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sometimes causal, role of scientific and technological innovation in the specialization process at some moments in time, as the dominant role of social and market forces at others (whilst laying most stress on the importance of organizational innovation). The child welfare movement of the early twentieth century is thus seen as crucial to the second phase of the specialty's development, while developments in internal medicine (endocrinology in particular) and behavioural psychology are seen as more significant after World War II. The latter chapters, on 'Pediatric endocrinology' and the so-called "new" 'Psychosocial pediatrics', present, in fact, some of the most original and historically interesting material in this book, other studies of American paediatrics (including sociological ones) having concentrated largely on the first half of this century. Halpern's broader sweep allows her to make some valuable comparisons with the earlier period and, thus, within the history of this single field, to comment effectively on different modes of specialization.

But much more might have been said about opposition to specialization in paediatrics, especially on the part of general practitioners both during the early years of the specialism and, more recently, with the revival of the family practitioner in America. More curious, given the occasional references to the relatively high proportion of female paediatric practitioners, is the absence of any discussion on their place and relations within the evidently male-dominated professional structures. Finally, it is to be regretted that while appropriate intra-professional comparisons appear frequently throughout the text, international comparisons are never made—an omission that seems all the more odd in light of the author's emphasis on the role of "emulation" in specialty and sub-specialty formation.

Nevertheless, as a well-sustained case study, abounding in facts and figures on a century of American paediatrics, this cogently revised doctoral thesis might be profitably read by historians, sociologists, and paediatricians alike.

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MICHAEL SHEPHERD, *A representative psychiatrist: the career, contributions and legacies of Sir Aubrey Lewis*, *Psychological Medicine* Monograph Supplement 10, published in association with The Bethlem Royal Hospital and The Maudsley Hospital, Cambridge University Press, 1988, 8vo, pp. 31, illus., £2.50, (paperback).

This monograph brings together two of Professor Shepherd's memorial lectures—the 'Adolf Meyer' of 1976 and the 'Aubrey Lewis' of 1985—thus providing a brief overview of twentieth-century psychiatry in Britain and the essence of Lewis's work. The two are not synonymous, or even synchronous: Lewis was Jewish, Australian, literate, and learned, but there is no doubt that a full biography could provide the core of a post-Freudian history of psychiatry in these isles, warts and all. According to Dr William Sargant, Lewis had "very remarkable qualifications", but "lacked Mapother's unique gift of coordinating and holding together so restive and opinionated a clinical team". But Sargant had just been effectively kicked out of the Maudsley by Lewis, whose scientific braininess made many enemies. Other reminiscences—he had a "baleful, unblinking stare" and could be "devastatingly critical"—attest to the fear, distress, and ambivalence occasioned by his inquisitions. Shepherd insists on the "essential kindness" of the man, and his commonsense in placing the canteen next to the library in the new Institute of Psychiatry, to encourage "personal contacts". It is hard not to conclude that the "task of keeping psychiatry sane" (to quote from Professor Leighton's preface) required a robust sense of reality.

There are some annoying misprints (e.g. "First" for "Second" World war, p. 10), and missing commas, but the two pieces meld nicely, not least because of Shepherd's own stylistic clarity. Oddly enough, he regarded Lewis's "general legacy" as the Institute of Psychiatry in 1976, yet by 1985 "it is generally concluded that the Institute of Psychiatry is the specific legacy". Whatever the general specifics, it is clear that Lewis, like his protégé, wrote beautifully. From schoolboy presentations on the Bacon vs. Shakespeare debate or the origin and history of words, via student papers (e.g. 'Quacks' written in "brilliant style"), to the maturities of *States of depression*

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(1938), 'Psychological medicine' (in 60,000 words for Prince's *Textbook of medicine*, 1941) and *Health as a social concept* (1953), he provided a clear, spare contrast to what Shepherd has called the "pleonastic obesity of most psychiatric textbooks". Many modern historians might blanch at his versions of philological history, but to Lewis history was of the essence. "Of the value of such studies it is unnecessary to speak." One hopes that the full story will now engage Professor Shepherd, soon to be free of institutional duties. This hors-d'oeuvre needs a main course.

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GABRIELE GRAMICCIA, *The life of Charles Ledger (1818–1905): alpacas and quinine*, Basingstoke and London, Macmillan Press, 1988, 8vo, pp. xiv, 222, illus., £30.00.

It was not until the very end of his career that Professor Gramiccia, a leading WHO malariologist now living in retirement in his native Italy, first happened to read about Charles Ledger in a popular periodical. He was so struck by the near-total oblivion into which the achievements of this adventurous predecessor had been allowed to fall that he was moved to embark on a full-scale biography, a task which he has pursued with impressive thoroughness in a range of countries around the world.

Ledger left London for Peru on his eighteenth birthday to join a British merchant house specializing in two of that country's staples, alpaca wool and cinchona bark. After two years he was sent to run a branch in the southern port of Tacna, where he presently set up on his own account and married the daughter of a local official.

Desiring to sharpen his cinchona expertise, he enlisted the aid of a young Indian, Manuel Inca Mamani, who proved to have great flair as a classifier and was able to guide him through the maze of variation exhibited by the genus and instruct him in the ecological basis of this. Gradual destruction of the best cinchona stocks had been taking place for over a century and there was a pressing need by that time to locate wild trees with bark of superior quality. Almost all expeditions, however, came to nought through failure to master the complex taxonomy. Apart from Ledger's Manuel, only Weddell and Spruce acquired the necessary botanical proficiency to succeed in the quest. Weddell was responsible for the ultimate establishment of the Dutch plantations in Java, while seeds collected by Spruce and passed to Clements Markham in 1860 formed the basis of the British ones in India. Markham's name is the one that has passed into the history books as a result.

In 1865, however, after years of searching, Manuel managed to find some trees in Bolivia with bark far richer in quinine than any of the kinds in cultivation—up to 13 times as much, later tests were to show. A boxful of the seeds were sent by Ledger to his brother in London, who at first had difficulty in arousing any interest. Eventually J. E. Howard, Britain's chief quinine manufacturer, appreciated their potential and at his instance they were profitably sold: some to the Dutch Government, most to an owner of extensive cinchona plantations in India with the appropriate name of Money, who subsequently exchanged them with his government counterpart in Madras. Unfortunately the new species (*Cinchona ledgeriana*, as it was named in 1881) was much less hardy than its compeers and did not do well in Indian conditions. In Javanese ones, on the other hand, it flourished, helped by the more experienced care provided by the Dutch, who in addition alone had the equipment to test for quinine content. The plantations of it that they proceeded to raise enabled them to dominate the world market for bark for some years; in due course, however, in the 'eighties, overproduction occurred and prices collapsed. The economies of Peru and Bolivia were among the worst casualties, and Ledger and his family came in for much revilement, accused of having "stolen" the seeds and brought about the catastrophe. Luckily for him, though, he was living by then in Argentina, painfully rebuilding his finances after a disastrous attempt to introduce alpaca breeding into Australia (the recounting of which occupies almost half the book). Hungering for recognition, all he was able to extract at first from the Dutch, to whom he had brought such profit, was a derisory £242. But eventually, after a bank failure had left him all but destitute, the Dutch Government responded to public agitation by awarding him a small pension. Even so that was not enough to save him from a pauper's grave.