This book represents the Proceedings of the 4th International Congress on the Evolution and Palaeoepidemiology of the Infectious Diseases (ICEPID) which was held in Marseille in July 2001. The Congress followed three other very successful Congresses on the treponemal diseases (Dutour et al. 1994), tuberculosis (Pálfi et al. 1999) and leprosy (Roberts et al 2002). It was fitting that the Congress took place in a city where there had recently been excavation and analyses of plague victims from the early 18th century AD. As a participant at the Congress in Marseille, I was surprised to see such a great number of scholars attending and presenting on the plague in past populations, primarily because the plague does not cause any skeletal changes (and most scholars work on human skeletal remains in palaeopathology!). However, with the developments in using ancient DNA analysis to detect pathogens over the previous 10 or so years, detecting people who had suffered from the plague had become possible. Nevertheless, this volume is not just about ancient pathogen DNA analysis of human remains for the plague.

The book is divided into five sections with a total of 51 chapters: History of the illness and its treatment (eight chapters), Biological and archaeological evidence (13 chapters), Historical data (eight chapters), including that from demography, Epidemiology (13 chapters), and Representations of the epidemic (nine chapters). Chapters are either written in French or English. Sometimes the chapters have both English and French abstracts (and titles), sometimes chapters have one or the other, and occasionally there is no abstract. I think that it would have been helpful to have both languages represented for all abstracts (and the Preface and Introduction), particularly for those of us who are not fully bilingual! Consistency in general with the format of each paper would have aided appreciation of their content too. However, very usefully, there is a bibliography at the end of each chapter and also a collated bibliography at the end of the volume. Many of the images are good and clear but some are of poorer quality; on the whole the figures are of better quality than the photographs.

The first section includes papers on plague in 20th century Mediterranean areas focusing on historical frequency data (Mafart/Brisou); this section also includes a chapter on early 20th century plague in Marseille (Marfart et al), and 16th and 17th century plague epidemics in Finland (Vuorinen), Finland surprisingly ‘missing’ the 14th century epidemic that affected neighbouring Sweden and Russia. Section 2, focusing on biological archaeological data for the plague, has two papers on a plague cemetery dated to 1590 excavated from the site of the hospital of Fédons, Lambesc (Bizot et al/Bouttevin
et al); the first documents the funerary context of the site and the second focuses on the health of those buried there, indicating that people suffered a variety of health problems prior to their death from plague. Various papers in this section also focus on: dental enamel hypoplasia in 18th century plague victims at the Observance cemetery in Marseille (Pettenati-Soubayroux et al), plague in Colonial Period Ecuador (Ubelaker), where a higher younger mortality was found in a Quito cemetery population during an historically documented plague epidemic, and plague seen in parish record data from Barton-on-Humber, England from 1593 AD when, on the basis of skeletal evidence, more people died than in other years (Waldron). Section 3 (Historical data) includes chapters that consider life witness documents for the 18th century Provence region plague (Buti), where private correspondence provides real insights into its impact, and on 17th century plague epidemics in Granada, Spain, based on parish registers; here, increases in mortality for these plague years are documented. Section 4 focuses on a number of studies that record epidemiological and microbiological aspects of the plague. For example, Bianucci et al. use a method of analysis used on living people that tests whether *Yersinia pestis* F1 antigen (indicating cause of death) was present in skeletons from the plague epidemics of the 16th, 17th and 18th centuries in France; some positive results were found. Prentice et al also describes their analysis of *Y. pestis* of dental pulp from teeth of 14th and 18th century plague victims from France and 13th century and 1348 victims from London; here, positive data resulted from the French site but not for the English site, suggesting a number of reasons for failure such as poor preservation of aDNA. In this section there are also two chapters that document plague in vectors such as the black rat, fleas and other animals in Madagascar (Duchemin et al) and in Brazil (Paiva de Almeida et al). A further fascinating paper by Zink et al documents (through aDNA analysis) tuberculosis in some of the plague victims from the 1722 Marseille Observance cemetery, suggesting that TB probably predisposed people to contracting plague later. Section 5 has an interesting consideration of teaching of plague in medical schools in France today, revealing that plague teaching is rare or absent in many university medicine courses; the same may be said for leprosy, perhaps reflecting the fact that some diseases are just more important than others in living populations today. Additionally, two papers by Chevé and Boëtisch looks at the representation of the body afflicted by the plague in the Middle Ages, and Puccio describes political representations of the plague.

In summary, this monograph has something for everyone interested in the plague, both past and present. It should appeal to medical historians, medical doctors, palaeopathologists, and biomolecular scientists. It shows the virtue of focusing on one disease and bringing together people from different disciplines in an attempt to explore its impact on society.

References


The first plague epidemic in Malta might have occurred in the late 13th century, and a cemetery in Rabat, Gozo might have contained remains of victims from this plague.[2] The Black Death pandemic spread throughout Europe starting from October 1347, when a Genoese ship brought the plague to Messina in Sicily. The pandemic is believed to have reached Malta in 1348,[2] due to the close economic and maritime relations between the two islands. The details of how the pandemic affected Malta are not known.

"Épidémiologie et prise en charge des Épidémies de peste en Méditerranée au cours de la Seconde Guerre mondiale" (PDF). Bulletin de la Société de Pathologie Exotique (in French). 97 (4): 306–310. Archived from the original (PDF) on 28 July 2017. Some of the epidemics of this period in Italy and Germany are known by the accounts of eminent physicians, as Vochs, Fracastor, Mercurialis, Borgarucci, Ingrassia, Massaria, Amici, &c.,[Footnote 164-5] whose writings are important because the question of contagion first began to be raised, and also plague had to be distinguished from typhus fever, which began in this century to appear in.

The most complete medical history of epidemics is Haeser’s Geschichte der epidemischen Krankheiten (3rd edition, Jena, 1882), forming the third volume of his History of Medicine. Mercurialis, De Peste, praeertim de Veneta et Patavina, Basel, 1577 And instead of focusing on only some people with addiction -- based on address or class or race or ethnicity -- we should embrace the following: Everyone with addiction deserves the opportunity for treatment and recovery. Because looking back more than a century, historians have called opioid addiction 'The American Disease." It's time to write the final chapter of this history. It's time for the United States to take a compassionate, humane, and public health approach to this crisis. -- Dr. Yngvild Olsen, testifying before Congress, June 2019. Read more at The Opioid Epide...