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## Book Reviews

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## BOOK REVIEWS

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INTERNATIONAL LAW, CHIEFLY AS INTERPRETED AND APPLIED BY THE UNITED STATES. By *Charles Cheney Hyde*, Professor of Law in Northwestern University, member of the Bar of Illinois and of the District of Columbia. Two volumes, pp. LIX-832; XXVII-925. Boston: Little, Brown & Company, 1922.

These two magistral volumes are the fruition, we are told, of a suggestion made to the author some years ago by Professor John H. Wigmore, that he prepare a treatise expounding what may be called the American conception of international law, and it is to Mr. Wigmore that the work is very appropriately dedicated. Mr. Hyde's treatise is a credit to American scholarship and will take its place among the most notable contributions to the literature of international law that has been made by any scholar, American or European, during recent years. Its scope is, however, somewhat restricted since it represents an attempt to enunciate, in the main, the American interpretation and conception of the law of nations. The author does not go to the length of certain Latin-American jurists who maintain that there is a distinct body of American international law which can be clearly differentiated from the general law of nations, but he proceeds on the principle, which no one will deny, that the American understanding of what certain of its rules require or prohibit has traditionally differed from the interpretation and practice of Europe and especially of continental Europe. Mr. Hyde's work bears evidence throughout of the most painstaking research, of long and laborious industry, and of almost meticulous attention to details of arrangement, and method of treatment. Tables of contents, lists of cases, bibliographies and elaborate indexes are prepared with the utmost care and with a sense of orderliness and arrangement which will challenge the admiration of students and investigators. Probably a good half of the treatise is found in the footnotes: citations of cases, of text writers, proceedings of learned societies, diplomatic correspondence, and other sources, official and non-official. In places, the wealth of footnote material seems a bit prolix and superfluous, as where a quarter of a page is devoted to citations of cases and authorities in support of a statement, the accuracy of which is not likely to be controverted. Bibliographical references to the literature dealing with matters in the text that are likely to be the subject of further investigation by students are helpful and are to be commended, but the multiplication of citations to unimportant cases and diplomatic documents subserves no practical purpose and it reduces the available space left for the discussion of principles. In spots one could wish that there were more of the latter and less of the former.

Throughout the author exhibits a cautiousness, a reserve and a disinclination to indulge in criticism or evaluation, which will highly commend his treatise to those who consider that the proper function of a text writer is to narrate and expound and not at all to judge or

evaluate. It cannot, however, be said that the author's reserve is carried to the point of being a defect. His attitude is eminently judicial and he very properly refrains from partisan and polemic discussion of the kind that has lamentably marred certain treatises on international law which have been written since the late World War. Where opinions may properly be expressed by a jurist, he ventures his own with moderation and he does not hesitate at times to express his own dissent and even to criticize severely recent practices which are universally admitted to be subversive of the principles of international law. But his criticism is never violent or propagandistic in character; it always represents the calm, sober, dispassionate and reasoned conclusions of the fair-minded scholar and jurist. Thus he characterizes the German policy of exacting contributions from the inhabitants of Belgium as "an exercise of sheer power in contempt of the spirit of The Hague regulations and as marking a bald attempt to appropriate what lay within the reach of the conqueror because of the impotence of those from whom funds could be collected" (Vol. II, p. 371). Regarding the right of merchant vessels to arm themselves for defense against the ruthless and indiscriminate attacks of submarines, he ventures to say that "it is not to be questioned," though he very properly adds that a belligerent should refrain from arming its merchantmen against "lawful capture" and against an enemy which respects the rights of unarmed private ships (*ibid* p. 405). He criticizes the British practice of taking merchant vessels into home ports for the purpose of searching them, yet he admits, as everyone must, that searches in port were "oftentimes the only searches by means of which the exercise of that right could become effective" (*ibid* p. 443). In order to avoid the harassing searches and sometimes ruinous detentions of vessels suspected of having contraband aboard, he suggests what has often been proposed in late years, that a system of neutral official certification be adopted which would remove the excuse for such measures (*ibid* p. 444). Regarding the application of the doctrine of continuous voyage to carriage of conditional contraband, so much criticized, he concludes that a belligerent "should enjoy the right to intercept and condemn all articles capable of assisting the enemy, even though consigned to neutral territory," if shown to be ultimately destined to the enemy (*ibid* p. 627), although he criticizes, very justly, the British practice during the late war of placing upon the owners of cargoes consigned to neutral ports the onus of proving the innocence of the voyage, even when no articles absolutely contraband were present and when those of which the entire cargo was comprised might be capable of use in the neutral country (*ibid* p. 619). He approves the position taken by the American members of the Peace Commission in regard to the trial of the former German Emperor, yet he ventures to say that society may in consequence of the World War "adopt the principle that a country should not only be held responsible for the conduct of its highest authorities, but that heads of states who commit particular acts in contempt of international law shall be subjected to criminal prosecution before a domestic or international tribunal" (*ibid* p. 852).

It is impossible within the limits of this brief review to analyze fully a treatise covering so vast a field. The references above to a few of his conclusions indicate fairly enough the author's point of view and the spirit in which he deals with his subject. His treatise is monumental in scope and admirable in execution. There are inevitably some errors in a work so encyclopedic in character, but they are neither numerous nor important. Altogether the author has rendered a service to students of international law which will long make them his debtors.

University of Illinois.

J. W. GARNER.

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THE GLANDS REGULATING HUMAN PERSONALITY: A STUDY OF THE GLANDS OF INTERNAL SECRETIONS IN RELATION TO THE TYPES OF HUMAN NATURE. By *Louis Berman, M. D.* The Macmillan Co., N. Y., 1922.

H. G. Wells popularized if he did not originate the habit of commencing the history of human affairs with the consideration of the first bit of protoplasm which poked out of the primordial ooze. This has proved so fascinating that no one now feels that he has done justice to his subject unless he goes back to its paleozoic days. Berman has succumbed to the spell and starts with the gastropods.

The first chapter, or rather the introductory one, which precedes the chapter numbered one, consists of sociological and biological generalizations leading up to the main thesis, that the individual is the sum of the activities of his various endocrine organs. Chapter I contains a brief history of the discovery of the endocrine functions, the author crediting Theophile de Bordeu, an eighteenth-century French physician, with being the one who first imagined a secretion from the sexual glands poured into the blood. From this beginning there is a long line of names, among whom he picks out for special mention Berthold of Goettingen, Claude Bernard, Addison, and Brown-Sequard. Brown-Sequard comes in for especially extended notice. In fact, quite a little biography of him is given. He, with C. Bernard and Bayliss and Starling laid the three great foundation stones of the subject, says Berman.

The glands then are considered separately. For instance, the evolutionary history of the thyroid is reviewed from its origin as a sex gland pure and simple in the lower vertebrates. The part it has played in the evolution of species is brought out; its probable rôle in the transformation of sea creatures into land animals is suggested. In experimental proof of this latter is adduced the change of the Mexican Axolotl, a gill-breathing newt, into an amblystoma, a lung-breathing salamander, by means of thyroid feeding.

The chemistry of the thyroid from Baumann to Kendall is hurriedly gone over. The results of deficiency or of excess of thyroid secretion upon the organism are explained. The other glands are taken up seriatim in the same manner. At the end of Chapter III is a summary in tabulated form as follows:

<i>Name</i>	<i>Secretion</i>	<i>Function</i>
1. Thyroid .....	Thyroxin .....	Energy production. Control of growth. Sexual function.
2. Pituitary—		
(a) Anterior .....	Tethelin .....	Growth of skel. and suppor. tis.
(b) Posterior .....	Pituitrin .....	Tone for br. n. mus. sex. org.
3. Adrenals—		
Cortex .....	Uk .....	The combat gland. Brain growth and tone.
Medulla .....	Adrenalin .....	Emergency energy.
4. Pineal .....	Uk .....	(a) Brain and sex develop. (b) Adolescence and pub. (c) Light and maturity.
5. Thymus .....	Uk .....	Gland of childhood.
6. Interstitials .....	Testes; Ovaries ....	Secondary sex. traits.
7. Parathyroids .....	Uk .....	(a) Control. lime metab. (b) Excitor of. m. and nerve.
8. Pancreas .....	Insulin .....	Sugar metabolism.

Then the glands are considered as “an interlocking directorate” and the directorate takes its complexion accordingly as the individual directors play a major or a minor part. It turns out that we have three great types: the thyroid, the pituitary, or the adrenal centered. “Each with the signs peculiar to it can be identified among the faces that pass one on the street.”

We are told that the thyroid centered type has bright eyes, good teeth, symmetrical features, moist, flushed skin, and a tendency to heart and nervous diseases.

The pituitary type, among other things, is musical and has a tendency to cyclic and periodical diseases.

The adrenal centered type is dark and hairy and has a tendency to hernia and diphtheria. Many sub-types of these exist, their characteristics depending upon the amount of influence from the other glands, particularly the sex glands.

Two chapters are devoted to the sex glands, their physiology and the effects upon the organism of their removal. Throughout this part of the book the close relationship of the endocrine glands and the vegetative nervous system is constantly insisted upon. From here on one reads less of physiology and biochemistry and more of psychology. The personality is regarded as the resultant of the activities of these various glands and the individual is courageous or timid, active or sluggish, enthusiastic or apathetic, depending upon the plenty or the lack of the various internal secretions. The mind or soul is a dead thing until transfused with the endocrine products.

Then historic personages are analyzed from an endocrine standpoint. Napoleon comes first, of course. The opportunity is seized to quote what Mr. Wells thinks of him, or rather what Mr. Wells thought would pass the censor. Napoleon is an example of the antero-pituitary type with a strong adrenal flavoring.

In Nietzsche the posterior pituitary has the upper hand, but the

antero-pit. was also strong. The thyroid influence was high and the adrenal influence low. The spirochaete pallida (I seem to remember that Nietzsche died of G. P. I.) is not considered.

Darwin was hyper-pituitary with the anterior portion overbalancing the posterior; the thyroid was hyperactive and the adrenals substandard. It is asserted that his best health was after the twilight of the gonads.

Florence Nightingale and Oscar Wilde, in curious juxtaposition, close this chapter.

In a concluding chapter a strong plea is made for endowed research work on the ground that the race has much to gain therefrom. Particularly is it urged in connection with criminology. When one considers the importance the author assigns to these organs, it is easy to understand how he considers that the hopes of future generations are bound up with endocrinology.

The foregoing will give a fair idea of the compass and the tenor of the book. It is written with the enthusiasm of the thyroid dominant type and due allowance must be made therefor. It is well to read as a corrective the work of some ante-pituitary types, say Schaeffer or Cushing. This is necessary with a good deal of the literature at present being put out on this subject, whether it have the commercial laboratory as its origin, or is the honest belief of an enthusiast.

The character readings remind us forcibly of the phrenologists of our youth when Dr. Fowler traveled the circuit. The classification of types takes us back to the days when humoral doctrines ruled and one heard of sanguine, lymphatic, choleric or melancholic temperaments. Our posterity may regard it with the same amused indulgence. The author is not at all blind to the extravagances of other enthusiasts. He is quick to find flaws in the Freudian armor and to stick a dart in from time to time. Apropos, it is interesting to compare Berman with Kempf on Darwin.

The style is vivid and energetic, what the author himself might term "jazzy." Distinctly aimed for a general reading public rather than a professional one, it lacks the dignity of the orthodox scientific work and partakes somewhat of Ring Lardner's style. It abounds in vulgarisms such as "boob," barbarisms such as, "then he embarked for New York without a word of American, learning English aboard," and impudently split infinitives, such as "for food to just happen along." Still, when all is said and done, it is what Mr. Pepys would have called "a mighty pleasant book," by a man who knows his subject. It is full of facts, and if you maintain a judicial attitude while reading it, you will take no harm of it.

San Francisco, Cal.

EDWARD N. TWITCHELL, M. D.

FOUNDATIONS OF PSYCHIATRY. By *William A. White*. Nervous and Mental Disease Monograph Series No. 32. New York and Washington: Nervous and Mental Disease Publishing Company. Pp. 136. \$3.00.

In the preface to this admirable monograph Dr. White tells us that it is his purpose to formulate a *Philosophy of Psychiatry*. "I

have undertaken this broad philosophical approach to psychiatry because of my conviction that only by an illumination of the foundations of the principles of psychiatry can a full understanding of them be had and only when that is accomplished will much wrong thinking about them be in the way of correction" (p. viii). Dr. White's philosophical effort is timely. Little by little the accumulation of facts and principles in the genetic and abnormal fields has been forcing psychology to modify its traditional conceptions until today the patched and makeshift condition of our theoretical structure has become a matter of general concern. We are in great need of synthetic general conceptions which may give center and orientation to our studies—in all branches of psychology.

Dr. White, with characteristic vigor, drives straight at the heart of the really central modern problem—the nature of individuality. After a brief introductory chapter he leads us into a study of "The Unity of the Organism." Here we are made familiar with the notion of the "organism as a whole." It is this conception, we are told, which needs to be emphasized in modern psychiatry. The philosopher Kant, as Dr. White observes (p. 12), advances the concept that "the cause of the existence of every part of a living organism is contained in the whole." There is more truth in this than even Dr. White realizes, and a reading of Kant's latest followers would show that they have never ceased to advance truly organic and genetic conceptions—albeit, they have been accused of "a priori" metaphysics and have been said to be unscientific. But in the field of "science," as our author correctly observes, mechanical and "elementalistic" methods have prevailed. This is true even in biology itself, where organic and vitalistic views are the exception. We must get away from a narrow mechanism. If we are to understand the nature of human—and psychical—individuality, we must have our attention upon the *unity* of our being, physiological and mental. "The organism in its totality"—White quotes Ritter with approval—"is as essential to an explanation of its elements as its elements are to an explanation of the organism."

There is in the concrete human individual a principle of unity or wholeness. This is not a separate entity over and above the sum of parts found in the whole, but is the function of the whole itself, acting as a whole. The whole is, like the part, something of an abstraction, for "neither the whole nor the parts have any separate existence" (p. 13). This unifying principle, which is exercised by the organism as a whole, is called by White the *function of integration*. In his discussion of integration and structural development our author follows Childs (p. 16 f.), whose theory of "dynamic gradients" and of structural modification resulting from the interaction of the primitive organism with its environment is beginning to make a real impression in psychological circles. The Chicago physiologists deserve watching. White emphasizes the notion that the organism has been an *organism* from the beginning, that the integrative principle has been operative throughout the evolutionary process, that "the history of the head end, the head, the psyche then reaches as far back as the history of life itself in fact is coterminous with that of life" (p. 22). From the

action of the principle of integration, through the structural modifications which it entails, results *individualization*. As we go higher and higher in the scale of life differentiation becomes more pronounced and more specific. This holds also in the psychological and sociological levels. "It is to this tendency to more specific differentiation that the term *individuation* applies, a process the increasing specificity of which in the higher organisms, such as man, differentiates each member of the species as distinct, because different, from every other member" (p. 24).

But the organism is not a self-contained structure. It must be understood in relation to its environment, and hence in terms of conflict and opposing forces. In his third chapter, accordingly, we find our author emphasizing the *principle of ambivalence*. Any system, we are told, following Le Chatelier, "tends to change so as to minimize an external disturbance." Examples of this internal adjustment in the physical sphere are cited. This tendency of a system to defend itself against external disturbance is even more evident in the physiological and biological fields. Here the tendency of the organism to maintain itself is shown in the adaptations of structure and response so familiar in evolutionary theory. The same notion can, with even more force, be applied to mind. "Every dynamic situation, therefore, can be resolved into two component factors, namely, a force tending to produce motion in a given direction and a force opposed to it tending to produce motion in the diametrically opposite direction. Such a situation occurring in a living organism is termed a *conflict*, and the two opposing forces are designated as *ambivalent opposites*" (p. 31). The organism must maintain its unity against the push and pull of environmental forces and in this struggle mental activity is most characteristically revealed. It seems to the reviewer that Dr. White might have deepened his conception here, noting that the activity which we call "attention" is no other than the equilibrium-maintaining process of the organism itself. He does note, however, that consciousness reflects the struggle or conflict going on within the individual. "All the organic functioning parts of the human organism are related and find their final and highest expression in symbolic patterns which set forth the tendencies of the organism as a whole in what are called psychological terms" (p. 34).

In his discussion of conflict our author takes a cue from Bergson and shows that "side by side with the tendencies that are making for progress, development, evolution, differentiation, there can be recognized evidences of other factors at work making for dissolution, for dedifferentiation, and that these two sets of factors can advantageously also be considered as ambivalent opposites leading in directions which make ultimately for death or for life" (p. 40). This set of considerations would apply excellently to an interpretation of habit in its negative aspects.

Dr. White passes on to a consideration of the "Stratification of the Organism." If we consider the human individual as an organism actively interacting with its environment we are forced to adopt the Bergsonian conception of consciousness as "virtual action" (p. 48).

Psychological reaction is the reaction of the organism as a whole. "Psychology has ceased to deal with partial reactions and can only reply by stating the psychological correlate of the total tendency, the tendency of the man as a whole; and to this tendency expressed psychologically the term *wish* is applied. The wish then has become the unit of consciousness and has replaced the sensation of the older psychologists" (p. 49).

Our units of consciousness, physiologically, are specific reaction mechanisms, and the grouping, placing, integrating of these into higher systems and into the whole is the great problem of psychology. The human organism, from this analytical point of view, is found to be an integrated mass of mechanisms of different levels—logically and biologically—of development. There are the primitive tendencies of the vegetative system, the reflex mechanisms and sensori-motor coordinations of the perceptual system, and the later and higher action systems which in part integrate and dominate the lower. This complex mass of tendencies must be kept in equilibrium, continually reintegrated. In this lies the problem of mind. In the main, however, the characteristic problems of psychiatry belong, not to the physiological level, but to the psycho-social sphere. Abnormality is revealed in the inability of the individual to maintain his organic efficiency in his social environment. "Mental disease is disease at the level of integration of the individual and society. It is not a disease of society as such nor yet of man as an individual solely, it is a disease of man as a social animal, it touches him in his social integrations" (p. 72).

Psychiatry is dealing, then, with "higher forms of integration," and these higher forms, Dr. White insists, can never be explained by the lower. He attacks materialism and naturalism on this point, quoting Schiller at length. From this point forward our author passes into the details of psychoanalysis, showing the bearings of his fundamental concepts in special problems and inquiries. We need not follow him into the familiar conceptions of psychoanalysis. Enough has been said, perhaps, to indicate the general nature and direction of Dr. White's philosophy of individuality. He is, distinctly, an Aristotelian. It is curious how, in recent years, Aristotelian conceptions have been forcing themselves upon the psychological world. In my opinion they alone have sufficient synthetic power to serve as central conceptions in the modern science of psychology.

Northwestern University.

D. T. HOWARD.

THE TREND OF THE RACE—A study of Present Tendencies in the Biological Development of Civilized Mankind. By *Samuel J. Holmes*. Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1921. Pp. 396. \$4.00 net.

This volume aims to bring to the layman a summary of results of scientific study in relation to forces that are modifying the inherited qualities of civilized man. It includes 16 chapters, among which are four regarding the problems of inheritance. The portion of the volume that will be of most immediate interest to students of Criminology

is Chapter IV entitled "The Heritable Basis of Crime and Delinquency." In this chapter the author sets out the tenets of Lombroso and many other more recent investigators into the biological and psychological nature of the criminal population. There is a brief review of Dugdale's Study of the Jukes and of the more recent investigation of the same family by Dr. Estabrook of the Eugenics Record Office. Reviews of literature relating to other similar families are included in the chapter also. Considerable space is given here to reported percentages of feeble-minded that have been found by various investigators in the population of state and municipal penal institutions. Much of this material, as the readers of this JOURNAL know, is now of scarcely more than historical interest, inasmuch as the application of new standards and methods of psychological analysis which gained currency during the war are bringing to light what seems to be the fact that in the criminal population there is not a much greater proportion of feeble-minded cases than is to be found in the population of the country at large. There remains to be written for the literature the chapter on psychic instabilities in the criminal population. This chapter on "Heritable Basis of Crime and Delinquency" is concluded by the following brief paragraph:

"The history of the Jukes, the Tribe of Ishmael, the Hill Folk, the Nams, and several other families show that much pauperism is a sort of family tradition resting upon a fundamental basis of inherited defect. The bad environment among which children of such families are usually raised makes paupers, vagrants or criminals of many who otherwise might have led useful lives."

In the final chapter, entitled "Retrospect and Prospect," the author expresses his faith that crime has a sociological as well as a biological and psychological basis and that the variations that occur from time to time in the amount of crime in different countries are correlated in large measure with social, economic, educational and other factors which fluctuate greatly at different times and places.

There is no positive proof of decadence of the race to be found in recent changes in the physical or mental characteristics of the race. There is, on the other hand, a large amount of evidence that natural selection is clearly working toward the maintenance of physical vigor and keenness of mind.

Northwestern University.

ROBERT H. GAULT.

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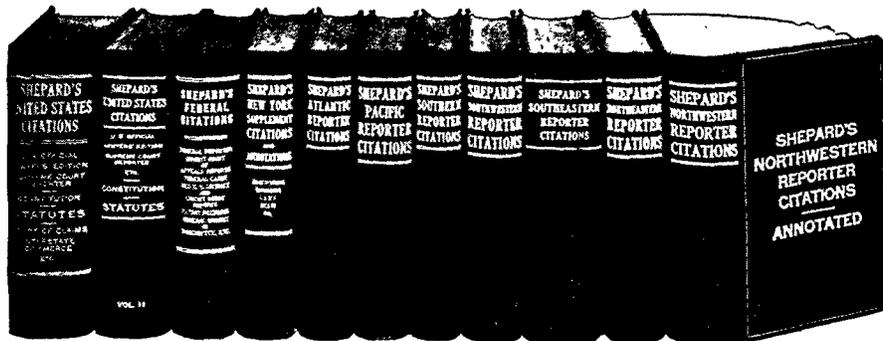
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