

This is the fourth and final volume in a distinguished series. The two yearly seminars organized by Dr. John Bowlby, with the support of the Ciba Foundation, of which this is the most recent report, have not only reflected an increasing interest in developmental studies but have to some extent instigated this change in Britain, where this area of the behavioural sciences is still sadly neglected.

The seminars followed the now fashionable trend for an interdisciplinary approach. This reviewer feels that this trend has difficulties which have not yet been overcome. Many students of animal behaviour seem to be students *manqués* of human behaviour; others came with a brash view of traditional psychological approaches and have learnt with unnecessary pain the difficulties of studying one's own species. In this situation the insight dismissed with scorn as anthropomorphic in animal studies is an unavoidable bias, and it is hard for the ethologist to see it as a strength. Anyone who came to human studies from other species could no doubt as easily complain of the psychologist's ignorance, even resentment of other disciplines; the division persists, and in this report human and animal studies are divided even when the topics are complementary.

From the animal studies reported it is evident that many of the early generalizations about the mother-infant interaction were monstrous simplifications. The analysis is still far short of a specification of even the principal relevant factors, though we are clearly much nearer to an appraisal of the importance and interactions of different affectional systems in monkeys. There are tantalizing questions posed about the relationship of hormonal changes with exposure to the infant, in the maternal behaviour of rodents. One would like to see this linked to recent work on the hormonal dependence of sexual behaviour: an evolutionary approach should be able to integrate the two.

The human section is less homogenous. Insight into the complexity of human experience has perhaps made for more caution, and a more fragmented approach. It seems that it is immensely more difficult to draw this field together; one is tempted to read not for new insights and theories but for the fascinating titbits which abound, e.g. babies do not cry because their nappies are dirty, and the suggestion that sweetened fruit juice in the dummy might have adverse effects on the baby's character as well as his teeth.

What generalizations can be made, have sometimes a certain triteness. Three studies, in over seventy pages, are devoted to studies of an infant's behaviour in a strange situation and his response to a stranger (including the bizarre extreme of a

Hallowe'en mask). The variability of response with age, presence of mother, putative experience, and the nature of the strange experience, preclude any common conclusion other than that babies are more upset by such experiences if the mother is not there. This is perhaps unfair: the problems of experiment and observation reflect the current inadequacy of concepts of imprinting, fear and recognition.

Other contributions, such as T. G. Décarie's on thalidomide children, and Woolf's on early vocalization, cover entirely novel ground; both the material and its interpretation are challenging.

This volume has been slower to reach print than its predecessors, and since the seminar was held papers have been revised and new material added. Perhaps for this reason Professor Foss decided to omit nearly all the discussion; inevitably this detracts from the value of the seminar approach. Reviewers of previous volumes rightly criticized its uneven quality, but the discussion was a feature of the interdisciplinary character of the meetings which one is sorry to lose.

In all, this is a stimulating collection; like its predecessors at least as valuable as a source of ideas as of information. It is unusual to be able to follow the interaction of observation, conceptualization and criticism on the course of so many researchers in a wide but connected field. It is sad to read there will be no more in the series to which we may look forward.

ANTHONY COSTELLO.

NORWEGIAN PAEDIATRIC PSYCHIATRY

Prognosis in Child Psychiatry. By HILCHEN SOMMERSHILD SUNDBY and PETER CHRISTIAN KREYBERG. Baltimore: The Williams and Wilkins Company. 1969. Pp. 118. No price stated.

This is an interesting report on a follow-up in 1965 of 277 children admitted to the Child Psychiatric Department of Rikshospitalet, Oslo, between 1950 and 1954. The Norwegian system of requiring compulsory notification of change of address made it possible for the authors to obtain information on all their cases. At the time of the follow-up, in 1965, 40 per cent were in the age group 18–21 years, 40 per cent over the age of 22.

As the Neurotic Group comprised 45 per cent of the total, and as there was a wider range of demonstrable factors, this group forms the main subject of the study. The authors include a wide range of diagnoses under the term 'Neurosis': 39 behavioural neuroses with no asocial symptoms; 37 psychosomatic neuroses; 20 behavioural neuroses with

asocial symptoms; 11 anxiety neuroses; 17 others.' The group as a whole came into hospital at a later age than the oligophrenics and psychotics, usually between the ages of 9 and 12, and a third had had symptoms for five years or longer.

One of the surprising findings in this study is the prevalence of organic brain damage: 30 per cent of the whole intake and 17 per cent of the neurotics are so diagnosed. Seventy-one of the cases had both electro-encephalograms and pneumo-encephalograms, and there was little correlation between the two:

		PEG			
EEG		Normal	Patho-logic	Border-line	Total
Normal	..	8	14	3	25
Pathologic	..	18	15	3	36
Border-line	..	3	4	3	10
Total		29	33	9	71

It would be very interesting to see this piece of work repeated using the same criterion.

For the Neurotic Group a variety of factors were isolated to see which were of prognostic significance: emotional relation to others, play capacity and organic brain damage were found to be most markedly differentiated between the good and poor outcome groups. The fourth important factor was the emotional conditions in the home. On the negative side display of emotion was not found to have predictive value; also age at onset did not seem to affect the outlook.

The authors comment on how few of the cases had been treated in the intervening 11 to 15 years, and suggest that possibly they have become 'too resigned' to their own lot. Fifty-seven per cent had recovered spontaneously, but even so the average length of illness had been 6½ years.

The difficulty of assessing what child psychiatrists in fact achieve is well recognized. Reports on follow-ups are now increasing in number, but can seldom be compared in detail owing to the differing case material and the varying techniques of investigation. The need to study both child and environment is increasingly recognized, and it is a book like this which makes the reviewer realize how little he knows of the Norwegian cultural pattern and to wonder how far their pattern of family relationships will support a neurotic child. At what age in Norway is

school attendance compulsory? What significance should English psychiatrists pay to the finding that 83 of 98 patients with speech difficulties had not been given instruction in school corresponding to their handicap? Would our figures be any better?

This book, as the authors say, is aimed less at instruction and more at sharing their experiences. If it tempts a British senior registrar to do likewise, their efforts will not have been in vain. If, as is likely, they come to reprint this book, it is hoped that the opportunity will be used of providing an index.

R. F. BARBOUR.

GO TO THE ANT.....

Violence, Monkeys and Man. CLAIRE RUSSELL and W. M. S. RUSSELL. London: Macmillan. 1968. Pp. 340 + x. Price 63s.

Already the world contains about 3,000 million people, many of them half-starved and living in appalling conditions; in Calcutta, the Russells tell us, 30 per cent of the population live three or more families to a room, and a further 17 per cent have no home at all. By the year 2,000 the population of the world will have doubled to over 6,000 million; and food production is unlikely to keep up with this rate, let alone allow any improvement in diet for the present hungry masses.

Violence is a function of population density, the Russells argue, and they predict that the present uncontrolled increase in human population will bring into play the homeostatic mechanism of large-scale slaughter; and although in the past such slaughter may have been adaptive in controlling population, now it may have the maladaptive result of eliminating the whole species. In order to avoid this homeostatic cataclysm, we must take political action to implement voluntary family limitation, and carry out more research into fertility and its biological and cultural causes.

This familiar argument is one which no sane person could take exception to, and although there may be unfortunate ideological disagreements about the means by which families may be limited, the need for universal family limitation must be clear to every thinking person as an essential prerequisite for the survival, let alone the health and happiness, of our descendants.

Many books have appeared recently both on the population problem and on aggression, but the subjects are so vital that there is necessity for constant repetition. The repetitions should, of course, provide variations on the theme, and this the Russells do