

in the neighbourhood. I am inclined to think that these weird phenomena, when established, will be found to shade off into those other methods which I have been speaking of, and that no complete theory of either can be given until more is known about both. *This is one of the facts which causes me to be undogmatic about the certainty that all movements, even under contact, are initiated in the muscles.*" (The italics are mine.) Apparently he believes that a spirit, by utilising *potential* human energy, may directly make a table move in the absence of muscular contraction. What a shock Faraday's spirit would receive, could he realise that his experiments on table-tilting were thus ignored!

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## Epitome of Current Literature.

### 1. Physiological Psychology.

*The Classification of Dreams* [*Per la Classificazione dei Sogni*]. (*Psiche*, October-December, 1915.) Assagioli, Dr. Roberto.

The writer offers the following classification of dreams only as a preliminary sketch, and not as a complete scheme. The nature, structure, and characters of dreams are so diverse and complex that it is impossible to classify them conveniently from one point of view. It is necessary, therefore, to make as many classifications as there are characteristics by which one can, and ought, to distinguish dreams.

#### *I. Classification of Dreams according to their Origin.*

(a) Dreams in which the action of external sensorial stimuli (visual, auditory, tactile, etc.) is recognised. To this category belong also the dreams in which is recognised the influence exercised by atmospheric conditions, particularly by their sudden changes.

(b) Dreams in which the action of internal, organic sensorial stimuli is recognised—that is to say, the various buzzings and noises in the ears, and all the sensations proceeding from the activities of the various organs. Such sensations generally remain subconscious during waking hours, buried in the general organic sense of well- or ill-being (coenæsthesia), but during sleep they have a power of exercising an influence on dream-activity.

(c) Dreams in which the action of supernormal stimuli is recognised. Being ignorant of the true nature of these stimuli, we can for the present only deduce their existence from their effects.

(d) Dreams of an evidently psychical origin. Many dreams are clearly the production of the spontaneous psychical activity of the dreamer, without the co-operation of other stimuli. To this ample category belong dreams reproducing real events, and the dreams determined by emotional tendencies and conditions.

(e) Dreams with no evident origin. This is a provisional category, which we hope with the progress of science will soon become unnecessary.

*II. Classification of Dreams according to their Structure and their General Characters.*

(A) Dreams which are (a) Clear, and those which are (b) Confused. This distinction has a relative value, since the want of clearness may depend on the vague remembrance which we have of a dream when we wake, and not on its confusion when it is being evolved in the dream-consciousness. On the other hand, sometimes we seem to remember that the dream appeared to be confused in the dream-consciousness, and further, it is legitimate to admit that the fact that some dreams are impressed clearly on our memory, whilst others leave only a confused trace, depends in part on the greater or less intrinsic clearness of the dream itself.

(B) Dreams are (a) Vivid, or (b) Pallid. This is a distinction similar to the preceding, but which does not coincide with it.

(C) Dreams may be (a) Continued, or (b) Interrupted, or (c) Disconnected, according to their development. The disconnected dreams have a sudden changing of surroundings and argument, without, however, there being a true and proper interruption of the dream. These dreams deserve to be studied with particular attention, in order to discover the reason of such changes. There are facts which show that, in some cases at least, the unexpected changes depend on the action of external or internal stimuli.

From a strictly structural point of view, dreams may be divided into—

(D) (a) Simple, and (b) Complicated. And into—

(E) (a) Coherent, and (b) Incoherent.

(F) Dreams which are recurrent—(a) those which recur on the same night, and (b) those which recur on different nights. Not uncommonly these dreams have a special signification in the life of the dreamer, and deserve to be accurately studied.

*III. Classification according to Intellectual Characters.*

Although it is true that logic is not a strong point in dreams, it is not lacking entirely as some have asserted.

(A) Logical dreams, which in their relation to reality may be divided into (a) Probable, (b) Improbable, and (c) Impossible. In the latter, however, the dream remains coherent with its premises.

(B) Absurd dreams.

*IV. Classification according to Emotional Characters.*

There are two great classes of dreams: those which are developed without being accompanied by emotion, and those that are accompanied by it. All the emotions and sentiments of waking hours may appear in a dream, and it is useless to enumerate them. It is enough to divide dreams into (a) Pleasant, and (b) Painful.

*V. Classification according to Active Characters.*

(a) The dreamer is an actor in the dream—usually the chief actor. These dreams are generally dramatic, and rich in sensations and emotions.

(b) The dreamer is a passive spectator of the dream. As in the theatre, in some cases the spectator follows the spectacle with keen interest and emotional participation, in others with indifference, or in a critical attitude.

(c) The dreamer is an active spectator of the dream. In this class of dreams the dreamer has a vague idea that it is he himself who makes one or more of the *dramatis personæ* act or speak. Stepanow, who pointed out this kind of dream to the writer, gives the following example: "In a train the conductor was enumerating to a traveller the stations through which the train would pass. I heard a series of fantastical names, and at the same time I had a vague idea that I myself must have invented those silly names. My interest became more and more intense, until at last I awoke exhausted." This type of dream is interesting from a psychological point of view, and is connected with the problems of dream-consciousness, dissociation, and impersonation.

#### *VI. Classification according to the Attitude of the Dreamer in the Dream.*

(a) The dreamer believes fully in the reality of the scene which is, so to speak, unrolled before his eyes, and in which he appears to participate.

(b) The events of the dream cause the dreamer a more or less vivid sense of surprise.

(c) The dreamer occupies a critical position, and makes various attempts at interpreting or correcting the elements of the dream, which seem to him unlikely, impossible, or absurd.

(d) The rare cases in which the dreamer is fully conscious of dreaming.

#### *VII. Classification according to the Connection between the Psychological Life of the Dream and that of Waking Hours.*

(A) (1) Dreams in which the ideas, sentiments, and moral principles are the same as those of the dreamer in waking hours.

(2) Dreams in which the ideas, sentiments, and moral principles are different from those of the dreamer in waking hours.

(B) (1) Dreams which do not exercise any sensible influence on the mind of the dreamer during waking hours.

(2) Dreams, the emotional tone of which is prolonged for a certain time into the waking hours.

(3) Dreams which exercise a special action on the personality of the dreamer during waking hours.

(a) Beneficent dreams: These are useful dreams of various types. Some (Autognostic dreams) give us valuable information for the knowledge of ourselves, revealing latent bad points in our characters, or dispositions and capacities of which we were ignorant. Others (Admonitory dreams) put us on our guard against external or internal dangers and perils. Others (Elaborating dreams) continue the mental activity of waking hours, elaborating ideas, resolving problems, etc. Others, again (Creative dreams), in which the fancy creates products which can be utilised in artistic work. Finally, certain dreams which

can be classed among the Supernormal dreams (Telepathic and premonitory).

(b) Maleficent dreams: Some of these (Impressional dreams) are of a terrifying and menacing nature, and disturb the neuro-psychical equilibrium of the dreamer. Others (Pathogenic dreams) become confused with reality, and give rise to phobias, obsessions, deliriums, etc. Others, again (Criminal dreams), instigate the dreamer to crime.

### *VIII. Classification of Dreams according to their Signification.*

Although we are still a long way from knowing the signification of every dream, yet in a great number of them we can establish it with sufficient certainty to group them into various categories.

(A) (1) Dreams, the signification of which is represented in a direct manner.

(2) Dreams, the signification of which is represented under a symbolical form: This distinction was recognised in antiquity, and, indeed, in not a few cases the symbolical relation is so evident that there can be no doubt of the exactness of the interpretation. But, on the other hand, the greatest number are cases in which the symbolism is obscure and complex, which renders the interpretation difficult and uncertain. In these cases it is necessary to proceed with prudence, and not yield to the temptation of manufacturing a quantity of interpretations as ingenious and seducing as fantastic.

(B) (1) Dreams reproducing real events in an exact manner (Mnemonic dreams).

(2) Dreams reproducing real events in a more or less altered manner.

(3) Dreams representing the nature and action of an external or internal stimulus (Prodromic and diagnostic dreams).

(4) Dreams representing the actuality of desire or hope

(5) Dreams representing the actuality of fear.

(6) Dreams representing the actual internal or external situation of the dreamer.

(7) Dreams representing attempts at solving problems or actual situations, or dreams referring to ethical or religious ideals (Perspective or mystical dreams).

(8) Supernormal dreams: These are relatively rare, but their existence has been clearly demonstrated, particularly by the work of the Society for Psychical Research. The two principal types of this class of dreams are the telepathic and premonitory. These types are mentioned under the head of "Beneficent Dreams" (Class VII).

### *IX. Dreams of a Special Nature (Typical Dreams).*

(1) Agonising dreams: The most common types of these dreams are—those in which one wishes to move and cannot; those in which one is pursued; those in which one arrives late for a train or an appointment; those in which one desires to complete an action, but is impeded by an interminable series of obstacles.

(2) Erotic dreams.

(3) Religious dreams.

(4) Criminal dreams.

(5) Dreams of flying.

(6) Zooscopic dreams : The sight of animals in a dream may happen to normal persons, but it is proved that zooscopic dreams are especially met with in the cases of neuropathics and alcoholics.

*X. Phenomena connected with Dreams.*

(1) Prehypnic and posthypnic phenomena : By these one designs the vivid images which are perceived at the moment of going to sleep or at that of waking. These images acquire such vividness that they seem to be sensations, and they deserve the name of illusions or pseudo-hallucinations, because consciousness perceives them with all the characteristics of true sensations, although it is known that no real object corresponds to them. If one goes a step further, the illusion becomes a hallucination ; the dreamer believes in the objective reality of the images—in other words, he commences to dream. Prehypnic phenomena are the germs from which dreams may be evolved. Posthypnic phenomena work in the opposite direction. In passing from dreaming to waking, one often requires a certain time and a certain strength to recognise the hallucinatory nature of the dream-like images.

(2) "Dreaming with the eyes open" (Fantasies, Day-dreaming) : A great many persons, particularly young people, endowed with a rich imagination, give themselves up to "building castles in the air," to constructing veritable romances, in which they are themselves the protagonists, and which appease unsatisfied desires and aspirations. These day-dreams may assume such emotional and representative intensity, and such variety and richness, that they constitute a true world apart, and appear more coloured, more vivid, and, to a certain extent, more real than the external world.

(3) Products of artistic inspiration : These products often present affinities with dreams, either by the special state of abstraction from external reality—of "introversion" in which the artist finds himself at the moment of their manifestation—or by their subconscious elaboration, and by their involuntary irrefrangibility, or by the nature of their contents or signification.

(4) Ecstatic visions : Ecstasy is a special religious experience, a state of mystical consciousness in which visions sometimes, but not always, occur. To these visions the visionary attributes an objective or symbolic character according to circumstances.

(5) Hallucinations : True hallucinations—that is to say, the belief that the subjective images are sensations corresponding to real objects—constitute a normal and necessary character of dream-consciousness. They are, on the other hand, for the waking consciousness exceptional and pathological phenomena.

(6) Morbid dream states : These are met with among psychoneurotics, and especially among hysterical people, and are present in the hypnotic state, in some forms of somnambulism, and the "hypnoid," "twilight," confusional, and stuporose states. Another form of the dream state is found in cases of drunkenness produced by various toxic agents, such as alcohol, opium, hashish, etc.

(7) Delirium in mental diseases : This phenomenon may be considered from a psychological point of view as a fusion or confusion of

dream-consciousness and waking-consciousness. This is confirmed by the fact that sometimes delirium takes origin and sustenance from dreams.

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## 2. Clinical Neurology and Psychiatry.

- (1) *Shock and the Soldier.* (*Lancet*, April 15th and 22nd, 1916.)  
Smith, G. Elliot.
- (2) *Some Neuroses of the War.* (*Bristol Medico-Chirurgical Journal*, July, 1916.) Clarke, F. M.
- (3) *Mental and Nervous Symptoms following Naval Disasters* [*Les Troubles Nerveux et Psychiques Consécutifs aux Catastrophes Navales*]. (*Revue de Psychiatrie*, April, 1914.) Hensard, M. A.
- (4) *The Treatment of Some Common War Neuroses.* (*Lancet*, June 9th, 1917.) Adrian, E. D., and Yealland. L. R.

The first paper deals with the question of shock from a diagnostic, therapeutic, and social point of view. The whole subject of soldiers suffering from the protean manifestations of shock involves problems of far-reaching importance upon the social welfare of the whole nation after the war. The writer finds that ampler provision has been made for dealing with this problem in other countries, and he has collected the views of French and German authorities as to the various methods of dealing with such cases, with the hope that some solution may be arrived at for a situation which is becoming increasingly urgent.

Stress is laid upon the following points: The importance of diagnosis, that is, the discovery of a clear relation between the symptoms and the history, arrived at only by a sympathetic study of the patient from day to day; the necessity for a consideration of the development of the symptoms in order that the patient may be prevented from systematising his morbid sensations into a delusional scheme; the influence of previous emotional events, apart from the actual traumatic moment, upon the condition of the patient; and the need for a correct diagnosis to carry out a rational form of treatment.

The writer quotes Gaupp in regard to the question of the treatment of shock cases after discharge from hospitals. Any mention of a return to the Front produces a return of the nervous troubles. This manifestation must not be regarded as due to malingering, especially as it frequently occurs in men of proved courage. Return to the fighting line will almost inevitably render the soldier a life-long pensioner on the State, though he might be quite usefully employed in some other capacity. The solution of the problem would appear to be the setting-up of an organisation to place such individuals in positions to which they are most fitted, in view of their previous occupations and present mental capacity. Such an organisation must be scientific and controlled by skilled medical advice. It is useless and often harmful to merely detail these convalescents to garrison duty, which may be irksome and monotonous, but rather must an effort be made to find the right kind of occupation for each individual case.

The question of treatment is discussed under the headings of re-education, hypnosis, and isolation; and in conclusion emphasis is