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reported in the *Lancet* of 1877 makes no mention of pernicious anaemia nor of koilonychia, a feature in any event not associated with pernicious anaemia.

Treves was a many-sided man whose achievements were considerable and varied. In addition to his published work, manuscript sources are available and, in the future, further study of these is likely to provide more understanding of what may seem contradictory elements in his personality. Trombley has made a good beginning.

Denis Gibbs. The Royal London Hospital

MARY BOYLE, *Schizophrenia: a scientific delusion?*, London and New York, Routledge, 1990, 8vo. pp. viii, 248, £35.00.

This carefully researched work seeks to destroy the concept of schizophrenia. The author's approach is one of self-confessed "social constructionism". This has the "annoying feature of turning attention away from a problem and onto those who are trying to deal with the problem". From the historical viewpoint Boyle wishes to set out "in some detail the story of the introduction, development and use of 'schizophrenia'". This is neatly done by criticizing the works of Emil Kraepelin, Eugen Bleuler, and Kurt Schneider as the main protagonists of the concept.

The remaining three-quarters of the book deals with the modern "fallacious arguments" used to support the concept of schizophrenia. Genetic research gets a quarter and seminal papers are pulled apart for their poor methodology. Her evidence is marshalled impressively. On the clinical side, it is a pity that, although her references are contemporary—as well as wide-ranging—there is no mention of how, for instance, brain imaging techniques have been used in the diagnosis of schizophrenia. More surprisingly, given that the author is a clinical psychologist, there is no attempt to deal with the issue of treatment. Why do people with schizophrenia get better with medication?

Although one of her four stated aims is to "discuss alternatives to the concept", her emphasis on the "functional rather than topographical properties of behaviour" is very provisional.

This erudite, provocative, if not convincing, work sorely misses reader-friendly end of chapter summaries and a proper conclusion.

Dominic Beer, Senior Registrar in Psychiatry, Guy's Hospital Rotation

SIMON BAATZ, *Knowledge, culture, and science in the metropolis: the New York Academy of Sciences, 1817–1970*, *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, vol. 584, New York Academy of Sciences, 1990, 8vo, pp. ix, 269, illus., \$55.00.

For much of the nineteenth century American intellectual energy was channelled into developing the vast resources of the country, and the few struggling scientific societies were largely concentrated in the three major urban areas, Philadelphia, Boston, and New York. Philadelphia was the leading intellectual centre, but even here the Philadelphia Academy of Medicine experienced a burst of energy shortly after the Revolution and then barely managed to survive until its revival in the 1840s.

As with most early American scientific associations, physicians played a dominant role in founding the Lyceum of Natural History in 1817, the forerunner of the New York Academy of Sciences. Of the three leading spirits, two were physicians, and nearly all of the original members were either graduates or faculty members of the local College of Physicians and Surgeons. For a few years the Lyceum experienced steady growth. The publication of its *Annals* in 1823 brought it into contact with scientists in America and Europe, and its membership reached 151 by 1825. By 1835 it had erected its own building, an event which marked a temporary peak in its activities. The Depression of 1837 and dissension among the membership forced the Lyceum to sell its building in 1843 and go into a period of decline. It was revived largely through the efforts of John William Draper, the dominant figure in the newly

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established New York University Medical School, who offered the Lyceum three rooms in the Medical School, a step which proved beneficial to both institutions.

In the succeeding years several unsuccessful efforts were made to find larger accommodation. A fire in 1863 destroyed the Medical School building, causing the Lyceum to lose everything, including John James Audubon's collection of birds, an unrivalled mineralogical cabinet accumulated through its work on the New York Geological Survey, and a large ichthyological collection. Fortunately, the loss coincided with a rising American interest in cultural pursuits and stimulated a number of New York's leading citizens to promote a museum of natural history. After considerable political infighting, the American Museum of Natural History opened its doors in 1874 and offered the Lyceum a home. In these same years Columbia University, under new leadership, became a leading centre for scientific research. The Lyceum had always envisaged itself as functioning as a museum and a research institution, but the appearance of the new museum and the emergence of Columbia forced the Lyceum to seek new functions.

In 1876 the Lyceum changed its name to the New York Academy of Sciences and expanded its membership to absorb a number of specialist scientific organizations. In 1887 it sponsored the annual meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, thereby confirming its role as the major New York scientific group. The Academy was a leading force in establishing a federation of local scientific associations and in promoting the establishment of the New York Public Library. At the same time it was sponsoring exhibitions and lectures in an effort to arouse public interest in science. The fortunes of the Academy declined in the early twentieth century, but were given a temporary stimulus when the organization promoted a "physical and natural history survey of Porto Rico". The appointment of Eunice Minor as executive secretary in 1939 brought new life to the Academy, and by 1950 it was once again housed in its own building.

In this well researched and stylishly written history, Simon Baatz does a fine job of depicting the social and cultural milieu in which the New York Academy of Sciences operated. He is equally good at relating its activities to those of other New York scientific groups and to American scientific developments in general.

John Duffy, Tulane University School of Medicine

LESTER S. KING, *Transformations in American medicine: from Benjamin Rush to William Osler*, Baltimore and London, The Johns Hopkins University Press, 1991, pp. 268, £27.50 (0-8018-4057-0).

As a historian of medicine, Lester King's legacy has been rich and provocative. Studying and explicating many medical texts originally written in Latin, German, French, and English, King has focused on the origins, development, and transformations of modern medical science. With *The growth of medical thought* and *Medical thinking: a historical preface*, he provided overviews of the history and philosophy of Western medical science. With a translation of Friedrich Hoffmann's *Fundamenta medicinae* and *The road to medical enlightenment 1650-1695*, and with *The medical world of the eighteenth century* and *The philosophy of medicine: The early eighteenth century*, he offered detailed analyses of transformations in seventeenth- and eighteenth-century medical thinking. This new book is King's analysis of the transformation of eighteenth-century physician-theorizing into nineteenth-century medical science.

King argues that eighteenth-century physicians shared a particular form of thinking about disease that emphasized system, comprehensiveness, logical coherence, and reductionist patterns. Using the *febres* of William Cullen as a fulcrum, King traces the transformation of this eighteenth-century approach into a nineteenth-century philosophy of medical science that emphasized careful observation of many phenomena, acquisition of quantitative data, critical analysis, experimental proof, and the use of technically precise instruments.