

city's closest traditional sources" (105). The railway also ameliorated the effect of floods because the city could still be provisioned even when the Vistula was no longer navigable.


The book is dedicated to "scholars of Krakow's past." As one of them, I found the text endlessly fascinating, particularly when an aspect of environmental history enlarged or altered my existing conceptions. For example, the flooding of the Vistula contributed both to the Galician Slaughter of 1846 and to the creation of Greater Krakow in the early twentieth century. Andrzej Chwalba argues that the flood of 1903 was a major impetus for mayor Juliusz Leo's plan to modernize the river channel and incorporate surrounding districts, including Podgórze on the opposite bank. "Thus, the river, the bringer of misfortune, hastened events and decisions of significance to the city and its residents. It became a historical actor par excellence, co-deciding on the fate of modern Krakow" (60). Modern embankments and boulevards begun as part of the Greater Krakow plan succeeded in protecting the city. In May 2010, the Vistula's highest water level was 5 cm higher than the 1903 flood, but flooding and damage were minor (62–63). In their chapter on climate, Wnęk, Izdebski, and Leszek Kowanetz speculate that relatively warm winters and cool summers during World War I may have ameliorated the shortages and suffering of those years, while very cold winters during World War II surely placed additional burdens on armies and civilians (33–34). Finally, the concluding chapter by Małgorzata Praczyk shows that despite widely held myths of Krakow as a garden city, thanks to its famous Planty and other parks, Krakow is per capita one of the least green cities in Poland. Afforestation in much-maligned Łódź, Poland's quintessential industrial city, is at 20 percent, while in Krakow that figure is only 5 percent (175)!

The book is clearly translated and helpfully organized. Inserts that define key terms or people in each chapter—including "the Anthropocene," "the medieval climactic anomaly," "paleoclimatology," "ruderal plants," "smog," "Henryk Jordan," and "Cecylia Malik," among others—as well as numerous greyscale illustrations ranging from reproductions of images from chronicles to charts, graphs, and maps enrich the text. The book jacket evocatively depicts the green city and its smog, while featuring one of its most famous denizens, the *gołąb* (pigeon), flocks of whom are as ubiquitous a part of Market Square as the *Sukiennice* (Cloth Hall) and who figure prominently in the decor of the recently renovated City Historical Museum. A variety of readers, beyond just scholars of the city's past, will learn much from this volume, and one can only hope for more "ecobiographies" of Central European cities in the future.

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Kreike, Emmanuel. *Scorched Earth: Environmental Warfare as a Crime Against Humanity and Nature*

Princeton: Princeton University Press, 2021. Pp. 538.

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Scorched Earth is a global history of the relationship between war, environment, and society. The book mobilizes the concept of environmental infrastructure, which Kreike has previously developed in a volume on African history (Cambridge, 2013), to show continuities in scorched earth practices in wars from the early modern period to the twentieth century. As he defines it, "environmental infrastructure" is the product of the "coproduction of human ingenuity and labor on the one hand and nonhuman actors and forces on the other"—a wide definition that allows Kreike to include in the category

“homes, stables, fields, fences, soils, crops and weeds, granaries and food stores, animals, orchards, wells, dams, canals, and sluices” (2). Because these natural and man-made features of the environment were essential for the logistics of competing armies, Kreike argues that environmental infrastructure was both the target and a tool of war that was constantly weaponized. The volume’s main contribution is to propose the concept of “environcide” to capture the practice of “intentionally or unintentionally damaging, destroying, or rendering inaccessible environmental infrastructure through violence” (3). In Kreike’s framework, “total war” is no longer a conflict that involves civilians as well as regular armies but “the simultaneous destruction of society and environment,” namely an unrestrained resource war that employs human and nonhuman elements (16). Such devastating involvement of the natural world, Kreike argues, characterized warfare in every period and locality, as violence took the form of spectacular episodes (massacres and genocides), everyday violence (armies’ ordinary practice of living off the land and harassing the peasantry), and structural violence (the slow but systemic destruction of ways of life).

The structure of the book alternates in-depth case studies with broader overviews of how environmental warfare characterized European and colonial conflicts in chronological order. Chapter 1 examines war practices during the Dutch Revolt against the Habsburgs in the late sixteenth century, in particular the destruction of dams and the use of strategic flooding. Chapter 2 shows that the Dutch rebels shared techniques of environmental warfare with their Spanish enemies. It argues that the Spanish conquest of the Americas followed patterns that were like those practiced in Europe and paved the ground for the spreading of diseases. Chapter 3 details the experience of environmental destruction in the Low Countries during the Thirty Years’ War and reframes the rise of urban centers during the Dutch Golden Age as the effect of the displacement and impoverishment of the rural population. Chapter 4 examines the contact between European colonizers and Native American communities in North America. Contrary to the colonial myth of the wilderness of the Americas, the chapter suggests that European settlements were successful when they seized Native American environmental infrastructure, such as croplands, villages, hunting, and fishing sites that were already cleared and selected by local populations. Chapters 5, 6, and 7 shift to the War of Spanish Succession in the Low Countries, France, Italy, and Spain to argue that practices of scorched earth and environcide continued in the eighteenth century despite the distribution of pamphlets, regulations on military conduct, and calls for limited warfare during the Enlightenment. Chapter 8 emphasizes how Native American populations should be considered war refugees that American settlers of European descent displaced and forced to turn into hunter-gatherers in hostile environments after the loss of their former environmental infrastructures. Even if armies stopped living off the land in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, purposeful destruction of crops, dwellings, and other environmental infrastructure continued to characterize warfare, as in the case of the Dutch conflict against the Aceh sultanate in Indonesia examined in chapter 9. Finally, chapter 10 examines the intentional use of starvation as a weapon of war during the Portuguese conquest of Southern Angola in the early twentieth century.

To provide a vast fresco of the lived experience of environmental war, the book relies on a wide range of sources, including war damage petitions, military instructions, colonial and missionary reports, and oral histories. The book has thought-provoking implications vis-à-vis several historiographical debates. It emphasizes the similarities of practices of environmental warfare across the world, rather than differences in ideology, such as the Enlightenment doctrine of limited warfare and Carl Schmitt’s philosophy of total war. It takes issues with the paradigms of ecological imperialism and settler colonialism when it suggests that environcide at the hands of Spanish *conquistadores* played as big a role as virgin soil contagion of new diseases in the collapse of Native American societies and that the frontier genocide in North America was part of a longer history of environcidal warfare.


Although the role of the environment is at the core of the argument of the book, Kreike downplays larger climatic explanations, such as the General Crisis of the eighteenth century during the Little Ice Age, to shed light on the agency and lived experience of perpetrators and victims of warfare. Finally, the book challenges the argument that total war was a modern phenomenon that emerged with the mobilization of civilians in the Napoleonic Wars or the mass warfare of the two world wars. To conclude, *Scorched Earth* is an ambitious project that successfully challenges the nature-culture divide. The

book is an important read that is bound to promote debates among scholars interested in the relationship between war, environment, and society across the globe.

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Lafferton, Emese. *Hungarian Psychiatry, Society and Politics in the Long Nineteenth Century*

New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 2022. Pp. 441.

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Emese Lafferton's latest book is the first-ever comprehensive monograph concerning the history of psychiatry in Hungary. It is the result of decades of research, including the author's PhD dissertation, defended in 2003 at the Central European University. Considering the significant attention that historical aspects of mental health, mental disorders, and psychiatry have gained in recent decades, the availability of such work about the Hungarian case is a major development.

Some related fields have enjoyed extensive research interest, like the history of the Budapest School of Psychoanalysis or eugenics in Hungary, to which we will return later. Still, as is the case in other fields of Hungarian medical history, most of the previous literature on the history of Hungarian psychiatry focuses on biographies of doctors or histories of particular institutions. As Lafferton underlines, those works are rich sources of data, but they seldom exhibit methodical considerations (6).

The work's title suggests a scope of interest in the "long 19th century"; nevertheless, the main emphasis is roughly on the decades between 1850 and the end of World War I. The book follows a timeline, though the narrative is thematically as well as chronologically structured. Thus, the methodology is also diverse in terms of approaches: from institutional history to intellectual history, from legal history to statistical analysis, or the quantitative breakdown of thousands of case histories. Even micro-history is applied in chapters where the author discusses the daily life in the institutions by invoking fascinating, sometimes tragic and sometimes amusing, stories and anecdotes.

The nineteenth century saw dramatic changes in every discipline of Western medicine. Psychiatry was no exception; indeed, a new medical speciality was born. Thenceforth, "the mad" were considered to be patients who were supposed to be cared for and treated by specialist medical professionals in contrast to the harsh custodial measures of the earlier times. Naturally, these developments influenced those Hungarian doctors who treated mental disorders and reshaped their debates and professional identity. These changes also, however, coincided with the tectonic changes undergone by the country during those decades. Emerging capitalism, urbanization, and their consequences on society all affected the environment Hungarian psychiatrists were working in and triggered new mental health concerns or shed new light on old problems.

The important locations under study are the Schwarzer Private Asylum and the state Lipótmező National Lunatic Asylum. Other significant institutes discussed are the Budapest University Clinic, where the author details the emergence of scientific psychiatry in Hungary (193–244), and the Transylvanian regional institute of Nagyszeben (now Sibiu, Romania). The book also discusses numerous other special institutes and asylums.

The author recounts the reception and influence of various intellectual trends and scientific developments—and their attendant discourses—in detail. Lafferton outlines a wide intellectual landscape of new paradigms, from biological psychiatry to psychoanalysis, from the ethical considerations regarding