Although Pick tries to distance his work from his subjects’ psychologism, he tries, at the same time, to take psychologism’s insights and the impact they had on society seriously. It is here that this author sees the book’s most important contribution, in demonstrating that psychologists once sought, literally, to save the world, and the expanded role of the profession in academia and beyond which was spurned by these efforts. As Pick demonstrates in his two last chapters, Dicks, Langer and others were instrumental in bringing psychology to bear on issues such as war and peace and intercultural conflict in high-profile campaigns in UNESCO and elsewhere. One question that Pick raises and that calls for further research is how such public exposure and collaboration with non-psychologists affected the history of the profession itself. While Pick demonstrates that psychological considerations impacted political developments and attitudes, historians of medicine should also ask how such a dynamic worked in the opposite direction. For instance, one clear phenomenon this author sees, and that Pick suggests, is the connection between the rise of the welfare state and the huge emphasis put on childhood and nurturing in early postwar psychology. ‘Each infant was a political subject in the making’, and thus, educating children became a critical political and psychological concern (5). It would be interesting to examine how the disintegration of the welfare state and the crisis of confidence within the psychological establishment in the 1970s changed understanding and categories within psychology as the threat of Nazism receded and other issues like social breakdown, unpopular foreign wars and terrorism came to the fore. As Allan Young and others have demonstrated, the rise of trauma and PTSD as significant categories was one important reaction to this later history, but there is a whole array of other developments that resulted from the shift away from efforts to understand ‘Nazi minds’ as other ‘minds’ and phenomena came under the gaze of psychoanalysis.

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The influenza pandemic of 1918–19 caused a huge and dramatic epidemiological catastrophe during the years following the end of the Great War. There is evidence that the Spanish flu caused a total death toll of between 40 million and 100 million people, mostly youngsters, in three waves between the spring and autumn 1918 and spring 1919. Moreover, it represents a turning point in the epidemic manifestation of infectious diseases with a deep impact on twentieth-century epidemiology. It was the starting point of the emergence of viruses as new contagious agents at a time when ‘it was widely believed that laboratory trials would finally result in the isolation of the pathogenic agent of influenza’. However, previous hypotheses failed and no conclusive evidence was universally accepted until more than a decade after, when P. Laidlaw in 1933 isolated a flu virus from humans.

Over the past decade historiography has paid attention to its social, scientific and public health dimension, highlighting its relevance for the development of international public

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3 Pick rightly emphasises the influence of Melanie Klein in this regard.
health and national health care systems. The World Health Organisation described the Spanish influenza pandemic as ‘the single most devastating infectious disease outbreak ever recorded’. The essays in this volume aim to complement previous historiography, contributing new perspectives and elucidating specific aspects of the pandemic that have received minimal attention, including social control, gender, class, religion, national identity, and military medicine’s reactions to the pandemic and relationship with civilian medicine.

The group of study cases that make up the chapters of the book have a dual aim: on the one hand, they discuss the role played by the Iberian peninsula in the spread of the pandemic to the Americas; on the other, they target three major gaps in previous Spanish flu scholarship. First, the book deals with geographic areas that do not appear in previous English-language publications about the pandemic: Brazil, Portugal, Argentina and Spain. Various contributors provide updated research on the pandemic in these regions: Catherine Belling, Josep Bernabeu-Mestre, Liane Maria Bertucci, Ryan A. Davis, Esteban Domingo, Magda Fahrni, Hernán Feldman, Pilar León-Sanz, Maria Luísa Lima, Maria de Fátima Nunes, Mercedes Pascual Artiaga, María-Isabel Porras-Gallo, Anny Jackeline Torres Silveira, José Manuel Sobral, Paulo Silveira e Sousa and Christiane Maria Cruz de Souza.

Indeed, the Great War increased the traffic of the virus and impaired the health condition of many populations already affected by famine and poor living conditions. Soldiers and refugees in Spain and Portugal served as vectors for introducing the virus in the Iberian peninsula. From there authorities believed that the pandemic was spread to Latin America. L.M. Bertucci explains in her ‘Spanish Flu in Brazil: Searching for Causes during the Epidemic Horror’ how the Oswaldo Cruz Institute and the Butanta Institute, with their excellent international connections, played an important role in the identification of the germ. Hernán Feldman shows in his ‘The Spanish Flu in Argentina: An Alarming Hostage’ how the epidemics revealed the inefficiencies in the Argentinian health care system, the lack of verifiable statistics and the need to undertake major reforms. Although the Spanish flu did not originate in Spain, it is striking that Spain, boasting rich primary sources, has hitherto received little attention in English-language historiography.

In addition, the book fills a gap in the expanding theoretical and critical frameworks shaped around the 1918–19 pandemic. Several chapters discuss sociocultural dynamics such as social control and class (Souza, Bernabeu-Mestre and Pascual Artiaga), gender (Fahrni), religion (Sobral, Lima, and Silveira, Sousa, and Souza), national identities (Davis), urban development (Silveira) and military medicine strategies in relation to civil medicine (Porras-Gallo). Other participants contribute original perspectives on more common issues such as biographies of relevant figures. M.F. Nunes on Ricardo Jorge shows how health policies depended upon prominent figures. Pilar León-Sanz analyses the role played by the sociedades de socorros mutuos (mutual benefit societies). In several cases, the authors contribute to our understanding of social and medical dynamics by expanding the reach of previous historiography.

Another perspective relates to the bacteriological debate, the scientific controversies and the lack of medical consensus. The failure of bacteriology to provide a definitive diagnosis at a time of huge trust on the germ paradigm provoked mistrust and discomfort.

The book is divided into three parts. The first, ‘Scientific Discourse: Now and Then’, is devoted to the flu germ and the scientific attempts to identify it. It starts with an exploration by Esteban Domingo of the evolutionary potential of the human influenza virus. The second part, ‘Social Responses: Human and Institutional Actors’, focuses on the social context, institutional reactions and public health policies to cope with the pandemic. All
the chapters in this part deal with Spain, Portugal and Brazil. Finally the essays contained in the third part, ‘Interpreting the Epidemic: Sociocultural Dynamics and Perspectives’, explore the sociocultural resonances of the political reactions as well as general aspects of the pandemic. It shifts the focus from a preoccupation with social questions to an emphasis on cultural issues.

In sum, *The Spanish Influenza Pandemic of 1918–1919: Perspectives from the Iberian Peninsula and the Americas* elucidates aspects that received little attention in previous historiography, emphasising the importance of the Iberian peninsula as key point of connection between Europe and the Americas. It is an original and valuable contribution to the historiography of the Spanish flu and contemporary medicine.

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In Leonard Smith’s sharp introduction to this new, impressive research about insanity, race and colonialism, he offers a superb reflection on the central intellectual problems in the current historiography of the colonial asylum. First, how do we now understand such institutions in the past – as repressive regimes, part of a political apparatus of colonialism; or as benevolent paternalism? And second, how do we adequately tell, or represent, the stories of those peoples who were confined as patients in these places? The radical view of the asylum in the colonial context is, as Smith notes from his conversations with Jamaican historian and psychiatrist Fred Hickling, that this institution was part of the invention of psychiatry by Europeans as a way of suppressing colonised peoples. Yet, as Smith gently shows, the colonial asylum was part of a much larger story about the treatment of the insane ‘at home’ in the British context, itself a story of abuses, neglect, and reform. These problems were all mirrored in colonial contexts.

Smith’s book weighs up these possibilities and questions in a detailed study of a wide array of archival and official sources. The book is based on extensive primary research including archives in the United Kingdom, the Caribbean, parliamentary papers, reports, pamphlets, newspapers and printed materials. It situates the histories of the colonial institutions of the British Caribbean after the late 1830s abolition of slavery. It is a fascinating account of a world of postcolonial ‘aftershocks’ (p. 2). In addition, he gives ample attention to the extant accounts of patients, in the midst of his discussion of the worlds of institutional and administrative turmoil in his very well-judged historical study of a series of institutional sites of empire. These include institutions in Jamaica, Trinidad, Barbados, Antigua, Grenada and British Guyana.

Indeed, Smith has worked hard to position the British Caribbean inside a larger network of colonial institutions and their histories. He outlines the three phases of the colonial institutions of the British Empire, as he sees them, to better define the experiences of these ‘islands of dislocation and despair’ (p. 19). Within the Empire, the British West Indies stands out as a location for the ‘despair’ of the colonised, and in this way its history of insanity and institutions has unique features. Yet as a reader, I also found that aspects of the treatment of the insane that were shared across empire, such as the plight of Indigenous