overwhelmingly British—even English—and names, dates, and places appear and reappear with sometimes confusing rapidity. Yet, Hardy details the interwar efforts at the Ministry of Health's small pathological laboratory, and after 1930, the Lister Institute in London. The latter institution, and especially the work of W. M. Scott, Philip Bruce White, and Arthur Felix, united with the renowned Fritz Kauffmann, head of the Danish State Serum Institute, to form the most powerful international network of *Salmonella* scientists. The British/Danish coalition relied on serology as the chief means of classifying the *Salmonella* family, and was pitted against a German–American allegiance. After WWII, Hardy concludes, with the emergence in Britain of the Public Health Laboratory Service, a new biochemical approach to salmonellosis challenged the Lister-Kauffmann hegemony, and focused on public health-oriented research.

Part III, "Sites of Infection," brings the book chronologically from after WWII to the 1980s. Chapter 8, "Field and Farm," is particularly lucid in unpacking the role of British veterinary experts in food poisoning, for example, particularly in identifying and attempting to curb bovine and avian salmonellosis in the 1950s and 1960s.

Salmonella Infections is to be commended for tackling such a wide-ranging topic, and doing so in just over two hundred pages. The emergence of food poisoning as a public health problem, Hardy demonstrates, was at once human, animal, and environmental, but she also shows its political and economic effects in the modern world. There are a few slight detractions; chapter 7's rather singular focus on American *Salmonella* research is protracted, and there is a disappointing lack of material on *Salmonella* research across the British Empire. Overall, though, Hardy is deft at moving from local to global, from national to international, and from the sites of knowledge production to their circulation and contestation. These are themes for which historians of medicine have been clamoring of late, and Hardy's work sets the stage for a wealth of future research.

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S. D. Lamb. *Pathologist of the Mind: Adolf Meyer and the Origins of American Psychiatry*. Baltimore, Maryland, Johns Hopkins University Press, 2014. xii, 320 pp., illus., \$44.95.

KEYWORDS: case history, psychotherapy; Henry Phipps Psychiatric Clinic, mental institutions

Pathologist of the Mind recounts the life and times of psychiatrist Adolf Meyer, one of the most influential psychiatrists of the first half of the twentieth century, although

he is not frequently mentioned today. Part intellectual biography, part institutional history, Lamb's monograph covers the period from 1892 to 1917, beginning with Meyer's intellectual training, and moving in later chapters to the Henry Phipps Psychiatric Clinic at Johns Hopkins University. Meyer oversaw this clinic, founded in 1913, where, as Lamb argues, a scientifically based, clinical practice of psychiatry in the United States was inaugurated.

One of the aims of this monograph is to highlight Meyer's importance in creating links between the study of pathological anatomy and the clinical case—a central foundation for American psychiatry. A Swiss-German, Meyer trained in medicine at the University of Zurich. He was skeptical of the brain localization schemes proliferating in Theodor Meynert's German school, a materialism that August Forel, Meyer's mentor, called "brain mythology." Meyer emigrated to Chicago in 1892, leaving his mother behind, whose mental illness had influenced Meyer's choice of career, and who was later institutionalized at Meyer's training hospital—the Burghölzli. Working in asylums near Chicago and in Worcester, Massachusetts, Meyer exhorted his colleagues to develop a rigorous approach to clinical assessment, and interwove pathological, experimental, and clinical data into his scientific approach to clinical psychiatry.

In 1913, Meyer became head psychiatrist at the eighty-eight bed Phipps Clinic, with an incredible 1:7 doctor–patient ratio, and a 1:2 staff-to-patient ratio. The clinical case history became a vital tool at Phipps, with all members of the staff contributing, from nurses penning their reflections to assistants adding their input on patient behavior. Patients' utterances, along with letters sent and received by family members, were all dutifully entered into the bulging case record. Lamb calls these extensive clinical case workups a "therapeutic experiment," although the method might better be described as an inductive one that amassed a tremendous amount of information on each patient. Lamb excels at describing everyday life at the asylum, with a focus on the occupational therapy of basket weaving and hydrotherapy for physical restraint and sedation.

The second half of Lamb's book shifts focus and becomes an institutional history of the Phipps clinic in its first few years. As such, it stands in stark distinction to the critical, Foucauldian-based asylum histories that have been common in the history of psychiatry of the past few decades. The small and selective group of patients at Phipps and the excellent patient–doctor ratios made suggestive, supportive therapeutics successful, in vivid contrast to the bloated nineteenth-century asylum and its warehousing of the mentally ill. Lamb did not find evidence of staff mistreatment of patients, and more often came across letters of praise from patients and family members (163, 203). Lamb contends that Meyer's practices at Phipps constituted the face of the new scientific psychiatry, although in many respects, it resembled the late eighteenth-century psychiatric program of moral treatment. Moral treatment did lack the evolutionary foundation of habit-training, implemented by Meyer to foster better adaptations, although practical methods of treatment were similar. Lamb paints Phipps as a modern psychiatric success story, although in terms of patient care, it

seems less of a radical innovation than a fulfillment of the promise of moral treatment imagined two centuries earlier.

Lamb's fascinating final chapter on Meyerian psychotherapy shows that the clinic adapted cathartic elements of early Freudian psychoanalysis in what was called "ventilative" therapy. Meyer was captivated by Jungian word association tests, adopting these tests to ferret out patient complexes. Psychotherapy took place via patients' daily activities, from getting patients to talk about their thoughts in the baths to asking them questions before sleep. Much more than a private exchange held on a therapist's couch, psychotherapy at the Phipps clinic was "public, communal and perpetual" (223). Meyer urged patients to get to the roots of a bad habit or an improper adjustment to life's conditions, then helped them to set out new patterns of behavior. Inherently practical, Meyer advised one patient who was lethargic and altogether too dependent on his mother to, "Make a decision, clinch it" (240). By the 1930s, however, Meyer became critical of what he saw as the reductionism and determinism of psychoanalysis, preferring his more inclusive psychobiological approach.

Meyer is perhaps best known for his psychobiological approach to mental illness, inspired by Huxtings-Jackson's evolutionary model of the mind. Lamb describes how Meyer's emphasis on the functional values of adjustment and habit were also inspired by American pragmatist psychology and philosophy, particularly through personal contact with William James and John Dewey. Famously, Meyer argued that one should see psychiatric problems as "reaction-types," viewing symptoms as adaptations or maladaptations to external circumstances. Perhaps Meyer's relative obscurity today is due to his notoriously opaque communication style (one psychiatrist remarked that at least "the fog was luminous" [7] in reference to this style). Yet it was Meyer's system of classification that was adapted in 1917 by the American Medico-Psychological Association, and his conception of reaction-types that was carried over into the first DSM of 1952.

Lamb has deftly shown us the importance of the Phipps clinic for scientific psychiatry, but it would have been helpful to situate the clinic in relation to other institutions of the period. The Boston Psychopathic Hospital, under the direction of neuropathologist and psychiatrist E. E. Southard, also stood on the forefront of this scientific and pragmatic American psychiatry. The monograph sometimes depicts Meyer as more of a lone pioneer in scientific psychiatry than one among others in the Progressive Era. Nonetheless, this book is an excellent and animated guide to Meyer's training and the intimate workings of the Phipps asylum.

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