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## Reviews and Criticisms

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## REVIEWS AND CRITICISMS

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PROBLEMI PRESTUPNOSTI (PROBLEMS OF CRIMINALITY). Edited by E. Schirvindt et al. Vol. IV. 256 pp. Russian State Institute for the Study of Criminality and the Criminal. Moscow, 1929.

The Russian State Institute for the Study of Criminality and the Criminal was brought into existence by virtue of a decree of the People's Commissariat of the Interior of July 1st, 1925. Beginning with 1926, the Institute has been annually publishing, under the title "Problems of Criminality" (*Problemi Prestupnosti*), collections of original papers and statistical digests on various criminological topics. The scientific value of these contributions is by no means homogeneous. While the experienced Russian criminologists of pre-revolutionary times, who managed somehow to evade the accusation of being "bourgeois sympathizers," have indeed given interesting data on the crime situation in Russia, the new pleiad of Marxist criminalists are seeking to convey to the labors of the Institute a distinctly unscientific, amateurish character, tainted with narrow communistic ideology. This state of affairs is graphically reflected in the fourth volume of "Problems of Criminality."

Above all, this is a book of propaganda under the cloak of "Marxian science": the complex phenomenon of crime is viewed here through a single prism of "class struggle," or what is termed by one of the writers, "class displacements." This one-sided and arbitrary criterion obviously fails to throw light on the intricate processes which enter into the aetiology of crime. In this connection A. Piontkovsky's article "Murders of the Village and Labor Correspondents" is quite typical. Ever since the November revolution of 1917, the central communist apparatus has been exerting its efforts to "win over" to socialism the Russian peasant masses. Accordingly, the villages were flooded with revolutionary leaflets extolling the virtues of Sovietism and damning everything antecedent to the revolutionary era. The immediate task of putting this scheme locally into effect was conferred upon a numerically large group of Soviet employees known as the *selkori*, meaning "village correspondents." Theirs, indeed, was a difficult work, since they were regarded by the farmers as "squealers" and Soviet spies. On many occasions, the *selkori* have openly denounced and ridiculed the people's most sacred beliefs, and the appearance of these "shock detachments" of Sovietism in rural districts often resulted in dissension between parents and their children; the well-to-do peasants and their less fortunate neighbors, the educated (or, at least, semi-educated) strata and the illiterate element. These activities, then produced a widespread feeling of intense indignation, and led to a long series of assaults on, and murders of, the newspaper reporters.

Applying the Marxian formula to the interpretation of these crimes, which have become commonplace in Russia, Piontkovsky attempts to throw the causative burden of these sad events on the so-called *kulaki* or "rich peasants." However, his own statistics hardly bear out such a contention. In the first place, it appears from the 27 actual cases studied by the author that, out of eighty-one convicted of attempts against the lives of the communist correspondents, sixty-three were peasants, nine manual workers, six employees, two of the intelligentsia class, and one merchant. Thus, from the standpoint of *social* origin, the overwhelming majority of the offenders in question (99.2%), belonged to the workers and peasants classes, viz.: those very classes which the Soviet Government purports to represent.

Referring further to the *economic* status of these 63 peasants, it should be noted that only seven are described by Piontkovsky as *kulaki* (page 12), whereas fifty-six sentenced in these cases are classed by him either as possessing a little better than moderate means, moderate means, or none at all. Again, the *age* symptom of the offenders fails to corroborate Piontkovsky's theory that the opposition to communism, as symbolized by the village correspondents, is confined to the peasants well along in years, who are accused of being germ carriers of counter-revolution and hopeless "reactionaries." The figures speak for themselves:

<i>Age</i>	<i>Convicted</i>
Under 21	11
From 22-25	10
From 26-30	25
From 31-40	23
Over 41	12

Thus, almost 70% of the convicted were under the age of thirty, meaning that almost all of them had to attend Soviet schools.

Generally speaking, the method adopted by Piontkovsky cannot be considered scientifically valid: no conclusions can, or should, be drawn from such meager material as that furnished by the study of twenty-seven cases. Statistics in their application to social diagnostics in that event only can helpfully serve the purpose, if they cover a large range of facts, the sum total of which may be indicative of a well structuralized social tendency. But if the number of observations is negligible, as in the case of Piontkovsky's survey, statistics are not merely inconclusive, but altogether misleading.

Equally arbitrary and methodologically fallacious is T. Kremleva's paper on shoplifters. In the first place, she criticizes European psychiatrists, men like Dr. Dubuisson, Dr. Raimann, Schutz, and others, for overrating the importance of the sexual symptom in the kleptomaniac act. Secondly, she insists that Western science has been erroneously confining this form of mania to the female sex. Now, while it is true, that the authors cited by Kremleva, in a certain measure, have associated both kleptomaniac and pyromaniac crimes with dis-

turbances of the sexual system, more particularly with the arrest of the physical and psychical development of puberty, nevertheless, it is distinctly incorrect to derive any sweeping deductions concerning Western criminology from the views of a few individual authors. Modern psychiatry conceives in kleptomania one of the innumerable aspects of psychoneurosis, emphasizing the element of obsession in the mechanism of maniacal stealing. But similar compulsive states are observed in dipsomania, pyromania, pathological lying, and many other psychoneurotic conditions, partly springing from hysterical backgrounds and partly from epileptic antecedents. But such distinguished authors as Lacassagne, Régis, Dr. Albert Moll, and even Krafft-Ebing, have never maintained that the impulse in kleptomania is necessarily of purely sexual origin, or that it affects mostly, if not exclusively, the women. As a matter of fact, Lacassagne and Régis, have stressed the point that among the shoplifters there are both normal and abnormal individuals, men and women alike.\* This, I take it, would be true of any class of criminals.

On the other hand, Kremleva overlooks the fact that the late R. A. Reiss in his classical *Manuel de Police Scientifique*, Vol. I, *Volés et Homicides* (Lausanne, 1911), produced conclusive statistics showing that, for instance, for the year 1907, out of a total number of 1128 shoplifters arrested in Paris, 738 were men and only 390 were women, while, for the year 1906, the figures were: 779 men and 339 women.<sup>1</sup> This author does not even mention the sexual sub-stratum in his characterization of the shoplifters; but he shows that this class of thieves, much in the same way as pickpockets, "hotel rats," etc., develops such professional traits as are peculiar to habitual offenders, so that in Paris, London and other large urban centers, one finds efficiently organized shoplifters' gangs, composed of both men and women.

Kremleva apparently confuses in her mind two diverse groups: on the one hand, shoplifters whose ways and means, techniques and habits, are studied by criminalists, and, on the other—kleptomaniacs who are, and, of course, should be, dealt with by psychiatrists. A shoplifter is not necessarily a kleptomaniac nor is the kleptomaniac necessarily a shoplifter. As a medical man, Dubuisson naturally was interested in thieves revealing maniacal traits, and these investigations led him to believe that kleptomania is a variety of *psychopathia sexualis*. This theory has further been elaborated by Freud. In American literature similar views have been expressed by many prominent authors.<sup>2</sup>

\*It has been repeatedly observed that pathological stealing, especially among men, may be closely associated with fetishism. On this point see, for instance, Professor August Forel, *The Sexual Question*, pp. 142, 143, 240. New York, 1925. This author is inclined to think that fetishism is essentially a masculine perversion. See also Krafft-Ebing *Psychopathia Sexualis*, pp. 247-281, New York, 1924. See also E. Régis *Précis de Psychiatrie*, pp. 168-171 and 183, 184. Paris, 1923, etc.

<sup>1</sup>Op. Cit. page 119.

<sup>2</sup>For instance, see Dr. Smith Ely Jelliffe and Dr. William A. White,

The psychiatric approach to kleptomania undeniably is just as legitimate as the sociological interpretation of shoplifting as one of the varieties of theft and it is precisely in this latter sense that, for example, Dr. Edmond Locard has conceived the characteristics of shoplifting.<sup>3</sup>

No doubt, Kremleva could have easily verified all these facts, which, to be sure, are commonplace. But she was prompted by a preconceived design of proving that shoplifting is produced by economic distress and, consequently, that this form of crime should be also reduced to the orthodox Marxian construction. (See pp. 37, 38.)

Still, the principal objection to Kremleva's findings should be directed against this: her study is primarily based upon Moscow police records which, as she admits herself, are casual and incomplete. From these official reports, it does not appear at all whether any of the shoplifters arrested in Moscow were subjected to psychiatric examination. This being so, it is legitimate to presume that at least some of the offenders described by Kremleva actually were affected by mental disorder of some kind; and, further, that their behavior patterns should have been analyzed in the light of psychiatric diagnosis. The fact that the records contained no reference to neuropathic symptoms most certainly does not justify the conclusion that no such symptoms could have been observed if the particular offenders would have been medically examined.

A very excellent article on the psychology of prison escapes is given by Professor M. Gernet. He limits himself to the study of prison escapes made by the political criminals under the old regime; but he justly observes that there is no material difference between this class of prison inmates and those convicted for common offenses: prisoners of both groups evince a potent longing for freedom which develops almost into an obsession with the advent of spring days. Gernet describes in detail the three principal techniques which are being resorted to by the fugitives from penitentiaries: a) the sapping, or undermining, method, b) the open break, and c) "disguise" escapes, when a prisoner manages to procure some official uniform enabling him to leave the prison gates without arousing suspicion among the guards.

It appears from the paper that prison escapes have become a regular "science," the application of which requires on the part of the plotter not merely enormous patience and truly remarkable foresight, but also an all-embracing knowledge of prison architecture, and the rules in force in a given penitentiary. The story about a certain convict, Gerschuni, and how he escaped from a Russian prison, hidden in a barrel filled with sauerkraut, reads like real fiction. However, Gernet's account is based upon Gerschuni's own memoirs. Equally instructive

*Diseases of the Nervous System*, pp. 892-893, Philadelphia, New York, 1923. For further reference see also Dr. Edward J. Klempf, *Psychopathology*, pp. 641, 730-731.

<sup>3</sup>See his *Le Crime et les Criminels*, Chapter on *Le Vol à l'Étalage*, pp. 46, 47, etc. Paris, 1925.

is Gernet's analysis of the psychology of an open prison break, which is all the more difficult as it has to be accomplished in a few seconds, lest it be doomed to fail. Accordingly, the participants in the revolt must exercise marvellous self-control, while every move of theirs should be scrutinized and calculated in advance. Gernet's observations are all the more instructive as he gives a parallel statement of the reaction to the event of the escape both of the convicts and the prison administration. In both groups the attempt to break out instantaneously arouses an intense feeling of professional solidarity and leads to physical outrages of the most repulsive character.

From the standpoint of Soviet jurisprudence, E. Schirvindt's summary remarks on the Draft of the General Part of the Penal Code, elaborated by the State Institute, are quite illuminating. The citation of a few articles from this document will suffice to convey to the American reader an accurate conception of the fundamental principles of Soviet penal legislation. For instance:

"Article 4. Socially dangerous shall be conceived every act directed against proletarian dictatorship and the socialistic construction which is being effected thereby, or against social relationships prevailing during the transition period to communism.

"Article 6. Measures of social defense shall be applied only for the purpose of the protection of the proletarian state and the construction of the socialistic society against socially dangerous acts and the persons who perpetrated same. The measures of social defense shall not aim at punishment or retaliation; they shall be expedient; they shall not humiliate human dignity, and aim at the infliction of useless and superfluous suffering.

"Article 10. Should a socially dangerous act fail to appear in the special part of this Code, responsibility therefor shall be determined by analogy with that article of the Code which deals with an act most similar to that in question.

"Article 23. For the struggle against the gravest crimes which threaten the foundation of the Soviet regime, as an exclusive measure, execution by means of shooting shall be applied, pending the abolition of these measures by the Central Executive Committee of the U.S.S.R. in cases specifically provided in this Code, etc."

The bibliographical section in this issue of the "*Problemi Prestupnosti*" constitutes a marked improvement in comparison with the earlier volume of the same series. Much attention is devoted to the *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology* for the year 1927 and to the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*. Unfortunately, only casual mention is made of the *Howard Journal* for the same year. In addition to American and English bibliography, there is a short and incomplete sketch of Argentine, Belgian and French criminological periodicals.

Other original papers included in this volume are:

"*The Housing Problem and Economic Crimes in the Cities of the R. S. F. S. R.*" By B. Khalfin;

"*The Prison as Reflected in Pre-Revolutionary Prison Poetry.*" By M. Teodorovich;

"*The Day of a Prison Inmate.*" By G. Ivanov;

"*German Penitentiaries.*" By M. Issaev;

"*On Criminality and the Prisons in the U. S.*" By V. Ku-faev;

"*The Draft of the German Penal Code.*" By S. Mokrinsky.

For those who are interested in the current work of the Russian State Institute, Part Two of the volume, pages 108-151, ably edited by N. Spassokutzky, will prove valuable.

New York City.

BORIS BRASOL.

DIE SCHULDFRAGE IM EIGENEN URTEIL DES RECHTSBRECHERS: Ein Beitrag zur Methodologie und Psychologie der Selbsterkenntnis sowie zu einer zu schaffenden Kriminalpädagogik. By *Wilhelm Steckelings*. 189 pp. Ferdinand Schöningh-Verlag, Paderborn, 1929.

The central thesis of Steckelings is that no change of personality or of conduct tendencies is likely to take place without full development of self-consciousness on the part of the offender. His method is that of presenting to inmates of correctional institutions the problem of their own guilt. The lengthy title and subtitles of Steckelings' book indicate the nature of the work: "The Problem of Guilt According to the Judgment of the Offender Himself—An Essay on the Methodology and Psychology of Self-Knowledge, and the Development of Pedagogical Methods for the Treatment of Criminals Based on Psychological Questionnaires in Correctional Institutions."

Particularly because of its originality, this treatise by Steckelings proves to be of considerable interest. He has developed his ideas through the use of a very careful, well-thought-out set of inquiries; he illuminates his text by many references to the rich Teutonic literature that bears immediately or indirectly upon his subject; he comes to some very definite though idealistic conclusions. The index of the literature alone is worth looking over because it shows the relatively great concern that exists in Germany for the prevention and reformation of criminalistic trends in children and young people. In this country, we can show nothing like the same amount of scientific consideration of this problem. It is very surprising that there has been energy during the difficult post-war period for the production of this literature.

After much thought and experimentation, Steckelings utilized a set of questions, entirely sympathetic and carefully worded, which was presented to 880 inmates of four large correctional institutions. He received replies from a large number; over 90% in some of the institutions answered his inquiries, and frequently the answers were given at great length. The main point of all the research is embodied in the question, "Who or what was fairly to be blamed for the commission of offenses and for the sentences which were given? As was to be expected, the answers and the life histories given proved to be so diversified that among the 616 careers that were outlined,

no two were similar. Steckelings finds it very difficult to classify either the offenses or the causes of them except in very general terms. He finally offers a scheme that deals with the factors that belong to the inner life of the individual, and those that are concerned with the outer factors—family circumstances, economic conditions, companionships, recreation, etc. There is nothing new about any of this except the attempt to make the individual offender face his own career and be thoughtful about it. The stimulus to this self-consciousness is the questionnaire. The reader may conclude that Steckelings accomplishes his purpose; some of the answers show the development of an insight under this stimulus that undoubtedly had not formerly existed.

The belief is expressed by Steckelings that no ordinary court procedures, punishments, formal educational methods in institutions, or even religious instruction will accomplish as much as a carefully directed attempt to make the offender think about himself.

The author's main idea is that for reformation the individual must come to know himself. If he really knows himself, he cannot remain the person that he has been. His little book is shot through with quotations from philosophers and poets all bearing upon the same point, "Know thyself." He believes that all that psychology has to offer for criminalistics tends to prove nothing else so much as this.

The final practical conclusion is that the greatest need is for a larger and differently oriented personnel serving as directors or educators in correctional institutions. Almost nobody seems to be doing the sort of work that he insists must be done. Those who live within the gloom of prison walls cannot by themselves find the light to lead them on the way to better lives. The need is for many more talented individuals with thorough pedagogical insight who will gain such understanding of the requirements of offenders that they may help them to develop the self-consciousness that is indispensable for change of attitudes and habits. This may be idealism, but it is intensely practical treatment. It is unlikely that correctional institutions will ever accomplish much, Steckelings thinks, without the introduction of such work with the individuals there incarcerated.

There is certainly much of value in this work, but it is very curious to note the author's apparent lack of acquaintance with modern case studies as they have been developed in America, not, to be sure, very often with offenders actually in institution, but with court cases. The value of subjective interpretation of where the blame is to be placed for the development of the criminal career is open to fair criticism in the light of such case studies. In this connection the more recent developments of psychiatry and sociology are of great importance, even though they do not contradict the valuable thesis that Steckelings develops.

Then, too, Steckelings seems to take no note of the excellent and fruitful efforts of the well directed personnel of the Borstal institutions in England, carried out to some extent along the lines that he suggests. It appears to the reviewer that one of the great reasons for the success of this admirable English method is the fact that there is



attempt to understand the individual offender in terms of the causes of his offense and in terms of what he thinks about his life situation, as well as through the educational methods and remarkable trade-training and the after care that is given.

It is high time that those interested in the reformation of young offenders who, in so many instances continue in criminal careers after their first sentence, should piece together all the most promising reformatory work wherever found and put better methods into operation. Steckelings' work is representative of the usual narrower outlook; theories are promulgated and methods are introduced without a wide acquaintance with other separate and specialized efforts, some of which are very good, as far as they go.

Judge Baker Foundation, Boston, Massachusetts.

WILLIAM HEALY.

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FÄLSCHUNGEN. Edited by *Professor Siegfried Türk*el. x+93 pp. Ufr. Moser's Verlag, Graz, Austria, 1930. RM 12.00.

One who is a student and used to correlating facts in his mind will find this little book of about one hundred pages relevant to scientific method in criminal investigation. Yet it is by no means intended to be a laboratory manual for examiners, either in the field of criminal investigation or otherwise. In it Prof. Türk and six of his colleagues pass in review, in a group of illuminating essays, the present-day resourcefulness of the scientific laboratory in the application of the natural sciences to investigation into the authenticity of works of art and collectors' bric-a-brac. It is a guide-post to the puzzled connoisseur and presents the laboratory's challenge in this particular field to the law of caveat emptor.

The examination of works of art by scientific methods is held by many lovers of art to be incongruous. To them it seems futile to measure beauty with a scale or to disintegrate genius in a test tube. Türk and his colleagues, however, here show overwhelmingly that there is pulsing color, romance and truth lurking in the drab critique of the scientist. The essays disclose with apt illustrations how the physical facts structurally inherent in beauty may be sought and utilized in problems of authentication.

Various modern chemical, optical, photographic and physical methods now available in a suitably equipped laboratory are informatively discussed. The pertinency of the microchemical analysis of pigments, media, etc.; their microscopic physical criteria; their history their typical response to the photographic plate under various lightings and magnifications, including ultra-violet lighting and X-ray penetration, is established. The route to a final and irrefutable conclusion on a questioned work of art is demonstrated.

Paintings, sketchings and drawings receive the bulk of attention in the eight chapters of the book. Other subjects treated by the several authors include fraud and falsification among rare book bindings, autograph letters, old documents and seals; also natural science

specimens, such as bugs, plants, fossils, minerals, etc., in that variety interesting to collectors and students. Anyone interested in art antiques, whether as critic or buyer will find this group of essays interesting, intriguing and suggestive.

Berkeley, California.

E. O. HEINRICH.

FOUNDATIONS OF MENTAL HYGIENE. By *Leonardo Bianchi*. xvi+277 pp. D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1930. \$2.50.

This little book, by the late Professor Bianchi, is in a sense his legacy to the many students and admirers of the great Italian psychiatrist. It is the quintessence of a long and useful life of a man who in his work discloses himself more the creative poet in science than the plodding pedestrian in well-worn technical tracks.

In style, Bianchi's work is a curious compound of wide-ranging scholarship, shrewd insight into human nature, glowing patriotism, missionary zeal and love of humanity, richly flavored with figures of speech reminiscent of the writings of Lombroso.

In substance, Bianchi sets out to explore a vast field, discussing the following topics within the compass of some 275 pages: "1. The conditions in which human beings are generated, including the laws regulating heredity; 2. The conditions in which infancy is developed, with special regard to weak constitutions and anomalies of character; 3. The school period, analyzing especially the structure and methods of our schools, to see whether they, perchance, may be exercising a depressing power upon the talent and character of the nation; 4. The value of physical, moral and sex education; 5. Criminality and its causes; 6. The general unfavorable conditions in which national groups are living; houses, and lands; with special consideration to malaria; 7. Habits threatening health, as alcoholism; 8. The conditions favoring diffusion of diseases disastrous to individuals and to family life, as syphilis; 9. The causes of the enormous increase of mental diseases and their remedial measures."

From this Baedeker of Bianchi's explorations, it will be seen that he attempts to lead the reader into the by-ways as well as high-ways of the entire "kingdom of evils."

He grants that "early diagnosis, early treatment, and prophylaxis have aided" in the reduction of various forms of what he calls "feebleness," such as infant mortality, tuberculosis, mental disorder. But it is his conviction that the causes of human degeneration, disclosed during the past few decades, "must be combated by an organized plan of preparedness. The plan is contained in the conception of eugenics." But eugenics, in Bianchi's view, "is not limited to the hygiene of matrimony"; it embraces "a vast plan of provisions all directed toward the end of rendering each individual stronger, increasing his working and productive capacity, and in a special way, ameliorating the conditions of future generations in their physical, intellectual and moral capacities, which means improvement and reinvigoration of the race."

In sketching the evidences of the effects of urbanization in diminishing "the vitality of the race," Bianchi marshals facts and figures from the literature of most of the countries in which research into infant mortality, tuberculosis, venereal diseases, mental disorders, and, to a less extent, crime has in recent years been active. A more scholarly documentation of his statistical citations would have greatly strengthened his argument; perhaps the Italian edition contains the necessary footnote references.

His chapter on the mechanisms and laws of heredity is the most skillful, brief exposition of the subject the reviewer has ever read. He bluntly ranges himself on the side of those who believe that acquired characters are inheritable; and emphasizes his belief in the great plasticity of human nature, under wise education. He advises against marriage, from the point of view of eugenics, of those afflicted with "imbecility, some varieties of epilepsy, chronic alcoholism, habitual or constitutional criminality, chronic insanity, manic-depressive psychosis, Huntington's disease and a few more" types of abnormality; he is, however, reluctant to advise sterilization, as Italy "is too sentimental," and he shares "the repugnance of the majority to surgical, or other, intervention." He favors the spread of "Malthusian practice."

In a very helpful and wise chapter on Mental Hygiene, Bianchi divides "anomalous characters" into two groups, hypokinetic and hyperkinetic: The former embraces the timid, suspicious, indifferent, obstinate hypochondriacs and solitary; the latter, the vain, unstable, irascible, and criminal. These groups, of course, shade into one another. The psychiatrist, psychologist, educator and parent will find the description of these classes very interesting and helpful, even though he may take issue with the clarity of some of the entities Bianchi attempts to define. The criminologist will notice that in this classification, in the discussion of which types of persons should as a rule be prohibited from marriage and in the chapter on crime Bianchi gives the impression of perhaps a too naive belief in the "born criminal" theories of Lombroso's earlier contributions. A close reading of the text, however, will indicate that Bianchi, like Lombroso in his maturity, does not hold that persons are born irrevocably destined to a life of crime, but that certain persons are born with mental and emotional-volitional weaknesses and distortions that make it difficult for them to lead a normal life in a complexly organized society.

Bianchi has many practical suggestions to offer regarding the importance of early recognition on the part of parents, teachers and physicians of the significance of night terrors, stammering, illogical fears, nocturnal enuresis. He insists upon the need of examination of the physical condition of children (including signs of degeneracy, which he lists after the manner of Lombroso), as well as mental; he points out the importance of home environment and childhood companions in influencing "children's dispositions, not only in regard to general hygiene, but also in regard to moral character." Indeed, the entire chapter on Mental Hygiene, containing many shrewd, prac-

tical suggestions, is instructive; and despite its rather poor organization this is probably the best chapter in the book.

The chapters on physical education and religious education are less satisfactory. His conservative views on sex education will perhaps meet with disapproval on the part of many psychiatrists, particularly those of psychoanalytic training. The chapter on alcoholism is interesting and convincing. Here, particularly, Bianchi discloses the wide sweep and deep moorings of his ripe scholarship, citing and skilfully interpreting the work of investigators throughout the world. He expresses the conviction "that there has been a slow alcoholic intoxication of our people [Italians] through the centuries, and that this slow intoxication exercised in the most viticultural regions an obscure and insidious action on the nervous center, so that it is not by any means extraneous to our deficient tenacity in civil enterprises, to our great tendency to contentiousness, and to the increase of criminality among us." But though Bianchi bids us "raise our voice high both against the use and the abuse of distilled alcohols, especially the methylic and the amylic," he counsels a dispassionate rather than an hysterical attitude toward the problem that is agitating American people and their politico-religious overlords to such a great extent. "The thesis [that all our ills are due to alcohol] excites a certain fanaticism. (Humanity needs to become fanatical on something every now and then!) All fanaticisms are states of exaltation and have therefore a weak basis of positive observation, the constituent elements of which are the interest of the few and the exalted credulity of the crowds." In his opinion, "North American legislative measures against liquor have no scientific basis. They draw their clues neither from experience nor from human history."

In a sketchy chapter on "The Penal Code and Penitentiary System," Bianchi first reviews some of the outstanding European and American literature indicating the origin of criminal careers in early childhood and the close connection between various forms of mental anomaly and misconduct. He definitely allies himself with the "Italian School" as represented by Lombroso, Ferri and the neo-Lombrosians. He attacks the existing Italian penal code as a "mechanism too worn out and rusty," and its underlying philosophy of vengeful punishment of the perverse will as unscientific. He gives a brief analysis of the Ferri penal code project (since superseded), and recognizes it as an incomplete but essential forward step. He recommends the clinical study of young offenders, especially adolescents, "by the most rigorous methods, not only from a neurological and psychiatric standpoint but from the standpoint of their environment," according to the practice in American juvenile delinquency clinics. He is in favor of various obvious improvements in peno-correctional treatment, including the indeterminate sentence and transportation.

The final chapter, on Prophylaxis of Nervous and Mental Diseases," includes not only obvious recommendations regarding the treatment of the psychoses and neuroses, but various suggestions as to improvement of the laws governing commitment and release of the

mentally ill, tending in general to give much greater freedom and authority to those in charge of mental hospitals.

The translation by Dr. Barricelli is on the whole adequate. Dr. Dercum contributes a too brief introduction. The book would have been greatly improved if it contained more careful footnotes in support and elaboration of many of the author's statements, and if it were documented with a bibliography; but it is on the whole a remarkably stimulating work still breathing the personality of the great psychiatrist whose lectures it embodies.

Harvard University.

SHELDON GLUECK.

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DELINQUENCY AREAS. By *Clifford R. Shaw*. 214 pp. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1929. \$4.00.

"Delinquency Areas" is another milestone in the scientific study of society. It is probably the most significant application to date of the method of human ecology, that phase of sociology which studies society in its distributive aspects and in its temporal and spatial relations. This work, carried on under the direction of Clifford R. Shaw in collaboration with Frederick M. Zorbaugh, Henry D. McKay, and Leonard S. Cottrell, illustrates the possibilities of the very significant contribution which the method may make to the development of science in the field of human relationships.

The study represents a systematic effort to investigate juvenile delinquency from the standpoint of its relation to the social situation in which it occurs. It is limited to a study of the geographic distribution of school truants, juvenile delinquents, and adult offenders in Chicago and represents a first step in the "situational approach to the study of delinquency." The work, which was carried on under the auspices of the Institute for Juvenile Research and the Behavior Research Fund of Chicago, was begun in 1921 and covered a period of eight years. Thirteen separate series of offenders including more than 100,000 individuals were secured in order to study their distribution throughout the city. The present volume presents eight of these series, about 60,000 individuals, including 5,000 male school truants, 17,000 alleged delinquent boys dealt with by the juvenile police probation department, 15,000 boys 10 to 16 years of age brought before the Juvenile Court, 6,000 boys 17 to 20 years of age brought before the Boys' Court, 7,000 adult offenders 17 to 75 years of age passing through the Cook County Jail, and 2,000 delinquent girls 10 to 17 years of age brought before the Juvenile Court. Each of these series was gathered for a definite period of time. The primary data concerning the series were obtained from the records of the various official agencies involved. A chapter is given to each of the eight series studied.

After the home addresses of the members of the various series were secured, they were plotted on large social research base-maps of the city of Chicago, each dot representing one individual and placed within its proper census tract as near the correct address as possible. Among the most interesting features of the book are the reproductions

of the various spot-maps and charts indicating graphically the facts dealt with.

After the maps had been prepared, the rates or ratios of offenders to the total population of similar age and sex in the different areas of the city were calculated so that comparisons between areas could be made. For this purpose, the city was divided into square mile areas which represent combinations of the 499 official 1920 U. S. census tracts. In this way the rates of truants, delinquents, and adult offenders were obtained for each square mile area in the city. A rate of 20 for a given area, for example, would mean that 20 boys of a given age were delinquent for every 100 boys of the same age in that area. Care was taken in all cases to safeguard the results by a consideration of all technical problems arising with reference to plotting, distribution, and calculating and correcting population figures.

The findings were presented in a series of spot-maps showing the distribution of the cases, rate maps showing the actual rate in each square mile area, radial maps showing the variations in rates of delinquents with different types of community backgrounds from the center of the city to the periphery, and zone maps showing the marked variations in rates in relation to different types of backgrounds in a series of concentric zones using the center of the city as the focal point. In addition the several series are correlated and the relationships expressed in the form of coefficients of correlation computed on the basis of the rates in the square mile areas. The purpose of the correlation was to indicate precisely the extent to which the rates in the different series showed similar variations among the areas of the city. In addition to the correlations, a number of excerpts from the life histories of delinquents have been presented along with the statistical data for the purpose of illustrating concretely cases in the different types of series. These case materials are very interesting in suggesting the close relationship between certain types of community situations and the development of delinquent behavior trends. They give clues to possible explanation of the social situations which explain the distribution of the members of the various series and suggest further studies yet to be made.

The author points out that the method of the present study is a phase of the cultural approach to the study of delinquency which he distinguishes from the physiological—morphological, the psychological and the psychiatric approaches. He regards all these methods as desirable, but emphasizes the incompleteness of results without the situational approach.

After a careful discussion of the cultural approach, he devotes a chapter to the growth and configuration of the city of Chicago to indicate the way in which the various natural areas and zones have grown out of the development of the community.

The author is careful to point out that "this study is not an attempt to show that delinquency is caused by the simple external fact of location. We are pointing out here that delinquency tends to occur

in a characteristic type of area. More intensive analysis of these areas is necessary before the factors that characterize delinquency producing situations can be indicated."

The author also presents two additional series numbers IX and X. They are cases of delinquent behavior rather than of delinquent persons, as in the eight series previously presented. These two series make possible a study of the rates of recidivism.

The most important finding of the investigation is obviously the marked variation in rates of school truants, juvenile delinquents, and adult offenders in various mile areas of the city. Some areas show very low rates, some very high rates, varying in different series from less than one case to more than twenty-five cases per one hundred individuals of the same age and sex in a given area.

The second major finding of the study is that the "rates of truancy, delinquency, and adult crime tend to vary inversely in proportion to the distance from the center of the city." The third finding of importance is the marked similarity in the distribution of truants, juvenile delinquents, and adult criminals.

The fourth conclusion of the study is that "the differences in truancy, delinquency and crime reflect differences in community background. High rates occur in areas that are characterized by physical deterioration and declining population." A fifth finding of importance is that some of the areas characterized by high delinquency rates have possessed these rates over long periods of time in spite of changes in the composition of the population involving invasion and succession of diverse races and nationalities.

The sixth and final conclusion of the study is also interesting: "From these facts it is clear that delinquents living in areas of high delinquent rates are more likely to become recidivists and that the recidivists from these areas are more likely to appear in court three or more times than the recidivists from areas with low rates of delinquents."

The findings of the study are presented conservatively and with proper qualifications. The author's own interpretations of his results are stated as being entirely tentative. It is assumed as a result of the investigation that "delinquent behavior is very closely related to certain community situations which arise in the process of city growth." The fact that the high rates are found in areas which are "in a process of transition from residence to business and industry and which are characterized by physical deterioration, decreasing population, and the disintegration of the conventional neighborhood culture and organization" is significant in this connection. The disintegration of the community owing to the invasion of business and industry results in a weakening of social control and a lowered resistance on the part of the community to delinquent and criminal behavior. A further factor in the situation is the conflict of cultural and social backgrounds arising from the fact that large portions of the inhabitants are European immigrants or southern negroes. There is also a lack of the construc-

tive agencies of conventional community life. Gang life develops in these areas with its traditions of unconventional and delinquent behavior and these behavior patterns are reflected in the delinquencies of youth.

The author believes that such conditions as poor housing, overcrowding, low living standards, low educational standards, and so on are probably a reflection of the type of community life rather than themselves having causal significance. They are merely symptoms of more basic processes. Even the disorganized family and the delinquent gang may be thought of as reflecting community situations rather than ultimate factors in the production of delinquency.

The author finally summarizes his interpretation of the study in the following paragraph which he regards as an hypothesis to be verified only through more careful study of the areas of delinquency and more detailed case-studies of individual delinquents.

"In short, with the process of growth of the city the invasion of residential communities by business and industry causes a disintegration of the community as a unit of social control. This disorganization is intensified by the influx of foreign national and racial groups whose old cultural and social controls break down in the new cultural and racial situation of the city. In this state of social disorganization, community resistance is low. Delinquent and criminal patterns arise and are transmitted socially just as any other cultural and social pattern is transmitted. In time these delinquent patterns may become dominant and shape the attitudes and behavior of persons living in the area. Thus the section becomes an area of delinquency."

The findings of this study are of significance not only to theoretical sociology but to sociological methodology and social work. The study is a genuine contribution to method. It indicates the development of the ecological method which has great possibilities for a scientific study of social processes and social problems. Its significance to the social worker, to the social engineer, to the legislator, and to others who are interested in solving problems of delinquency and crime can hardly be over estimated. For the first time the local habitats of these various types of delinquents have been defined and scientifically established as the interstitial zones in the development of the city. It is, therefore, within these regions with their associated pathologies of vice, gambling, bootlegging, gang life, dependency and so on that we must look for the genesis of crime and that our efforts must be directed for its prevention.

This study reveals the problem of crime prevention, therefore, as a problem of community organization. It clearly indicates the focal point of attack which need not necessarily be legislation, social reform, or social work, but which may well be further analysis of the factors in the areas where these pathologies have been discovered.

New York University.

FREDERIC M. THRASHER.



CRIME, DEGENERACY AND IMMIGRATION. By *David A. Orebaugh*. xvi+272 pp. Richard G. Badger, Boston, 1929.

This is another manifesto from the Nordic ranks, advancing the general idea that an increase of crime in America is due to degeneration of the national stock (Nordic) which in its turn is due to intermixture with disharmonic and inferior races (Alpines and Mediterraneans from Southern and Eastern Europe).

The author's method of establishing this thesis is simple and easy. The proof that crime is due to degeneration "may virtually be reduced to a syllogistic formula: racial dilution produces degeneration; degeneration predisposes to crime; criminals practically without exception exhibit some of the stigmata of degeneration; hence, racial degradation may be said to be a cause of crime and criminals."

Then he takes this chain of reasoning in reverse order for the situation in America: Criminality indicates degeneration, degeneration proves racial dilution. This is developed as follows: On the first point the author says: "the extreme prevalence and increase of crime in America furnishes conclusive proof that degeneracy is widespread and increasing." On the second point the author asks us to compare the period before with the period after the Civil War.

Before the Civil War our immigrants comprised but few of "the degraded and subservient peasant classes"; they were of the "middle and higher classes . . . possessing initiative, ability, ambition, ideals, independence, resourcefulness, public spirit, and capacity for self-government—qualities peculiarly characteristic of their Nordic origin."

Among their virtues "none was more pronounced than their respect for law and detestation of crime." "Law observance . . . amounted almost to a passion with our American forefathers." From such a stock he says a deteriorated or decadent product could not emerge unless there were subsequent pollution of the hereditary stream.

"Look upon this picture and then upon this." After the Civil War we are asked to note an increase in crime, for which, however, Mr. Orebaugh does not trouble to give any statistical backing excepting Frederick Hoffman's table of deaths from homicide, 1900-1925, another table showing homicide rates for 36 American cities in 1925, and a few scattered plums for other places.

Next we are given a view of the by-products of degeneration as follows: Yellow journalism, disintegration of parental authority, the waning of school discipline, the exaggeration of sex (including cigarette smoking by women and short skirts) addiction to sports, inebriety and the drug habit, growth of political corruption, coddling of criminals, and an increasing disrespect for law.

Well, this sounds pretty bad, but at a casual glance it would seem that most of the symptoms mentioned are milder in Europe—even Southern and Eastern Europe—than here. European countries are far behind us in yellow journalism; there we find more respect

for parental authority, greater discipline in schools, less "coddling of criminals," perhaps less political corruption, certainly greater respect for law. For Mr. Orebaugh's idea of the early American as a worshipper of the law is certainly overdrawn. Casting a cursory glance down the pages of our early history we find the American engaged in all sorts of outbreaks and violations. He was a pretty lawless individual.

The author seems to have an idea that may be urged in support of his showing of worse conditions here than in Europe: that in general racial mixture results in a product worse than either or any factor. He has evidently misunderstood some of the numerous authorities he has read so diligently and quotes so freely. Certainly the Mediterranean and Alpine stocks do not form disharmonic combinations with the Nordic. Of the so-called "Nordic" stocks favored by Mr. Orebaugh, the British group is a mixture of Nordic and Mediterranean, the Germans of Nordic and Alpine—mostly Alpine—the French, perhaps on the whole the most highly civilized nation in the world, are a product of all three. If the salvation of the world is in the Nordics, we should resolutely repress ourselves and turn the country over to the Scandinavians, who are about the only pure Nordics in existence.

Finally, Mr. Orebaugh has left out the very keystone of his arch. Except for his deduction that race dilution must have taken place to account for our alleged degeneracy, he has given no facts to show actual racial intermixture. Study of the history of different racial groups in this country shows a striking racial isolation at the beginning of a migration, that bars racial intermixture, and wears away very slowly. The Southern and Eastern Europeans are the newest comers, with them racial isolation is as yet strong. Observation shows them living in colonies, a life by themselves. All available statistics confirm the view that very little racial intermixture has as yet taken place between the older stocks and the newer. If that is a danger, it is one for the future, and cannot account for the evils of the present.

Less than half the book is devoted to the topics named in the title. The remainder discusses remedies for crime, among which are, restriction of immigration, naturally, the sterilization of defectives, birth control, and various reforms in the juridical and political system.

New York City.

KATE HOLLADAY CLAGHORN.

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CRÓNICA DEL CRIMEN. By *Luis Jiménez de Asúa*. 272 pp. Ed. de Historia Nueva, Madrid, 1929. 5 Ptas.

In this little volume the author has gathered a number of articles which in the last few years have appeared above his name in various Spanish and South American reviews and journals. Some of these articles are of considerable interest either because they deal with problems which face us in this country or because they throw light on conditions in Spain or on the author's own attitude toward problems of criminality.

The first article, entitled "The Crime in the Andalusian Express," is an analysis of a case of double murder and robbery. It was originally published in the *Revista general de Legislación y de Jurisprudencia*, but in a form much mutilated by the censor. It is here reprinted in accordance with the original manuscript. This crime occurred in April, 1924, when a gang of professional criminals attacked and killed two travellers. Apprehended, they were condemned to death by the military courts and executed. In May of the same year the government issued an order which proposed to remedy the "state of moral laxity" placed in relief by the crime in question. The remedies were: the closing "at a convenient hour" of cabarets, taverns, etc., to prevent them from "sheltering degenerates and drug vendors"; the raising of penalties for the use, the buying, and the selling of narcotics; severe punishments for blasphemy; vigilant persecution of street walkers; strict censorship over dramatic performances, etc. The author considers these methods of combating crime as puerile, since good and moral behavior cannot be produced by law.

The second chapter deals with a judicial error made before the War and which recently was discovered. In 1910 José Maria Grimaldos disappeared. A couple of his friends were accused of murdering him. They confessed and were sentenced to imprisonment, being released in 1924 as a result of the operation of the commutation law. Two years later Grimaldos, the supposed victim, reappeared, in total ignorance of the suffering he had caused by his absence. The newspapers took up the case and demanded that the two men be indemnified. A commission to investigate the matter was appointed by Royal decree and the Minister of Justice took up the revision of the case since "grounds existed for the belief that the confessions had been secured by violence"; in other words, that the police had used third degree methods. On the basis of this case, the author takes occasion to review the history of judicial errors, their causes, and methods of averting them. Among the last, he suggests certain reforms in court procedure and proposes, furthermore, that the German *Mordkommission* be adopted for the investigation of homicides. A detailed discussion of legal responsibility for judicial errors follows. The author's hopes for indemnification had not been fulfilled, however, when this book went to press.

Among the other articles we find one on "Motion Pictures and Crime" in which the author reviews the literature on the subject and expresses as his own opinion that the motion pictures as a criminogenic factor have been greatly overrated. He is entirely opposed to censorship because it curtails personal liberty, and while he is willing to tolerate laws made to prohibit the attendance of children his reason is a hygienic one based on the desire to see children and adolescents avoid places "with poor ventilation and deprived of sun and fresh air."

An article on lynch law is primarily of interest because of its references to literature little known to American criminologists.

The author proves himself a staunch defender of democracy against dictatorship. He is very frank in his criticisms of the political situation in his own country as it affects law and its administration, and in an article on "The Assassination of Matteotti and Political Crime" he takes his professional colleagues in Italy to task for their supine acceptance of the death penalty for political crimes.

THORSTEN SELLIN.

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LES PROBLÈMES FONDAMENTAUX DU DROIT CRIMINEL. By *Thomas Givanovitch*. 227 pp. Rousseau & Cie., Paris, 1929.

The author has given his book the subtitle of "Introduction to the Science of Criminal Law." The book is essentially an elucidation of the author's philosophy of criminal law, setting forth a complete scheme for the systematic exposition of that subject and discussing the construction of this scheme at length, largely from the standpoint of its consistency and coherence as a logical construction but also from the viewpoint of its conformity to the realities of the law in action, that is to the actual, concrete phenomena of legislation and decision of cases.

From the static point of view, says Professor Givanovitch, each of the sciences is a system of ideas. A science of law, then, is the system of ideas underlying legal institutions and criminal law is the system of ideas at the base of the institutions of criminal law. It is the thesis of the author that this system of ideas is a threefold, or as he terms it, tripartite system embracing the ideas of the offense, the offender and the criminal sanction—that is to say, punishment and preventive measures; whereas the traditional system of criminal law is a bipartite one in which the offense and the punishment are considered, as for instance by von Liszt, the two fundamental ideas of criminal law. The traditional view thus associates a subjective element, namely, the culpability of the actor, with the purely objective notion of an act or deed as essential to constitute the offense. This leads to confusion. The offense should be envisaged in a purely objective manner as an act, an event. The offender should be conceived as a fundamental notion of criminal law, independent but parallel to the ideas of the offense and of the punishment.

This thesis was first put forward by the author in an article published in the *Revue Penale Suisse* in 1909. In the present work he applies the thesis to the classification and exposition of the topics of criminal law showing the advantages of the "tripartite system" logically and in the avoidance of certain contradictions, over the traditional formulations. From the purely formal and logical standpoints a strong case is made out.

Warren, Pennsylvania.

EDWARD LINDSEY.

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THE STORY OF CRIME. By *Louis Harris*. 334 pp. The Stratford Company, Boston, 1929. \$2.50.

The purpose of *The Story of Crime*, as described in the preface, is to fulfill "a demand for some knowledge of the science of crim-

inology, devoid of statistics and of the usual technicalities." The author has "written mainly for the lay mind and not for the professional worker in criminology." The book "combines a brief outline of crime in its biological and sociological aspects with a true account of the most interesting crimes from a legal standpoint." The preface ends with the statement that the book "has been written with a full heart. If anything contained in its pages will excite in a single breast a feeling of pity for another's pain; if in all the world there be but one whose life, through its influence, will be made more gentle, more tolerant, more just and, above all, more merciful, I will be bountifully repaid for my labor."

Part I, described as theoretical, contains five chapters covering the criminal act, evolution of crime, the origin of crime, the criminal type, and the female criminal. Part II, which is historical, contains eleven chapters describing crimes of superstition, trial and punishment of animals, trial by battle and by ordeal, procedure for "standing mute" and by torture, benefit of clergy and the privilege of sanctuary. Part III treats of the legal aspects of crime, discussing the elements of a crime, crimes against the person and against property, sexual crimes, legal defenses to the criminal act and the punishment of crime.

Undoubtedly there is much valuable information to be found in this book, but the reviewer cannot avoid the feeling that one of the recent textbooks would give the lay reader more light upon the subject and on the whole would prove more interesting. The attempt to avoid statistics and technicalities has resulted in a lack of definiteness and has led to the introduction of much rather trivial illustrative material.

The greatest faults of the book are a sort of maudlin sentimentality combined with a tendency to explain criminal conduct by a single cause—"there is but one all prevailing and universal urge: Hunger." Coupled with this universal cause presented in the preface, there is the conclusion in a final chapter that the power of reason "holds the salvation of humanity." In the same chapter Herbert Spencer's *Principles of Psychology* is quoted for a definition of reason! It would seem that the author has been little influenced by recent scientific progress in psychology.

State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.

F. E. HAYNES.

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ENDOCRINOLOGÍA Y CRIMINALIDAD. By *Mariano Ruiz-Funes*. xii+352 pp. Javier Morata, Madrid, 1929. 15 Ptas.

This is a remarkably complete and judicious study of the problems of the relationship between internal secretions and criminal behavior. In one sense it is a revised edition of the author's *La Criminalidad y las Secreciones internas*, published in 1927. In the process of revision, however, the use of new data has made this volume almost an independent work. The various chapters discuss the data of criminal anthropology, the data of endocrinology, endocrinology and morphology, endocrinology and psychopathology, endocrinology and crim-

inality, and endocrinology and sex delinquency. There is a final chapter on the medico-psychological examination of delinquents which forms a well-documented survey of international scope. To American students the information concerning experiments abroad found in this chapter is very valuable, and to continental experts the American data presented should prove of the greatest interest since the author is evidently much more familiar with progress in the United States along these lines than is the average European student of the subject.

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THE FORGOTTEN CLUE. By *H. Ashton-Wolfe*. 282 pp. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1930. \$3.00.

The title of this book, which is dedicated to Dr. Edmond Locard of the Lyons police laboratory, is misleading. It is a detective story, of course, but it would have been more aptly named "An Elementary Manual of Police Technique." The opening chapter on "The Detective of Fiction and the Detective in Real Life" reminds one of Locard's own delightfully written *Policiers de roman et de laboratoire*. Subsequent chapters discuss criminal identification in some detail. Excellent descriptions of the *modus operandi* of the professional criminal are given and illustrated cases included which are drawn from the author's own experiences in the French police service and from the files of Locard's laboratory. The methods used by the French police laboratories are described. The author has high hopes of the value of science in crime detection and refers caustically to the primitive features of the "stool pigeon" system. When from the field of detection he makes brief excursions into that of causation he unfortunately accepts quite unreservedly the atavist theory of Lombroso. Aside from this, the book should be useful as a popular presentation of scientific detective methods.

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PROCEEDINGS OF THE 59TH ANNUAL CONGRESS OF THE AMERICAN PRISON ASSOCIATION, TORONTO, CANADA, SEPTEMBER 20TH TO 26TH, 1929. xi+404 pp. The American Prison Association, New York City [1930].

As usual, this annual compilation of addresses and committee reports contains much of interest. Dr. Sheldon Glueck's summary of his and Mrs. Glueck's book, *500 Criminal Careers*, deserves special mention. A well-balanced paper by A. Warren Stearns, Commissioner of Correction, Massachusetts, on "Psychiatry's Part in the Proper Care and Treatment of Prisoners" is worth noting for its frank discussion of the limitations of psychiatry. Commissioner Ellis, of New Jersey, outlines the interesting classification scheme in operation in that state. The reports of the committees on probation and on pardon and parole are especially informative, the latter giving in schematic form a resumé of indeterminate sentence laws and parole rules of the several states. A considerable number of papers, furthermore, discuss specific administrative problems in Canadian penal and preventive work.

LE CRIME COMME PRODUIT SOCIAL ET ÉCONOMIQUE. By *Eugène Rozengart*. 182 pp. Marcel Rivière et Cie, Paris, 1929. 20 fr.

Primitive man knew no crime. "Man is born good, social life depraves him." It is civilization, then, which creates crime, and the more advanced the civilization is the more crime it has. Prevention means the eradication of crime through the removal of those causes which produce it. The succession of criminological "schools" demonstrates that only one, the Socialists, had an exact idea of the nature of crime, for they realized that it was the direct or indirect result of economic factors. This, in brief, is the author's thesis. In its defense he presents a battery of opinions, culled from the writings of many authors, ancient and modern, and an army of criminal statistics gathered from various official sources.

YOU GOTTA BE ROUGH: THE ADVENTURES OF DETECTIVE FIASCHETTI OF THE ITALIAN SQUAD. By *Michael Fiaschetti*. ix+308 pp. Doubleday, Doran and Company, Garden City, New York, 1930.

This interesting autobiography by a man who for several years was the head of the Italian Squad of the New York City Police Department is especially valuable for its frank discussion and defense of the stool pigeon system. Throughout his book, Mr. Fiaschetti pokes fun at the so-called scientific detective and claims that the best detective work is done on the basis of "information."

CRIME IN INK. By *Claire Carvalho and Boyden Sparkes*. viii+296 pp. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1929. \$2.50.

Many problems which during his professional life confronted Mr. David Carvalho, an examiner of questioned documents, are here recounted by his daughter. Among them, the Dreyfus case is perhaps the most interesting.

RATTLING THE CUP ON CHICAGO CRIME. By *Edward D. Sullivan*. xvi+214. The Vanguard Press, New York, 1929. \$2.00.

Despite the title, this is a good story of crime and politics in Chicago, written by a reporter who apparently knows his job.

STRAFFPROZESSORDNUNG UND GERICHTSVERFASSUNGSGESETZ MIT NEBENGESETZEN. Edited, with introd., notes, and index. By *E. Kohlrausch*. 21 ed., xli+526 pp. Walter de Gruyter, Berlin, 1927. 7.50 R. M.

A text edition prepared by a professor of criminal law at the University of Berlin. The law of criminal procedure and the law of judicial administration are carefully annotated. Among the complementary laws given in full are the criminal police act, the juvenile

court act, the compensation act governing those found innocent, the penal registry act, and the suspended sentence act for Prussia.

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FROM CLUE TO DOCK. By *C. L. McCluer Stevens*. 256 pp. Stanley Paul, London, 1927. 12 s. 6 d.

A motley array of causes célèbres, detective mysteries and judicial errors reported by a journalist.



