Clinical Notes and Cases.

A Short Note on the Use of Calcium in Excited States. By T. C. GRAVES, B.Sc., M.B., B.S.Lond., F.R.C.S.Eng., L.R.C.P.Lond., Temp. Capt. R.A.M.C.

ACCORDING to Prof. William Bayliss, calcium is necessary for the normal effect of adrenalin on sympathetic nerve-endings. Acting on the assumption that in acute excited states there can be no lack of adrenalin in the body but an absence of its "fixation ion," I have exhibited calcium lactate in ten-grain doses to many cases of more or less acute excitement with satisfactory results. The cases include, of the manias: epileptic, simple, delirious, and recurrent; agitated melancholia and recent acute hallucinations. The effect of the drug is to calm the mental state and improve the physical condition. A rapid, weak pulse becomes slower and stronger, any diarrhœa present ceases or is improved, a dry, harsh skin becomes moist and supple, the appetite also is improved. The younger the case the better the result, similarly the more recent the case, especially if of influenzal origin. Some of the cases, however, have responded although over forty years of age, and several old-standing cases have shown a temporary improvement.

Part II.—Reviews.

Diseases of the Nervous System: A Text-Book of Neurology and Psychiatry. By Drs. SMITH E. JELLIFFE and W. A. WHITE. Second edition. Philadelphia and New York: Lea & Fibiger. 1917.

The form of this book is best described in the authors' own words—"a work on the diseases of the nervous system rather than two books, one on neurology and one on psychiatry, which would perpetuate a distinction which the authors believe to be artificial." A work written from this standpoint should be welcome after the numerous clinical volumes compiled on the supposition that the lower realms of nervous action have little more than a bowing acquaintanceship with the cerebral cortex.

The volume has been divided on physiological lines into three parts which treat respectively with the vegetative (endocrino-sympathetic), the sensori-motor, and the psychic systems, between which there is uninterrupted reaction; and all the clinical entities under these headings are dealt with in a remarkably clear fashion. The book opens with a useful and concise chapter on methods of examination, in which

important points are illustrated by photographs of the clinical features and diagrams of the spinal or cerebral area involved. We note that some of Dejerine's figures have been made use of to the advantage of the reader.

Part I, "The Physio-Chemical Systems," which deals with vegetative or visceral neurology, contains much information of value to the clinician, and emphasises the relationship now known to exist between this system and psychic function. The writers are impressed with the important correlations which exist between the lower or vegetative mechanism and cerebral disturbance, especially in the emotional field. "The *rôle* of this system (vegetative) in its reaction to mental stimuli . . . has helped to give an interpretative status for empirically held beliefs": and the anatomical foundation for this statement is that "the ganglionic system which in man serves the vegetative functions of the body is represented in the primary metameres, the spinal cord, again in the brain-stem, central grey matter and mid-brain, lenticular nucleus and optic thalamus (hypothalamus), and finally in the cortex, where the different organs under vegetative control have localisation as surely as those of the body musculature." Throughout this chapter there is ample clinical evidence in support of the view that faulty stimuli at psychological levels can and do produce equally faulty reactions in the vegetative sphere, and *vice versâ*.

Part II is concerned with sensori-motor neurology, and although this section is rather compressed, the authors have succeeded in giving a clear account of the symptomatology. The subject matter is well illustrated by photographs and anatomical diagrams, some of which are, as noted under Part I, taken from Dejerine's work.

In Part III, "The Psychical or Symbolic Systems," we note that psycho-analysis occupies a prominent position, especially in its application to the ætiology of mental disease. Emphasis is laid upon failure of mental adjustment to the difficulties in life with its consequent egocentricity, introspection, defective reaction, phantasy formations, conflicts, repressions, and dissociations. In this mechanism infantile pleasure-seeking plays an important part, and on this point there are some interesting illustrations under the "compulsion neurosis."

Manic-depressive insanity is, according to the authors, "an effort at compromise and defense resulting from an endopsychic conflict." "In the depressive stage the affect has broken through and invaded consciousness, while in the manic phase the patient, by feverish and restless activity, by constant alertness, fights off every approach that might touch him on a painful point, that might reach a vulnerable spot." The patient flies into reality to avoid the conflict, hence he is "extroverted."

In direct contrast to this a patient suffering from so-called dementia præcox is "introverted." Here there is a splitting of the personality which results in regression to the infantile and archaic in the individual, thus permitting older phylogenetic thought symbols to appear in conduct. Somatic disturbances in the realm of the vegetative nervous system assist in this process, although the authors admit that prominence must be given to the psychic factor. Still, though the mental symptoms may be psychogenetic their reaction on the sympathetic system cannot

be ignored. In this connection attention is directed towards considering the patient as a unit in whom no distinction can be drawn between mind and body.

The whole work contains many suggestive thoughts. To many these may appear to have an insufficient basis; to others they will be welcome on account of their very suggestiveness. The book, however, apart from controversial matters, has the special merit that it links up neurology with pyschiatry, both of which have been separated too long to their mutual detriment. The whole nervous system must be treated as one single entity, and the writers have, and with considerable success too, given the reader an insight into many of the problems dealing with the interaction of its several parts. DAVID ORR.

Mysticism and Logic. By BERTRAND RUSSELL, M.A., F.R.S. Longmans, Green & Co., 1918. Pp. 234, 8vo.

This volume consists of a series of essays by Mr. Russell which have previously been published in other collections and various journals. In so far as some of these essays are out of print and others may be inaccessible to the general reader, the present collection will be welcome to those who are acquainted with the philosophic works of the author, as well as to those to whom this volume may open up new ground. Perhaps one of the chief charms of this collection, from the point of view of the ordinary reader, is the fact that several of the essays are not highly technical in presentation, and thus it becomes possible, without any special knowledge of philosophical methods of expression, to obtain a useful insight into the view-point of the leading exponent of the New Realism—a system of philosophic thought with which the name of Mr. Russell is particularly associated.

In the first essay, which furnishes the title to the book, the writer outlines what he conceives to be the necessary attitude for the erection of a truly scientific philosophy. He shows how most philosophic systems have been really no more than the rationalisation of preformed intuitive beliefs, and that the conceptions of the universe which are presented by such systems are subjectively determined—a reflection of our inner emotions and wishes which view the world as we should like it to be, rather than as it actually is when viewed with scientific detachment. Philosophy should above all be ethically neutral, and freed from such terms as "good," "evil," "progress" and the like in seeking to explain the phenomena with which it deals, if it is to attain scientific success. To quote the author: "The physicist or chemist is not now required to prove the ethical importance of his ions or atoms; the biologist is not expected to prove the utility of the plants or animals which he dissects. In pre-scientific ages this was not the case. Astronomy, for example, was studied because men believed in astrology; it was thought that the movements of the planets had the most direct and important bearing upon the lives of human beings. Presumably, when this belief decayed and disinterested study of astronomy began, many who found astrology absorbingly interesting decided that astronomy had too little human interest to be worthy of study. Physics, as it appears in Plato's