests measure than is the average Cincinnati working girl of fifteen.*" How much more efficient the so-called normal group would be when they had reached the same age as the Bedford women, the report does not attempt to estimate. When the working girl was re-tested at age of fifteen, she surpassed her previous record in every phase of every test. If this progress is continuous for the succeeding five or six years, "there are very few of the type of criminal woman that is sentenced to a Reformatory such as Bedford, who are normal adults in the mental characteristics and abilities measured by these tests."

Let us conclude the review in the words of the Editor's preface: "The results are of prime importance both to workers with mental tests and to practical penologists who seek to individualize punishment in such a manner as to meet the needs of the offender as well as the needs of the offense."

Municipal Court, Philadelphia

DAVID MITCHELL.

THE FORENSIC SIGNIFICANCE OF THE INHERITANCE OF MORPHOLOGIC ABNORMALITIES AND OF FINGER PRINT CHARACTERISTICS. By R. Sommer. *Archiv f. Kriminologie*, 1916, Band 67, pp. 161-174.

Sommer cites the case of J. T. who was accused by N. C. of being the father of her illegitimate child. J. T.'s persistent denial and the persistent accusations of the girl led to a call for experts.

The evidence presented bore on the physical similarity between the supposed father J. T. and the child, the most damaging of which appeared to be the existence of syndactylism in both. With J. T. this abnormality involved the second and third toes of the right foot, and possibly also the same toes of the left. With the child B. C. it involved the second and third toes, not only of the right foot, but also most markedly of the left.

In discussing this point, Sommer mentions the possibility of this coincidental occurrence being merely accidental. He substantiates this fact by indicating the lack of similarity between the photographs of the supposed father and the child, especially as regards forehead formation.

As to the value of similarity of finger prints, which had previously been taken for the purpose of tracing familial relationship, there were doubts.

Sommer was then given an opportunity of interviewing personally both J. T. and B. C. Not satisfied with only the data thus obtained he also secured an interview with the legitimate son of J. T. The result of this investigation led Sommer to conclude that a *single* morphological abnormality possessed in common is of no particular significance as evidence of kinship, unless presented in connection with a great deal of other information of the same sort.

But the examination of the finger prints of J. T. and B. C. showed a striking resemblance in the papillary formations of three fingers in each of both pairs of hands. In other words, 3/5 of the finger print evidence pointed toward relationship, and 2/5 toward its absence. The question raised, however, is: What comparative evidence would be obtained from a similar examination of the finger prints obtained from an hereditarily related and from an hereditarily unrelated group of people. These data Sommer gathered (though fragmentary), with the result that greater similarity was observable in *unrelated* than in related cases. He therefore concluded that also this index of relationship was an unreliable one, though admitting that finger print characteristics may behave as Mendelian units, hybrids not necessarily showing any similarity to the parents. Omitting speculation of this kind, the existing facts led Sommer to conclude that the finger print evidence presented in the case was of no particular value in tracing the relationship between J. T. and B. C., if such existed.

A comparison of head formation, eye color, hair color, etc., also led to negative results.

On the basis of Sommer's evidence J. T. was set free.

In the remaining portion of the article he gives statistics explaining that syndactylism is sex-linked, transmitted only through male members of a family, and promises another article, to appear soon, dealing with the inheritance of finger print characteristics.

Buckel Foundation, Stanford University.

SAMUEL C. KOHS.

CRIMINALITY AND ECONOMIC CONDITIONS. By *William Adrian Bonger*: The Modern Criminal Science Series. Little, Brown & Co., Boston, 1916, pp. xxii, 700.

This is the eighth number of the Modern Criminal Science Series published under the auspices of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology. It is a stout volume of 700 pages, including the comprehensive bibliography of works cited, and contains an *Editorial Preface* by Edward Lindsey and an *Introduction* by Frank H. Norcross, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Nevada and Vice-President of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology. The fact of its being translated and printed as one of the Modern Criminal Science Series is sufficient reason for its careful consideration by all who are interested in the causes and eradication of crime.

The plan of the volume is as follows: Part I relates to a "Critical Exposition of the Literature Dealing with the Relation between Crim-

inality and Economic Conditions" and covers approximately 250 pages. In this part the writings of "The Precursors"—those "who treated the subject before the births of modern criminal science;" "The Statisticians;" "The Italian School;" "The French School;" "The Bio-Socialists;" "The Spiritualists;" "The Third School and the Socialists" are discussed and criticized in the light of the thesis which the author has undertaken to uphold.

The exposition is clear and forceful, but the question of the adequacy of the résumé of each writer is constantly raised in the reviewer's mind. Can the points of view of the multitude of writers with all their amplifications and provisos be stated and criticized in so brief a space? The number of writers reviewed is exceptional for a single volume and indicative of unusual industry and painstaking diligence. Not frequently, however, the impression is conveyed that the thesis of the complete dependency of criminality on economic conditions so overshadows all other things that the analysis is largely directed toward eliminating from the discussion all matters not bearing upon this side of the question, and unduly emphasizing the evidence which immediately or remotely supports the writer's contention.

Part II is divided into Book I on "The Present Economic System and its Consequences," and Book II on "Criminality." The former covers in five chapters the topics: "The Present Economic System," "Social Conditions of the Different Classes," "The Relation of the Sexes and of the Family," "Alcoholism," and "Militarism." Book II covers, among other things, in seven chapters, "Economic Crimes," "Sexual Crimes," "Crimes from Vengeance and Other Motives," "Political Crimes," "Pathological Crimes," etc.

Part II constitutes the constructive part of the treatise and the portion which is most open to criticism as a study in induction. The reviewer is frankly in doubt as to its scientific value, not so much because of its summary and analysis of classified crimes,—of this he is unable to judge without a prohibitive amount of study—but, rather because of the implication which runs through it and the thesis which it is made to support. The book vigorously attacks the present and past economic orders and imputes to them the etiology of crime in all its manifestations. The indictment of competition, private property, the present distribution of wealth, monopoly, etc., is drawn on almost pure Marxian lines. The society and the conditions of production and distribution described are the same as those outlined by Marx in the *Communist Manifesto*. Class interests to Bonger are just as rigidly opposed and class conflicts as inevitable as they were to Marx, in the heyday of the *International*. The analysis represents nothing of the more temperate view of Bernstein and the German Social Democrats, but rather proceeds along the rigid, fatalistic lines of so-called "scientific" socialism. The reviewer's objection is not so much to the indictment nor to the manner in which it is drawn as it is to the part it plays in the constructive part of the treatise. The present economic system is bad, its product is crime. Cause and effect are clear to the writer;

but the causal connection might have been found to be different had he not proceeded on this assumption and chosen his evidence with this in mind. The assumption makes impossible the conclusion that causes other than those associated with economic conditions are contributing, and, of course, makes the author open to the same criticism which he directs against others, viz., that of seeking the explanation in some simple rule-of-thumb formula.

The supporting data are almost wholly statistical. No country of importance which has collected even the most rudimentary statistics of crimes has been omitted in the search for evidence of the relationship of crime to economic conditions. It is in the analysis of these data that the author seems most open to criticism. At times the limitations both of the statistics collected and presented, and of statistical method in the analysis of such a problem as crime are carefully indicated, but far too often, in the reviewer's judgment, is a causal connection between crime and economic conditions supported by inadequate and questionable statistical evidence. Modern ways of measuring correlation are not employed and concurrent changes in two sets of statistical data are too frequently made to imply close causal connection. It is this tendency which causes the statistician, in spite of the author's appeal to the law of large numbers and averages, in justification of his method and conclusions, to regard with suspicion much of the evidence, drawn from different countries and collected under the most divergent conditions, little of which taken singly seems conclusively to support the thesis. Statistics and statistical method undoubtedly have a place in the study of the phenomena of crime, but the establishment solely by statistical means, of cause and effect relations between economic conditions—not too definitely defined nor too clearly marked—and crime—often measured by faulty and non-comparable data—is a questionable and dangerous procedure.

Crimes, undoubtedly, are intimately associated with "economic conditions," and the writer has done a useful service unmistakably to call attention to this fact. But he has done too much in making them the sole cause. There have always been ardent and vigorous champions of the established order, of the status quo, who sought the explanation of such things as crime in the perversity of nature, the will of God, etc. The present writer's attempt smacks of the same tendency. The scientific method, however, requires the causes of crimes to be sought in "the man's heredity, the man's physical and moral make-up, his emotional temperament, the surroundings of his youth, his present home, and other conditions—all the influencing circumstances,"¹ and this is not what the author of this treatise has done. That they are all mediate, the ultimate causes being found in such an indefinite thing as "economic conditions," few I feel would care to hold with Mr. Bonger.

Having found the etiology of crime in "economic conditions," the author seems obliged to outline other economic conditions in which

¹General Introduction to the Modern Criminal Science Series, pp. xii-xiii.

crime would not exist. Although he gives it only as his personal opinion that the solution is to be found in the common ownership of the means of production, he traces the likely consequences of such a change and finds that "in such a society there can be no question of crime properly so-called."² Two problems are involved in his forecast. First, the possible structure of such a society, and second, the probability of crimes being committed in it. Both are matters of opinion and the writer, of course, is at liberty to believe as he will. The elimination of other causes helps to make his forecast likely, but not inevitable. The inclusion of other causes leaves the question still open.

A review of this book would not be complete without at least a brief comment on the technique of make-up. From the standpoint of the printer's art, it is admirably conceived and executed, the only disparaging criticism being the practice of leaving an occasional note in the body of the text. The statistical tables are well planned and the graphic figures plain and legible. Occasional errors, such as the one on page 473, line 10, where "sec. XIX" should read sec. XVIII, and the citation of B. B. rather than S. B. Rowntree were discovered. They, however, are remarkably few. The index is altogether too brief and general to cover in any satisfactory way the wealth of material which the book contains.

Northwestern University.

HORACE SECRIST.

THREE CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE THEORY OF SEX. By *Sigmund Freud*. (Trans. by A. Brill. Second Ed.) *Nervous and mental disease monograph series*. No. 7. Nervous and Mental Disease Publishing Co. New York, 1916, pp. XI and 117. \$2.

THE DREAM PROBLEM. By *A. E. Maeder*. (Trans. by Hallock and Jelliffe.) *Nervous and mental disease monograph series*. No. 22. Nervous and Mental Disease Publishing Co. New York, 1916, pp. 43. \$0.60.

Two monographs, the first representative of earlier work by the Vienna school, and the second representing later work by the Zurich school of what we may still most appropriately call the "Freudian Psychology."

The "Three Contributions," appearing now in a second English edition from the third German edition (1914), requires no introduction to those who know the psychology of Freud at first hand. It remains a classic of the earlier path-breaking period of Freudian psychology. Psychoanalytic methods are here employed in the description and explanation of sexual aberrations, infantile sexuality, and pubertal transformations. The new edition is revised and enlarged by the addition of passages and footnotes designed to disarm criticisms offered from newly developed points of view.

The monograph of Maeder, who is numbered among Jung's followers in the Zurich school, emphasizes the dream in its biological

²P. 671.

function as an attempted correction of maladjustment to the environment. Freud had stressed the "pleasure principle," by which the dream is interpreted as the symbolic expression of repressed wishes and the reverberation of inhibited feelings denied overt expression. Maeder supplements this view, demonstrating the part played in dream formation by the "reality principle," the second of Freud's two fundamental principles of psychic experience, and the one through which the existence of an objective world is recognized. In the dream one anticipates the solution of a conflict; it is an indication of the way of release from intrapsychic inhibition out to reality. Metaphorically speaking, the dream is a "gleam of light to serve as a lighthouse in the storms of passion." All this is concretely instanced in detailed analysis of specific dreams.

Maeder's work is an instance of the refinements of dream analysis which have well-nigh closed the door of Freudian dream interpretation to all except the initiated. We are informed that the relatively simple formulas of psychoanalysis and its application to the problems of the unconscious are inadequate, and the elaborations and supplements without end which are urged upon us as proof tax credulity to the utmost. While admitting that complex phenomena, being functions of many variables, require proportionately complicated formulas to explain them, most of us never get very far away from the old maxim that what is really known can be simply explained. The offensive occultism of much of the newer work of the Freudians is hurting their cause; they must be content to go slower; they should be shown wherein they violate legitimate scientific procedure by slighting, or even omitting altogether, *inductively* derived support for their position.

We recommend to all who have not yet realized the tremendously suggestive value of the Freudian movement in psychology the perusal of Bernard Hart's little volume in the series of *Cambridge Manuals of Science and Literature* on *The Psychology of Insanity*. With the contents of this little *vade mecum* of Freudian psychology in mind the two monographs here reviewed will assume meaning and importance which would never be suspected by the unprepared layman.

Yale University.

RICHARD M. ELLIOTT.

ANNUAL REPORT OF THE NEW YORK POLICE DEPARTMENT. 1915, pp. 79.

During the last twenty years New York has had many police commissioners. Nearly all of them were men of the highest personal integrity and of much more than average administrative ability. Yet few of them succeeded in giving the city a reasonably efficient police administration. There were lawyers, army officers, municipal executives, and others, who gained well-deserved praise in the positions held by them before becoming police commissioners. The police commissionership of New York was regarded by many students of municipal science an impossible post and by nearly every one as a graveyard of

reputations. Each commissioner introduced administrative improvements of his own and attributed the inefficiency of the department's work to the shortcomings of the members of the uniformed force.

Mayor Mitchell in 1914 selected for his police commissioner a civilian police expert, Arthur H. Woods, a man who had devoted many years to a critical study of the problems of police administration in this country and abroad. The selection of this type of commissioner was an innovation in New York and the annual report of the Department for 1915 shows the wisdom of the Mayor's choice and the exceptional ability of the commissioner.

Specialization of police functions, by means of the scientific study of the methods of operation of criminals rather than by spectacular raids of special squads has resulted in the suppression of gangsters and gunmen, in the prosecution of a most vigorous and effective campaign against drug addicts, and in the arrest and conviction of many of the most troublesome automobile thieves, fortune tellers, white slavers and confidence men.

A systematic effort was made to reduce the number of street accidents. This campaign included a careful statistical study of street accidents after devising the necessary plant for this purpose, a campaign for the education of the public, the introduction of novel safety measures, such as play streets, car-stop safety zones, police lectures in schools and garages, and improved methods for traffic policemen, and the stern suppression of reckless drivers, of whom 22,983 were arrested and of whom 22,554 who were convicted paid fines of \$223,618.

Among other improvements which should be mentioned are the relief by the police of more than three thousand destitute unemployed persons, which was an entirely novel police activity, the establishment of mounted patrol and patrol booths in suburban districts and the extension of the flash-light system in the urban sections of the city; the establishment of a psychopathic laboratory for the treatment of criminals whose mentality is sub-normal, and the establishment of an entirely new system of records and reports, which greatly reduce the clerical work of the men while furnishing to the supervising officers more complete and accurate data for purposes of administrative control.

But the most important achievement of the Police Commissioner has been the improvement in the morale of the uniformed force. He has made it plain to the men in deeds rather than in words that he has their personal interests at all times sincerely at heart. And the response of the men who in the past had suffered much from undeserved condemnation has been marvelous. The police school for recruits has been reorganized as a highly efficient training school for all ranks with a most efficient director and competent instructors, systematic health instruction for the members of the uniformed force has reduced the annual sick rate from 5,801 days to 5,050, gymnasiums have been established in many precincts, instruction has been furnished in boxing, wrestling and calisthenics, baseball teams and leagues have

been organized, field days and athletic contests have been held and a system of efficiency records has been devised to gauge the comparative worth of the men in the routine performance of duty with a view to rewarding the most efficient at the end of each month and with a view to giving to each man when he applies for promotion a rating in accordance with his efficiency.

By his appointment of Commissioner Woods Mayor Mitchell has demonstrated that the New York Police Commissionership is not an impossible position, but is one which requires in addition to native ability, specialized knowledge and training, and by his two years of successful administration of the department Commissioner Woods has proven to the citizens of New York and to the people of the country what students of police administration have always known that the police force of New York is composed of the finest body of men to be found in any municipal police force in the world and that its shortcomings in the past have been due largely to lack of the most competent direction. For the first time in the history of the city the people are proud of the efficiency of their police force and this result must be ascribed to the improved administrative methods of Commissioner Woods.

New York City.

LEONHARD FELIX FULD.

INFERIOR CRIMINAL COURTS ACT. By *Adolphus Ragan*, 1916, pp. 256.

The author of this volume is the Chief Clerk of the Children's Court of the City of New York, and was formerly Chief Clerk of the City Magistrates' Courts of that city. The volume contains the Inferior Criminal Courts Act of 1910, under which the Court of Special Sessions, the Children's Court and the City Magistrate's Courts were organized and all statutes enacted in 1911, 1912, 1913, 1914, 1915 and 1916 to amend this Act, together with the principal decisions of the appellate criminal courts affecting these inferior criminal courts. The official rules of all of these courts are also included.

This volume is certain to prove to be a most convenient and valuable book of reference for the magistrates and the justices of the inferior criminal courts and for the lawyers who practice in these courts. The publication of a similar volume by every large city is strongly to be recommended because of its valuable influence upon the certain administration of justice in courts in which the cases are disposed of most hurriedly because of the pressure of business.

Special mention should be made of the excellent indices in this volume which are unusually ample, well-arranged and conducive to quick and ready reference purposes.

New York City.

LEONHARD FELIX FULD.

REPORT OF INSPECTORS OF PENITENTIARIES OF CANADA FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDED MARCH 31, 1915. To Hon. Chas. G. Doherty, K. C., Minister of Justice, Ottawa, Canada. Price 20c.

This report, though quite largely statistical, throws considerable

light upon the condition of prisons under the Canadian Government.

From the reports presented by Douglas Stewart, Chief Inspector; W. P. Archibald, Dominion Parole Officer, and the various wardens of some seven prisons in the various provinces, one gets the impression of experienced routine service in the management of these institutions. The reports have to do with an average population of 1,889 inmates with a total of 2,064 at the close of the year. As stated, this population was divided among seven different institutions, each of which contained a comparatively small number.

As compared with prisons in the states, one feels that the proportion of inmates who are repeated offenders is much larger, and that discipline is much more rigid. The officials appear to have the same problem of lack of suitable industries for the men, as is characteristic of most of our prisons. Inspector Stewart says, "So far as Canadian Penitentiaries are concerned, the lack of suitable prison industries has been and still is the greatest handicap to successful management." The injury resulting from this situation both to the inmates and to the state is emphasized, but evidently the Government has never taken any steps to remedy the situation. At the same time, each warden tells of needed improvements in the prison itself, and this process of rehabilitation is a constant burden of expense to the Government.

In regard to the attitude of the inspectors as to the purpose of imprisonment in its relation to the men, there seems to be a certain inconsistency. It is recognized, for instance, that the protection of society and the reform of criminals should be the object of imprisonment. At the same time it is held that this reformation can only be a matter of civic control, and cannot be expected to reach the heart or conscience as a moral problem. Again, while it is stated that the "causes of criminality lie outside the prison," at another point, the assertion is made that "men with artificially developed character are the material with which recidivists are made." It does not seem to occur to the inspector that any wholesale treatment of prisoners without some degree of self-government results in artificially developed character.

The Dominion Parole Officer seems to have a practical conception of the duties of his office by interviewing nearly all the inmates of the various prisons. His report also indicates a broad view of the province of society in its relation to the criminal. He finds much satisfaction in quoting from the inscription over St. Michael's Juvenile Prison, "It is of little use to restrain criminals by punishment, unless you reform them by education," and also from the principles upon which the prison at Ghent was established, namely, "Industry as a vital force in the regeneration of the criminal." In the application of these principles to the parole system, he states, "The parole system is not founded on sentiment, but on safety, and is an aid or factor in producing moral health in the life of the delinquent, and the results demonstrate that thus far only a little over six per cent of the entire number released on their honor have been returned to prison."

This report indicates that the fee system is still in active operation, not only in compensating constables for their services in arresting a fellow citizen, but also the magistrate or justice of the peace for convicting him. The process of paying fines by imprisonment and thus depriving the needy family of the offender's support, is spoken of as "altogether too much traffic in fallen humanity," and Mr. Archibald says, "I really believe the fee and fine system to be a blot on our civilization, and but little deterrent to crime."

This writer feels that the "continuance of crime is due rather to the fact that nearly all efforts are made to punish the criminal, and so little is being done to prevent the boy or girl from becoming a criminal."

On the whole these reports show that the officials in charge of the institutions are conscious of many needs in the conduct of these institutions that are not being realized, largely because of public indifference.

The reports of the doctors of the various Dominion prisons would indicate a considerable amount of sickness, and an undue proportion of deaths. This, too, is largely explained by the fact that in many of these institutions modern ventilating facilities and sanitary arrangements have not been installed. It would seem that Governments everywhere move slowly in recognizing the short-sighted policy of giving little attention to the preparation of offenders for better citizenship in the future.

These reports would indicate that while the promptness of the Canadian courts in dealing with offenders is similar to that of the English courts, there is not the same degree of efficiency in the correctional institutions, either in the matter of classification of prisoners, adequate employment for the inmates, or in the centralized control of the penal problem.

Central Howard Association, Chicago F. EMORY LYON.

A STUDY IN COUNTY JAILS IN CALIFORNIA. State Board of Charities and Corrections, 1916, 115 pp.

It goes pretty hard, I suppose, for a California authority to call even the jails of that state bad. This study of facts that has been issued during the latter part of this year is made up from a set of uniform registers kept at county jails under the direction of the state board. The staff of the board were aided in the survey by students of the University of California and of the University of Southern California. All but six of the 58 counties of California are included and the ones omitted do not have a total of more than 200 prisoners a year.

This handbook of facts consists of introductory lists and display pages of diagrammatic character, 16 pages of comment, and 31 statistical tables. In the later part of the volume are given also descriptions of farm colony experiments in other states, abstracts of

California laws relating to the subject of the study, and a proposed law for the establishment of two correctional farms in California.

Outstanding in the comment and argument is the revelation of facts about the "floater" custom. Courts and peace officers are parties to a system whereby 2,200 out of 2,300 vagrants were found to have been passed on, or "floated" to other jurisdictions. In four San Joaquin Valley counties only 5% of men charged with vagrancy were convicted. This interesting line of observation is supplemented by facts regarding residence of prisoners. For example, 97% of the men imprisoned in county jails were found to belong "for the most part" to the state, but not to be residents of any particular county (p. 11). All of this is used to buttress the argument for state control of the treatment of misdemeanants.

Other prominent features are the comment on variation of administrative practices among the counties (p. 12), ages of county jail prisoners, 44% of the total number received during the year being under thirty years of age (p. 19), and facts regarding the salaries of sheriffs and practices in the employment of deputies that are in some instances little short of scandalous (p. 23).

The statistical tables, taken for what they are worth at the present status in the development of statistics of local penal institutions are perhaps the most important feature of the production. It is interesting to note that the counties have been grouped according to four sizes, and also by six regions. One would expect some comment in the text on the significant results of study according to these groupings. In only three instances are percentage tables given, these relating to conditions of residence of the prisoners. This points the fact that there is by far too little analytical treatment and comparison in the report. For example, what is the significance of a total of 31,572 prisoners received during the year 1914 according to this study as compared with the similar number 16,761 received during 1910 according to the United States census?

This is one of the most thorough studies of jails that has been reported. The booklet represents a cross between a popular document and a scientific treatise and for that reason falls short of success in both directions. For example, it is strange to see large type poster pages in the beginning and paragraph headings later entitled "Modes" and "Medians." It would perhaps have been more forceful to have begun the book in the logical order of telling the story of the investigation and proceeding step by step to conclusions, leaving popularization of the results to separate publications and exhibits.

Chicago.

WILLIAM T. CROSS.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF PSYCHO-ANALYSIS FOR THE MENTAL SCIENCES.
By *Dr. Otto Rank* and *Dr. Hans Sachs*; translated from the German by Dr. Charles R. Payne. Nervous and Mental Disease Publishing Company, 1916, Pages 127. Price \$1.50.

The table of contents of this volume suggests the plan of the work.

1. The Unconscious and its Forms of Expression.....	1
2. The Investigation of Myths and Legends.....	27
3. Theory of Religion.....	67
4. Ethnology and Linguistics.....	79
5. Esthetics and Psychology of Art.....	93
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The motive of the authors is to make an application of the Freudian theory of Psychology in the various fields suggested by the chapter titles above. In the second chapter on Myths and Legends, for example, we have a development of the thesis that myths and legends are the symbolical expressions of repressed sex complexes in primitive people. The Grimm's legend of the Two Brothers is related in some detail. The Egyptian legend of the brothers Anup and Bata and the Grecian myths, Eros and Psyche as well, are shown to be parallel to the legend of the Two Brothers. The authors believe that all three of these are symbolic expressions of the same underlying unconscious sex motive. The fear of the dragon depicted in the legend is taken as a symbol of the indefinite fear of the future on the part of the princess who has approached the marriageable age. Numerous other features of the legend are assumed to be sex motivated also.

In the chapter on Ethnology and Linguistics, we are told that the primitive roots of our language are symbolical expressions of sex motives and at the same time that all of our fine art finds its spring in the same source.

All this it is well known is characteristic of the Freudian literature. Many of us think that Freud and his pupils overdo this explanatory principle. We do not forget that there are strong motives and impulses in the human being, besides the sexual; the fear and the hunger impulses at any rate, are to our minds equally fundamental. The recurring question to us is therefore, why are not these impulses, these dispositions, just as effective as motives in the symbolism of dreams, myths, legends, words, religion, art, etc.

Northwestern University.

ROBERT H. GAULT.

THE EVOLUTION OF GOVERNMENTS AND LAWS; EXHIBITING THE GOVERNMENTAL STRUCTURES OF ANCIENT AND MODERN STATES; THEIR GROWTH AND DECAY AND THE LEADING PRINCIPLES OF THEIR LAWS, By *Stephen Haley Allen*, Princeton University Press, 1916. Pages 1221.,

The author in this volume has attempted a study of the governments and laws of various peoples and to derive from them broad general principles such as may be helpful in framing constitutions and formulating laws.

Most of the confusion in thought of those who write on the subject of political science arises from failure to observe the difference

between questions of morality and those of expediency and the limitations on expediency that are imposed by morality. "It is immoral to kill or maim another, yet it is justifiable in self-defense or to protect one's family. Although expediency points to all kinds of immoral conduct, it has its legitimate field."

"The moral law fixes limitations. Expediency may freely lead in every path that touches forbidden ground." "Not to destroy enemies by war but to destroy enmity by kindness and free intercourse; not to punish criminals but to eliminate crime by inducing right conduct; not to force the unwilling performance of duty but to lead man to voluntarily follow high moral standards for the joy of well-doing; not to enforce obedience to the arbitrary will of rulers but to induce the acceptance of such direction as is essential to concert of action; not to stifle individual liberty but to encourage and protect in all worthy efforts and enterprises, are the ideal purposes of governments and laws."

The author attempts to show how the nations of the earth through ignorance of these fundamental truths have suffered and he attacks this problem through a review of the rise and fall of states and the principles by which they have been governed. He then devotes a chapter to each of the following subjects: Unorganized Tribes; Tribal Organizations and Simple Despotisms; Pacific Islands; Mexico, Peru, Egypt, Caledonia, Babylonia, Judea and Persia; Arabia; India; China; Japan; Turkey; Greece; Rome; Medieval Europe; Russia; Italy; Spain and Portugal; Denmark, Sweden and Norway; Germany, Austria-Hungary and Poland; Holland and Belgium; Switzerland; France; the British Empire; the United States; Modern Mexico, Central and South American States.

Following a chapter of generalizations is an appendix including the following titles: Code of Hammurabi; Laws of XII Tables; Code of Manu; Institutes of Justinian; Penal Code of China; Civil Code of France; Civil Code of Germany; Magna Charta; Constitution of the United States.

Northwestern University.

ROBERT H. GAULT.

PSYCHOLOGY OF THE UNCONSCIOUS: A STUDY OF THE TRANSFORMATION AND SYMBOLISMS OF THE LIBIDO. A CONTRIBUTION TO THE HISTORY OF THE EVOLUTION OF THOUGHT. By *Dr. C. G. Jung*, of the University of Zurich. Authorized Translation, with Introduction, by Beatrice M. Hinkle, M. D.

For those not fully familiar with the genetic psychology of Freud and his school this book will serve a double purpose. First, it will give the beginner an excellent introduction to the entire subject through the most lucid introductory chapter contributed by the translator. We know of no better general introduction to the subject than is furnished by this chapter. Second, the body of the book represents an attempt to elucidate certain problems in genetic psychology by means

of an analysis of the productions of Miss Miller's fantasies, as expressed in her "*Quelque faits à imagination creatrice subconsciente*," Vol. V, *Archiv. der Psychologie*, 1906.

The theme which permeates Jung's extremely interesting and learned contribution is that of the Oedipus Complex and the struggle which the individual undergoes in his efforts to emancipate himself from his parental attachments and assume an independent existence in the world, a process which is of prime importance for a successful adaptation to life. Normally, as puberty is attained, the child gradually becomes more or less freed from his parents, and upon the degree in which this is accomplished depends his health and future well-being. This demand of nature upon the young individual to free himself from the bonds of his childish dependence and to find in the world of reality his independent existence is so imperious and dominating that it frequently produces in the child the greatest struggle and severest conflicts, the period being characterized symbolically as a self-sacrifice, by Jung. We shall encounter no great resistances in following Jung, thus far, but must leave to the reader to decide for himself as to the extent to which he is willing to subscribe to the idea that the so-called Oedipus Complex is a universal phenomenon. From the standpoint of criminalistics the discussion of the process of emancipation from the parental bonds is of extreme importance and suggestive of certain valuable lines of approach to the problem of anti-social behavior. In examining delinquent individuals, it has often occurred to us that if there is one characteristic that is common to a great many, if not most, habitual offenders, it is this, that they somehow have never succeeded in adequately differentiating themselves from their environment. As result of this, they seem to have but a vague conception of the notion of individual rights and by the same token fail to appreciate the benefits to society as well as to themselves inherent in the laws that society has evolved for the protection of these rights. One frequently feels that the habitual offender against society has carried over into his relations with his fellow man attitudes which he has held with reference to the narrower social group, namely, the home. Here that finer individualization which is demanded for a proper recognition of personal rights does not obtain, but the lack of this differentiation is bound to bring the individual into conflict with the larger social group, that is, society in general.

In his chapter on the two kinds of thinking, namely, directed thinking and dream or phantasy thinking, Jung also gives us an insight into the phylogenesis of anti-social activities, in other words, he outlines to us the instinctive backgrounds of criminal behavior. Many acts which we at present consider as anti-social are nothing but expressions of instinctive desires and which were once in the infancy of the race perfectly normal and well tolerated in every community, although now considered immoral and illegal. It is a failure of a proper sublimation of these socially unacceptable instinctive desires that leads to manifestations of criminal behavior, and it is for this

reason that some of the contributions in this volume point the way for a therapeutic approach to the problem of criminality.

It is impossible within the scope of a brief review to even attempt to do justice to this work which represents a Herculean amount of labor on the part of the author and which in some places reaches the loftiness of poetic charm.

One would not recommend this work for a beginner in psychoanalysis, for the highly specialized phase with which it deals must strike many a person as almost belonging within the realm of the improbable, and yet, there are many fundamental truths expressed which have a tremendous importance for a proper understanding of conduct and character formation and no one dealing with human problems in a clinical way can afford to overlook it. The translator has achieved a singular success and it is only rarely that one finds a highly technical German work put into such clear and understandable English.

Ossining, N. Y.

BERNARD GLUECK.

GENERAL STATISTICS OF CITIES. *U. S. Census Report on American Police Departments.* Washington, D. C., Census Bureau, 1915.

II. Civilian Employees.

Introduction. The statistics regarding the number of civilian employees and the number of detailed members of the uniformed force assigned in each city to the performance of special police duties not directly involving the maintenance of order and the arrest of criminals is of distinct practical value to police executives because the problem of police details is one of the most difficult in the field of police administration.

Statistics. It is interesting to note that nearly one-half of the 714 telephone operators in American police departments are civilians, as in New York it has been found to be in the interests of efficiency to have these duties performed exclusively by detailed members of the uniformed force. Only 41% of the 980 police clerks are civilian, although it is generally conceded by experts that there are comparatively few clerical positions which cannot be efficiently and economically filled by civilians. That only 26% of the 2,290 drivers and only 18% of the 1,084 turnkeys are civilians is easily understood when we bear in mind that these men come into intimate contact with lawbreakers in positions in which a uniformed man has a distinct advantage. Thirty-eight of the smaller cities have no civilian employees whatever.

Comparisons. Chicago has 1,253 employees on special duty while New York has only 803. This difference is due principally to the larger number of men detailed to drive patrol wagons in Chicago. Unfortunately the report contains no explanation of the difference in administrative organization in this respect. Chicago appears, for the same reason, to have a larger number of detailed policemen. St. Louis, which has only 399 men assigned to special duties, has 315 civilians and only 84 detailed men, thus having the smallest percentage of detailed men of any city of 500,000 population.

Of the 204 cities, 29 have no detailed policemen, 38 have no civilian employees, 4 have neither detailed policemen nor civilian employees and 69 have more civilian employees than detailed employees. Cincinnati is the largest city which has no detailed policemen.

Special Employees. In addition to giving for each city the number of civilian employees and the number of detailed policemen assigned to driving, clerical, turnkey, telephone, sanitorial, surgical and matron duties, the report also calls attention to 509 employees assigned to special duties. These employees cover a wide field of usefulness as appears from the following partial enumeration: Examiners of auto applicants (Chicago), gymnasium instructors (four cities), police judges (two cities), prosecuting attorney (Springfield, Mass.), interpreters (two cities), motion picture censors (Chicago), theater officer (Hoboken), sealers of weights and measures (Buffalo), probation officers (two cities), humane officers (three cities), poundkeepers (four cities), fire marshals (Philadelphia), sanitary officers (Rochester), swimming pool guards (Pittsburgh), photographers (five cities), printers (four cities), engineers (ten cities), cooks (four cities), messengers (three cities), elevator men (four cities), insect exterminators (Chicago), and machinists, mechanics, laborers and cleaners in many cities.

New York City.

LEONARD FELIX FULD.

COMING ANNUAL CONFERENCES.

THE ANNUAL MEETING OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF CRIMINAL LAW AND CRIMINOLOGY, WILL BE HELD ON MONDAY AND TUESDAY, SEPTEMBER 3 AND 4, AT SARATOGA, N. Y.

MONDAY, SEPTEMBER 3rd.

2 P. M. PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS, REPORTS OF COMMITTEES AND GENERAL BUSINESS.

8:30 P. M. ANNUAL ADDRESS AND REPORTS OF COMMITTEES.

TUESDAY, SEPTEMBER 4th.

2 P. M. ELECTION OF OFFICERS, REPORTS OF COMMITTEES AND GENERAL BUSINESS.

THE CONFERENCE OF THE SOCIETY OF MILITARY LAW WILL BE HELD AT THE SAME PLACE ON TUESDAY, SEPTEMBER 4, AT 3 P. M., WHEN REPORTS OF COMMITTEES AND PAPERS WILL BE PRESENTED AND GENERAL BUSINESS TRANSACTED.

THE ANNUAL CONFERENCE OF THE AMERICAN PRISON ASSOCIATION WILL BE HELD IN NEW ORLEANS EARLY IN OCTOBER.