cannot be accounted for. It is probable that the brain weight in paresis is not a fair index of the brain changes, since there is a large increase in the neuroglia which makes up for the loss of weight in other directions, *e.g.*, in the nerve-cells.

Series 4.—A group of young epileptics, from twenty-five to forty, dying of sudden diseases, and all well nourished. Such factors as tuberculosis, diarrhœa, emaciation, etc., were eliminated. Most of the cases died of suffocation, acute lobar pneumonia, œdema of the lungs, etc. In thirteen cases, the liver weighed 1,150 grm., the brain 1,260 grm., a very marked reversal of the expected ratio. In seven cases, the liver weight averaged 1,350 grm., the brain 1,300 grm. That is to say, there was in the smaller series a somewhat heavier liver than brain, and in a larger series a much lighter liver than brain. So small a series is not sufficient from which to draw conclusions, nevertheless it points out a line of research in epilepsy. In looking over the protocols there are more changes recorded in the organs of epileptics than are recorded in the organs of paretics. That is to say, on superficial investigation there seem to have been more definite organic changes in a disease not known to be organic, than in a disease definitely known to be organic. Whether these changes are due to the epileptic attacks or cause them can only be determined by an extensive study of a long series of cases. It would even be necessary to note whether these changes showed a definite relation to the number and severity of the attacks, or whether they are very marked in those individuals dying after only a few attacks, etc.

A point which the author wishes to make is that senile dementia and paresis have one feature in common, which is that the changes in the brain found in both these conditions select the frontal lobe as their first and foremost place of incidence. The explanations for this, which vary from the vascular distribution, venous drainage, and biological order of development, are, on the whole, unsatisfactory. Not enough study has been done on the changes in the organs in general paresis and senile dementia. For example, Alzheimer, in his elaborate monograph on the histo-pathology of general paresis, dismisses the changes in the organs in a brief page or two, although admitting that there may be diagnostic changes in other places than the brain. It seems possible that there may be a grouping of bodily changes which brings about changes in the brain, and that even in a disease where brain pathology is a definite field of knowledge, investigation should be carried on to discover whether or not there are corresponding changes in the organs.

J. R. LORD.

---

5. Sociology.

Lombroso as an Alienist [*L'Œuvre Psychiatrique de Lombroso*]. (*Rev. de Psychiat., Feb.*, 1914.) *Genil-Perrin, G.*

Lombroso had intended to write a treatise on the "Insane Man." His daughter, Dr. Gina Lombroso, has carried out his wish, so far as it is now possible, by bringing together in one volume under the title of *L'Homme Aliéné*, all the scattered psychiatric essays published by her

https://doi.org/10.1192/bjp.61.252.152 Published online by Cambridge University Press

father between 1859 and 1909. On the basis of this book, Genil-Perrin discusses Lombroso's place in psychiatry.

A simple idea presides over Lombroso's psychiatric work—the relationship of the psychic to the physical—but until that idea prevailed mental medicine could not achieve emancipation. That emancipation came in 1859—the year in which Lombroso's work opens—with the publication of Morel's famous *Traité*. Lombroso's work has seldom been judged with impartiality. The exaggeration of his ideas, their too rapid vulgarisation, their distortion by ignorant adepts, provoked in the scientific world an attitude of unjustified repulsion. Certainly in Lombroso's work we must know how to test and to modify. His impetuous spirit was always pushing ahead without waiting to elaborate His writings are essays rather than well-digested treatises. His southern ardour was rebellious to the labour of verification. He always started from facts, but from those facts he rose too rapidly to generalisations which sometimes revealed genius, and were sometimes illusory, but were always hazardous. This romantic violence, these revolutionary utterances, necessarily aroused controversy. It was by a sudden intuition on a cold December morning in 1870, when examining a brigand's skull, that Lombroso threw out his atavistic theory of criminality, and in 1864, at a happy turn of his fortune at Pavia, that in a succession of sleepless nights he sketched his *Man of Genius*. Such enthusiastic outbursts injured Lombroso's reputation in the scientific world, while they brought him a popular notoriety which was equally injurious.

Yet Lombroso's work revealed new conceptions, which, in spite of their boldness, were fruitful. We must remember the dates of his writings, and that we cannot expect of precursors the precise methods of later workers. Lombroso had the defects of his qualities, but the qualities were there.

The book which Dr. Gina Lombroso has edited is of much interest for alienists, although that interest is now mainly historical. A chief merit of it, however, is that it shows the psychiatric importance of Lombroso's work as a whole. His criminological work has received more attention, but we must not forget that he was above all an alienist, and that it was from the study of insanity that he proceeded to the consideration of the largest sociological questions.

It was Lombroso's fundamental doctrine that man is an organic whole, with all the parts intimately bound together. Man's intelligence and instincts and appetites are not confined to special seats; they dwell in all his viscera, tissues, and functions. There is no anomaly or disorder on the physical side which is not reflected on the psychic side, no disorder on the psychic side but has an echo on the physical side. Thus the insane must be studied in their totality, and it was so that Lombroso attempted to study them, "as objects of natural history," biologically in the first place, and finally psychically. To classifications Lombroso assigned no great importance. He regarded them as purely conventional groupings, only useful for convenience in study. Therefore, to prevent confusion, they should be changed as little as possible. He considerably changed one category, however, that of epilepsy, and when we realise to what an extent he enlarged it—inserting hysteria, circular

https://doi.org/10.1192/bjp.61.252.152 Published online by Cambridge University Press

insanity, moral insanity, obsessions, and much else—it is not surprising that he often came on the traces of "epilepsy."

Prof. Bianchi, in a preface to *L'Homme Aliéné*, compares Lombroso's work to Charcot's. Genil-Perrin remarks that this is true in a different sense from that probably meant by Bianchi. The work of Charcot and his pupils is now largely out of date, because their interpretations were too hasty and sometimes forced. But the method of Charcot, the application to nervous pathology of clinical and anatomical investigation, is immortal. It is the same with Lombroso. The theories are often hazardous, but the method remains. When we place Lombroso's work in the right light, "that work may well seem to us one of the greatest scientific events of the nineteenth century." HAVELOCK ELLIS.

The Personality of the Accused in the New Code of Penal Procedure [*La personalità del giudicabile nel nuovo Codice di Procedura Penale*]. (*Arch. di Anthrop. Crim.*, *May–June*, 1914). *Bianchi.*

In this address, delivered at the inaugural meeting of the Società di Anthropologia, Sociologia e Diritto Criminale, Prof. Bianchi discusses the present state of the relation between biological science and the criminal law, with special reference to the changes which have been recently introduced into the Italian Code of Procedure. As a result of these changes larger powers have been given to the courts to investigate the mental condition of accused persons, and particularly of juvenile offenders, and of offenders in whom there may be reason to suspect the existence of insanity or mental defect. While welcoming this reform as implying a partial recognition of the importance of the biological factor in criminality, Prof. Bianchi expresses regret that the legislature has not gone farther on this road, and has not boldly adopted the doctrine that crime is always and in all cases a manifestation of abnormality in the offender. This view he holds to be true not only of the grosser and more primitive forms of delinquency, but also of the subtle and ingenious frauds which constitute so important a feature of the modern evolution of commercialism, and which, though not technically coming within the reach of the law, imply in those who perpetrate them a degree of egotism and moral defect that must be regarded as pathological. This "frock-coated delinquency" has not, he considers, received the attention which it merits at the hands of criminologists, and he suggests it as a rich field for investigation, though admitting that it is hardly possible as yet to indicate very clearly the lines on which its scientific study is to be approached. Even in the cruder forms of criminality it is not always easy to furnish definite proofs of the pathological constitution of the offender, and biological science has still much to do before it can establish its predominant claim to decide on the treatment of the individual criminal. That it must assert, and will eventually establish, that claim Prof. Bianchi is convinced, and for this reason he is no advocate of compromise between the legal and the biological conceptions of crime. However much the opposition between these two points of view may be masked by such concessions to modern ideas as are embodied in the new Italian code, no final solution of the difficulty is possible until the principles and methods of biology have

https://doi.org/10.1192/bjp.61.252.152 Published online by Cambridge University Press