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## Reviews and Criticisms

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## REVIEWS AND CRITICISMS

ILLEGITIMACY AS A CHILD WELFARE PROBLEM, PART I. A Brief Treatment of the Prevalence and Significance of Birth Out of Wedlock, The Child's Status, and the State's Responsibility for Care and Protection. Bibliographical Material. By *Emma O. Lundberg* and *Katherine F. Lenroot*. Dependent, Defective and Delinquent Classes Series No. 9. Bureau Publication No. 66. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1920, pp. 105.

"The care of children born out of wedlock in this country has been assumed merely as a part of the general policy of social provision for those in need of special care. Social agencies have become more and more conscious of the large proportion of their work that may be attributed to illegitimacy. They have begun to question whether society has not a peculiar responsibility toward these children who from birth are deprived of normal home life."

"In the United States the handicap of the child born out of wedlock is defined almost entirely by the lack of normal home conditions, rather than by any civic or social disabilities . . . Sentiment has ruled largely in the treatment of these cases, often with the result that the emphasis has been placed upon saving the mother from the social consequences, especially if her status or that of her family is likely to be affected. Most often there has been little recognition of the importance of the father as a factor and of his liability for the support of the child.

"With its diversity of conditions and varied state legislation, interest in the United States has been mainly local. Studies have been concerned chiefly with the numerical extent of illegitimate births in a community, the moral aspects, and the possibility of lessening the problem. Within the past few years, however, there has come an awakening of interest in illegitimacy as it affects the child. Not only has this resulted in the formation of conferences for the study of the problem in a large number of cities, but also the subject has been given special attention in the proceedings of various national organizations dealing with social problems. There is a growing interest in its broader aspects as being of nation-wide concern from the point of view of child welfare, and a movement is developing for uniformity in legislation relating to the status and support of children born out of wedlock."

This pamphlet is probably of greater interest to social workers than to criminologists. A bibliography composes half of the document.

As between the problem of the mother and father (involving the moral code and other social issues) and the problem of the child (involving results in welfare and future citizenship), the children's bureau naturally concerns itself with the latter. The question of

heredity is not discussed, but sections regarding mortality, status and care are included.

The best available figures and experience from all parts of the world are compared. The almost hopeless deficiency of the United States in both respects is sufficiently conspicuous. Only one-third of the states and cities offer statistics; half of these are not in the registration area.

1. "Because of their institutions and agencies giving maternity care and providing for children who must depend upon the public for support, these cases gravitate to the cities. Unquestionably the city, by reason of economic and social conditions inherent in congested areas, also produces an undue proportion of births out of wedlock and of child dependency."

2. There has been a relative increase in illegitimacy in Europe during the last few years, but probably not an absolute increase.

3. Illegitimacy on the continent is far more prevalent than in "Anglo-Saxon" countries. Holland and Switzerland also stand low.

4. In the United States "there appears to be little difference of opinion as to the necessity for registering the births of children born out of wedlock. But there is much controversy as to the method by which these births shall be so recorded as best to safeguard the child's legal status and property rights and at the same time protect him against any stigma . . . . It may be assumed that the data in regard to the mother are considered of importance in measures for the protection of the child. Certainly, without this information efforts looking to the prevention of infant mortality and for protection of children are greatly handicapped. It becomes an issue as to whether the greater emphasis should be placed on safeguarding the mother's name or in protecting the child's life . . . . In the absence of judicial determination of paternity, there is some question as to the value of the registration. The point may well be made, however, that the law should recognize no distinction in the responsibility of the parents of the child born out of wedlock. In order to safeguard the property rights of the child and for the purpose of holding the father liable for support, it is necessary that paternity should be determined legally and in as large a proportion of cases as possible."

5. Peculiar conditions among Negroes, producing a far higher rate, necessitate separate treatment which, it may be hoped, will be given in a later bulletin. (The few figures given would indicate that possibly one out of every fifty children born in this country is an "illegitimate" colored child.) Colored children suffer less handicap from their illegitimacy than from general conditions

6. "There seems to be no close relation between legitimate and illegitimate birth rates . . . . Neither does there appear to be a definite relation between the illegitimacy rate and the percentage of unmarried women among the women of childbearing age."

7. "The percentage of illegitimate among the total births in . . . 16 states in 1915 was 1.8 . . . . Grouping the states geographically, the percentage was lowest in the sparsely settled western states, the average for Nevada, South Dakota and Utah in 1915,

being 0.8, in the 5 Middle Western States the rate was 1.7, in the 1 Middle Atlantic State 2, and in the 5 New England States 1.9. The rate in the 2 Southern States, excluding births to Negroes, was 1.6. It may be questioned, however, whether these rates would have been relatively the same if birth registration had been equally complete in all sections and if data had been available for the whole country. In this connection it is significant that the 5 New England States and the Middle Atlantic State were all in the birth registration area, and that the rates for these sections were comparatively high."

An estimate, necessarily crude, of the total annual illegitimate white births is given: from 32,400 to 35,100.

8. Mortality of illegitimate babies is terribly high, everywhere far in excess of that of legitimates. It has been and can be reduced proportionately, as much as can the rate for legitimates.

9. "In the United States the child of illegitimate birth has been practically legitimized with respect to the mother." Minnesota, North Dakota, Oregon and a few other states, have advanced laws providing full paternity when possible. "Recent social legislation in the United States has . . . included children of illegitimate birth." Workmen's and soldier's compensation, and mother's pensions are examples. The Scandinavian laws are further advanced than anything in America outside Minnesota.

10. The protection and treatment of foundlings and of prospective unmarried mothers is fast improving. Mother care is given first place. Baby-farming scandals will soon be classed with pauper-labor horrors. In this respect, the United States is not so far behind Europe.

Northwestern University.

THOMAS D. ELIOT.

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COURTS IN THE UNITED STATES HEARING CHILDREN'S CASES. Results of a Questionnaire Study Covering the Year 1918. By *Evelina Belden*. Dependent, Defective and Delinquent Classes Series No. 8. Bureau Publication No. 65. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1920, pp. . . .

The Children's Bureau, in pursuance of its economical and statesmanlike policy, makes available in this bulletin the existing achievements in the juvenile court movement, without attempting to push the movement forward along any special lines. At the same time the selection of topics for special analysis shows the features of court work considered especially important. The findings obtain added influence from their avoidance of propaganda, and added interest because of Miss Lathrop's share in the origins of the movement in Illinois. The study was made at the request and with the co-operation of a committee of the National Probation Association, which met with officials of the Bureau from time to time in 1917-18.

The report contains (1) excellent summaries of results; (2) sections on classification, jurisdiction, judges and hearings, detention, probation, records and reports, physical and mental examination, and co-operation; (3) supporting tables, charts and documents. It will

serve as a valuable hand book for probation officers, especially for those in training, for many years; it brings up to date in a measure the material in previous books and articles. It is scrupulous in its statements and cautious in its conclusions, most of which are left for readers themselves to draw according to their respective interests.

To the present reviewer, the following seem to be the most important generalizations and tendencies:

(1) While a large proportion of delinquency is in rural counties, practically all of the most thorough juvenile court work is in the cities.

(2) Experiments in rural counties are being worked out with some success through:

(a) Referees or masters in chancery, who may be social workers attached to county boards of welfare.

(b) Consolidated rural courts, co-ordinated with consolidated schools, to which children come in a bus.

(3) Surprisingly few courts (16%) are adequately equipped juvenile courts; only about a third of those handling children are even recognized as "specially organized," with separate hearings, probation and social history service. The number includes all large cities.

(4) Children are still detained with adults in certain parts of every state in the union; the original stimulus to the juvenile court movement is therefore, still in large measure present.

(5) While probation laws have been passed, they are not lived up to in personnel and spirit in four-fifths of the courts. This is true in greater or less degree of every other characteristic feature of juvenile courts; 50,000 of 175,000 children probably come before such courts annually.

(6) State supervision and standardization has not spread so rapidly as might be hoped.

(7) Physical and mental examination at least for difficult cases is being increasingly provided for, but so far chiefly in cities. Two states (Ohio and Illinois) have state departments for mental examinations.

(8) As the above facts indicate, the juvenile court is still in its formative period.

(9) The court increasingly uses outside agencies, or sanctions such treatment as would ordinarily be given by such agencies by common consent of the parties.

(10) The juvenile court tends to become merged in jurisdiction with the domestic relations court, in such places as they previously were distinct. The family is the unit of treatment and the disputed rights are chiefly those of parents.

(11) The probation office tends to become increasingly an investigative, interpretative and articulating agency; a receiver or broker of salvaged children and of facts about them; the eye of the judge and of the community. Probation as a kind of disciplinary treatment or special education is given only where no other agency can be found to do it. "As the work of the juvenile court develops, some

of the underlying causes of child delinquency become more evident . . . . The responsibility reverts to the home, the school, and the other social forces of the community."

(12) State wide organization begins to include not merely supervision of courts on the one hand and of probation on the other, but also the entire child-caring system. The need for many child-caring measures has been made more obvious by the work of the juvenile courts. The child caring system, including the school, should have power without court trial to render any type of service or education, including what would now ordinarily be probation or commitment, provided the treatment be arranged by common consent and duly recorded after investigation. The court need not then be appealed to except in cases of disputed rights; if however, there be such dispute, the jurisdiction of the court should be such as to permit and oblige the parties to appear for impartial investigation and adjudication of their claims, however apparently trivial the issue. Neglect, now, must often become too serious before action can be enforced; and parents should also have constant protection against over-zealous agents. If the desired treatment be approved, the court, under such a plan, would not necessarily need to transfer the child from the custody of parents or agency to that of the probation officer, in order to retain jurisdiction. It might, and usually would, merely declare the agency in question the officer of the court for the purposes of the case, and the treatment ordered would be carried out. The child-caring system, supported and checked by a court separate, but of parallel scope, would then be handling most children on a voluntary basis; a few scarcely distinguished from the others would be dealt with, through the same agents but by sanction of the court.

In this last paragraph the reviewer reaches beyond the ground taken by the report, and projects a development which seems to him foreshadowed by the recent experiments in Ohio, Minnesota, Massachusetts and Utah, and by the discussions at the last meetings of the National Probation Association.

One feature of court work which seems to the reviewer particularly significant is omitted in this study: the number, nature and methods of handling so-called unofficial or "out-of-court" cases. This practice has spontaneously become very extensive in many courts, but its importance and significance in the future of the juvenile court and of special education has as yet not been given adequate official recognition.

Northwestern University.

THOMAS D. ELIOT.

THE ADOLESCENT GIRL. By *Phyllis Blanchard*. With an introduction by G. Stanley Hall. Moffat Yard, New York: 1920.

Hall in the preface says that the "psyche" of the young girl seems to him the most unknown of all the great domains of psychology, and that the author has had exceptional opportunities to study this subject and recommends the book to "all women interested in the true status of their sex."



The problem of the adolescent girl is viewed from both the scientific and the philosophic background with the hope of providing her with definite information so that she may understand her own personality and her sexual problems and put her energies to the best use. The book endorses Hall's fundamental principles of adolescence, which he conceives to be "the entrance of the individual into the larger life of the race," so that "the psyche reverberates with old phyletic memories lying deep within the nerve plexuses and ganglia of the unconscious; feels the impulsion of irresistible forces which urge the boy or the girl to express in their own person the myriad activities which characterized the stirp in the long aeons of its development.

Adolescence is not sufficiently explained by physiological and metabolic changes, and the author seeks further enlightenment from psychoanalysis. She traces the growth of the genetic philosophy and the development of psychoanalysis, and from these studies a purposive outlook on life and altruistic principles are evolved for the guidance of the young girl's soul (the soul is accepted without a question). "The vital element of all existence is an irreducible, irresistible energy (call it libido, elan vital, will to live, what you wish), which animates the organism and shapes its acts to suit its inscrutable purposes. It is not favorable to the individual, to be sure, yet to it he owes his very being, since he exists for the sole purpose of insuring its continuity and receives whatever spark of genius dwells within him from its exuberant energy. It is a wholly unconscious force, obscure in all its activities, but apparent in the otherwise inexplicable phenomena to which it gives rise."

Love is defined as not only the merging of love for each other into a common love for a common offspring, but as "creative of the great elan vital which is the ultimate source of all existence"; and the test of love is "a deep and abiding love of the human race," for which every girl should strive consciously as she already unconsciously strives.

The chapter headings indicate the angles from which the study of the adolescent girl is approached. Many cases are enumerated, popularizing the subject and giving concrete meaning to the general principles; but psychoanalysis furnishes the key to the understanding and the consequent solution of many of the girl's difficulties.

- Chapter I. The Broader View.
- Chapter II. The Sexual and Maternal Instincts.
- Chapter III. The Adolescent Conflict.
- Chapter IV. The Sublimation of the Libido.
- Chapter V. The Adolescent Girl and Love.
- Chapter VI. Pathological Manifestations in the Adolescent Girl.
- Chapter VII. The Adolescent and Her Future.

CLARA S. BETTMAN.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF SUBNORMAL CHILDREN. By *Leta S. Hollingworth*. N. Y.: Macmillan, 1920.

*Preface.* Special classes for subnormal children require teachers specially trained in the psychology and education of such children. The book aims to fill this need, and is confined largely to educational psychology of mentally deficient children. The material is drawn from lectures given in Teachers' College, Columbia University. Achievement by defectives rather than clinical features are stressed.

*Chap. I. Individual Differences.*

*Chap. II. The Scientific Study of Mental Defectives.* These two chapters study the feeble-minded in relation to the composition of society, race, sex, environment, etc.; the educational problem of retardation; and the social problems of crime, illegitimacy, truancy, etc.

*Chap. III. The Definition of Mental Deficiency.* From the social, pedagogical, medical, psychological points of view, all of which indicate the need of educational treatment.

*Chap. IV. Identification.* Treats of different tests and the resulting diagnosis; the duties of the school nurse, teacher, physician and psychologist to the defective in the schools; and of the growth of psychological clinics in the U. S.

*Chap. V. Are the Defectives a Separate Species?* The feeble-minded differ from the normal in degree only, not in kind. They are the lower end of the normal distribution curve, there being no discontinuity nor break between the idiot and the imbecile, the imbecile and the moron, the moron and the normal. "A feeble-minded child of whatever chronological age, if he has a mental level of 7 years, is capable of acquiring the information that is acquirable by the average 7-year-old child" (p. 91.) The task of psychology is to tell what the defective can do.

*Chap. VI. Arrested Development.* This the author considers a meaningless expression because the feeble-minded develop as all other human beings do throughout the years of childhood, only more slowly, and they never attain the status of the normal population at the final limits of their growth.

*Chap. VII. Are the Feeble-minded Equally Feeble in All Respects?* (1) The feeble-minded as a group, both children and adults, are inferior to the norm in all respects. (2) They are not equally far from the norm in all respects. (3) They are nearest the norm in physical size and strength, in sensory acuity and in motor control; (4) farthest from the norm in intellectual capacity, especially in all those subtler capacities which are involved in abstract thinking, which in normal persons develop after the age of childhood. (5) The feeble-minded as a group will therefore profit most by instruction which will lead to skill in eye-hand co-ordinations, and in tasks where physical and sensory capacities are useful. They will profit least from instruction which involves abstract thinking, and the comprehension of symbols. As adults they will be able, if properly taught, to perform many useful, routine industrial tasks, under supervision. (6) In any individual defective there will be found more or less unevenness of abilities. Very few feeble-minded are equally deficient in



all respects. On the other hand, very few show extreme unevenness of abilities such as the idiots-savants show.

*Chap. VIII. Physical Traits of the Feeble-minded.* A diagnosis of feeble-mindedness cannot be made on the basis of stigmata. Only when scores of cases are measured and compared is a small difference found in the averages of the defective and the mentally normal.

*Chap. IX. The Instincts and Emotions of the Feeble-minded.* Children and the feeble-minded need supervision in their social relations because their intelligence is inadequate for the complicated task of controlling and inhibiting the instincts. In the feeble-minded there is a disproportion between the strength of the instincts and the intelligence. If there were a perfect correlation between instincts and intelligence so that a feeble intellect would always insure feeble instincts, many of the difficulties of life would disappear automatically.

*Chap. X. How Do the Mentally Defective Learn?* In an experiment with defectives of a mental age of 9 and normal children of 9, defectives were found to learn as much and as fast as the normal children in a period lasting 13 days. In case of a learning period extending over a year, the feeble-minded do not make the same progress, because they do not grow intellectually as fast as normal children. In a 13-day test the mental age remains virtually the same, but in a test lasting 365 days, the mental age does not remain the same and the normal and the mentally deficient draw definitely apart. "The psychology of the future must discover at what various mental levels certain habits are learnable. (1) The feeble-minded can not learn at the same rate and in the same way as normals of equal chronological age, they can not learn simple tasks at the same rate, and they can not learn the most difficult tasks at all. (2) The feeble-minded learn at the same rate and in the same way as normal children of equal mental age in tasks in which they have been experimentally tested. (3) There is no necessary relation between ability to learn specific tasks appropriate to a given mental age and ability to grow from one mental age to another. (4) No difference of training from practice in one task to the performance of other tasks having common elements, has been demonstrated to exist between the feeble-minded and normal children of equal mental age. The speed of improvement is apparently the same for both. "No intelligent plan for the instruction of a child can be instituted until his mental level is known."

*Chap. XI. Can the Mentally Deficient Be Made Normal By Any System of Education?* Education cannot change native capacity in a child. It can inculcate specific desirable habits.

*Chap. XII. The Causes and the Prevention of Mental Deficiency.* The causes must be better understood. The two schemes to prevent feeble-mindedness at present are segregation and sterilization, neither of which is in general operation.

*Chap. XIII. Secondary Causes:* Mental deficiency due to disease of the nervous system, syphilis, ductless glands, epilepsy, etc.

*Chap. XIV. Nervous and Mental Disorders Which May Complicate Mental Deficiency.*

*Chap. XV. Special Classes and Special Schools.* A study of their history in the U. S. schools will help solve the problem of the mentally deficient, but they cannot do it alone. Follow-up work is essential. Subsequent histories of the graduates must be followed if the feeble-minded are to be maintained as a social and industrial asset.

A bibliography is attached to each chapter.

Chicago.

CLARA S. BETTMAN.

MORALE. By *G. Stanley Hall*. N. Y.: Appleton, 1920.

An idea of this book can best be given by a few quotations: "Morale, while not entirely definable, is best characterized as the cult of condition. Psychophysical condition is the most important factor in any and every kind of success." "Morale is health . . . partly a state and partly a diathesis." "My book is a plea for a new criterion of all human worths and values . . . I would have the home, the state, church, literature, science, industry and every human institution, not excluding religion, and perhaps it most, rejudged and reevaluated by the standard of what they contribute to individual and social morale. This would give us a real scale by which to measure real progress or regression." Morale "can be defined as energy or life or soul." Some of the topics discussed are: Morale as a Supreme Standard; Patriotism and Health; The Morale of Fear, Death, Hate, Anger; Morale and Diversions; The Morale of Placards, Slogans, Decorations and War Museums; Prohibition, Labor; Profiteering; Morale and Statesmanship; Feminism; Morale and the Reds; Morale and Religion.

Chicago.

CLARA S. BETTMAN.

A STUDY OF THE MENTAL LIFE OF THE CHILD. By *Doctor H. von Hug-Hellmuth*. Nervous and Mental Disease Monograph Series No. 29. Washington, 1919. Translated from the German by James J. Putnam, M. D., and Mabel Stevens, B. S., pp. IX and 154.

This monograph is divided into two parts preceded by the Translator's Preface and the Author's Introduction.

The author has attempted to apply thoroughly and faithfully the work of Sigmund Freud to the analysis of infant and child life. The life of the child is limited into three periods, namely: The nursing period, the period of play and the period of serious study. This monograph is devoted to an analytical study of the first two periods. No endeavor has been made to divide the life by years but rather to present a unified picture of each period. This the author has successfully accomplished. The author manifests a careful study of the literature dealing with child life, that which was done before Freud put forth his theory as well as the later material. He has drawn several for illustration purposes from such writers as Preyer, Shirin, Scupin, Sully, Darwin and others.

The period of Infancy, subtitled, the suckling, is treated under six headings: (1) The functions of the senses in the service of the effective life of the infant.

Here the author maintains that the mental life of the infant begins with reactions to sensations coming from stimulations from without as well as from within the body. The significance of these various sensory experiences for the affective and sexual life are pointed out. The exercise of the bodily muscles constitutes a source of great pleasure to the child. The sexual significance of this is seen in the child whose mother during pregnancy has continued sexual intercourse having a marked sexuality; this may also be caused by the shaking of the uterus of the mother during pregnancy. Quoting "This physically conditioned, heightened capacity for sexual feelings is observable as well in boys as girls, while, as is well known, the psychic transmission is a crossed one as a rule. If this assumption proves to be correct, then skin and muscle erotism must be regarded as the most primitive form of sexual feeling." The sense of smell, touch, vision, joy of being swung in cradle; pleasure of nakedness, from kissing, movements of limbs, sitting and walk; all these, it is claimed, have a sexual significance in the life of the child.

(2) First signs of volitional activity. This section is given to a description of the beginnings of self-assertion in action. It is pointed out that the child after the first three months opposes every action suggested which does not give pleasure. The significance of this is the danger of struggle between parent and child, thus laying the basis for estrangement between the two. Nothing is said about the sexual significance of these early actions.

(3) The first signs of development of the intellect. Several items are mentioned as important in early life of the child. These are, association by visual processes, e. g., between breast of mother or bottle and satisfaction of hunger; pleasure in evacuation of the bowels; love which is built up by associations with first person to satisfy its wants. This is claimed to have great significance in later life of the child. The other two factors of importance in this connection are curiosity and imitation.

(4) The beginnings of speech. This is only a brief treatment of this important topic. The rudimentary speech of the child is connected with the "physiological arrangements and the organs that serve them." In addition to this the scale of tones and cooings of the cular emotional significance.

(5) The development of ethical feelings. This starts early in life, before speech. It is of great significance in the formation of character. It is necessary in the life of the child to have its emotional cravings for affection satisfied, also a warped development occurs. The significance of this is seen in the influence the mother has in the life of the boy when he comes to the selection of objects of love; the place of the father with the girl's choice. This feeling takes the form of jealousy, e. g., twins of same sex, or love in case of twins of opposite sex. This also takes the form of anger or fear as occasion arises.

(6) Dreams. The author claims that before speech the child dreams. This fact is indicated by certain movements and sounds of the child during sleep. The dream is the wish-fulfillment in an undisguised form in the case of the very little child. The sexual element

is here emphasized. After citing two instances of inferred child dreams the author says, "and since we know whip-interests point to the presence of sodistir desires and that the great fondness of children for water points to a strongly developed urethral erotism, it is obvious that such dreams as those cited might, if carefully studied, prove a valuable contribution to the subject of dream-interpretation. It may be, for example, that muscle erotism of high grade could be shown to be perhaps the most important basis for the "stair-case dreams" which appear as early as in the third quarter of the first year of life, as is to be inferred from the jerk-like start of the body and from the anxious expression of the face during sleep. Such a study would probably make it appear certain, also, that during the stage prior to speech, the latent dream content is seldom without a sexual or erotic motive; . . ."

This first part ends at page 39, the rest of the monograph is devoted to part II—Playtime. This is treated under nine headings. It is really a continuing of part I to the six or seventh year. This section is much fuller and richer in illustrative material. The parts are as follows: (1) The body and its functions in the service of play. The sexual significance of playing with parts of the body alone and with playmates is discussed. The naturalness of this tendency is emphasized. (2) The development of the understanding. This section is primarily a discussion of understanding of the meaning of sexual matters such as peeping at nakedness, the significance of the genital organs; the early erections of the boy. The understanding for the child of the process of nourishment and digestion is also presented. (3) Memory. The chief matter of interest in this section is the claim that only those things are remembered which have a strong feeling tone. The claim is made that the reason adults do not remember the first three or four years of experience is repression and not inability to do so. This repression of course is due to the fact that these earlier years are full of sexual matters which have upon them a social ban. The educational importance of memory is emphasized. (4) Imagination. Here is where the child's likes and dislikes get full play. This topic gives the author ample opportunity to apply his theory and he makes most excellent use of it. The imagination plays its part in other fields, but this section is filled mostly with instances of use in regard to matters of sex, e. g., living out hostile impulses towards parents, the memory of the sexual act itself, the origin of life, etc. (5) Reasoning. The proof of reason in the young child is seen in his ability to make a choice. This element is seen to develop in gradually understanding space, time, growth and death. The meaning and use of symbols in relation to sexual interests is pointed out. Closely related to reason and forming an integral part of the impulse is the emotional life. (6) Speech. The description at this point is largely concerned how a child builds up a vocabulary in regard to forbidden matters. Three elements determine his vocabulary, natural disposition, sex and environment. The best guarded child has this peculiar type of words in his speech. (7) The emotional life. This topic is used almost entirely to emphasize what has been mentioned in preceding topics, the sexual importance of

emotions and affections in the child's life. The moral consequences of improper handling of this delicate matter is well presented. The last two topics (8) art in the life of the child and (9) dreams are used mainly to portray the role of sex in the child's life. In art aesthetic values are out of the question until much later; the liking of the child for art is primarily a sexual matter.

The impressions one receives on reading this monograph are quite a mixture. There are many valuable elements worthy of attention. It is a very keen analysis of the child literature with this particular point of view in mind. To any one interested in sex education this monograph would prove very valuable. It points out very distinctly the place and importance of sex in the life of the child; sex is not an evil but maternal element and the source of most of the things of value in child life. The monograph would be of value to parents in handling the sexual life of children. The book is not so technical but that the intelligent parent could understand most of what is presented.

The main criticisms on the work is its extreme emphasis on the sexual element. The distinct impression left on first reading is that the one and only thing of importance in the developing life is the matter of sex. A better title would be "A Study of the Significance of Sex in the Mental Life of the Child."

However, to one who has studied the Freudian literature this monograph will inevitably make a strong appeal. If the theory here applied proves correct, it will be of the greatest value in understanding child life and so interpreting much in adult life.

Northwestern University.

L. W. WEBB.

LE CINÉMATOGAPHE ET LA CRIMINALITÉ INFANTILE. (The Moving Picture and Juvenile Delinquency.) Communication faite à la Société d'économie sociale, le 1er mai 1918. Charles Collard, Substitut du Procureur du Roi. *Revue de Droit Pénal et de Criminologie* (Bruxelles) VIII, 8-10 (Aout-Octobre, 1914-1919.)

The *Revue* signalizes its continuity by bravely bridging with a single issue the tragic gap 1914-1919. It resumes publication with an interesting monograph upon the relation of the moving picture to child crime. The general increase of juvenile delinquency in the warring countries makes the report timely. American social workers, especially in the field of corrections, have long recognized and discussed through platform and press, the importance of the "movies" among the influences upon delinquents. Such readers will be interested in the comparisons, contrasts and corroborations here made available.

After tracing the phenomenal rise of the industry, measured in capital, receipts, output and theaters in several European countries, the report summarizes the available figures from many cities in all parts of the world, indicating the almost universal attendance of minors, largely unaccompanied by adults and including girls to almost as great an extent as boys. Recommendations are offered for more accurate

and significant statistics of such attendance. The reputed sheltering of French children from the corruptions of the stage does not seem to extend to the cinema, which taps a lower level of demand.

The lure of the moving picture is analyzed, its effect on the "legitimate stage" is noted, and its potential power for good is generously recognized. However, "Contrairement à ce que l'on en attendait, le cinématographe, détourné de sa destination première, est devenu—on ne peut se faire d'illusion à ce sujet—un *agent de démoralisation* pour la jeunesse d'aujourd'hui, et une des causes principales de la criminalité infantile."

"Tout ce qui peut exciter l'imagination vers la violence et le sang trouvent maintenant place au cinéma, qui est devenu le roi de l'enseignement criminel."

A Swedish report declares 70% of the films there to be bad, 20% more passable. The billboards and titles, as in this country, frankly appeal to morbid interests, and even so-called "classic pieces" are too generally robbed of the distinctive greatness which dignifies their subject matter. Instincts are too often fixated at crude, infantile levels instead of being "sublimated" or taught socially permitted expression. Too often, also, situations are solved "ex machina." The weak dodging of ethical issues, is, if possible, more dangerous than direct suggestion to wrong doing. It may not bring immediate reaction in delinquency; rather it affects character cumulatively and more subtly undermines otherwise stable and wholesome natures. Here are the greatest dangers to our social inheritance.

The intimate, often unconscious nature of the effect of the plays is briefly mentioned.

In such a study the writer naturally tends toward a monomphasis which is not found in the careful case-work of Dr. Healy,<sup>1</sup> who says (speaking, to be sure, of American conditions), that "the amount of delinquency produced by them corresponds but slightly to the immense number of pictures which are constantly shown. . . . However," he says, "there is no excuse for showing pictures which damage the morals of anyone." Dr. Healy believes that moving pictures affect boys more than they do girls, and that the direct effects are chiefly pugnacity and nomadism; stealing is an indirect effect—to secure ticket money.

More stress might have been placed upon a constructive study of the social psychology of the "movie." What are the mental mechanisms involved, and the instincts operating through them? Like the popular press and song, the appeal of the drama is to interests which do not have full satisfaction and expression in reality, and which seek solution, outlet or "phantasy-fulfilment" through an escape from realities. They are intensified, objectified, effortless day-dreams. These instincts and interests may be already warped into anti-social channels of both stimulation and expression; or in the absence of inhibitions (counter-attractions and stimuli) they may be so warped by the suggestions of the actors. That this is possible, however, indicates not only the need of repressive measures, but the failure of

<sup>1</sup>William Healy, M. D., *The Individual Delinquent*, p. 308; also pp. 307-9, §§ 225-33.

society to provide wholesome guidance and constructive outlet for the natural instincts. There is an essential difference between the catharsis of true tragedy or synthesis of constructive drama, and the titillation of phantasy, which stimulates rather than sublimates, and aggravates rather than resolves the conflicting desires of the spectator.

We cannot abolish ropes because suicides may use them. The films cannot, any more than the press or platform, be adjusted to cases of pathological suggestibility or insanity; but extreme cases, such as are mentioned, indicate the nature and magnitude of their influence and the need for wiser guidance of the same instincts in normal children. Doubtless the nervous strain of the movies also "finds out" and develops early any weak strains in otherwise normal personalities. Doubtless, the statement of children that specific acts were in imitation of films, indicates a need for film-control; but as explanations of crime they should be considered on a par with equally naïve explanations of the Great War in terms of the Sarajevo murder. To create an explosion, a spark needs also a supercharged, unguarded, caged mass of potential energy—which may produce, psychologically, its own spark. Men know not their own motives: why should we expect reliable self-interpretation from children?

In this connection two types might have been distinguished by our author: (1) The personality of high dynamic potential and low mental content, in which, in the absence of inhibition, there is no repression, no counteraction or resistance to the re-expression or dramatization of the scenes in actual conduct; and (2) the warped personality with strong internal conflicts: existing repressions for which the pictures often furnish a quasi-outlet or sublimation, but sometimes a suggestion for the removal of an intolerable thwart in the real world, through some anti-social act. In either case the imitation involves the unconscious or conscious identification formula: "Now it is as if it were at that time for him (= me)." In either of the types mentioned, this mechanism might reach the pathological in its results. A very "mild" movie might thus incite a neurotic or defective: the others present do not do likewise.

The report states that cinema delinquency is often cold-blooded, in contrast to adult crime. If, however, it seems unmotivated, it is only apparently so: in such cases it would seem that the thirsts for achievement, for domination, for extension and projection of the personality, either by identifying oneself with a hero or group or by producing physical results, are the wishes which thus find expression in anti-social manner in the absence of effective constructive suggestions and opportunities. The unreality of the film picture permits and seems to sanction the portrayal of any atrocity. Its realism, on the other hand, suggests repetition with equal impunity. The child, finding the movie more vivid than his own drab life, begins to find real life in an unreal world.

Brief attention is given the other two ways in which the cinema may contribute to delinquency: the sordidness of the audience-room and the temptation to steal to secure the admission fee. These, however, the reviewer thinks, should be considered secondary and incidental evils.

As remedies, the relative value of direct and indirect public action are intelligently discussed. By the former M. Collard means the consumers' protest or choice. The principles and difficulties of censorship are mentioned. By indirect action is meant propaganda through organization for which a campaign is outlined. The press should be persuaded to discourage children's attendance at ordinary cinemas, even at a loss of advertising.

The constant presentation of attractive films in schools is also proposed as a flank attack. Such a plan would involve in the United States, federal action for circulation and perhaps for production of films, such as has been under consideration by the Bureau of Education. Films so offered must, to succeed, be adjusted to the same range of instincts which responds to the commercial films: they must educate emotions and develop useful conditioned reflexes, not merely add to the unorganized or disorganized memory. There is a tremendous place for the purely "educational" film, as we now know it, in the regular curriculum; but such films do not essentially compete with drama. In this respect the movie problem is similar to that of the saloon: at rock-bottom is the emotional demand for a real solution, not a milk and water substitute nor a hectic attempt to compromise.

The report recognizes the practical difficulties under which local managers operate. It advocates, therefore, the support of legal measures, though recognizing their limitations. Extensive citations and legal arguments are given which apply largely to Belgian conditions, and like most such arguments, seems to involve special pleading. relied upon is that of the protection of public order, in which may be included public morals.

Censorship, if attempted, should, the reviewer thinks, be applied at the point of production, and only by experts, paid or with a paid staff, responsible to the recreational or educational authorities and appointed with overlapping terms of office. Such persons should be as familiar with social psychology as public health officers are with germs and routes of infection; and, as with epidemiology, results, rather than a moral code, should be the test of methods.

The report admits the inadequacy of censorship, and advocates, therefore, the legal exclusion of children. A movement in this direction, if enforced, would indeed bring the industry to terms, preferably by encouraging specially prepared children's programs. Such laws, however, can only be enforced by a vigorous public opinion, which is so far lacking where most needed.

One aspect of the picture industry is apparently ignored in the report—the production end. An investigation of large plants near Los Angeles a few years ago showed the conditions of production and the character of producers and actors (not to mention scenario writers) to be such as almost to preclude performances of the best moral and aesthetic effect. Canons, standards, and personnel for a new art with many branches, are only gradually being created.

The report is in general well-documented, though the sources for facts from the United States are in some cases not noted.

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