Sigmund Freud

An Exhibition of
Original Editions, Autographed Letters,
and Portraits from the Library of
Haskell F. Norman

Stanford University Libraries
Sigmund Freud
Etching of Freud by Ferdinand Schmutzer (ca. 1920–1926). [Item 79.]
Sigmund Freud

AN EXHIBITION
OF
ORIGINAL EDITIONS, AUTOGRAPHED LETTERS, AND PORTRAITS
FROM
THE LIBRARY OF HASKELL F. NORMAN

with essays by
Haskell F. Norman, M.D., Roy A. Ginsburg, M.D., and Paul A. Robinson

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The context of the present exhibit is Freud the collector and Freud collected. The Stanford University Libraries, the Stanford Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, and the San Francisco Psychoanalytic Institute and Society are pleased to collaborate on the latter. Dr. Haskell F. Norman's collection of the works of Sigmund Freud is distinguished in several ways. Not only is it important for what it gathers together in one place, it is particularly noteworthy for the remarkable personal presence of Freud himself. In building such an extensive collection of inscribed and presentation copies of Freud's works, Dr. Norman has documented Freud the scientist, analyst, and scholar, as well as Freud the man.

Stanford and the Institute are most grateful to Dr. Norman for allowing us to exhibit selections from his Freud collection. Dr. Norman has advised and assisted us at every stage in the development of the exhibit, and we are deeply appreciative of his counsel and interest. Jeremy Norman and Diana H. Hook have been extremely helpful in assembling and describing the material. Carol Osborne's initiative in bringing Freud the collector to Stanford was key in preparing the way for us to present Freud collected. Without Carol and her colleagues in the Stanford Museum none of this would have been possible. The idea to mount an exhibit selected from Dr. Norman's collection in conjunction with the "Psychoanalysis and Culture" Conference was first suggested by Andrew Nadell, and we are grateful to him for helping launch the project. We are happy to acknowledge generous support from the Stanford School of Medicine, the Stanford Centennial Operating Committee, CIBA-GEIGY, and the Austrian Cultural Institute for the publication of this catalogue. Andrew Hoyem and the Arion Press cooperated with unseasonable deadlines to produce a typically excellent volume.

Sigmund Freud occupies a special place in our social and cultural life. Dr. Norman's collection reminds us of that place and of its continuing importance.

ROY A. GINSBURG, M.D.
President-Elect, San Francisco Psychoanalytic Institute and Society, and Director, Individual Psychotherapy Clinic, Stanford University

MICHAEL RYAN
Director of Library Collections, and Frances and Charles Field Curator of Special Collections, Stanford University Libraries
Etching of Freud at his desk by Max Pollak (1914). [Item 78.]
INTRODUCTION

As a student at the San Francisco Psychoanalytic Institute in the early 1950s, I purchased a first edition of Freud's *Die Traumdeutung* (1900), the single greatest book in the history of psychoanalysis, for the sum of $75.00. Although only 600 copies of the first edition were printed, it was not difficult to find a copy at the time. In appearance the copy was typical for a late nineteenth- or early twentieth-century science book, bound in cloth-backed boards of the period. I was proud to possess it and soon decided to collect all the original editions of Freud's various publications.

As a beginning collector, I was more concerned with price and quantity than with quality. Accordingly, I soon accumulated a large collection of relatively mediocre copies of Freud's books, acquiring some fine copies essentially by accident. Through experience I eventually learned that collectors should attempt to obtain copies in their original bindings in condition as fine as possible. Copies of Freud's books published before about 1922 were preferred in original printed wrappers as issued, and were of course much rarer in this state. This was especially true of those works published before 1906, since the earlier editions were published in editions of 1,000 or less. By 1922 Freud was world famous and had his own publishing house, the Internationaler Psychoanalytischer Verlag, which issued his books in a variety of bindings including printed wrappers, printed boards, publisher's cloth and in some instances leather bindings. Freud's publishing company issued some of his works in first editions as large as 12,000 copies.

Some of the notable copies I acquired largely by accident during my first decade of collecting were a presentation copy of *Über Coca* (1884), Mrs. Breuer's copy of *Studien über Hysterie* (1895), and a presentation copy of *Vorlesungen zur Einführung in die Psychoanalyse* (1916-17). This copy is notable in that it was inscribed to the minister, Otto Pfister, who was an early psychoanalyst. Over the years this was the only work inscribed by Freud to another psychoanalyst which I was ever able to obtain. I also purchased the autograph letters to Max Marcuse at this time. During this decade it seemed that there were not many collectors of Freud first editions, as I usually
obtained the books I ordered from catalogues. My experience was different during the next decade either because there were more collectors, or perhaps because I became more fastidious. However, I did obtain copies of many of the early Freud publications in original printed wrappers. By the late 1960s I also recognized the rarity and significance of collecting the offprints of Freud's original contributions to journals.

With few exceptions I purchased every autograph presentation copy offered, and like other collectors I have regretted those I declined. One was Freud's presentation to Breuer of the first Charcot translation (1886) with an especially fine inscription. At the time I thought it was outrageously overpriced. Today the price would seem quite fair. I also declined most of the numerous autograph letters offered on the grounds that they did not contain important scientific content, or were financially beyond my grasp. Freud is said to have written between 10,000 and 20,000 autograph letters, a high percentage of which were carefully preserved by their recipients. Only rarely have letters with significant scientific content appeared on the market. The letters written to the sexologist Max Marcuse were selected from the small group of Freud letters I acquired over the years. In general, I have not been an autograph collector or a collector of manuscripts.

Collecting Freud's iconography has been even more challenging than collecting his books. About thirty-five years ago I found the first of the two Schwerdtner medallions originally presented to Freud by his colleagues on his fiftieth birthday in 1906. It has a portrait of Freud on one side and Oedipus and Sphinx on the other side with the inscription from Sophocles' Oedipus Tyrannus—"Who divined the famed riddle and was a man most mighty." The second medallion was sold to me several years later by the same English dealer, Dr. Ernst Weil. Besides these medallions there were only three artists who made etchings of Freud from life: Herman Struck (1914), Max Pollak (1914), and Ferdinand Schmutzer (c. 1924–1926). Surprisingly, the rather grim-faced portrait by Schmutzer was Freud's favorite. In forty years only three copies of the Struck etching have come to my attention. I was very lucky to find the Struck etching with Freud's signature in a Danish bookseller's catalogue. The famous Pollak etching portraying Freud at his desk with his antiquities was already very scarce thirty years ago. I suspect that my copy
INTRODUCTION

came from the artist himself, who had emigrated to California. I have never seen a copy of that etching signed by Freud. The original Schmiitzer in my collection is marked “2/50.” I have been unable to find an original of the second and larger Schmiitzer etching. Mine is a posthumous strike. The work must have been very rare as early as 1936 since the copy used to illustrate the second edition of Freud’s autobiography was also a posthumous issue. The original portrait of Freud by an unidentified artist, but autographed by Freud, is the only work of its kind that I was ever able to obtain.

During these four decades of collecting Freud, I have eliminated more copies of his works from my collection than I have retained since my final objective was to preserve only the rarest and most interesting items. By the later 1950s I had broadened my scope to include all books of importance in the history of psychiatry, and by the 1960s I extended my interest to all the great ideas in science and medicine. The 2,600 classics now in my library have been fully described and annotated by Diana H. Hook and my son, Jeremy. The complete illustrated catalogue of my library will be published in two volumes in 1991 as The Haskell F. Norman Library of Science and Medicine. The descriptions in this exhibition catalogue have been based on descriptions prepared for that larger work.

As I reflect on four decades of collecting, it seems fitting that what began with the first edition of Die Traumdeutung should end with that masterwork. Last year I had the opportunity to purchase three books which Freud inscribed to his friend and mentor, the Berlin otolaryngologist Wilhelm Fliess. Fliess was Freud’s closest confidant during the years 1887-1901, the period of Freud’s most monumental discoveries. The books Freud inscribed to Fliess include Zur Auffassung der Aphasien (1891), Studien über Hysterie (1895) and Die Traumdeutung (1910). They are the only inscribed presentation copies of these three works I have ever seen. The first edition of Die Traumdeutung is documented in Freud’s letters as one of the first two copies of the book received by Freud in October 1899; the other copy was presumably retained by Freud for his own use. Aside from Freud’s own copy, this is the greatest extant copy of the first edition of Die Traumdeutung. When I began collecting Freud forty years ago, I might have dreamed of possessing such a book. If I had such a dream, it has finally been realized.
It is an honor and privilege to exhibit this collection at Stanford University in conjunction with the exhibit on *Sigmund Freud and Art*. I wish to express my thanks to the many people who made it possible. Roy Ginsburg, Chairman of the Symposium Committee for the Psychoanalysis and Culture Symposium, and his associates Michael Ryan and Carol Osborne initiated the plans. Roy Ginsburg and Paul Robinson also contributed to this catalogue. Michael Ryan helped with editing and arranged for publication. He also paved the way for my visits to the Freud collections at Columbia University and to the Freud Museum in London. Albert Solnit of New Haven, a member of the board of the Freud Museum, wrote a letter of introduction which no doubt helped make it possible for me to examine Freud's own copies of his books in London. Richard Wells, director of the Freud Museum, allowed me access to Freud's library, and provided other assistance. Michael Molnar especially offered useful information about the artists Herman Struck and Max Pollak. Michael Ryan later helped with information about the artist Ferdinand Schmutzer. John Gach helped with information about special copies and papers of Freud he sold. Anton Kris advised me of the inscription in the copy of the first edition of *Die Traumdeutung* presented to his grandfather, Oscar Rie.

This collection could not have been assembled without the assistance of many of rare book dealers such as Ernst Weil, F. Thomas Heller, Warren R. Howell, Emil Offenbacher, and Richard Gurney.

I also want to express my appreciation to the late Bernard Diamond, a psychoanalyst and bibliophile, who took a friendly interest and shared his knowledge when I was a neophyte.

My son, Jeremy, a rare book and manuscript dealer for the past twenty-five years, has been a companion in this quest. The fine presentation copies to Freud's friends, Dr. Leopold Königstein and Professor Emmanuel Löwy, passed through his hands, as did the original portrait drawing, signed, and the Schmutzer etching. His efforts have contributed a great deal to making this catalogue and exhibit possible.

Finally, without my wife Rachel's support, patience, and tolerance, none of this would have been possible.

Haskell F. Norman, M.D.
Crayon portrait of Freud by Major [?], (ca. 1929). [Item 81.]
Medallions in honor of Freud on his fiftieth birthday by Karl Schwerdtner (1906). [Item 82.]
Freud entered the University of Vienna in 1873 at age 17, obtained his M.D. degree in 1881, and continued as a postgraduate until 1886 when he went into private practice. During these years he gave evidence of earlier approaches to greatness.

While still a student and shortly after graduation, he published three papers on the histology of the nervous system (1877, 1878, 1882) which enabled him to arrive at the formulation that the nerve cell and fiber were one anatomical and physiological unit, the fundamental unit of the nervous system, which at that time had not been defined. This was presented at a lecture in 1882 or 1883 and later published in an obscure journal so that it was not seen by the appropriate scientists. Consequently, his discovery was ignored, and in 1891 Waldeyer-Hartz achieved world acclaim with his publication of "the neurone theory." This early achievement of Freud's was abetted by his work on tissue-preparation and staining techniques (1873, 1882). It seems that at an early age Freud had learned that the invention of new techniques or instruments made possible new discoveries, a wisdom he later applied successfully to psychoanalysis with the invention of the technique of free association.

In 1884 Freud published a paper, "Über Coca," on the properties of the drug cocaine, which had only recently been introduced into medicine. He planned to see if it could be used to alleviate heart trouble, nervous exhaustion, and morphine withdrawal. Freud demonstrated the soothing and stimulating properties of cocaine and anticipated the anesthetic potential of the drug. He suggested this to his colleague the ophthalmologist, Leopold Königstein. However, Königstein procrastinated and in Freud's absence the crucial experiments were done by another colleague, Karl Koller, who thereupon was recognized as the discoverer of local anesthesia.

Freud's monograph on cocaine achieved widespread success. Although he tried cocaine on a variety of illnesses—diabetes, motion sickness, etc.—to his dismay it seemed of no use, except as a topical anesthetic.
Freud began to take the drug intermittently as a stimulant, particularly during times of anxiety and depression while being separated from his fiancée. He also recommended it to her, sending her eight small doses in 1885. Though there is no evidence that she or he ever became addicted, the papers on cocoa gave Freud something of a name in Viennese medical circles. By 1886 there were reports of cocaine addiction from Germany, and Freud's reputation in Vienna suffered because of his earlier enthusiasm. He seemed to have stopped all use of cocaine in the 1890s.

During the years 1882-1885 Freud's researches were precisely directed to the anatomy of the brain stem, the medulla oblongata. In these papers he clarified several anatomical details hitherto obscure. In his third paper, published in 1886, he traced the root of the acoustic nerve to its location in the medulla. From this study and his earlier research on petromyzon he formulated the theory that the roots of all the posterior cranial nerves are homologous with all the posterior spinal nerves, a generalization which was subsequently generally accepted.

With Professor Ernst Brücke's help, Freud was awarded a traveling grant to Paris in 1885 to study with the renowned clinician, Jean-Martin Charcot. Freud initially studied children's brains in Charcot's pathological laboratory and then moved on to study hysteria, which Charcot had characterized as a genuine ailment. Charcot was then inducing and curing hysterical paralysis by direct hypnotic suggestion. Freud had been interested in hypnosis as a medical student, and Charcot's work encouraged his interest. Freud struggled between Charcot's opinion that the hypnotic state can be produced only in hysteries and Hippolyte Bernheim's theory that hypnosis is a matter of suggestion and that nearly everyone is susceptible to it. He translated both men's books and later visited Bernheim in Nancy in 1889.

From 1886-1900 Freud practiced and wrote on neurological subjects. In 1891 he published his first original book, *Aphasia, a Critical Study*. He critiqued the contemporary theories and approached the development of speech and language from a psychological point of view. He coined the word "agnosia" to describe defects in the ability to recognize objects, a term which has become incorporated in the aphasia literature. In 1886 Freud became affiliated with the First Public Institute for Children's Diseases in Vienna. His experi-
ence there became the basis for three books on infantile cerebral palsy: 1891, with the pediatrician Oscar Rie, *Clinical Studies on the Unilateral Cerebral Palsies of Children*; 1893, *An Account of the Cerebral Diplegias of Childhood* (in connection with Little's Disease); and 1897, *Infantile Cerebral Palsy*. In the 1891 book a choreatic paresis is described for the first time. Freud wrote abstracts and reviews on this subject until the turn of the century. By that time he was the world's leading authority on infantile cerebral palsy. Today he is regarded as one of the founders of pediatric neurology.

—HFN and RG
PRE-PSYCHOANALYTIC WRITINGS

1.


Freud's second piece of student research, on the function of the large Reissner cells in the spinal cord of the primitive fish Petromyzon, was assigned to him by Professor Ernst Brücke, head of the Institute of Physiology in Vienna, where Freud had been admitted in the fall of 1876. Freud showed that the Reissner cells "gave rise to the root-fibres of the posterior roots" (Abstracts of the scientific writings, p. 228). Freud's investigation of the Reissner cells appeared in print three months before the publication of his first original piece of student research, on the gonadic structure of the male eel. His preliminary report was followed eighteen months later by a more detailed study.

2.


"Dr. Syrski had recently recognized a paired, lobulated, grooved organ occurring in the abdominal cavity of the male eel as the animal's male sexual organ which had long been looked for. At Professor Claus's suggestion [Freud] investigated the occurrence and tissue components of these lobed organs at the zoological station in Trieste" (Abstracts of the scientific writings, p. 227). This was Freud's first research as a medical student, although it appeared in print three months after his work on Reissner cells in Petromyzon; his paper was the first of several to confirm Syrski's discovery. The eel's gonadic structure had been a puzzle since the days of Aristotle, as, due to the animal's migratory habits, no one had ever seen an adult male eel. Freud's article appeared in the April number of the Sitzberichte, but the front wrapper of the offprint is dated "März."
3.


44 leaves, [I.] 2-87 [I] pp. 4 folded lithographed plates by F. Schima after Freud.

PROVENANCE: Presentation copy, with Freud's inscription on title: "Seinem lieben Freunde/ Herrn Chem. Dr. J. Herzig/d. Verf." Josef Herzig (1853-1924), Professor of Chemistry at the University of Vienna, was one of Freud's lifelong friends.

Freud's third paper published as a medical student continued his research on the large Reissner cells in the spinal cord of the fish Petromyzon, which he determined to be "nothing else than spinal ganglion cells which, in these low vertebrates . . . remain within the spinal cord." Freud was aided in this research by his improved methods of tissue preparation: "By the use of a gold maceration technique it was possible to make a complete survey of the spinal ganglia of Petromyzon" (Abstracts of the scientific writings, p. 229). The information in his previous paper, as he discovered, had already been set forth in 1863 by the Russian biologist Kutschin, but Freud made a major contribution to evolutionary biology by showing that the spinal ganglion cells of Petromyzon, which "exhibit every transition between bipolarity and unipolarity" (Abst. sci. writings, p. 229), represent a transition between the bipolar cells of lower and the unipolar cells of higher vertebrates. Freud must have been pleased with this piece of research as he referred to it many years later in his Introductory Lectures.

4.

"Notiz über eine Methode zur anatomischen Präparation des Nervensystems." In: Centralblatt für die medicinischen Wissenschaften 17 (1879), pp. 468-469. Berlin: August Hirsch, 1879. 228 x 152 mm. Contemporary half cloth, gilt spine, marbled boards. First printing.

In 1877, while still a medical student, Freud modified and improved the Reichert formula (a mixture of nitric acid and glycerin) used for preparing nervous tissue for microscopical examination. This was Freud's first invention, preceding by a few years his gold chloride technique. Although neither invention received widespread acceptance, Bernfeld emphasizes that these two new techniques foreshadowed Freud's later invention of the techniques of free association.

5.

"Über den Bau der Nervenfasern und Nervenzellen beim Flusskrebs." Offprint
In his paper on the nerve cells of river crayfish, Freud was the first to demonstrate conclusively that the axes of nerve fibers are without exception fibrillary in structure. "The nerve cells, whose survival can be recognized from the granules in their nucleus, seem to be composed of two substances. One of these is reticular and is continued into the fibrils of the nerve fibres, and the other is homogeneous and is continued in their ground substance" (Abstr. sci. writings, p. 230). Bernfeld and others have stated that in this and his earlier researches, Freud recognized that nerve cells and fibers were a single unit, thus paving the way for the neuron theory a number of years before Waldeyer-Hertz announced it in 1891. Freud had in fact stated as much in a lecture before the Psychiatric Society in 1882. This lecture was published in the Jahrbuch für Psychiatrie (1884), a journal overlooked by the specialists in nerve histology.

6.


PROVENANCE: Presentation copy, with Freud's inscription on front wrapper: "Seinem lieben Freunde/Dr. Josef Herzig/d. Verf."

Freud's full account of his method of staining nerve tissue with gold chloride. A preliminary report had been published the same year in the Centralblatt für die medizinischen Wissenschaften.

7.


13 leaves, [1] 2-26 pp. Presentation copy, with Freud's inscription to Dr. August E. Vogl
Aside from his psychoanalytical treatises, Freud's essay on coca and cocaine is almost certainly his best-known work. The essay provided the best comprehensive review of the subject that had yet appeared, describing the early history of the coca plant and its use by South American native populations, the first European accounts of the plant in the sixteenth century, and the isolation of the alkaloid cocaine in 1859. Freud also presented his observations (with himself as subject) on the effects of the drug, describing its abolition of hunger and fatigue, the exhilaration and lasting euphoria it produced, and its supposed non-addictiveness. He would later bitterly regret this. A misapprehension and misuse of the drug contributed to the death of his dear friend Ernst von Fleischl-Marxow. Freud's suggestion that the drug might act by abolishing the effect of agencies that depress bodily feeling has since been confirmed, and his recognition of the drug's anesthetizing properties enabled ophthalmologist Carl Koller to revolutionize surgery by using cocaine as the first local anesthetic.


The third of Freud's three papers on the acoustic nerve, stemming from his investigation of the medulla oblongata. The paper "gave a detailed account of the origins and connections of the acoustic nerve, but its chief interest lies in Freud's demonstration that the nuclei of the fifth, eighth, ninth and tenth (sensory) cranial nerves, with their triple roots, are throughout homologous with the posterior root ganglia of the spinal cord" (Jones I, p. 226).


Freud's article, published in an encyclopedia for practicing physicians, described the therapeutic uses of hypnosis, which he recommended only for functional nervous disorders, illnesses of psychic origin, and addictions. He noted that the therapeutic value of hypnosis lay in the suggestions made during the treatment.
Herr Prof. A. W. C.

in dank u. herzlichen Glückwunsch

folia

Coca
Ueber Coca.

Von Dr. Sigm. Freud.

Secundararzt im k. k. Allgemeinen Krankenhaus in Wien.

1. Die Cocaernte.


1 O. R. Markham, Peruvian Bark, London 1880.
2 Nach Bibra's Schätzung: Die narkotischen Genussmittel, 1855.
3 Diese Beschreibung verdanke ich Herrn Prof. Vogl in Wien, welcher mir in begehenswürdigster Weise seine Notizen und Bücher über Coca zur Verfügung gestellt hat.
4 Wedde 11, Voyage dans le Nord de la Bolivie, 1858.

Centralblatt f. d. ges. Therapie.

Offprint of “On Cocoa” (1884) inscribed to Dr. August E. Vogel. [Item 7.]
Freud's treatise on aphasia, his first book, was little known or appreciated by contemporary neurologists, but Freud always regarded it as the most significant of his neurological writings. The work, subtitled "A critical study," was the first to criticize the foundations of the Wernicke-Lichttheim theory of aphasia, which held that losses of function in aphasia were caused by lesions to anatomically circumscribed centers corresponding to the various functions in language. Freud demonstrated that this concept led to localization schemes of labyrinthine complexity and did not fit with specific case studies; it was thus necessary to assume that the cerebral areas involved in language were less circumscribed. He argued that function could be reduced in an area, not simply cancelled, and drew upon the "de-evolutionary" theories of Hughlings Jackson to support his assertion. Departing from the mechanical views of the Helmholtz school, Freud approached the development of speech and reading from a psychological standpoint. He also made the important distinction between defects in the ability to name objects, which he called "asymbolic aphasia," and defects in the ability to recognize objects, for which he coined the term "agnosia."

Of the 850 copies of "Zur Auffassung der Aphasien" printed, 257 were sold over a period of nine years, after which time the remainder of the edition was pulped.

An exhaustive study, written with the pediatrician Oscar Rie, of unilateral paralysis in children. The work contained a review of the history and literature on the subject, along with an analysis of individual symptoms, pathological anatomy, differential diagnosis and treatment. "A new syndrome 'choreiform paresis' was identified here for the first time. It was further pointed out that many cases of what is apparently epilepsy in children belong to the group here studied, even if there is no actual paralysis." (Jones 1, p. 237).
12.


A companion to Freud and Rie's clinical study of the unilateral paralyses of children, completing Freud's investigation of all forms of childhood paralysis. The case histories were divided into four groups: 1) general cerebral spasticity (“Little's disease”); 2) paraplegic spasticity from bilateral cerebral lesion; 3) centralized chorea and bilateral athetosis; and 4) bilateral spastic hemiplegia. Freud showed that each of these afflictions could be caused either by congenital factors, factors active during birth, or factors subsequently acquired. He agreed with Königstein, the recipient of the present copy, that the strabismus accompanying infantile diplegia was due to retinal hemorrhage at or shortly after birth.

13.


By 1897, Freud had become a leading authority on the subject of children's paralyses, so it was natural that Carl Nothnagel, in planning his encyclopedia of medicine, should ask Freud to write the section on infantile cerebral paralysis. The work, which forms Band 9, 2 Theil, 2 Abtheil of Nothnagel's *Spezielle Pathologie und Therapie*, contains an excellent description of the various forms of cerebral palsy, with precise classification of the different spastic symptoms and references to the extra-pyramidal symptoms. “One concludes, after reading this monograph, that Freud, recognizing the diversity of opinion as to etiology, clinical forms, etc., wanted to develop a unitary formula to equate these and to set up a more or less recognizable disease entity. He tried to bury finally, once and for all time, Strümpell's theory that infantile cerebral palsy was an encephalitis” (Russin, p. 13).
To help him through the lean years, Freud undertook a number of translations in the 1880s. His translations of Jean-Martin Charcot and Hippolyte Bernheim reflected important intellectual commitments during that decade—in the case of Charcot to the French neurologist's ideas about hysteria, in the case of Bernheim to the conception of hypnosis advanced by the so-called Nancy School. The John Stuart Mill translation—according to Ernst Jones, “the only work, original or translation, he ever published that had no connection with his scientific interests”—provided the occasion for one of the earliest in a long line of pronouncements on women, in which Freud reveals himself as very much a man of the nineteenth century. Referring to Mill's essay on the emancipation of women, he wrote to his fiancée, Martha Bernays, in 1883:

[Mill] lacked in many matters the sense of the absurd; for example, in that of female emancipation and in the woman's question altogether. I recollect that in the essay I translated a prominent argument was that a married woman could earn as much as her husband. We surely agree that the management of a house, the care and bringing up of children, demands the whole of a human being and almost excludes any earning, even if a simplified household relieve her of dusting, cleaning, cooking, etc. He had simply forgotten all that, like everything else concerning the relationship between the sexes. That is altogether a point with Mill where one simply cannot find him human. His autobiography is so prudish or so ethereal that one could never gather from it that human beings consist of men and women and that this distinction is the most significant one that exists. In his whole presentation it never emerges that women are different beings—we will not say lesser, rather the opposite—from men. He finds the suppression of women an analogy to that of
negroes. Any girl, even without a suffrage or legal competence, whose hand a man kisses and for whose love he is prepared to dare all, could have set him right . . . Nature has determined woman's destiny through beauty, charm, and sweetness. Law and custom have much to give women that has been withheld from them, but the position of women will surely be what it is: in youth an adored darling and in mature years a loved wife.

—PR
TRANSLATIONS


Freud's only major non-scientific publication was a translation of four essays by John Stuart Mill, forming the twelfth volume of Gomperz's edition of the collected writings in German. The task, according to Jones, "was congenial work, since [Freud] was specially gifted as a translator. Instead of laboriously transcribing from the foreign language, idioms and all, he would read a passage, close the book and consider how a German writer would have clothed the same thoughts—a method not very common among translators."


Charcot was an influential figure in Freud's intellectual development. Freud studied with Charcot at the Salpêtrière from October 1885 until March 1886, and developed a lasting admiration for Charcot's mastery of neurology, his brilliance as a teacher, and his pioneering studies of hysteria and hypnosis. While still in Paris, Freud offered to translate the third volume of Charcot's Leçons sur les maladies du système nerveux, which had not yet been published. He performed his task so rapidly that his German translation, to which he added a preface and footnotes, was published several months before the original French version, which appeared in 1887.

Bernheim's fame as a psychologist attracted the attention of Freud, whose interests, during the late 1880s and early 1890s, were shifting from neurology to psychology. In 1888, Freud began translating Bernheim's *De la suggestion et de ses applications à la thérapeutique* (1886), to which he contributed an important preface containing a full discussion of the controversy between Charcot's Salpêtrière school and the Nancy school of Bernheim and Liebeault. The case histories in Vol. II were translated by Otto Springer, whose contribution Freud acknowledged in a "Translator's Postscript."

17.


A translation of Bernheim's *Hypnotisme, suggestion, psychothérapie, études nouvelles.*

18.


Freud’s edited translation of Charcot’s *Leçons du mardi de la Salpêtrière.* Freud added a preface and sixty-two footnotes in which he expressed his own opinions, sometimes in opposition to those of Charcot.
III.

The Beginnings of Psychoanalysis

From 1880 to 1882 Josef Breuer, a prominent Viennese physician treated a twenty-one-year-old woman, Anna O., for a multitude of hysterical symptoms including paralysis of her limbs (with anesthesias, visual and auditory disturbances), anorexia, and nervous cough, all of which commenced while she was nursing her father during his fatal illness. Breuer discovered that in a hypnotic state her symptoms would disappear after she recalled and verbalized with emotion (abreacted) the traumatic memories of their onset. Her symptoms were understood as substitutes in consciousness for the forgotten memories. This treatment was named by the patient “the talking cure” and by Breuer “cathartic hypnosis”.

In those days patients with psychoneuroses were treated by neurologists. During his first year of private practice Freud used the then traditional methods of treatment with limited success. These included electrotherapy and the so-called Weir-Mitchell cure (rest, isolation, massage, and a high-fat diet). He then began to use hypnosis but finding this also disappointing he turned to cathartic hypnosis. Breuer had confided his experience with Anna O. to Freud in 1882 but had been reluctant to publish his results. It was only after Freud had confirmed his discovery that he agreed to a joint publication in 1893 and later to the book, Studies on Hysteria in 1895. However, the collaboration was shortlived. When Freud began to observe that the forgotten memories were of a sexual nature it was too much for Breuer who had been quite shaken by his patient’s sexual attraction to him. A further development occurred when Freud abandoned hypnosis for what became his most important invention, the technique of free association. The patient, Fraulein von R., whom Freud had treated in 1892, marked the first case in which hysterical symptoms were cured by talking, not by hypnosis. While Freud and Breuer had both noted the erotic attachment between patient and therapist, Freud thought it a subject for investigation where Breuer found it distasteful. Studies on Hysteria was not
well-received in the medical world, though it was positively reviewed in selected cultural and literary journals.

Freud published a series of papers on psychoneurosis and hysteria between 1894 and 1899. The most important of these was “The Neuropsychoses of Defense” in which Freud introduced the concept that all neuroses are a defense against an unacceptable idea. At this time Freud divided neuroses into “actual” neuroses which consisted of physical sexual frustration that released chemical toxins in the body, and psychoneuroses, which were caused by sexual trauma in childhood and consisted of two types—hysteria (passive seduction) and obsessional neurosis (active seduction).

—HF N AND RG
THE BEGINNINGS OF PSYCHOANALYSIS

19.


Studies on Hysteria, which gives the first detailed account of the free-association method, is customarily regarded as the starting-point of psychoanalysis. Breuer had discovered the "cathartic" method of curing hysteria in the early 1880s while treating the patient who would later be immortalized as "Anna O."; this patient, who exhibited a myriad of severe hysterical symptoms, found that the symptoms would disappear when she told Breuer the details of their onset (Jones gives "Anna O.," whose real name was Bertha Pappenheim, a large share of the credit for inventing what she called the "talking cure"). Freud learned of this interesting case from Breuer shortly after its termination in June 1882; it made a strong impression on him, and a few years later he began using a combination of hypnosis and the cathartic method in his own neurological practice. From this Freud gradually developed the method of free association, in which the patient was encouraged to say whatever came into his mind however nonsensical or irrelevant, since Freud believed that the patient's statements provided clues about the network of associations already established in his mind, and would thus lead the therapist to the source of the patient's neurosis. "It was through devising the new method that Freud was enabled to penetrate into the previously unknown realm of the unconscious proper and to make the profound discoveries with which his name is imperishably associated. The devising of this method was one of the two great deeds of Freud's scientific life, the other being his self-analysis through which he learned to explore the child's early sexual life, including the famous Oedipus complex." (Jones 1, p. 265)

Jones relates (1, pp. 246-247) that Breuer's wife Mathilde became very jealous of Breuer's intense absorption in Anna O., and that her jealousy prompted Breuer to give up treating his interesting patient. This fact may explain why Mathilde Breuer's copy of Studien über Hysterie bears no presentation inscription from her husband—the book, which includes Anna O.'s case history, would have been a tangible reminder of a time when their marriage was under strain.

20.

Freud's first independent entry into the field of psychopathology. Having recognized the etiological link between hysterical symptoms and earlier traumatic sexual experiences, Freud was curious as to what part sexual-etiological factors played in the other forms of neurosis, then loosely grouped together under Beard's overly broad category of "neurasthenia." Defining a closely related group of symptoms under the term "anxiety neurosis," Freud proposed detaching this symptom complex from neurasthenia. He also described the sexual etiologies of both genuine neurasthenia (inadequate relief of sexual tension) and anxiety neurosis (no relief from an unbearable amount of sexual excitement).
Freud and Fliess

Freud's friendship and creative collaboration with Josef Breuer, so instrumental in the foundation of psychoanalysis, ended when Breuer rejected Freud's emphasis on the sexual etiology of neurosis. As Freud's admiration for Breuer declined, his friendship with the Berlin physician, Wilhelm Fliess, two years his junior, intensified. Of Freud's close collaborative friendships, that with Fliess was the longest and most passionate. The first editions of *Zur Auffassung der Aphasie*, *Studien über Hysterie*, and *Die Traumdeutung* on display reflect and document the closeness of their relationship.

Freud first met Fliess when the latter attended his lectures in neurology in Vienna in 1887. Fliess was a fascinating personality, a brilliant talker on biology, medicine, and the humanities. He had strong speculative and imaginative capacities and an aura of self-confidence. Freud found him very appealing and shortly after the 1887 lectures initiated a correspondence which lasted until 1901. In addition to letters, he sent him manuscripts, some in rough draft, others never published, proofs of his papers and books, and the books when published. The men supplemented their correspondence with occasional meetings, referred to as "congresses". Fortunately, Fliess preserved most of Freud's communications and these have provided information about Freud's speculations and his conclusions during the years of his greatest discoveries. Regretfully, Freud destroyed the Fliess letters, so we can only infer their content from Freud's letters.

Unlike Breuer, Wilhelm Fliess was very accepting of Freud's sexual theories. He himself was preoccupied with the idea of a link between the nasal mucosa and the genitals, stimulated by observations that the nasal mucosa swelled during sexual excitement and menstruation. Fliess also found that when he treated the nose with cocaine he could cure a whole variety of symptoms including migraine, diverse neurologic pains, and other respiratory, circulatory and gastrointestinal problems. These were either organic
(of infectious origin) or functional (sexual). It was the latter suppositions that made Freud's ideas plausible. In 1893 he published a paper on the nasal reflex neurosis, and eventually in 1897 expanded his thoughts into a book. Fliess was also convinced that he had the key to many biological phenomena. Based on the length of the menstrual cycle (twenty-eight days), and the interval between the close of menses and the onset of the next (twenty-three days), he established a system of periodicity by which he could diagnose a wide range of phenomena, including the ability to predict the dates of illness and death.

Freud found in Fliess a companion who not only was receptive to his ideas but also offered encouragement, suggestions, and constructive criticism. He also served as Freud's physician. Freud's appreciation was regularly conveyed in his communications. For example, on May 21, 1891, after he had learned of a favorable review Fliess had written of one of his papers, Freud informed Fliess: "In a few weeks I shall afford myself the pleasure of sending you a small book on aphasia, for which I myself have a great deal of warm feeling. In it I am very impudent, cross swords with your friend Wernicke, with Lichtheim, and Graskey, and even scratch the high and mighty idol Meynert. I am very curious to hear what you will say about this endeavor. In view of your privileged relation to the author, some of it will sound familiar to you." On August 17, 1891: "Dear tardily writing friend. At last! I was afraid of having spoiled things with you through aphasia; now I look forward to your appreciation just as much as to your objections."

The copy of Studien über Hysterie which Freud presented to Fliess was his own personal copy. It bears the signature "Dr. Freud 3/5/95" on the cover. On the title page it is inscribed to Fliess.

On January 1, 1896, in a letter congratulating Fliess on the birth of his son Robert, Freud wrote: "Your kind should not die out, my dear friend, the rest of us need people like you too much. How much I owe you solace, understanding stimulation of my loneliness, meaning to my life that I gained through you, and finally even health that no one else could have given back to me. It is primarily through your example that intellectually I gain the strength to trust my judgment, even I am left alone—though not by you—and, like you, to face with lofty humility all the difficulties that the future may bring. For all that accept my humble thanks! I know that you do not need me as much as I need
you, but I also know that I have a secure place in your affections.” Freud’s praise for Fleiss’s scientific work was also lavish. For example, on July 30, 1898 he refers to Fleiss as the “Kepler of biology.”

Between 1895 and 1900, when he studied his dreams and pursued his self-analysis, Freud confided in Fleiss his experiences and his discoveries including the unconscious, the wish fulfillment aspect of dreams, the concept of repression, the importance of infantile sexuality, and the Oedipus complex.

Although Freud did not dedicate a book again after his disappointment with Breuer, he acknowledged his admiration for Fleiss by referring to him as the “godfather” of Die Traumdeutung and planned to send him a copy as a birthday present in October 1899. That this gift was acknowledged was stated in his letter of October 27, 1899: “Thanks for your kind words in response to my sending you the dream book. I have long since been reconciled to the thing and await its fate in resigned suspense. . . . Incidentally, it has not yet been issued; only our two copies have so far seen the light of day.” Freud’s inscription in the book may be translated, “For my dear Wilhelm.”

It was not long after this point of intimacy that the friendship declined. During their last “congress” in 1900 there was a quarrel in which each apparently challenged the validity of the other’s work. Fleiss must have stated that his biological explanation left no place for Freud’s theories. This we infer from Freud’s later letter of August 7, 1901 in which he stated, “You take sides against me and tell me that ‘the reader of thoughts merely reads his own thoughts into other people’ which renders all my efforts valueless.” Still Freud tried to preserve the friendship by suggesting that they write a book together on “human bisexuality.” Fleiss had suggested that the solution to neurosis lay not in sexuality, as Freud had stated, but in bisexuality. However, Fleiss declined the overture.

A few years later things worsened between them. In 1904 Fleiss accused Freud of assisting in the plagiarism of his ideas on bisexuality. This led to a rather open dispute between the two and ended further communications. Each nonetheless maintained an interest in the other’s publications. Fleiss referred patients for psychoanalysis during the rest of his life, while Freud kept Fleiss’s photograph on the wall of his apartment.

—HFN
21.


PROVENANCE: Presentation copy, with Freud's inscription to Wilhelm Fliess (1858-1928) on the front wrapper: "Herrn. Dr. Wilh. Fliess/mit herzlichem Grusse/der Verf." Fliess was Freud's closest friend during the decade of the 1890s. In a letter to Fliess dated 2 May 1891, Freud promised to send Fliess "in a few weeks... a small book on aphasia, for which I myself have a great deal of warm feeling. In it I am very impudent, cross swords with your friend Wernicke, with Lichtheim and Grashey, and even scratch the high and mighty idol Meynert. I am very curious to hear what you will say about this endeavor." This copy remained in the Fliess family until acquired by Jeffrey Masson, editor of the Freud-Fliess correspondence; it was subsequently purchased from Masson by Dr. Norman.

22.


PROVENANCE: Presentation copy, inscribed to Wilhelm Fliess on the title: "Seinem theuern Wilhelm Fliess/der [illegible]." with a line drawn down to circle Freud's printed name. Signed "Dr. Freud/3/5 95" on the front cover, which is also inscribed with a passage from a German translation of Macbeth (Act IV, final scene) in Freud's hand; Jones (I, p. 321) states that Freud "constantly quoted" Shakespeare to Fliess during the period of their friendship. This copy remained in the Fliess family until it was acquired by Jeffrey Masson, editor of the Freud-Fliess letters; it was subsequently purchased from Masson by Dr. Norman.

23.


PROVENANCE: Presentation copy, inscribed to Wilhelm Fliess on the title: "Seinem theuern Wilhelm/zu 24 Okt 1899." In a letter to Fliess dated 27 October 1899, Freud thanked Fliess for
ZUR AUFFASSUNG
DER
APHASISIEN.

EINE Kritishe Studie
VON
DR. SIGM. FREUD
Privatdocent für Neuropathologie an der Universität Wien.

Mit 10 Holzschnitten im Texte.

LEIPZIG UND WIEN.
FRANZ DEUTICKE.
1891.
STUDIEN
ÜBER
HYSTERIE
VON
DR. JOS. BREUER UND DR. SIGM. FREUD
IN WIEN.

LEIPZIG UND WIEN.
FRANZ DEUTICKE.
1895.

Presentation copy of Studies on Hysteria to Wilhelm Fliess. [Item 22.]
his "kind words in response to my sending you the dream book," and noted that "it has not yet been issued; only our two copies have so far seen the light of day." Jones (I, p. 395) states that the book "was actually published on November 4, 1899, but the publisher chose to put the date 1900 on the title page." This copy was acquired from Fliess's descendants by Jeffrey Masson, who subsequently sold it to Dr. Norman.

*Die Traumdeutung* contains Freud's general theory of the psyche, which he had developed during the past decade. Using his refined understanding of the operation of the unconscious, Freud interpreted dreams on the basis of his wish-fulfillment theory and discussed displacement (the appearance in conscious thought of symbols for repressed desires), regression, Oedipal impulses and the erotic nature of dreams. Although this was his first major work on normal psychology, Freud gave an unprecedented precision and force to the idea of the essential similarities of normal and abnormal behavior, opening up the door to the irrational that had been closed to Western psychology since the time of Locke.

Only 600 copies of the first edition of *Die Traumdeutung* were printed, and the book sold so slowly that the second edition did not appear until nine years later. Its modest reception belied the extraordinary impact it would come to have on twentieth-century thought.
DIE
TRAUMDEUTUNG
VON
DR. SIGM. FREUD.

"FLECTERE SI NEQUEO SUPEROS, ACHERONTA MOVEBO."

LEIPZIG UND WIEN.
FRANZ DEUTICKE.
1900.
Freud’s major theoretical positions defy simple summary. Written over a period of thirty years, they changed and evolved, incorporating or rejecting earlier theories. They are not informed by a concern for overall consistency. Freud’s theories embodied his ideas of the moment—they represent the conjectures of the first practicing psychoanalyst as his clinical and psychological knowledge grew and changed.

During the years prior to 1900, Freud observed that patients often recounted their dreams in their free associations. As he had been interested in dreams for some time, Freud was stimulated to study his own dreams. These discoveries and his self-analysis were documented in his correspondence with Fliess. From these letters we learn that he discovered in 1895 the hidden meaning of the dream as the disguised fulfillment of an unconscious wish. This was the period of Freud’s greatest creativity. In 1900, he published Die Traumdeutung, which was to revolutionize Western thought. Here he announced not only his understanding of the meaning of dreams, but also the mechanism of their formation. He deduced their wish-fulfilling, erotic nature and described what was later to be called the Oedipus complex, the sexual attraction of the child for the parent of the opposite sex and the rivalrous hatred for the parent of the same sex. He presented his theory of the mind as composed topographically of a conscious, a preconscious, and an unconscious. The book also paved the way for future cultural applications. Since most of the dreams are Freud’s own, the book has served in part as his autobiography.

With the Interpretation of Dreams Freud had shown how unconscious processes influenced conscious thought in normal behavior. The demonstration was continued in 1901 with the publication of the Psychopathology of Everyday Life, in which he used slips of the tongue and pen (today called Freudian slips), the forgetting of words and proper names, and other similar lapses. In his 1905 book, Jokes and the Unconscious, he described the psychological processes and techniques of jokes and their purpose.
What Freud initially discovered with neurotics, he was able to show applied to normals as well, the difference being one of degree. In his *Three Essays on a Theory of Sexuality* (1905) he announced his theory of infantile sexual and psychosexual development. The sexual instinct in the infant evolves through stages described by their source as oral, anal, phallic, and genital. The concept of "libido" as the dynamic energy of the sexual instinct was also introduced. The aim of the instincts is for satisfaction, and the objects are the parents. Conflicts about satisfaction could occur at any stage, and the outcome would determine the difference between the normal and the neurotic. Freud used to say that he was describing what every nursemaid already knew. Nonetheless, these theories caused considerable controversy and criticism for years.

By 1914 Freud found it necessary to modify his instinct theory. Until this time conflict was envisaged between the sexual instincts, which were object-directed and served the preservation of the species, and the ego instincts, which were nonsexual and responsible for self-preservation. Observations on neurotics, children, and primitive tribes forced the recognition that the libido was not always directed to the outside world (parents or other objects), object-libido, but that a considerable current could be linked to the self (ego-libido). This latter state was referred to as narcissism. Self-love in childhood was a stage of development which was given up because of criticism and education. It was substituted in the mind by an institution which reflected these experiences, the ego-ideal. The concept of narcissism enabled Freud to find meaning in phenomena ranging from self-esteem to psychoses.

A further modification occurred in *Beyond the Pleasure Principle* (1920). Instead of the unitary sexual instinct, Freud now proposed a dual instinct theory. This was a mainly biologically-oriented set of hypotheses about a life instinct, Eros, and an opposing death instinct, Thanatos. Ostensibly this was to explain clinical observations of patients with self-destructive tendencies, masochism, and sadism. This last theory has not been well-received by many of Freud’s followers. However, most analysts today do accept a dual instinct theory comprised of the sexual instinct and an aggressive instinct.

*The Ego and the Id* (1923) inaugurated a new view of the mind and set psychoanalysis on a new course which has continued to this day. Known as ego
SIGMUND FREUD

psychology, this represents a more complex view of the mind than is found in the topographic scheme in *The Interpretation of Dreams*. Freud defined the Ego as that part of the mind that deals with reality. It is both conscious and unconscious and mediates between the other parts of the mind. The Id is defined as the reservoir of the instincts, sexual and aggressive, which push for chronic and constant discharge. A third institution, the Superego, which is a part of the Ego and also conscious and unconscious, contains elements from identification with parental figures, aggression from the Id, infantile narcissism, and the residue of the Oedipus complex. The Superego is closer to the Id than to the Ego, and its problems often predominate in adult neurotics. It is the reservoir of the conscience function and the source of the sense of guilt, both conscious and unconscious.

*In Inhibitions, Symptoms, and Anxiety* (1926), Freud revised his original theory of anxiety which suggested that undischarged libido accounted for excessive anxiety, an intoxication theory. Now the seat of anxiety is no longer the Id but the Ego, and anxiety is a signal by the Ego that a psychological danger threatens.

Freud continued to write until 1939, but his major positions were articulated by the late 1920s. Psychoanalytic theory has remained in flux, marked by vigorous internal debate, but it is a tribute to Freud that so many of his theories are current today, supported by the cumulative clinical experiences of analysts practicing for almost ninety years.

—RG AND HFN
THEORETICAL WRITINGS

24.


25.


Laid in is a letter dated 18 December 1957 from Freud's daughter, Anna, to a Mrs. Laufer, confirming the authenticity of the signature.

26.


In the "Psychopathology of Everyday Life," Freud hypothesized that the forgetting of words and proper names, slips of the tongue and pen, and other such apparently trivial acts were in fact due to the influence of unconscious processes, rooted in infancy, interfering with conscious functioning. This idea was at first sharply criticized by other psychologists, but has since become the most widely accepted and generally known of Freud's teachings (witness the popularity of the term "Freudian slip"). Freud's article was expanded and published in book form in 1904.

27.

Zur

Psychopathologie des Alltagslebens

(Über Vergessen, Versprechen,
Vergreifen, Aberglaube und Irrtum)

Von

Prof. Dr. Sigm. Freud
in Wien

Nun ist die Luft von solchem Spuk so voll,
Dass niemand weiss, wie er ihn meiden soll.
Faust, IL T. V. Abs.

BERLIN 1904
VERLAG VON S. KARGER
KARLSTRASSE 15.
DREI ABHANDLUNGEN ZUR
SEXUALTHEORIE

VON

PROF. DR. SIGM. FREUD

IN WIEN

LEIPZIG UND WIEN
FRANZ DEUTICKE
1905

Verlags-Nr. 1124.

Three Essays on the Theory of Sexuality, inscribed to Emmanuel Löwy. [Item 30.]

As he did for *Die Traumdeutung*, Freud revised, updated and expanded the later editions of *Zur Psychopathologie des Alltagslebens*.

28.


67 leaves, [2] [1-3] 4-132 pp. Presentation copy, with Freud's inscription to Dr. Leopold Löwenfeld on the front wrapper: “Seinem verehrten Freund/Dr. L. Löwenfeld/der Verfasser/22.6.07.”

29.


Rie, the brother of Dr. Oscar Rie, was a participant with Freud in the Saturday evening card games held at the house of Prof. Leopold Königstein.

30.


*Three Essays on the Theory of Sexuality* is second only to the *Interpretation of Dreams* in its importance to Freudian theory. The work sets forth Freud's theory of infantile sexuality and psychosexual development, in which he postulated the existence of infantile erogenous zones, stated that an infant's first sexual objects are its parents, and described the four stages of human sexual development: oral, anal, phallic and genital. That infants and children experience sexual feelings had long been observed by parents and nursemaids, yet the analysis of this delicate subject in a scientific treatise centered Freud in a storm of criticism that has not yet fully abated.
THEORETICAL WRITINGS

31.


32.


Freud’s study of jokes and their relation to the unconscious constitutes his major contribution to the subject of aesthetics. He described the psychological processes and techniques of jokes, which he likened to the processes and techniques of dreamwork; discussed the purpose of jokes, distinguishing between harmless and tendentious ones; and established the psychogenesis of jokes in the young child’s pleasure in playing with words as if they were objects. 1,050 copies of the first edition were printed, which took seven years to sell.

33.


The first English translations of four chapters from Studien iiber Hysterie, as well as the first English versions of “Die Abwehr-Neuropsychosen” (The defense neuro-psychoses), “Über die Berichtigung, von der Neurasthenie einen bestimmen Symptomenkomplex als Angstneurose abzutrennen” (On the right to separate from neurasthenia a definite symptom-complex as “anxiety neurosis”), “Weitere Bemerkungen über die Abwehr-Neuropsychosen” (Further observations on the
DER WITZ
UND SEINE BEZIEHUNG
ZUM UNBEWUSSTEN

VON
PROF. DR. SIGM. FREUD
IN WIEN.

LEIPZIG UND WIEN
FRANZ DEUTICKE
1905.

Verlags-Nr. 1128.

Jokes and Their Relation to the Unconscious, inscribed to Emmanuel Löwy. [Item 32.]
defense-neurosis), "Über Psychotherapie" (On psychotherapy), "Meine Ansichten über die Rolle der Sexualität in der Ätiologie der Neurosen" (My views on the role of sexuality in the etiology of the neuroses), and "Hysterische Phantasien und ihre Beziehung zur Bisexualität" (Hysterical fancies and their relations to bisexuality).

34.


"In dealing with such ultimate problems as the origin of life and the nature of death Freud [in Jenseits des Lustprinzips] displayed a bokiness of speculation which was unique in all his writings; nothing that he wrote elsewhere can be compared with it" (Jones 2, p. 287). The work introduces the final phase of Freud's theory of mind: the repetition-compulsion, previously noted as a clinical phenomenon, is now described as an instinct; the fundamental dichotomy between Eros (life instinct) and the death instinct is here first identified; and the primary aggressive or destructive instinct is no longer identified as part of the ego, but rather as a manifestation of the death instinct.

35.


The Ego and the Id was one of Freud's last major contributions to psychoanalytic theory. It offered a new picture of the structure of the mind, introducing the threefold division of ego, superego and id, broadening the concept of the unconscious mind to include more than just repressed material, distinguishing between unconscious and preconscious, and recognizing the unconscious portions of the ego and superego.

36.

SIGMUND FREUD

One of the most important of Freud's writings. *On Narcissism*, originally published in 1914, introduced the first of two fundamental changes Freud was to make in his theory of instincts: namely, that the ego was heavily invested with libido. He drew the new distinction between ego-libido (narcissism) and object-libido, and redefined the ego's self-preservative instinct as a narcissistic part of the sexual instinct. He also introduced the concept of ego ideal, an agency invested with narcissistic libido, along with the self-observing agency linked to the ego ideal; these formed the basis of Freud's later concept of the superego. *On Narcissism*, first published in Vol. 6 of the *Jahrbuch für psychoanalytische und psychopathologische Forschung*, was the scientific counterpart to Freud's *History of the Psychoanalytic Movement*; it dealt with some of the scientific differences between Freudian theory and the theories of Adler and Jung, particularly with regard to Adler's "masculine protest" and Jung's non-sexual libido.

**37.**


Freud's comprehensive study of the various problems concerning anxiety was his most important clinical contribution to psychoanalysis in the years following World War I. The work was inspired by Rank's theory, with which Freud disagreed, of the primal importance of the birth trauma in relation to anxiety. Freud revived his early concept of "defense," which he distinguished from "repression," and redefined repression as simply one of the forms of defense used by the ego. He examined the nature of the dangers, either real or unknown, with which anxiety is concerned; attempted to determine the precise relationship of neurotic symptoms to anxiety; and discussed the relation of anxiety to mourning and physical pain.
VI.

Case Histories

Although there are relatively few full case reports in Freud’s corpus, they are of great historical interest because they are the first reports of psychoanalytic cases and because they provide insight into Freud as a practicing psychoanalyst. Presented in an often spellbinding style, the case studies bring alive the consulting room where Freud developed, modified, and ultimately published his theories. They convey the immediacy of experience and provide a living history of the analyst and his modus operandi. Indeed, the case reports in Studies on Hysteria read like intellectual whodunits. By questioning and probing the patients, Freud enabled them to link some past event with a current symptom; when the past sexual event is illuminated and feelings consciously experienced, the current symptom is eliminated. Freud first conceived the idea of resistance when his patients reported that during analysis nothing came into their heads. He hypothesized that this was a way of avoiding talking about sexual or other unacceptable ideas. It was with these patients that Freud first developed Breuer’s ideas that talking could bring about changes in symptoms and in emotions.

“Fragments of an Analysis of a Case of Hysteria” (the “Dora Case”) published in 1905 reported a clinical failure out of which emerged the theories of transference and resistance. Dora was an eighteen-year-old girl who came to Freud with symptoms that included a nervous cough, an hysterical whisper, and intervals of depression and hostility. She blamed her symptoms on a sexual advance by an older family friend, Herr K., which he denied. In the treatment, Freud discovered Dora’s feelings of attraction for Herr and Frau K. and for her father—all struggling for attention and producing guilty feelings within Dora. Dora ended the analysis abruptly after eleven weeks.

The most important aspect of the Dora case was not Freud’s premature reconstruction of Dora’s wishes and defenses as expressed in dreams and symptoms, but his ignoring her repetition with him of her relationship with her
father and with Herr K. During psychoanalytic treatment, the power of the neurosis recreates a class of unconscious mental structures called transferences. Transferences are new editions of the impulses and fantasies that are aroused during the progress of the analysis and that replace some earlier person by the person of the analyst. Resistances are an individual's characteristic mode of defense in warding off transferences.

The story of "Little Hans" ("Analysis of a Phobia of a Five-Year-Old Boy") in 1909 was the first case of child analysis, and it was carried out by the boy's father. Little Hans was a five-year-old boy who did not want to leave the house because he feared being bitten by a horse. He had persistent castration anxiety and constantly spoke about his "widdler." His father, using Freud as a supervisor, had daily meetings with Hans. What intrigued Freud was that because of the patient's age the unconscious seemed directly accessible. Freud was able to explain that Hans' phobic anxiety was really secondary to his repressed aggressiveness. The horse phobia had multiple meanings for Hans: castration, the fear of his father dying, the birth of his sister, and the mystery of procreation. With the analysis, Hans' fears receded, and he continued to function without phobic symptoms during the rest of his life.

"Notes on a Case of Obsessional Neurosis" ("The Rat Man") tells the story of a twenty-nine-year-old lawyer that Freud saw for eleven months, beginning in 1907, for obsessions and compulsions that had been present since childhood and that were now severely inhibiting him. The obsessions centered on a fear that rats would bore their way into the anus of a woman he admired and also into the anus of his dead beloved father. The case shows Freud at his best, elucidating tortured thought processes and revealing deep sensitivity to the patient's state of mind. It contains both a case history and a theoretical chapter on the psychical mechanisms involved in obsessional neurosis. Freud distinguished between repression in hysterical neurosis, where amnesia rules but mental and/or bodily symptoms prevail, and obsessional neurosis, where events are remembered but affect is dissociated. Freud's explanation of the mechanisms of obsessional thought has not been surpassed. He described the mechanisms of doubting and compulsion and their key roles in obsessional neurosis. Doubting is related to the deep ambivalence between love and hate that dominates the patient's life, while compulsion comes from an attempt to
CASE HISTORIES

overcompensate for the doubt. Freud characterized this type of neurosis as a regression from action to thought, involving the sexualization of thinking itself. The patient’s actions or thoughts usually represent both an erotic act and a defense against it.

“From the History of an Infantile Neurosis” (“The Wolf Man”) is the most elaborate of Freud’s case histories. In 1910, Freud began treating a wealthy young Russian, who had become unable to function independently because of an infection of gonorrhea several years earlier. The patient is called the “wolf man” because of a recurrent dream in which wolves sit silently in a walnut tree outside his bedroom window. The first years of the treatment produced little change. When the patient became very attached to him, however, Freud said the treatment had to come to an end at a fixed date. Under this pressure, the patient’s resistance and his attachments to the illness gave way. Freud concluded that the length of analysis and the quantity of material are secondary to the strength of resistance. From this case history Freud went on to discuss how scenes from early infancy are not always recollections of real events, but products of the imagination that are intended to serve as a symbolic representation of real current wishes and interests.

In 1911, Freud published “Psychoanalytic Notes on an Autobiographical Account of a Case of Paranoia (Dementia Paranoides),” the Schreber case. Schreber was a well-known German judge who had a psychotic episode at age forty-two that lasted several months. He had a second psychotic breakdown eight years later and had to be hospitalized for nine years. He wrote Memoirs of a Neuropath to explain his delusional beliefs and to argue for his release from the sanatorium. Schreber had a complicated theory of the universe, complete with an intricate theology, and a notion of salvation that required his change of sex. He had overwhelming physical symptoms and anxieties, delusions, and auditory hallucinations.

Freud’s interpretations of Schreber’s confidences represent the first time that anyone had ever penetrated the dynamics of psychosis. On the basis of this material, Freud was able to show that the symptoms and delusional beliefs were an attempt at restitution with the world after the patient has withdrawn. The patient was trying to reconstruct the world, after a profound narcissistic regression. Freud argued that paranoia typified the psychological defenses of
projection and reversal. The “core of the conflict in the paranoia of a man” is a “homosexual wish-fantasy of loving a man.” “I love him” becomes translated via projection and reversal into “I hate him.” Schreber had come to hate his enemies so deeply because he had loved them so much.

Collectively, these cases have set the direction for the evolution of psychoanalytic thought and practice for almost a century. More than that, they have assumed a life of their own as a body of literature, well-integrated into the general intellectual environment of the twentieth century.

—RG
CASE HISTORIES

38.


The first of Freud's important series of psychoanalytical case histories was the well-known "Case of Dora," an analysis of an eighteen-year-old girl suffering from several hysterical symptoms caused by her excessive attachment to her father and an unwelcome proposition from the husband of her father's mistress. Freud's analysis centered around two recurring dreams that illuminated the sexual basis of Dora's hysteria; he published the case history "to illustrate the value the interpretation of dreams had for analytic treatment" (Jones 2, p. 288).

39.

PROVENANCE: Otto Rank, with his signature in pencil on the volume title.

The first published account of a child analysis. Freud published the case history of "Little Hans" as an illustration of the same infantile sexual conflicts that Freud had demonstrated in his adult patients. The five-year-old child, whose parents were both adherents of Freud, had developed a phobia of horses, for which his father treated him under Freud's supervision. It was discovered that the child had been threatened with castration by his mother—to whom he was very sexually attached—for playing with his penis. The horse was a substitute for the child's father, whose punishment he feared because of his repressed love for his mother and his rivalrous feelings toward his father.

40.
"Bemerkungen über einen Fall von Zwangersneurose." ["Notes on a Case of


Freud’s study of obsessional neurosis grew out of his analysis of the famous “Rat Man,” a young Viennese lawyer suffering from various types of compulsive behavior. Freud linked this type of neurosis to events in infantile sexual life, and highlighted its characteristic symptoms: extreme separation of love and hate, repression of key traumatic incidents, high degree of superstition, and the two cardinal symptoms of doubting and compulsion.

41.

Another copy, as above. 231 x 153 mm. Modern marbled boards, green morocco at head and foot of spine and at corners, hand-lettered label on front cover.

PROVENANCE: Signed by Freud on the first page: “Freud/14.XII.09.” This is probably the author’s copy, as the style of signature corresponds with the signatures in books from his library. Freud was in the habit of dating books when he received them.

42.


Freud first published this case history in the fourth series of his *Sammlung kleiner Schriften zur Neurosenlehre*; the present work represents its first publication in book form.

43.

“Psychoanalytisches Bemerkungen über einen autobiographisch beschriebenen Fall von Paranoia (*Dementia paranoides*).” [“Psychoanalytic Notes on an Autobiographical Account of a Case of Paranoia”] Offprint from: *Jahrbuch*
CASE HISTORIES


Freud’s case study of the Dresden jurist Daniel Paul Schreber was the more remarkable in that Freud never met Schreber face to face, but based his analysis almost entirely on Schreber’s Denkwürdigkeiten eines Nervenkranken, an autobiographical account of his mental illness published in 1903. Freud used the Schreber material to demonstrate what he believed to be the fundamental link between paranoia and unconscious repressed homosexuality, a theory he had learned from Fliess and confirmed in his own practice. He explained the four typical paranoiac delusions—persecution, erotomania, jealousy and megalomania—as denials of the various elements in the statement “I (a man) love a man.” He also discussed the role of narcissism in paranoia, and began to distinguish between the different forms of repression.

44.


Daniel Paul Schreber, a high-ranking jurist in Dresden, was the victim of a severe attack of paranoia that lasted for six years and left him with permanent delusions. The present autobiographical account of Schreber’s illness provided Freud with the material for “Psycho-analytical Notes on an Autobiographical Account of a Case of Paranoia,” a lengthy case study published in 1911, in which he analyzed the various aspects of Schreber’s disease. Schreber’s book is quite rare, apparently because his family bought up and destroyed most copies.
VII.

Cultural Writings and Applied Psychoanalysis

Psychoanalysis is best known as a therapeutic procedure and a theory of individual behavior, particularly neurotic behavior. But Sigmund Freud’s intellectual ambitions were never limited to the realm of the individual psyche and its vicissitudes. Particularly as he grew older, and more confident of his analytic discoveries, he turned his attention to the broader questions of mankind’s collective life. In a series of speculative writings, he sought to apply his psychoanalytic ideas to understanding such social phenomena as religion, politics, and culture. One might say that Freud was the last of the great nineteenth-century social philosophers—in the tradition of Marx, Mill, and Comte—who sought to comprehend the human condition in its totality.

Of all the aspects of our collective life, none interested Freud more than religion. He devoted three of his five major speculative writings to interpreting it—Totem and Taboo (1912-13), The Future of an Illusion (1927), and Moses and Monotheism (1939)—and it showed up in many of his other writings as well. Sometimes, as in The Future of an Illusion, Freud assumed the guise of a latter-day philosophe, dismissing religion as a childish superstition that modern science would eventually disabuse us of. In particular, he argued that belief in an almighty Father was nothing more than a projection of the infant’s over valuation of its own biological father (whom it came to regard as omnipotent and immortal). But in Totem and Taboo and Moses and Monotheism, Freud developed a more subtle and distinctly psychoanalytic conception of religion. In these works he analyzed religion as a product of the Oedipal situation, in which the believer, like the child, feels profoundly ambivalent toward the object of worship—at once loving and hostile.

Freud's most important writing on politics was Group Psychology and the Analysis of the Ego (1921). It offers the hypothesis that political allegiance is a product of sublimated libidinal ties between the leader and his followers—an idea that Thomas Mann put to allegorical use in his story “Mario and the Magician” (1929). Among political phenomena, Freud was especially preoc-
cupied with war. War evoked his most pessimistic assessment of the human situation. He viewed it as an unavoidable expression of the dark underside of the human psyche that was increasingly repressed by the advance of civilization. The experience of the Great War doubtless contributed to his formulation of the grimmest of all psychoanalytic concepts, the Death Instinct, which he announced to the world in *Beyond the Pleasure Principle* in 1920.

Freud’s most ambitious, and influential, cultural writing was *Civilization and Its Discontents* (1930). In it he argued that culture—both in the sense of the collection of artifacts that make up our civilized life, and in the more rudimentary sense of our ability to live together in communities—is a product of sexual repression. And because culture is built on instinctual renunciation, it brings with it an inescapable burden of resentment—the “discontent” of his title. Moreover, not only our libidinal impulses, but our aggressive ones as well must be held under wraps if culture is to succeed in its mission of bringing ever larger numbers of individuals to live together in harmony. This sacrifice, too, has a psychic price: namely, the creation of a heightened sense of guilt, which Freud viewed as the internalization of that aggressive energy that would otherwise find direct expression in the relations among individuals (and indeed often still does in the outbreak of war).

Freud believed that psychoanalysis had much to teach not only about the large questions of human destiny, but also about the particulars of mankind’s historical and cultural record. Accordingly, throughout his career, he often turned his attention to individual historical figures and cultural documents in order to shed psychoanalytic light on them. These undertakings Freud referred to as “applied psychoanalysis.” The Norman Collection contains several fine examples of his work in this vein, most famously (and controversially) his monograph on Leonardo da Vinci (1910). As the exhibit of his antiquities amply demonstrates, Freud was a great connoisseur of art and literature, and he was convinced that psychoanalysis could tell us as much about the meaning of works of the creative imagination. Hence his essays on Wilhelm Jensen’s novel *Gradiva* (1907), on “Transcience” (1916), on the painter Christoph Haizmann’s demonic possession (1923), and on “Dostoevsky and Parricide” (1928). At the same time, works of art—when properly interpreted—served in his view to confirm the truth of psychoanalytic theory.

—PR
CULTURAL WRITINGS AND APPLIED PSYCHOANALYSIS

45.


Freud's psychoanalytical study of Wilhelm Jensen's novel *Gradiva* was not the first such he had written, but was the first to be published. The novel tells the story of a young archeologist who falls in love with a bas-relief of a Grecian girl and suffers delusions arising from this love; in his analysis, Freud praised Jensen for his accurate portrayal of psychological processes such as dreaming, repression and the workings of the unconscious. Freud wrote the analysis to please Jung, who had introduced Jensen's book to his notice. The analysis forms Vol. I of the series *Schriften zur angewandten Seelenkunde*, edited by Freud.

46.


An analysis of the only childhood memory that Leonardo recorded—that of a bird working its tail to and fro in his mouth, a memory from infancy—and of its effect on Leonardo's later life and work. Jones calls this analysis, which forms the seventh work in Freud's series of *Schriften zur angewandten Seelenkunde*, "the first real psycho-analytic biography" (2, p. 387); it also marks the first application of psychoanalysis to art history. The book was poorly received, in part because of Freud's frank discussion of Leonardo's homosexuality, but this did not prevent Freud from considering it among his favorite works.

47.

Freud's *Totem and Taboo* was originally published as four essays in the psychiatric journal *Imago*, under the general title "Some Points of Agreement between the Mental Lives of Savages and Neurotics"; the four essays were titled "The horror of incest," "Taboo and emotional ambivalence," "Animism, magic and the omnipotence of thoughts," and "The return of totemism in childhood." This work represents Freud's first attempt to analyze some of the unsolved problems of social psychology from a psychoanalytic standpoint; in the final essay, he concluded that "the beginnings of religion, morality, social life and art [meet] in the Oedipus complex" (2, p. 404).

48.


49.


On the importance of psychoanalysis to both psychology and certain non-psychological branches of knowledge, including philology, philosophy, biology, history of civilization, art history, sociology and pedagogy.

50.

In this short essay, contributed to a book edited by the Berlin Goethe Society, Freud argued that the transience of beautiful things did not destroy their value or the possibility of enjoying them. “The main interest of the contribution is that it affords an irrefutable denial of the common belief in Freud’s supposed pessimism” (Jones II, p. 418).

51.


The first book issued by the Internationaler Psychoanalytischer Verlag, founded in 1919, was this treatise on the psychoanalysis of war neuroses, with contributions by Sandor Ferenczi, Karl Abraham, Ernst Simmel and Ernest Jones based on the discussion on war neuroses held at the Fifth International Psychoanalytic Congress in 1918. Freud contributed a preface, which he later regretted (Jones 3, p. 32); it described war neuroses as arising from conflicts between the soldier’s peacetime and wartime egos.

52.


In his analysis of group psychology, Freud examined the nature of the bonds that unite groups, which he traced back to the earliest example of group-formation, the family. He stressed the importance of the part played by the group leader, and stated that the ideal put forth by this leader must correspond with the ego ideal, or superego, of the group members.

53.

In analyzing the case of Christoph Haizmann, a seventeenth-century painter who believed himself to be possessed by the devil, Freud discussed the devil's role as a father-substitute and identified Haizmann's possession as a neurosis rooted in a longing for his dead father. This piece was first printed in 1923 in Vol. 9 of *Imago*.

54.


A collection of psychoanalytical studies of artistic and literary works, originally published in various journals between 1908-1919. The recipient, Professor Tandler, was the Austrian Undersecretary of the Ministry of Health, who had served with Freud in 1920 on the administration committee of a Viennese convalescent home for children.

55.


Freud wrote the present work (first published in 1915 in Vol. 4 of *Imago*) in an attempt to come to terms with the unprecedented horrors of the first World War, which had destroyed the illusion that humanity had progressed to a permanent high level of ethics and civilization. The second part of the work dealt with "civilized" and "primal" attitudes towards death, and described how war strips away the veneer of the first to reveal the second.

56.

Another copy, as above. 226 x 156 mm. Original gray printed boards.

PROVENANCE: Presentation copy, with Freud's inscription on the front free endpaper: "Herrn M. Platzeff zur freundl. Erinnerung/Freud/1928."
57.


A study of the nature and future of religious beliefs. Freud enumerated the human needs that lead people to construct religious beliefs, and addressed the question of whether humanity could learn to endure the hardships of life without recourse to the comfort of religion—a question that he hoped might one day be answered in the affirmative.

58.


Presentation copy, with Freud's inscription to Prof. H. Schröder on the front free endpaper: "Seinem verehrten Helfer/ Prof. H. Schröder/März 1929 Sigm. Freud." Schröder was the Berlin dentist who constructed a new prosthesis for Freud in 1929.

Freud's essay on Dostoevski and parricide formed the introduction to Fülöp-Miller and Eckstein's scholarly work on The Brothers Karamazoff. Freud discussed Dostoevski's peculiar psychological characteristics, stressing the writer's relationship to his father (murdered when Dostoevski was eighteen) and his compulsive gambling, which Freud saw as a repetition of the compulsion to masturbate.

59.


An exposition of the two opposing forces of civilization: Eros (love), which promotes the unity of mankind, and the death instinct, which leads to aggression and destruction.
60.

*Warum Krieg?* [Why War?]. Paris: Institut Internationale de Coopération Intellectuelle, 1933. 223 x 162 mm. (uncut and partially unopened). Original stiff white printed wrappers. First edition in German, no. 44 of 2,000 copies.


At the request of the League of Nations, Freud engaged in correspondence with Einstein on the subject of war and the necessity for an international mediating authority.

61.


62.

*Der Mann Moses und die monotheistische Religion. Drei Abhandlungen.* [Moses and Monotheism]. Amsterdam: Albert de Lange, 1939. 204 x 128 mm. Original quarter cloth, patterned boards, lettered in blue on front cover and spine; dust-jacket. First edition.


Freud's last work was an anthropological and psychoanalytical study of the rise of Judaism, which he rooted in the monotheistic worship of the Egyptian sun-god Aten; and an examination of the significance of religion in general. He believed, along with some other Biblical scholars, that Moses had been an Egyptian who converted the Jews to Egyptian monotheism; he also conjectured that Moses had been murdered by his people, leading to a lasting unconscious sense of guilt among the Jews and to the hope for redemption through a Messiah.

63.

SIGMUND FREUD


Trotter, one of the foremost cancer specialists of his day, was responsible for getting Freud named a Corresponding Member of the Royal Society, and visited Freud in his last illness. He also assisted the translator in preparing the English version of *Moses and Monotheism*, as indicated in the translator's note on p. [5].
Freud published well over a dozen works in which he sought to present his ideas in a synoptic and accessible fashion to the larger intellectual community. Some of these were relatively short essays or entries in scientific encyclopedias and handbooks. But several of them were long enough to be published as independent volumes: the *Five Lectures on Psychoanalysis* (referred to as the Clark Lectures, since they were delivered at Clark University in Worcester, Massachusetts, in 1909), the *Introductory Lectures on Psychoanalysis* (1916-17), the *New Introductory Lectures on Psychoanalysis* (1932), and *An Outline of Psychoanalysis* (1938). (An *Autobiographical Study* [1925] and *The Question of Lay Analysis* [1926] are also often counted among the expository writings.) Of these, by far the most important were the *Introductory Lectures*, delivered to medical students at the University of Vienna during the Great War. These run to nearly 500 pages and fill two volumes in the Standard Edition of Freud's works. They still represent the single best introduction to his psychological system.

Freud was a brilliant apologist for his own ideas. He was aided in this enterprise not only by the extraordinary clarity of his language, but also by his sensitivity to the prejudices of his audience. At their best, his expository writings might be described as intellectual seductions. He adopts a candid, forthright, even familiar tone, which takes the audience into his confidence and thus lowers its guard. Characteristically, he begins by presenting his propositions in their most modest, least offensive form, only gradually increasing the scope of his claims. Most effective of all, he is quick to articulate the objections that might occur to his listeners (or readers). This last tactic at once wins him points for candor and allows him to formulate those objections in a way that he can counter with relative ease. When one adds to these qualities his eye for the telling clinical detail, his magnificent sense of metaphor and analogy, and his effective deployment of wit, it is not surprising that many readers
find themselves ultimately won over to ideas that, at the beginning, they considered thoroughly outrageous. No other major modern intellectual—not Marx, not Darwin—rivals Freud as a popular advocate for his own views.

—PR
EXPOSITORY WRITINGS

64.

In 1909 Stanley Hall, president of Clark University in Worcester, Massachusetts, invited Freud to give a course of lectures at the university to help celebrate the twentieth anniversary of its founding. The lectures, delivered extempore in German, summarized the history, scope and techniques of psychoanalysis; they contained, in Freud’s words, “nothing new” (Jones 2, p. 238), but proved to be quite popular, going through eight German editions and translations into ten foreign languages. Freud also received an honorary doctorate from Clark University, which constituted the first official recognition of his life’s work.

65.

66.

67.
Aside from the *Psychopathology of Everyday Life*, Freud's *Introductory Lectures on Psychoanalysis* has been the most widely read of his works. The lectures were originally published in three parts, on parapraxes (slips of the tongue, etc.), dreams, and the general theory of neurosis respectively; a one-volume edition appeared in 1917.

68.


Pfister, a Protestant minister, was Freud's friend and correspondent, and a student of the application of psychoanalysis to education.

69.


In 1923, Freud contributed these two expository essays to the Encyclopedia of Sexology, edited by the sexologist Max Marcuse, with whom Freud had corresponded earlier. It is our belief that Marcuse may have hoped to reissue his encyclopedia in the 1930s, and that Freud's 1938 postcard to Marcuse referred to this plan. Strachey states that Freud's essays were written in 1922, before Freud had finished *The Ego and the Id*, and that the essays did not include the new concepts discussed in that work.

70.

analytischer Verlag, 1924. 223 x 155 mm. Original gray printed boards. First separate edition.
36 leaves, [1-3] 4-72 pp.

Freud's polemical essay on the history of the psychoanalytic movement first appeared in 1914 in Vol. 6 of the *Jahrbuch für psychoanalytische und psychopathologische Forschungen*. It was written in response to the defections of Adler and Jung, who had broken with Freud and his theories in 1911 and 1913 respectively, but even so continued to call their work "psychoanalysis," a misnomer to which Freud, the founder of psychoanalysis, had grave objections. His essay gave a brief history of the movement from its earliest days to the time of writing, stated the fundamental hypothesis and postulates of psychoanalysis, and showed how these were incompatible with the theories of Adler and Jung.

71.


Freud's autobiographical history of his role in the development of psychoanalysis. The Norman collection has the complete eight-volume set of Grote's *Die Medizin der Gegenwart in Selbstdarstellungen*, published in Leipzig from 1923-1929; the set displays two forms of original binding, full beige cloth (as above) and half cloth, orange paste paper boards.

72.


Freud did not want the practice of psychoanalysis to be restricted to medical doctors, and welcomed the inclusion of lay analysts from other fields into the therapeutic community, even going so far as to say that academic qualifications of any sort were unnecessary for those wishing to learn the practice of psychoanalysis. Not everyone held this view, however, and the question was even brought before the court when a lay analyst's patient sued him (unsuccessfully) for harmful practices under an Austrian law against quackery. This case inspired Freud to write the
present defense of lay analysis, in which he explained the purpose and function of psychoanalysis, pointed out how much the psychoanalytic movement would be harmed by banning lay analysts, and addressed the question of analysis as an independent profession with only certain ties to medicine.

73.


Augmented with Freud's "Nachschrift 1935."
IX.

Manuscripts and Letters

74.

A.L.s. to Max Marcuse (b. 1877) dated 14 August 1908. 1 sheet, 204 x 134 mm. [With:] A.L.s. to Marcuse dated 1 December 1908. 1 sheet, 213 x 137 mm. [With:] A.L.s. to Marcuse dated 25 December 1908. 1 sheet, 275 x 212 mm. [With:] A.L.s. to Marcuse dated 11 January 1910. 1 sheet, 276 x 217 mm. [With:] A.N.s. to Marcuse dated 14 (?) 1938, written on a postcard addressed to Marcuse in Tel Aviv, Palestine [later Israel]. 106 x 149 mm. Vienna.

On 16 May 1900, Freud wrote to his friend Wilhelm Fliess that only three students were attending his lectures, one of whom was a Dr. Marcuse from Berlin. It is possible that this “Dr. Marcuse” was Max Marcuse, the Berlin sexologist and editor of the journal Sexual Probleme, which published Freud's papers “Die ‘kulturelle’ Sexualmoral und die moderne Nervosität” (March 1908) and “Über infantile Sexualtheorien” (December 1908). The first two letters in the present collection (14 August and 1 December 1908) refer to these papers, and to Freud’s intention to republish them in Vol. II of his Collected Papers. The first letter touches as well on Freud’s concerns about establishing his priority as the discoverer of infantile sexuality, which had been triggered by the publication of Albert Moll's Sexualleben des Kindes in 1908; the work refers to Freud's Three Essays on a Theory of Sexuality but denies Freud’s priority in discovering infantile sexuality. In the third letter (25 December 1908), Freud proposed that Marcuse publish “Introjection and Transference,” a paper by Freud's colleague Sandor Ferenczi; it was Freud's strategy to attempt to obtain publication of his colleagues' papers in journals other than his own in order to insure a wider circulation. Ferenczi’s paper eventually appeared in the Jahrbuch der Psychoanalyse in 1909. The fourth letter (11 January 1910) concerns Marcuse's request that Freud endorse for publication in the Jahrbuch the autobiography of one of Marcuse's patients, about which Freud had reservations. Freud nonetheless offered to refer the matter to the Jahrbuch’s editor, Carl Jung.

In 1923, Marcuse edited the Handworterbuch der Sexualwissenschaft to which Freud contributed two articles on psychoanalysis and the libido theory. It is possible that Freud's postcard to Marcuse of 14 February 1938, in which Freud agreed to let Marcuse “have the two essays again,” refers to these articles. The articles predated Freud's structural theory, which he had published in Das Ich und das Es; this may explain Freud's reference in the last sentence to the possible need for changes.
Register for the Sixth International Psychiatric Congress (1920). [Item 75.]
The Sixth International Psychiatric Congress opened at The Hague on 8 September 1920. There were sixty-two members present, but our roster indicates that only forty-seven of these members had signed in at the opening at 9:30 a.m. Freud signed the roster “Prof. Freud,” which is how he was usually addressed by his co-workers. Among the others attending the Congress were the American Adolph Stern, Sandor Ferenczi, Karl Abraham, Otto Rank, Hanns Sachs, Oskar Pfister, Melanie Klein and Karen Horney.


[i-vi] vii-xvii [1], 1-406 pp. 2 full-page half-tine text illustrations.

PROVENANCE: Presentation copy, with a Christmas card from Hilda C. Abraham to Dr. Norman, dated “Christmas 1965,” laid in: “Dear Haskell, Here is the long/promise work at last & I do/hope you & Rachel will/enjoy it. I shall look/forward to your reactions! . . .”
X.

Portraits of Freud

77.
Struck, Hermann (1876-1944). Etching of Freud from life (head in profile), no. 13 of 150. 1914. 150 x 110 mm. (plate size). Signed in pencil by both the artist and Freud. Framed.

"I hope you will accept the following remarks in good grace. The etching strikes me as a charming idealization. This is how I should like to look, and I may even be on the way there, but it seems to me I have got stuck halfway. Everything that is shaggy and angular about me you have made smooth and rounded. In my opinion an element of unlikeness had been introduced by something unimportant, by your treatment of my hair. You have put my parting on one side, whereas according to the lithograph [Struck's lithographed portrait of Freud] I wear it on the other. Furthermore, my hairline runs across the temple in a rather concave curve. By rounding it off you have greatly improved upon it. Very likely this correction was intentional. In a word, I feel the etching to be a great honor. Each time I look at it I like it better!" (Letter to Struck of 7 November 1914, Letters of Sigmund Freud, ed. Ernst Freud, p. 306).

78.

Pollak's well-known portrait of Freud seated at his desk surrounded by his antiques. Hugh Heller, the publisher of Imago (Heft 5, 1915-1916) advertised fifty copies of the etchings were for sale, nos. 1-25 on "Kaiserlich Japan" for 100 kroner (85 marks) and nos. 26-50 on "Van Geldern-Butten" for 60 kroner (50 marks). The Norman copy is not numbered. Karl Abraham mentioned the Pollak portrait in his letter to Freud of 2 February 1914: "Pollak's etching arrived a few days ago. I like the pose very much. It takes some time to get used to the facial expression but one comes to like it in the end. The whole composition, especially the distribution of the black and white, is very well done."
79.


Freud's letter to Schmützer of 10 May 1926 (now in the Freud Museum) acknowledges Freud's receipt of the etching: "The etching is now in my hands, and I have also just seen it in the exhibition at Artaria. My friends and relatives react by admiring it at first sight, or they find it initially too severe only later gradually admitting that it becomes more and more like me. It gives me unusual joy and I feel obligated to thank you for the trouble you have taken to reproduce my ugly face and repeat my assurance that only now do I feel myself preserved for posterity. I may express my expectation that the piece will meet with great approval also in larger circles."

80.

Schmützer. Etching of Freud from life (head and shoulders), unnumbered. Undated (posthumous restrike). 600 x 450 mm. (plate size). Framed.

A larger version of no. 83. In this version Freud wears a breast ornament, possibly a watch. This version of the portrait was on display at Freud's house in Vienna, and was photographed there by Engelman shortly before the Freuds left Vienna for London in 1938.

81.

Major (?). Two crayon portraits of Freud (head and shoulders), possibly from a photograph, on the recto and verso of the same sheet. Undated (ca. 1929?). 228 x 192 mm. Signed by the artist and Freud in crayon on the recto. Framed.

Possibly from an artist's sketchbook. Freud's appearance in these drawings resembles that in the photograph in Jones (III, opp. p. 143) entitled "Freud in Berchtesgaden 1929." Freud's large signature "Sigm. Freud" has been authenticated.

82.

Schwerdtner, Karl Maria. 2 bronze medallions, each 60 mm. in diameter, with Freud's bas-relief profile and "Sigmund Freud Wien MCMVI" on the obverse and on the reverse a bas-relief of Oedipus answering the riddle of the Sphinx, with a Greek inscription. 1906. Signed by the artist in the medallion.
"In 1906, on the occasion of [Freud's] fiftieth birthday, the little group of adherents in Vienna presented him with a medallion, designed by a well-known sculptor Karl Maria Schwerdtner, having on the obverse his side-portrait in bas-relief and on the reverse a Greek design of Oedipus answering the Sphinx. Around it is a line from Sophocles's *Oedipus Tyrannus*: 'Hos ta klein' ainigmat' eide kai kratistos en aner' [Who divined the famed riddle and was a man most mighty] . . . . At the presentation of the medallion there was a curious incident. When Freud read the inscription he became pale and agitated and in a strangled voice demanded to know who had thought of it . . . . After [Paul] Federn told him it was he who had chosen the inscription Freud disclosed that as a young student at the University of Vienna he used to stroll around the great Court inspecting the busts of former famous professors of the institution. He then had the phantasy, not merely of seeing his own bust there . . . but of it actually being inscribed with the identical words he now saw on the medallion." (Jones II, p. 15) On 4 February 1955 Jones fulfilled Freud's youthful wish by presenting a bust of Freud to the University of Vienna, on which the line from Sophocles had been inscribed.