THE PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
CADUCEAN SOCIETY

The Creighton University
School of Medicine
Omaha, Nebraska

VOLUME I
THE
CADUCEAN
SOCIETY

THE CREIGHTON UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF MEDICINE
OMAHA, NEBRASKA
MCMXXXIV
DEDICATION

To the Memory of

HERMAN VON W. SCHULTE

Dean - Anatomist - Educator

Gentleman and Scholar

1876-1932

"To attempt to eulogize such a life as we saw it in the concrete from day to day, as his friends and associates knew him, is quite beyond the power of human expression. This may seem to be rather extravagant praise, but as has been said in his regard since he passed away 'there is not his like among us.'"

Morris Blacker
"I have never known an uninteresting person, nor have I ever been bored by anyone; I have always learned something, and most of all from the so-called lower classes, even when I did no more than watch them. Whether I carry on my dumb dialogues with Bismarck, or our gardener is all one to me, for I am concerned with the reactions of the heart, which is moved by the same passions whether the shoots be grafted on quince-trees or nations."

Emil Ludwig

"These are the ends for which, through the centuries, the scholars, heroes, prophets, saints and martyrs of medical science have worked and fought and died, as are here recounted."

Yandell Henderson
Every well educated person is supposed to know something of the history of art, music, and literature. We expect the musician or the artist to have a fairly extensive knowledge of the historical background of his chosen art. It is indeed strange that until very recent times, we have not expected, nor have we uniformly provided the means for the average physician to be thoroughly acquainted with the history of his profession. This oversight in medical training is really more than a cultural hiatus; it is a fundamental deficiency. No modern physician can consider his education complete, until he is well acquainted with the general history of medicine, and until he has studied the lives, as well as the work, of those who have trod before him.

Professor Sudhoff defined this broader concept of medical history when he wrote: "The history of medicine forms an essential part of medical science and is indeed as serious a science, based on experience and observation, as any other department of natural philosophy. It links every new finding with previous findings, tests and analyzes every detail, lays bare the inner connections to reconstruct finally, from a whole series of single facts, the things of the past, whether they took place amongst a whole diseased people, in the lecture halls of a medical school, or in the mind of a great physician of bygone days."

When I came to Creighton University School of Medicine in 1930, I discussed these ideas with the University Officials and found them very anxious to cooperate. Dr. H. von W. Schulte, Dean, Rev. J. J. McInerny, Regent, and I laid the plans for the teaching of medical history in the Medical School.

Our first year was in reality an experiment. An extra-curricular Medical History Seminar was held one night each week. No student was forced to come, but all were invited. Viewed against the background of an already over crowded curriculum, the response of the student body was
astonishing. Before the end of that year, a small group of students requested that I outline some plan whereby they might continue their study of the history of medicine. I advised the organization of a Medical History Club; and from this beginning, the Caducean Society gradually emerged. As the organization grew, the scope was gradually expanded to include not only the study of Medical History and Biography, but also subjects of a broader cultural nature, so that it now serves as a means whereby hobbies and avocations may be kept alive during the busy years in medical school. Papers on the technique and history of etching, astronomy, photography, and music illustrate this tendency.

The present modest volume contains a few of the papers presented during the past year. It is hoped that it may be the first of a series.

It is a pleasure to acknowledge the support and generous cooperation of the authorities of Creighton University, particularly of Rev. J. J. McInerny, S.J., Regent of the School of Medicine, whose enthusiasm and splendid cooperation form the very foundation of the success of the Caducean Society and without whose help the present undertaking would have been impossible.

Mr. Gabriel F. Greco and Dr. Nicholas Dietz, Jr., deserve full credit for the careful editing and arrangement of the present volume.

C. M. Wilhelmj
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HISTORY OF THE CADUCEAN SOCIETY

Frank E. Lipp

In the fall of 1931, the regular curriculum of the Medical School was enhanced by the addition of an elective seminar on medical history, offered in a series of weekly evening lectures held at the Dental School. Dr. Charles M. Wilhelmj, Professor of Physiology in the School of Medicine, was the lecturer. To the students that attended, the study of the lives of the men of medicine became a fascinating pageant. The inspiration derived from these lectures served to convince three young men at the School of Medicine of the need for a permanent organization, which would have as its primary function the development of an appreciation for the culture and art of medicine, for which the already top-heavy medical course makes small provision.

Inspired by the enthusiastic support of Dr. Wilhelmj and the late Dr. Herman von W. Schulte, Dean of the School of Medicine, these students, A. E. Allegrini, Morris R. Blacker, and Frank E. Lipp, organized the group which later took the name, The Caducean Society. A. E. Allegrini, San Jose, California, became the first president of the society; Dr. Wilhelmj, the Faculty Moderator.

The handful of students that comprised the charter group outlined a course dedicated to the furtherance of culture in any of its manifold phases. The Caducean Society made its first bid for campus recognition with a formal banquet held at the Fontenelle Hotel, which was attended by Dr. Schulte; Father McInerny, Regent of the School of Medicine; Dr. Wilhelmj, the charter group, and the heads of the various departments of the college. Dr. Schulte delivered the principal address.

Since its founding, the Society has presented a number of papers on subjects varying from discussions on Etching, Music, Photography, and Astronomy to Biographies of famous characters and analyses of the several
periods of Medicine's historical development.

Famous men of present day Medicine have spoken at the Society's annual banquets. Dr. Walter C. Alvarez of the Mayo Foundation spoke on "Folk Lore in Medicine." Dr. C. M. W. Poynter, Dean of the Nebraska School of Medicine, spoke on "William Harvey and the Circulation of the Blood." Dr. A. C. Rivers and Dr. Frank C. Mann, both of the Mayo Foundation, spoke, the former on "Etiology of Peptic Ulcer," the latter on "Transplantation of Organs." Dr. Albert Kuntz, Head of the Department of Micro- Anatomy, St. Louis University School of Medicine, spoke on "The Sympathetic Nervous System." Dr. Fielding H. Garrison, of Johns Hopkins School of Medicine, sent an original and unpublished manuscript which he presented to the Society.

The Society has honored itself by awarding to its guest speakers Honorary Membership in the Caducean Society. Col. G. A. Skinner, of the U. S. Medical Corps; Dr. Walter C. Alvarez; Dr. Frank C. Mann; Dr. A. S. Pinto, former Health Commissioner of Omaha and recipient of a Congressional Medal for notable work in the eradication of Yellow Fever in Panama; Dr. B. M. Riley, Dean of the Creighton University School of Medicine; Dr. C. M. Wilhelmj, Faculty Moderator; and Dr. Victor E. Levine, Professor of Bio-Chemistry have helped the Society by their enthusiastic support and all have been awarded certificates of Honorary membership.

The Society has been honored recently by being placed in charge of the Section of the History of Science of the Nebraska Academy of Sciences, and now sponsors all the papers presented before that section at the Academy's annual convention.

The membership of the group is limited to thirty men; and the candidates are chosen by their evident interest, and by the merit of their papers, which are first presented before the Society.

The following men have held offices in the Society: During the year 1931-32, A. E. Allegrini was President; Lloyd B. Shone, Vice-
During the year 1932-33, George S. Campion was President; Morris R. Blacker, Vice-president; James A. Smrha, Secretary-treasurer; and J. Kelley, Corresponding Secretary. The present administration consists of John J. Murphy, President; James A. Smrha, Vice-president; George E. Bein, Secretary; Cornwall C. Everman, Treasurer; and Morris C. Lev, Corresponding Secretary.

If one were asked to tell what he knew about Pasteur, or Koch, or Jenner, or Lister, or Ford, or Rockefeller, the answer in all probability would be a two by four sketch of the celebrity in question. Pasteur might be set down as a pioneer in bacteriology; Koch as the discoverer of the causative agent of tuberculosis; Jenner as the man who instituted the practice of vaccination against smallpox; Lister as the originator of antiseptic surgery; Ford and Rockefeller would connote immense wealth, while calling up visions of automobiles and oil. Such reactions might enable a student to meet the requirements of intelligence tests, or be of enough service to the average man to make him an intelligent listener; but they are no sure index to the functioning of the cerebral faculties, beyond the registering of a few general facts of ordinary information.

Information of this type may satisfy the man in the street, but the keener mind will scarcely rest until it has gone a little below the surface. A student, for instance, will seek to learn something of the lives of these men as men, apart from the achievement to which their names are attached and by which they are known to the world at large. The biographer or eulogist will seek to evaluate the men by the weight of their personality or character in their relations to the environment in which their lots were cast.

Few who had the good fortune to know Dr. Schulte intimately would be content to regard him chiefly or merely as an anatomist. While aware of and appreciating his accomplishments in science, they would envision him among his fellows and see in perspective not only the man before the scientist, but the man among men. The many facets of his splendid character make it impossible to hit off his life and career
even in the pithiest of phrases. To describe him adequately, one must paint into the composite picture the scholar, the scientist, the civic leader, the humanitarian, the gentleman who was the symbol of culture in the best and highest sense of the word. This method alone will portray Dr. Schulte as he stood out in his own world. To his fellow citizens, his regard for the interests of mankind may seem to be the outstanding feature of his career. And well it may, for the criterion by which we judge the stature of a man is his service to his fellows. To him the golden rule was golden and paramount, but he went further. "With single-necessity of purpose his life was devoted to the cause of humanity in the fostering of a more free and beautiful life. Consciously or otherwise, his life re-echoed the old quatrain:

"I live for those who love me,
For those who know me true;
For the God who is above me,
And the good that I can do."

In 1888, at the age of twelve, he entered St. Paul's School, Concord, New Hampshire. Even at this age, he began to show his bent for science by his drawings in elementary biological studies; they were both presentable and correct in detail. We do not wish to imply that he was an infant prodigy. He was in every sense a normal boy with a boy's love of games and fondness for swimming. There was nothing extraordinary about him; his natural capabilities had not as yet manifested themselves beyond the fact of his being among the leaders in a select preparatory school.

In the fall of 1893, he matriculated at Trinity College, Hartford, Connecticut. Here he laid the foundation of his higher education and the love of the classics which grew with the years. After four years at Trinity, he graduated with an A. B. degree and was the valedictorian of his class. It was his father's idea and hope, as he himself was a clergyman of the Episcopal Church, that his son would study for the min-
istry. He never urged the matter and the following September saw the son enrolled at Columbia in the College of Physicians and Surgeons. At Columbia, he distinguished himself from the first by winning both scholastic honors and various cash awards for proficiency in competitive examinations. He graduated in 1902 with the highest honors.

Upon graduation at the age of twenty-six, he took up residence at the Presbyterian hospital where he served as intern for two years.

With the grind behind him and with constant contact with patients, Dr. Schulte's personal charm had more of an opportunity to manifest itself. To the less fortunate, the sick, the chronic invalids and the crippled, he was all kindness and sympathy. They were not cases, they were human beings in distress. He realized how far-reaching were sunshine and cheer and how helpful it was to bring distraction and even amusement into their lives. From some old photographs in Mrs. Schulte's collection, we get a side light on one phase of the young doctor's activities. In one of them, we see him in gala attire as May Queen. With a crown on his head and in a fluffy lace dress, he is drawn in a chariot through the courtyard by his fellow interns to reign over the festivities arranged for the crippled children confined in the wards of the hospital. Another picture shows him leading a picturesque parade through the hospital grounds to the delight and joy of the children.

To one of his abiding interest in humanity and deep human sympathy, the clinical experiences of these two years went far in deciding his future course. There were but two issues. He had already given evidence of an acute diagnostic sense which perhaps stemmed out of a comprehensive knowledge and liking for anatomy as such. That he might have become as well known as a clinician, as he afterwards was regarded as an anatomist is beside the point. He made his choice; and it redounded to his credit, as it must be to the honor of her who, as his fiancee, threw into the scale all the weight of her power of persuasion. Anatomy
it was to be, and we can thank Miss Susan Augusta Embury to whom Dr. Schulte was married in New York, September 19, 1907.

His career on the staff of Columbia lasted until 1917. During these thirteen years, he enriched the Annals of American Anatomy by a variety of publications that were the outcome of his researches in comparative anatomy. They comprised such diverse subjects as The Anatomy of Whales; The Venous System of Marsupials; The Development of the Neuraxis; Fusion of the Cardiac Anlage and Formation of the Cardiac Loop; The Development of the Great Veins and Hepatic Circulation in the Cat, Histo­genesis of the Salivary Glands; and others on a variety of subjects too numerous to mention here. To the field of embryology and neurology, he contributed by his publications on "Vasculogenesis" and on "The Development of Neuraxis in the Cat." One of his major works was the dissection of the Sei Whale.

With untiring energy, he spent himself in almost every branch of comparative anatomy; and as he was frequently alone in the work, he did most of his own dissecting, drawings, and notes. The delicate microscopic analyses that were so much a part of his field of endeavor were not without their usual tax upon his sight. For a time, his vision was threatened; and he was urged to suspend all work that would in any way entail the use of his eyes. Eventually, through the skill of a noted ophthalmologist, the danger was averted; but the experience of close application and the effects produced marked the last day of research in that line.

Year by year, he was becoming better and more favorably known in New York and the vicinity both as a teacher and as a scientist. In the course of his thirteen years at Columbia in the department of anatomy with the many changes incidental to the years, it is scarcely to be re­marked that in the discussions as to what was likely to be, it was freely predicted that he was marked for advancement. More than once, he was
spoken of as the future head of his department, while at other times it was said that he was headed for the deanship of the medical school. These may have been but the prophecies of his associates; the wish may have been father to the thought. This, however, is true; they never materialized.

In 1917, when an opening came, he decided to cast his lot in the Midwest and moved to Omaha as Professor of Anatomy at Creighton University. His reputation as a teacher had long been established and preceded him when he came to Creighton as Professor and Junior Dean. He may have been what is sometimes referred to as a born teacher; and he was, if ever there was such; but he supplemented all that nature gave him by intensive study and the most systematic of training. Of his ability as a teacher, I can speak with assurance; and I am glad to say that I can endorse all that is said of him in this capacity. His lectures were instructive and masterful; his drawings and illustrations clarifying and artistic; his remarks, by way of advice to budding physicians, judicious and paternal. I recall more than one occasion when the students were more than usually impressed. This is saying a great deal, for his lectures were always on a high plane of finished excellence. When spontaneous applause brings a class to its feet at the close of a lecture, there is very good reason. I can still visualize the rapt expression on the faces of those young fellows -- men who had been listening to a two-hour lecture on a subject, let us say -- "The Anatomy of the Petrous Portion of the Temporal Bone." We were simply at a loss to understand how a man could possibly know so much about such a subject. Still it was the same process from day to day, all detailed, orderly, complete. Nor was it done with a flourish. There was always something of a hint of apology by way of preface to a chalk drawing that in reality proved to be an illuminating sketch of the material under discussion. Here was a master of expression, tongue and hand, who had the courage to ask himself whether he
was getting enough of his subject across to the students.

Dr. Schulte's contacts with the students outside of class hours were in the nature of things, comparatively few, but the student always came away a little more enlightened and with a different slant on his problems. An incident of some years ago may serve to illustrate his general attitude and his way of sizing up a situation. Indignant at the low mark he had received, a student decided to lodge his complaint with the dean. On entering the office, he began without preamble. "Dr. Schulte, I took my examination in anatomy with seventy other students. They cheated, and passed; I was honest and flunked. How about it; is it fair?" Without the slightest hesitation and in the quietest of tones, the dean replied: "Well, my boy, you received an honest grade." There was little more to be said.

Dr. Francis Heagey, Associate Professor of Medicine at Creighton and a fellow member of the staff at Columbia, summarized Dr. Schulte's reputation at Columbia in the following words: "To the medical students at Columbia, Dr. Schulte was by far the most eminent, the most cultured and the most democratic of all the men who served at the time in the capacity of either professor or instructor. His lectures were finished products. His ability to use both hands in drawing was a never-ceasing wonder to the students and to his associates. His mere appearance in the dissecting room or a visit to his office was not without its impression on the student. As to his associates, they delighted in the discussions that he would lead by the hour not only on matters of anatomical significance, but of clinical and economical importance in themselves and to the profession. Outside his professional activities, his connection with the American Museum of Natural History was a source of pleasure not only to himself, but to the entire staff of the Museum. He was an active member of the St. Anthony Club, the Century Club, the University Club of New York. His interest in life and in the men around him was unfailing."
His arrival in Omaha in 1917 marked a new day in the progress of the Creighton Medical School. Through his guidance, due doubtless to his prestige and his personality, things began to look up; he saw to it that it met and maintained the standards of a Class A school. A man of his parts and vision could not long remain unnoticed or unknown in the civic life around him. Nor was he loath to give of what he had in abundance. From the first, he fell in with the various forward movements in all local projects — civic, cultural, scientific. It is not too much to say that he was the most sought after man in the community, as well for advice as to ways and means, as for his initiative in setting things afoot and keeping them moving forward. He went wholeheartedly into the activities he sponsored and kept his interest alive for a full decade, until he was forced to sever connection with them at his physician's request.

One can guess at the tax on his energies when we realize that all this work was over and above his regular instructional and executive duties as professor of anatomy and dean of the college. It is to his eternal credit that his work came first. He saw to it that the interests of the school of which he was the head in no wise suffered from his interests in affairs outside the college. His gradual withdrawal from civic activities afforded him the leisure he always prized, and enabled him to devote his precious hours to the hobby that had grown with the years. He was not only a wide and constant reader, but it seemed as if he read everything. The Greek and Latin classics in the original found place in his scheme of things; while the best, as well as the latest, in French, German, and Italian were always at hand. His private library was immense and inclusive. Well stocked with scientific books, as might be expected, there was a judicious selection of the best known works on sociology, psychology, religion, philosophy, art, and pure literature. Constant and persistent as he was, he did not depend on his own powers alone in the matter of reading. He had early enlisted Mrs. Schulte in
this as in so many other activities that they had in common; and by a kind of relay, they went through books, hand in hand, as they did all else that made up their happy domestic life. They had all interests in common, and they were many and varied. Not only was their garden a source of pleasure, but they soon became expert in all that pertained to the natural life of the section, its trees, its plants and its birds. Together, in the summer, they toured the whole of America and most of the countries of Europe to return rested, invigorated, stimulated, to carry on.

About three or four years ago, Dr. Schulte began to think seriously of retiring from active participation in teaching and in the administration of the Medical College. On various occasions, he broached the subject to the authorities, making the case as plain and clear as only he could do. He felt that his vitality was waning; that he was not his old self; that he could not carry on as he had formerly done, even after he had cut down on the exactions from the outside. As he fitted in so well, had such a hold on professors and students alike, and always succeeded so admirably in keeping the affairs of the school on a level keel and moving forward smoothly, the answer was invariably the same. He was always induced to try it for another year. Thus it went on until the spring of 1932. He had made his decision and with definite plans for the future covering in detail just what he intended to do. First, there would be a vacation, probably in Europe again, as he had been so invigorated in the preceding years by his sojourns in Italy. There was the question of a textbook on Anatomy — so many, many projects came thronging into his alert and forward-looking mind, so enthusiastic was he about his future and the future of the school that when the end came on July 13, 1932, few could believe it, much less realize it, although they had seen him failing visibly for long, long months.

To attempt to eulogize such a life as we saw it in the concrete from day to day, as his friends and associates knew him, is quite beyond
the power of human expression. This may seem to be rather extravagant praise, but as has been said in his regard since he passed away, "There is not his like among us." He gave himself wholeheartedly and without stint to the college, its students and to the city at large, and that without counting the cost. He lives in the hearts of generations of medical students who took their inspiration from him who was their ideal.
SIR BERTRAM WINDLE, VERSATILE MAN OF SCIENCE

Nicholas Dietz, Jr.


His degrees alone are symbolic of his eminence as a scholarly scientist. On one occasion, the mayor of a town, where Sir Bertram was to lecture, said in the course of an introductory speech that the distinguished speaker had the first three letters of the alphabet before his name and the rest of the alphabet after his name. He was a physician, an anatomist, a zoologist, anthropologist, ethnologist, archeologist, philosopher, theologian, biographer, and man of letters, orator, educator, organizer and administrator extraordinary.

Sir Bertram was descended from cultured and prominent forbears. His English father was an Anglican clergyman; his Irish mother was the daughter of Sir Josiah Coghill and the grand-daughter of Charles Kendal Bushe, Lord Chief Justice of Ireland.

When Bertram was four years old, his father became vicar of The Mariners, a well-known church in Kingston, County Dublin, Ireland. The family moved to Ireland, and thus much of Bertram's early training occurred in the Emerald Isle. He attended several elementary schools, but his health was so delicate that his attendance was rather irregular. It was during a period of convalescence that he decided to become a scientist, although he would have preferred being an admiral. He writes: "I was convalescing from a severe bout of enteric fever, a very weedy and weary little boy, when some kind friend gave me 'Statham's Box of Chemical Magic. The box contained a few chemicals and a very little apparatus, together with a sheet of instructions. The experiments detailed were neither numerous nor startling, but they were a revelation to me. A scientist, I re-
solved to be." But the lure of science was second only to the call of the sea. To become a sailor had always been his great ambition. His father opposed this desire, alleging the boy's delicate health as a reason. Writing as late as March 22, 1923, Sir Bertram says: "I have never quite forgiven my father for preventing me from going to sea, and my Admiral cousin, a great friend -- who went, like the schoolboy, unwillingly to sea, was always sick during the early part of every voyage he ever took, and invariably spoke of 'that loathsome sea' -- says that I have 'an admiral' stripes under my skin. I would exchange all the distinctions I possess to have them on my coat. That is still how I feel about it."

At the age of thirteen, Bertram was sent to the famous English school, Repton. At the same time, he openly professes himself an Agnostic, by way of reaction, it seems, to the (to him) overly harsh and rigid Puritanism in which he had been brought up. After two rather ineffectual years at Repton, Bertram was put in the charge of a private tutor in the Isle of Wight, and prepared for Trinity College, Dublin.

The years 1875-1882 were spent at that college and in the four-year course of Trinity Medical School. Windle's really superior ability was indicated by the fact that he was the outstanding graduate of his medical class, standing 10% higher than the next student on the list, and higher than any medical graduate for the preceding twelve years. He was awarded the M.D. degree in 1883 upon the presentation of the two theses then required.

While still in the medical school, Windle helped to support himself by tutoring; and in his senior year, he lectured as Professor of Botany at Alexandra Ladies' College (Queen's College), afterwards affiliated with Trinity College. The following year, he also became Demonstrator of Anatomy and Histology in the Royal College of Surgeons, Dublin, as well as Surgical Registrar to Adelaide Hospital, Resident Obstetric Assistant to the Combe Hospital, and Medical Officer to the Dublin Throat and Ear Hospital.
In addition, he was engaged in research in Embryology and Anatomy under Professor MacAlister, the scientist, who, in 1898, nominated Dr. indie for fellowship in the Royal Society.

Late in 1882, he left his beloved Ireland to spend twenty-three very busy years in England. He became Resident Pathologist and Resident Medical Officer at the General Hospital, Birmingham. In July, 1884, Dr. indie was appointed to the Chair of Anatomy in Queen's College, in Birmingham. His friend, Sir Gilbert Darling, writes (1929) that this appointment "was a fortunate event both for indie and the School of Medicine; in it, he found his true metier as an inspiring teacher and a very successful administrator. I don't think that work in Clinical Medicine was really his best line."

Sir Bertram's whole future career was basically influenced not only by the medical school appointment, but also by an event that occurred at about the same time --- his disavowal of Agnosticism and his reception, after much study and meditation, into the Catholic Church. Thereafter, he always remained an ardent champion of Catholicism. One of his chief objectives in life, from this time forward, was to demonstrate, by his own scientific achievement, as a scientist who was also a convinced Catholic, as well as by his literary talents, that Catholicism and Science are not only compatible, but are cordially compatible.

Dr. indie's appointment as a full-time Professor of Anatomy marked a distinct advance in medical teaching in Queen's College. Until then the teaching of this basic subject had been in the hands of medical practitioners. Professor indie was at the same time made Curator of the museum, in which capacity he was, as in his teaching, eminently successful. Another simultaneous change was that the other institution of higher learning in Birmingham, Mason College, a school devoted to science and technology, entered into an intimate exchange relationship with Queen's College. The professors of Chemistry, Physiology, and Botany at Mason
were also made professors of these subjects at Queen's College.

Professor Hindle actively developed his Anatomy Department, both in teaching and in his own excellent researches in Comparative Anatomy. In recognition of his successful efforts, and of his unquestioned ability, he was made Dean of the Medical Faculty in 1891. Under the conscientious and skillful guidance of its new Dean, the medical school continued to grow and flourish. Dr. Hindle finally succeeded in having it transferred to Mason College, thus paving the way for the foundation of the great autonomous Birmingham University. In 1900, this University became a fact. One writer says that: "It was the child of its own Medical School. To Dr. Hindle's genius, to his successful teaching and progressive administration, joined to his untiring efforts, it owed its foundation." Among the novelties of the new University was a School of Dentistry. For the first time in England, students of Dentistry were able to obtain a Dental degree in addition to their license to practice. Also the medical curriculum which extended over five years, was opened for the first time to women. The women attended the same lectures as the men, but used a separate dissecting room. A full-time professional chair of Pathology and Bacteriology was established. The new University Charter provided for a School of Commerce -- a very strange undertaking in those days -- but quite appropriate for an industrial city of recent growth like Birmingham. Dr. Hindle also saw to it that no religious tests of any kind were exacted from any member of the University, administrator, teacher, or student.

When, late in 1904, Dr. Hindle resigned his posts at Birmingham to assume new and arduous duties as President of Queen's College at Cork, Ireland, Birmingham was loath to lose him. In the December, 1904, issue of the Queen's Medical Magazine, organ of the Birmingham School of Medicine, we find the following:

"Never since the foundation of the Queen's Medical Magazine, or,
indeed, for many years before, has such a momentous change in the
staff of the Medical Faculty taken place as that on which the
thoughts of the whole school now centered. And in view not only
of the vital importance of the offices, which Dr. Kindle has held,
but also of the necessarily large part of every medical student's
horizon which his personality has occupied, it is but fitting
that we should offer for our readers' perusal some details of
the life of the man to whom the Medical School owes so much of
its prosperity and the University almost its very existence.

"His versatility has always most struck us; then, far
away from the restriction of academic life — as, for instance,
on an excursion — sights and surroundings, familiar to him from
many vacation cycle tours, would call forth a stream of anecdote
and history.

"We all know him in his very different guise as 
Professor of Anatomy, with his inimitable diagrams in the Anatomical
Theatre, or making a sudden brief incursion, in skull-cap
and quaint dissecting coat, into the Dissecting Room — fresh
from minute inquiry into the musculation of red river hog, or
of some strange antelope from tropical plains. Another and even
more impressive attitude was his when, on the opening, of the new
session, he sat as Dean in the office to see students new and
old. Who does not remember the swift passage from the chattering,
impatient crowd without to the calm sanctum sanctorum
where the searching eyes of the Dean and the extreme brevity
of his remarks made the chill comfort of the arm-chair by his
desk peculiarly unattractive.

"We will not enumerate now the many advantages,
social and athletic, which the Dean has striven to gain for the
medical students. Such is the man to whom we have bidden fare-
well, and of the greatness of those loss to us we have as yet no true idea.

"His successor in his two important offices — if they are still to be conjoined — will find to a great extent that the success of the school is his personal responsibility. He can only hope that he, whoever he may be, will not abate one jot of the dignity, energy and forethought which we have been accustomed to associate with the idea of dean and professor of Anatomy."

It was the custom of this journal to publish a cartoon of some medical faculty member in each issue. A recent portrait of Dr. indle was printed in place of the usual cartoon in the December issue from which we quoted above. In an earlier issue, there had been a clever cartoon of Dr. indle. "He fixed me with his glittering eye," a quotation from the Ancient Mariner which admirably suggested an aspect of his appearances with which students were familiar, is the legend attached to a picture of Dr. indle, dressed in skins as a prehistoric man, grasping a stout club and a volume of anatomy, and glaring fiercely before him. "Sir Bertram indle" by Monica Taylor; this emphasizes the anatomist and the archeologist in Dr. indle, as well as the dignified professor and the authoritative dean.

During all his years at Birmingham, Dr. indle was very active civically, always advancing the interests of both school and city. Among other things, he concerned himself with bettering the condition of the poverty-stricken, took an exceptionally active part in the betterment of the primary and secondary school education of the city, even being elected to the school board by an immense popular vote. He personally took part in musicals and dramatic performances, and delivered innumerable public lectures on many subjects.

His vacations were nearly always devoted in whole or part to
archaeological or antiquarian researches in England or Ireland. His skill and achievements in these directions were handsomely recognized when he was elected a Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries of London in 1897.

The University of Dublin awarded him an honorary Doctor of Science degree in recognition of his scientific work when he was only thirty-three years old; and in 1898, only fifteen years after completing his course at Trinity, Dr. indie was awarded that most coveted of all British scientific honors — Fellowship in the Royal Society.


Dr. indie's labors as president of Queen's College in Cork were very difficult, especially because of the continued unsettled political situation there. The Royal University of Ireland consisted of three important divisions, the Queen's Colleges in Dublin, Cork, and Galway. Dublin was the hub of the University, making it necessary for Dr. indie to make incessant and wearisome official trips between Cork and Dublin. At the same time, he founded a chair of Archeology at Cork, which he himself occupied. He became more and more interested in scholastic philosophy and Christian apologetics, especially in their relations with science; and in these fields, his pen became more and more active. He also wrote a book on vitalism, to which theory he strongly subscribed. At the same time, he worked hard and successfully to improve the school which he graced as president, and, as in Birmingham, delivered innumerable lectures, and served in many ways the community of Cork and virtually the whole of the south of Ireland.
In 1913, President Lindle was granted an L.L.D. by the University of Birmingham, on the occasion of a visit by his Britannic Majesty. In the same year, Benedict XV made Dr. Lindle a papal Knight of St. Gregory, with complimentary allusions to his work as president of Queen's College, Cork. In 1912, King George knighted President Lindle.

The Church and Science, an exceptionally scholarly book, by Sir Bertram appeared in 1913, and was awarded the coveted Gunning Prize of the Victoria Institute. Partly as a result of this book, perhaps, Sir Bertram was invited to join the faculty of St. Michael's College, Toronto, in the same year. St. Michael's is an autonomous Catholic College in the University of Toronto. Sir Bertram was asked to name his own terms. He was so satiated with the political turmoil in Ireland, which naturally drew heavily upon the energies of any one in such a position as his, that he resigned the presidency at Cork and accepted the invitation. Although Sir Bertram only lived until 1929, the city and University of Toronto, to say nothing of the entire Dominion of Canada and of the United States, benefited greatly by the transference of his chief activities to the New World. In his lectures and writings in Toronto, he was, as usual, very versatile. Archeology, anthropology, ethnology, philosophy, and Christian apologetics were the fields in which he was most active. It might be remarked, in passing, that Sir Bertram's very versatility made him at the same time one of the best, as well as one of the least known of men. Those who admired him in one field of activity often were unaware of his eminence in another field.

Honors continued to be heaped upon him during this last decade of Sir Bertram's life. In 1922, Pope Pius XI, through the Sacred Congregalion of Studies, conferred an honorary Ph.D. degree upon Professor Lindle. In 1926, Boston College also awarded him a Ph.D.; and in 1928, Marquette University granted him an honorary Sc.D. degree.

The following excerpts are taken from an article about Dr. Lindle
written by Dr. S. H. J. Unider in the September, 1926, issue of the Canadian Magazine, and afford a good picture of the learned doctor's activities during his last years.

"Each year's beginning in Toronto is marked by the amazing and amusing spectacle of a mixed company flocking every Friday to hear a university professor lecture upon subjects which, from their very names, might be relied on to frighten general audiences into headlong search for the exits: Anthropology, Ethnology, and Archaeology.

"Yet annually the phenomenon has been repeated since 1920, when Sir Bertram Inde came to these shores. Every year, under university auspices, Sir Bertram Inde, F.R.S., F.S.A., D.Sc., and a great many more postscript honors, commences a course of twelve public lectures on the first Friday in January and ends them as Good Friday draws nigh.

"The theatre of the Physics Building of the University of Toronto is packed to the roof. The course may be on the development of Art in all ages, or the Romans in Britain, or on the manners and customs of mankind, or on English cathedrals. It matters not. People will besiege the lecture-room door until it opens at 4 p.m. Then they will swarm in and wait. Ladies bring their knitting. Men bring afternoon newspapers. Black-barbed sisters sit with folded hands. College students (in a minority, for this course is an 'extra') extend their notes. Clergymen of all denominations cough discreetly, and con next Sunday's sermon. Children stare, fascinated, at the standing apparatus for Physics lectures and the left-over formulae peeping out from the long blackboard behind the white lantern screen. University professors with spare 'hours' slip into favorite nooks — if not pre-empted. Very often President
Sir Robert Falconer finds time for a visit. He is fortunate if he always finds a seat. Dr. P. A. Pompe, bursar and organist, is likely to be there. So will be Professor Reyes, almost to a certainty. A searching test this, for a lecture to secure the voluntary attendance of men whose lives are filled with lectures.

"This half-hour wait is to secure good seats. Everyone is always accommodated eventually. The galleries are thrown open, chairs may be miraculously excavated from behind the long lecture counter, and there is standing room up at the back of the gallery, under the rafters. Often it is all occupied. . . . .

"Sir Bertram indle, besides lecturing by day to the students of St. Michael's College on Philosophy, and the students of the University of Toronto on Ethnology, is Vice-chairman of the Board of Governors of St. Michael's Hospital, an active member of the University Relations Committee of the hospital, a frequent contributor to The Catholic World and a dozen scientific reviews on both sides of the Atlantic, and an author with twenty-one books published since 1892. He was also the Norton Memorial Lecturer of the Anthropological Institute, and journeyed frequently to Buffalo, Rochester, New York, and Boston.

"Sometime, somewhere, one has heard of such a thing as an eight-hour day!

"Sir Bertram's publications, by the way, range from 'Proportions of the Human Body' to 'The Church and Science,' which won the Gunning Prize of the Victoria Institute in 1918, and 'Shakespeare's Country,' which has gone through six editions.

"But we are holding up the lecture.

"Prompt on the tick of 4.30 p.m., Sir Bertram indle walks briskly in; a tall, well-formed man of sixty-eight, very pleasing to look at in his professor's gown and silver-white hair.
His keen eyes, behind heavy-rimmed glasses, are very blue. His complexion is bright, with the roses and roast-beef and salt-saturated atmosphere of Old England. There is that about him, partly the poise, partly the intonation, which emphasizes the truth spoken in jest by a cousin of his, Admiral Boyle Somerville, R.N.: "Bertie, my boy, there's an admiral's stripes somewhere under your skin!"

"And why not? His mother's father was Admiral Sir Josiah Coehill, Bart., and on that side of his family is the tradition of sea service for generations. The Navy missed a great commander when Science claimed Bertram Coehill Alnindle.

"Sir Bertram places his watch in the little pool of light cast by the desk lamp. Like an admiral's utterances, crisp, clear, not loud, absolutely certain of acceptance, come the opening phrases of the lecture. A respectful 'ladies and gentlemen' is tucked somewhere in the first sentence, but that first sentence is never perfunctory. The reporters present never fail to 'take it.' Sir Bertram Alnindle is always 'good copy.' The reporters' problem is never what of his to use, but what to leave out. . . . .

"After a clear presentation of the general aspect of the subject to be developed in the lecture, with a swift hand on the switch Sir Bertram will plunge the theatre in darkness. A smart rap with the ferrule, and the lantern slide illustrating the point under discussion flashes on the screen. Sir Bertram likes to talk to the eye as well as to the ear. Since he did not choose to be an admiral, he might have made a great editor of a great picture paper, but he did not choose that either. In the course of twelve weekly lectures, he will use as many as four hundred or five hundred lantern slides — sometimes more
than fifty to a lecture. Never is one wasted. Never is one superfluous. Each has its particular value.

"Lights may be off and on half a dozen times during the lecture. If there are many lantern slides there may be a continuous sub-illumination like that of a moving-picture house, with the lecturer's clear-cut features moving about in the glow of the reading-lamp like a detached head at a seance, explaining concrete examples, such as paleolithic flints or Battersea enamel or Indian basketry or Turkish rugs. Then the lights will be on most of the time. But no matter how much illustration has to be given, and no matter how much ground has to be covered, promptly at the end of the sixtieth minute full illumination will reign, and Sir Bertram indie, picking up his watch and his notes, will be announcing, 'This day week, ladies and gentlemen, I hope to speak of ---'

"Promptitude in beginning and ending is one of the ingredients of Sir Bertram indie's phenomenal success in interesting the unlearned, and keeping them interested, in subjects usually considered matters for the study or the class-room only. Manner, too, has much to do with it. 'I could listen for sixty minutes to that man if he were only reciting the multiplication table,' declared a yachtman to the writer. This was at the end of a lecture on pottery-making from neolithic times to now.

"Each of all merits of method lies the fact that Sir Bertram indie knows what he knows, and never pretends to know what he does not know. If a question concerns the human body he can be positive. He has been an examiner in Anatomy in the Universities of Cambridge, Aberdeen, Glasgow, Durham, and for the Royal College of Physicians, London, and the Royal College of Surgeons, Ireland. He is a Doctor of Laws (Ireland, Birmingham, etc.)"
ham, and Boston,) of Science, of Philosophy and Medicine. And, though it was thirty-five years since he had given an anaesthetic, he officiated at an emergency operation for appendicitis performed by Dr. Stenhouse of Toronto during an Atlantic crossing recently. The operation was successful, and the patient lives. If the question touches the human soul he can be positive there also. Sir Bertram indle is, putting it simply, a Christian. One of his most successful public lecture courses in Toronto was that of 1925, on 'Some Religions of Mankind,' attended from the first to the twelfth by Protestant Clergymen, Roman Catholic priests, and a large lay audience of men and women, boys and girls -- and not a word of controversy.

"If the question is one of theory Sir Bertram gives both or all sides, and lets his audience choose. Did the Chinese discover America a millenium before Columbus? He will tell you of what are considered to be evidences of Chinese influence in the early culture of this continent, and point out the possibilities of infiltration from Asia by the supposed Alaskan land-bridge, or the sweep of the Pacific currents. (His cousin, Admiral Sommerville, by the way, is the author of a masterly work on tides and currents that is accepted by the Admiralty as the ultimate authority on the subject.)

"You may draw your own conclusions about the Chinese in America, but Sir Bertram is not in haste about his. He may remind you of the stalagmite formations of Kent's Cavern, 'proved' to be so many thousand years old by scientific computation of their rate of formation -- and disproved to be so old by the discovery of an authenticated signature and date of the seventeenth century beneath them. Or he may cite the example of an ass's hoof, with quite modern shoeing, found beneath several
strata of relics of definitely pre-historic cultures. Or he may instance the theory built up by Grant Allan on philological evidence touching the antiquity of the English village of Ormingford.

"Lord," the Anglo-Saxon termination indicating the crossing-place of a river; 'ing,' the common suffix meaning follows or descendants of: Ormingford must, therefore, be the pre-Christian settlement of the people of Òrm, an eponymous tribal hero whose totem or personal emblem may have been the great Earth-Serpent. From which the theorist goes on to derive and deduce fascinating corroborations from the imagined practice of serpent-worship in Britain, falling back on the dracontia, or serpentine-shaped sun-temple of the late Bronze Age, like Stonehenge and Avebury. With encouragement they might easily get past the Garden of Eden, which also had a notable serpent! But some one, by a consultation of the Doomsday Book, proved indisputably that the village was originally Òtheremunderford and had nothing to do with worms at all.

"The Mingle Lectures have become an institution in Toronto, as much a part of the first twelve weeks of the year as the municipal elections, hockey matches, the Skating Club Carnival or the Ontario Society of Artists' exhibition. For 1927 they will carry the general reader of history up to that point where the written history of Europe begins."
There have always been men whose entire energies were absorbed in some particular field shut up within the confines of a scientific laboratory. There have always been brilliant minds who found life in the test tube, or within the swinging orbs of invisible electrons, who plunged into the mysteries of the unknown planets with an ever reinforcing enthusiasm. Mighty men of science, pioneering through the ages, piercing the unknown for a glimpse of that ever escaping truth -- these men arouse within us a deep feeling of awe and admiration.

There have also been great men who have searched the beautiful and the mysterious, not by mundane experimentation, but by the mighty stroke of the pen, crystallizing beautiful phrases, or by the powerful pulsating cries and entreaty whines of instruments, or by life portrayal in colors reproduced on canvas. They too are searchers of truth, reflected in the ever-living beauty of our environment -- and they too evoke our praise.

But it seems legendary to regard these two types of greatness as entities within themselves, conflicting and incompatible, portraying two types of personality diametrically opposite. And perhaps there is some justification for this legend. Witness Rousseau who was too sensitive to look on at an anatomical demonstration. And who can conceive of Shelley, sonorously balancing a test tube upon the rhythmicity of a poem. It would seem that the sensitiveness, the imaginary unrealism that characterizes the poet, artist, and musician are not adapted for the laboratory, and would be hampering influences towards fruitful results in experimentation.

It will be my purpose to dispel this motion. It will be my purpose to demonstrate the likeness between the scientist and the poet, and to show that fundamentally, the driving impulse, the dynamic factor in
the two is the same, and when reinforced by one another, both the poet and the scientist become greater.

I might bring before you Leonardo da Vinci, whose omnivorous prying upon the sources of knowledge, produced such illuminating experimentation and dissection, and yet whose Mona Lisa still smiles slyly through the ages. And might I not mention Goethe -- a most unusual combination, author of a theory of light, first propounder of the theory of metamorphosis of plants, discoverer of the premaxillary bone in man, but poet and dramatist par excellence, author of "Egmont," "Faust," "Wilhelm Meister." In him were blended the greatness of all things. A flower to him meant not only the theory of evolution, and a group of scientific names, but also a poetic unity, a thing of beauty.

But I need not go into the realm of pure science to show the felicitous combination. Permit me to delve into one of our practical sciences, and one of the finest of arts, and bring before you men of whom you have perhaps heard as doctors, but I shall bring them not as men of the profession but as witnesses to the existence of the dual personality.

II

Oliver Wendell Holmes is perhaps more known as one of the finest of the American essayists and poets of the last century. The witty New England aristocrat who really possessed the grand manner of conversation, whose criticism was always coached in sparkling witicism, and penetrating darts of sarcasm that evoked smiles even from his opponents, this same Oliver Wendell Holmes was a physician of great repute, Professor of Anatomy at Dartmouth College from 1838-40, and Parkman Professor of Anatomy and Physiology at Harvard Medical School from 1847 for a period of twenty-five years. This same poet wrote many scientific papers based upon original observation. He studied malaria -- wrote a paper "On Intermittent Fever in New England," being the sum total of his observations of the dreaded disease in that part of the country.
But his greatest single permanent contribution to medicine was his paper "On the Contagiousness of Puerperal Fever." This was in 1823, five years before the more momentous work of the Viennese, Semmelweiss, on the same subject. He protested against the neglect of the pregnant woman at the hands of the profession. Physicians attending obstetrical cases should not take part in postmortem examinations -- that this very practice often was the etiological factor in the causation of puerperal infection. Although, unheeded at that time, yet it was a great contribution to medicine, and little did he deserve that heap of abuse that was poured on his great head for such a fine humanitarian discovery.

Here was a poet and a doctor -- perhaps not a true experimental scientist, but we must judge him according to those times, when Bowditch's laboratory was just bringing physiology to America, and Osler, at McGill, was preaching the gospel of a new scientific medicine. To show how well were blended poetry and medicine in this beloved New England doctor permit me to quote from some of his writings.

Thus he pleads in "Puerperal Fever" -- "the woman about to become a mother, or with her new born infant upon her bosom, should be the object of trembling care and sympathy wherever she bears her tender burden, or drops her aching limbs. The solemn prayer of the liturgy singles out her sorrows from the multiple trials of life to plead for her in the hour of peril. God forbid that any member of the profession to which she trusts her life, doubly precious at that eventful period, should hazard it negligently, inadvisedly or selfishly."

This, gentlemen, is the poetic, the nobler practice of obstetrics. This thought puts soul into the forceps, as it brings life into the world, this elevates the physician to the priesthood -- a guardian to his fellow-men.

Let us turn now to anatomy, and see how the epigrammatic professor taught this much dreaded course. Holmes describes his lecture class:
No, when the class I was lecturing to was sitting in an atmos­phere once breathed already, after I had seen head after head gently de­clin ing, and one pair of eyes after another emptying themselves of intel­ligence, I have said, inaudibly with the considerable self restraint of Hesiodora's rural lover, 'sleep on, dear youth, this does not mean that you are indolent, or that I am dull; it is the partial coma of commencing asphyxia.'"

We are told "he compared the microscopic coiled tube of a seba­ceous gland to a fairy's intestine. He likened the mesentery to the shirt ruffles of a preceding generation, from which a short line of attachment expanded into yards of complicated folds. He compared an autopsy to the inspection of fire works the morning after the Fourth of July." During a dissection, pointing to the bony outlet of the pelvis, he exclaimed, "These, gentlemen, are the tuberosities of the ischia on which man was de­signed to sit and survey the works of creation." Bard, wit, fluent talker, he made the cadaver live, and there could have been no better way to make the medical student remember and enjoy his anatomy.

Those who have read the "Breakfast Series" will agree with Osler, who recommended it as a notable psychoanalytical study of American life. Holmes sounds peculiarly modern, and one would venture to say that our mental psychology today is very little different from that of his times:

"Our American atmosphere," he writes, 'is vocal, with a flippant loquacity of half knowledge, and half knowledge dreads nothing but whole knowledge. How could a people which has a revolution every four years, which has contrived the bowy knife and revolver, which has chewed the juice of all the superlatives in the language of Fourth of July oratories, and so used up its epithets in the rhetoric of abuse, that it takes two great quarto dictionaries to supply its demand, which insists on sending out yachts, and horses and boys to outrun, outfight, and checkmate all the rest of creation, how could such a people be content with any but heroic
practice? that wonder that the stars and stripes wave overdoses of 90 grains of quinine, and that the American eagle screams with delight to see 100 grains of calomel given at a single mouthful."

But Holmes, the wit, could be serious, and his concern for his profession was always genuine. He was not the ordinary practitioner, oblivious to the dynamic trends of his profession. To him medicine was "the science of life and the art that is based upon it," and that "medicine -- should share, if not lead the great wave of knowledge which rolls with the tides that circle the globe," that "medicine professedly founded on observation is as sensitive to outside influence, political, religious, philosophical, imaginative as the barometer to the changes of atmospheric density."

But he never lost sight of the practical aspect of medicine. Here his literary trend with its fundamental background of psychological insight was reflected in the consideration he bore the patient coupled with the necessity of safeguarding the doctor. Thus he warns the physician:

"A man who may be called at a moment's warning into the fragrant wardrobe of suffering, liveliness, should not unsweeten the atmosphere with reminiscences of extinguished meerschaums. He should remember that the sick are sensitive and fastidious, that they love the sweet odors, and the pure tint of flowers, and if his is not like the breath of a rose, if his hand is not like the leaf of a lily, his visit may be unwelcome, and if he looks behind him, he may see a window thrown open after he has left the sick room."

However, the doctor as a public servant yet deserves some right to his own life.

"When you find yourself in the presence of one who is fertile of medical cures -- of a member of congress whose name figures in certificates to the value of patent medicines, of a voluble dame who discourses
on the miracles she has wrought -- take out your watch and count the pulse, also note the time of day, and charge the price of a visit for every extra fifteen or twenty minutes. In this way, you will turn what seems a serious dispensation into a double blessing -- for this class of patients love dearly to talk, and it does them a deal of good, and you feel as if you have earned your money by the dose you have taken quite as honestly as any dose you might have ordered."

This then, is Oliver Wendell Holmes, master of medicine and of letters, outstanding in both -- a witness of the compatibility of poetry and science. His pen produced a variety of works, but to the medical student who is looking for inspiration, let him absorb himself in his medical essays, parts of which rank with Osler's "Equanimitas" for sound advice, and for the cheering up of those dull moments when everything seems dark and dreary.

III

We now turn to a contemporary of Holmes, a different type of personality. The name of Eir-Mitchell to the medical profession means pioneer neurologist, but to the world of letters it means novelist and poet. Whereas in Holmes the poet predominated, in Eir-Mitchell, it is difficult to say which part of the man was greater. The Philadelphia physician was a true experimentalist. His work on serpent venom forms the basis of our present knowledge in this field. He was interested in the action of various drugs, and vegetable poisons, and worked upon the physiology of many of the smaller animals. In 1863, he was put in charge of a hospital for soldiers suffering from injuries of the brain and mental disorders. Always resourceful, and an extremely diligent worker, Eir-Mitchell utilized this opportunity to give to the world descriptions of diseases hitherto unmentioned in the literature. Injuries to the nerves and their consequences, forms of neuritis, trophic disturbances, the physical and psychical phenomena presented by those who had lost their limbs
through amputation were all in the repertoire of his work. In 1873, he showed that section of the median nerve did not completely annihilate sensibility in the distribution of the nerve according to the then accepted anatomy. He recognized overlapping nerve areas, and also distinguished between protopathic and epicritic, thus anticipating the River-Head Experiment.

But standing as he was an experimentalist, he was even greater as a practicing physician. They remember Weir-Mitchell today as the beloved doctor. His practice was proverbial, and his ability to cure by suggestion and remark in nervous diseases brought him patients from all over the world. Who has not heard of the famous rest treatment? This may sound unusually simple and nonsuggestive to the modern practitioner, but it was really a great advancement in the treatment of hysteria, psychastenia, and neurasthenia.

It would seem that a man so productive of great things could not have possibly found time for the utilization of gifts in other fields, but Silas Weir-Mitchell, the novelist, in later years was even more known than Mitchell, the doctor. He had always dabbled in literature, but it was not until he was well advanced in years that he gave to the public, "The Case of George Dedlow," a psychological study, "Hugh Wyne," an historical tale, "Adventures of Francois," a story of the French Revolution, and many other less known novels. Nor did he forsake poetry and the drama, enriching both with some fine works of his day.

Here again we have a dual personality, and here again the duality fused into unity. There is no discordant note in the lives of Holmes and Mitchell. Their being physicians did not hamper their literary work, nor was their omnivorous nature a detracting influence in their lives as physicians. True enough, Holmes never obtained a great practice, because the public refused to tend their ills to a poet. As Holmes wrote Mitchell, "if you go on writing such charming verse, you will spoil yourself for a
doctor, for no one will believe that you can do two things as well as you
can do this one thing." And again, Holmes admonishes the young practitioner:
"Do not dabble in the muddy sewers of politics, nor linger by the enchant-
ing stream of literature, nor dive in far off fields for hidden waters of
alien sciences. The great practitioners are generally those who concen-
trate all their powers on their business." Yet I cannot help but feel
that the actual lives of these great physicians disproves the admonition.
It might be valid for him who only practices medicine, but for him who
experiments in this great science, the art of literature, is not a detri-
ment, but a reinforcing influence.

IV

Let us now bring forth out of the meshes of time one of that le-
gion of microbe hunters who set out to conquer the enemies of mankind. One
of these, a most unusual individual, set sail one day for the distant
Indian shores in search of mosquitoes. This was not his first venture
into knowledge and truth. He had already published novels and short dramas.
He had written sonatas and concertos, but it seems that the world did not
appreciate this combination of Shakespeare and Beethoven. He had scorned
and frowned, cursed the public for its lack of appreciation. But undaunted
he had plunged into the depths of complicated equations to show the world
the greatness of his mathematical genius. But alas, he alone could under-
stand his formulae. And now, when he set sail for India, Ronald Ross be-
came a microbe hunter. Here at last he was destined to succeed, to unravel
the secret intrigues of the malaria germ.

Ross, in his memories tells us: "I had formed for myself a
definite though audacious program — I should seek every possible exper-
ience, and try very hard at every possible art, but should not attempt
to form conclusions or publish results until I was at least forty." And,
indeed, intentionally or due to circumstances, he did not really accomplish
anything until late in life. His was a restless nature, not at all fitted
for careful work, but he showed how forceful could be the power of imagination in producing great things. True enough, he did not know the scientific name of the mosquito, nor could he classify its various genera and families, but how he could dream about them, how roving was his imagination.

This day relenting God
Hath placed within my hand
A wondrous thing, and God
Be praised. At his command

Seeking his secret deeds
With tears and toiling breath
I find thy cunning seed
Oh, million, murdering death.

I know this little thing
A myriad of men will save
Oh death, where is thy sting.
Thy victory, oh grave?

Before Thy feet I fall,
Lord, who made high my fate
For in the mighty small
Is shown the mighty great.

Sir Ronald Ross, physician, poet, musician, another great dual personality. True enough he was never appreciated as an author, yet it was his poetic soul that led him on to achievement in science. True enough, he did not practice medicine very extensively, yet he practiced the higher medicine — experimentation in search of new truths.

As we look at these figures who have passed before us, we see how false is the statement that science and poetry are incompatible. The foundation for both is imagination. The juggling of test tubes, or equations on the fourth dimension, does not represent the whole process of experimentation. These are only the overt manifestations of that inner surging force — imagination. There is as much poetry in parabolic curves as there is in the graceful curves of a feminine profile, and roving among the planets is just as much poetry as roving in the meadows. As Whittier
said: "Science and medical skill are not incompatible with the true poetic feeling and rhythmic felicity." And as Weir-Mitchell once exclaimed: "Science and imagination at war, why the latter is the very soul of the former." And as Albert Einstein said, just a few months ago in our own day and age:

"The most beautiful thing we can experience is the mysterious. It is the source of all true art and science. He to whom emotion is a stranger, who can no longer pause to wonder and stand wrapped in awe, is as good as dead."
The interpretation of Molière's animosity towards the science of medicine in his day and his influence in furthering the reform of practical medicine cannot be comprehended without some reference to the trend of events that led him to act as "advocatus diaboli" against a profession that had been held in esteem since the days of Hippocrates and Galen. He must have been either a brave man or an arrant fool to attack the Faculté de Paris, since, in all probability, he was foredoomed to failure, as the Faculté was so firmly entrenched in the Capitol. In any event, he was likely, for his pains, to find himself on the outer fringe of the social world. Yet, Molière, in the full tide of his maturity, when seemingly he had everything to lose and nothing to gain, launched without cessation spirited attacks against "the devils, drugs, and doctors" of his day; and strange to say, he was no whit the worse off for his temerity, or if you will, for his courage.

In the year 1643, at the age of twenty-one, Jean Baptiste Poquelin renounced the profession of law, assumed the name of Molière, and joined a dramatic company which went under the high-sounding title of L'Illustre Theatre. This group was managed by Madeleine Bejart, who may have been the source of his inspiration in entering upon the adventurous career of the stage. Molière became rather intimate with her, and by reason of this bond, exerted considerable influence over the company, supported, as it was, in large part by his work and his money. During his connection with this company, he lost his capital and plunged heavily into debt, for which he was arrested and imprisoned. Later, he was released by the authorities through the influence of his father.

The year 1645 marks the beginning of Molière's theatrical career in the country after his departure from Paris. The study of his life in
the provinces gives us some idea of his courage and pluck in following in the midst of privation and danger what to him was an ideal of life. These twelve years of wanderings and sacrifices brought him in contact with the simple peasants, as well as the playgoers of the various towns and provinces. It was during this period that he learned the human aspirations of the humbler classes; here, he met the brigand type, the Don Juan character, and the miserly aristocrat who after a performance would refuse material aid. After years of obscurity and incessant labor, in the year 1658, Moliere's genius obtained at Paris the first official recognition of his dramatic ability by the king and the nobility. This year also marked the beginning of his period of creative endeavor. Earlier in his career, he had derived his plots from Italian, French and Spanish sources, and had borrowed largely from Terence, Boccaccio, and Lope de Vega; but now, he presented original comedies that the Parisians enjoyed and patronized. His comedies took on a simplicity and elevation of style that all but reached literary distinction.

On the eighteenth of November, 1659, the first performance of "Les Precieuses Ridicules" was given at the Hotel du Petit Bourbon. Louis XIV was so pleased with Moliere's caricatures of his courtiers in this comedy that he personally congratulated the author and offered him his protection. The appointment of Valet de Chambre tapissier brought him in personal contact with the king, and gave him courage to attack with vehemence both the nobility and the religious leaders.

About this time his marriage with the voluble and capricious sister of Madeleine Bejart took place and proved such a serious mistake that it warped his life. Armande, fond of pleasure and society, loved adulation and constant attention. Unable to find them in her life with Moliere, who was so busy with his productions, she sought them elsewhere. From that day, Moliere saw the world darken around him, and utterly disgusted declared war against ignorance, pedantry, hypocrisy, and treachery,
wherever he found them. His first target was the physicians of his day. He ridicules their empirical knowledge, as he thinks them devoid of common sense, of scientific knowledge, without ethics or even a sense of responsibility for the deaths that could have been prevented had they not interfered with nature's therapy. In his opinion, the doctor is a man paid by the public to chatter or spout nonsense until nature had decided to cure or until his remedies had succeeded in killing the patient.

His attack on medicine was probably or remotely due to the inability of the doctors to cure his own ailment. He was probably influenced also by a very skeptical physician by the name of La Rothe le Vayer, who, at times, used to suggest ideas for his comedies, portray characters from among his acquaintances, and mimic them in Moliere's presence. Moliere's health was not strong; and the shock of his children's death in 1664, together with the burden of writing and rehearsing, were gradually breaking down his health. His lungs were weak and a chronic cough pointed to symptoms of consumption. Moliere, unable to obtain relief from the medical men of the time, who, like others since his day, were not loath to proclaim marvelous discoveries, began to realize the futility of his expectations from these sources. As a result of excessive worry about his wife, of the overfunctioning of his mind in his effort to keep his audiences amused and his increasing low spirits, Moliere's satire gradually became bitter.

On the 15th of February, 1665, with the performance of the "Don Juan" at the Palais Royal, Moliere launched his first real attack against medicine. In this work, he lashes the unbeliever and the skeptic, the hypocrite and the corrupt nobleman. Don Juan symbolizes the perverted young aristocrat. In this play, the empirical physicians, absorbed in a maze of antiquated erudition and vehemently opposed to experimental progress, attract the heavy satirical wrath of Moliere. His poor opinion of medical men and his total distrust of the power of medical skill in the war against
disease, leads him to a campaign against the ignorant practitioner.

ganarelle, don Juan's servant, disguised as a physician, prescribes for
five or six peasants, who had mistaken him for a doctor and asked his ad-
vice.

"Upon my word, Sir," exclaims SCANARELLE, "I picked them up
where I could. I prescribed at random; it would be a funny thing if pa-
tients should get cured and come to thank me."

DON JUAN: And why not? Why should you not have the same privi-
ileges as the other physicians? They have no more to do with the recovery
of patients than you have. All their art is mere pretense. They do
nothing, but get honor if they succeed; and you may take advantage, as
they do, of a patient's good luck, and see attributed to your remedies
everything that may come from good luck, and from the forces of nature.

SCANARELLE: What, Sir? You are also an unbeliever in medicine?

DON JUAN: It is one of the greatest errors of mankind.

* * * *

SCANARELLE: There was a man who for six days was dying; they
did not know what more to prescribe for him and all the remedies produced
no effect. At last the doctors took it into their heads to give him an
emetic.

DON JUAN: He recovered, did he not?

SCANARELLE: No, he died.

DON JUAN: The effect was marvelous, indeed!

SCANARELLE: I should say so! He could not die for six whole
days, and that made him die at once. Could you have anything more effica-
cious?

The sting of Moliere's pungent humor takes on destructive force
in the following conversation between the two characters:

SCANARELLE (coming out of a place where he had hid himself when
an enemy had drawn his sword against Don Juan; he is called by his master
after the violent quarrel): What is your pleasure, sir?

DON JUAN: How! Scoundrel, you run away when I was attacked?

GROLIERE: I beg your pardon, Sir, I was quite near. I believe that this gown is purgative (this was the one worn by physicians and was being used as a disguise by Don Juan's servant) and that to wear it, is as good as taking medicine.

DON JUAN: Plague on your insolence! Hide your cowardice at least behind a more decent covering.

Poliere evidently was attacking the members of the Faculty of Medicine in Paris, who as physicians were not as eminent as those of other countries, and yet were limiting the number of aspiring practitioners. To depict the student life of those days, I quote from Chatfield Taylor:

"On the left bank of the Seine," he says, "in the heart of the little Medical Center, students in flowing gowns discussed pedantically the doctrines of Galen and Hippocrates. The building which had been for years the home of the Faculty of Medicine had the following pompous inscription: *Urbi et Orbi Salus.*

Proud of its ancient traditions, as the Faculty of Medicine grew in fame, it became exclusive and limited its roster to one hundred. Upholding the ideals and spirit of ancient medicine it established a monopoly over the profession. This exclusive body had one physician to each five thousand of the inhabitants of Paris. In sombre dignity, at least, the Faculty was noteworthy. Imagine a gloomy amphitheatre, lighted by a stained glass window, a hundred doctors, seated amid a throng of sable gowned students, while their dean, with his staff and the insignia representing his authority, exalts in Ciceronian verbiage the ancient glories of the liberal profession. Professional dignity was supposedly professional
skill. This is indicated in the following oath that a professor of medicine took when elected:

"I swear and pronounce faithfully to teach in a long gown with wide sleeves, a doctoral cap upon my head, a knot of scarlet ribbon on my shoulder."

The members of the Faculty expended their energies in elaborate exposition of what they deemed to be the sciences and scarcely interested themselves in surgery. They left it to their assistants to handle the scalpel in dissections. Drapt in the academic robes of the century, the professor of medicine lived in a world of abstract theories and contributed little to the advancement of science.

On the 15th of September, Molière presented at Versailles the comedy, "Love Is the Best Doctor." Despite the fact that it was written hastily at the request of the king, it manifests the genius of Molière. Sganarelle, a prosperous individual and somewhat of a philosopher, shows a great deal of anxiety about the health of his daughter, Lucinde, who is in love. The father concealing his displeasure and attributing her condition to indisposition commands the maid Lisette, a knowing creature in what pertains to human emotions, to fetch the doctors. Lisette cannot understand why one should consult a physician.

"Even the animals are far more advanced than we are," says Lisette to Sganarelle, "for they have no doctors. Upon my word, Sir, our cat had a narrow escape from a leap he took a little while ago from the top of the house into the street. He was three days without eating, and unable to move head or foot; but it is very lucky that there are no cat doctors, else it would have been all over with him, for they would have physicked and bled him."

The doctors called for consultation are actually caricatured in order to manifest the contempt of the French playwright for the famous and popular physicians of the court. Such deep-rooted bias stimulates our
interest in the endeavor to find the cause of his sarcasm, mockery, and derision of the profession.

The doctor's ignorance, even his lack of common sense, as well as his blind acceptance of the Hippocratic dicta, are put vividly in the scene between Lisette and one of the doctors, who is asking about the coachman's health:

TOMES: How is the coachman?
LISETTE: He is dead.
TOMES: Dead?
LISETTE: Yes.
TOMES: That is impossible.
LISETTE: It may be impossible, but it is so.
TOMES: He cannot be dead, I say.
LISETTE: I tell you he is dead and buried.
TOMES: You are mistaken.
LISETTE: I have seen him.
TOMES: It is impossible. Hippocrates says that such diseases do not terminate until the fourteenth or twenty-first day; and he has been ill only six.

LISETTE: Hippocrates may say what he pleases, but the coachman is dead.

The final report of the consulting physician in the case of Lucinde must have been of the usual puzzling diagnostic type, and it may be well to quote the therapeutics suggested by each doctor for a simple mentally depressed condition.

I. Dr. Tomes (the bleeder) states as the cause of Lucinde's mental condition an overheating of the blood, which must be cooled by bleeding.

II. Dr. Desfonandres (murderer of men) states firmly his theory of putrefaction of humors by too much repletion and advises expletion by
emetics.

III. Dr. Macroton finds "emission of fuliginous and mordant exhalations," which irritate the cerebral membranes. These vapours, he insists, are caused by putrid, tenacious conglutinous humors, which have agglomerated in the abdomen. He prescribes purgatives and emollients.

IV. Dr. Bahis figures that the humours have hardened and caused malignant fumes to rise to the brain.

This sketch of the hypocrisy and pedantry of specific types of practitioners is not intended to affect the ideals for which medicine is respected and all but reverenced through the centuries. Holiere employs these typical characters to attack the endless drugging and bleeding by the blind followers of authority, who were overawed by the names of Hippocrates, Galen, and others.

On the 6th of August, 1666, Holiere wrote, "The Physician in Spite of Himself." The play may have originated from an old metrical tale sung by the troubadours. The story is as follows:

"In a town lived a king whose daughter had an abscess in her throat. The doctors applied all kinds of plasters without effect and finally agreed that there was no remedy for the disease. Thereupon the king published an edict to the effect that he who cured the princess would be richly rewarded. The wife of a Brahmin, who heard the proclamation, said to the messenger, 'My husband is the most skillful magician in the world. Take him with you; he will cure the princess.' She said to her husband, 'pretend to be a magician and charmer, go boldly into the town and cure the Princess. You won't waste your time.'

The Brahmin went to the palace, met the princess, sprinkled her with water, imitated the charmers, all the while muttering between his teeth. Suddenly he cried out at the top of his voice, uttering the most absurd words he could think of. On hearing these
strange exclamation the Princess was taken with such a fit of laughter, that the abscess burst and she was cured. The king, transported with joy, loaded the Brahmin with presents."

Holière seizes this opportunity to employ his heavy artillery against ancient medical beliefs and the dogmatic and blind followers of Roman and Greek medicine. He deplores their lack of originality along experimental lines, and portrays Sganarelle to show how any ignorant artisan could with dexterity and bluff pass for a well-educated doctor of his time.

SGANARELLE: Is this the patient?

GERONTE: Yes, I have but one daughter; and I would never get over it if she were to die.

SGANARELLE: Do not let her do anything of the kind. She must not die without a prescription from the physician.

Sganarelle, representing the hard, mercenary, boastful, self-interested type, plunges into a display of false medical knowledge and jumbles anatomical facts, placing the liver on the left side and the heart on the right. Geronte is puzzled and demands an explanation.

"Yes," replies SGANARELLE, "in the past we believed the heart to be on the left and the liver on the right, but we have changed all that, and we nowadays practice the medical art on an entirely new basis."

"They made me a doctor in spite of myself," exclaims the actor. . . . They come seeking me on all sides; and if things go on in this way, I am resolved to stick to the profession all my life. I find it is the best trade of all; for whether we manage well or ill, we are paid just the same. Bad workmanship never recoils on us; . . . for it is always the fault of the fellow who dies. The best of this profession is that there is the greatest honesty and discretion among the dead; for you never find them complaining of the physician who has killed them."

In a comedy acted at the royal fête at Chambord, Holière gives us the following description of one of the physicians and deplores their
attachment to the rules of ancients.

"For all the money in the world he would not cure a patient
with other remedies than those prescribed by the faculty. . . . If
you must die, he is the man to help you to do it quickly."

Poor Monsieur de Pourceaugnac receives the following prescrip-
tion:

"First, to cure the obdurante plethora . . . he should be bled
frequently and copiously, . . . and if the disease be obstinate, the vein
in the forehead should be opened, with an aperture so large that the thick
blood may come out. At the same time, he should be purged, deobstructed,
and evacuated by proper suitable purgatives . . . for since the real
source of all the evil is either a gross and feculent humour, or a black
and thick vapour which obscures, infects and contaminates the animal spirits,
it is proper that he should afterwards take a bath of soft clean water."

Should the patient who submitted himself to such treatment live,
it would really not be the doctor's fault!

Tormented by the ravages of disease, Voltaire was inspired to
write his last comedy, "The Imaginary Invalid." In the main, he mocks the
folly of those who, though in good health, believe themselves ill and fol-
low all sorts of advice and take every imaginable nostrum from the doctor.
He urges the patient to throw the medicines into the fire and the physi-
cians out of the house.

BERALDE: The springs of our mechanism are a mystery of which
up to the present men can see nothing; nature has placed too thick a veil
before our eyes for our knowing anything about it.

AGAN: Then, in your opinion, doctors know nothing?

BERALDE: True, brother, most of them have a great deal of
classical learning, know how to speak in good Latin, can name all diseases
in Greek, define and classify them; but as regards curing them, that is
what they do not know at all. . . . The whole excellence of their art
consists in pompous gibberish, in a specious verbiage, which gives you words, instead of reasons, and promises instead of effects. . . . The physician may glorify the romance of healing, but when you come to the facts and experience, you find little of all this; it is like a dream, which on awakening leaves you nothing but the regret of having believed in it.

Readers who are not versed in the details of Molière's biography might be inclined to believe that his comedies were written in the full flush of fame and health and be unduly influenced by his mockery of illness, death, and the medical profession. The playwright, however, was the victim of the steady march of inexorable events and sensed his failing strength. With a keen satire that springs from the depth of a troubled spirit, he drew upon his experiences and revolted against the cruelty of destiny and the avidity of time. Such satire was not written by a calm analyst of human emotions in the prime of life, but by a languishing poet, who knew that death was near and felt that life was a burden too hard to bear. His humor becomes pointed and cuts deep into the heart of professional medicinal practice. To summarize the final reaction of Molière now close to the tomb and conscious of the end, we shall subjoin the following:

TOINETTE (Disguised as a doctor): I am sorry to leave you so soon; but I must be present at a great consultation to be held about a man who died yesterday.

ARGAN: A man who died yesterday?

TOINETTE: Yes, to consider and see what ought to have been done to cure him.

From a reading of Molière's comedies and an analysis of his satire, we may be led to the false supposition that medicine in the seventeenth century had proved itself a failure in helping humanity and in the treatment of disease. Molière was attacking the degenerate elements and not medical science itself. He himself said: "Medicine is a profitable
art, and everybody reveres it as one of the most excellent things that we have; nevertheless, there have been times when it has been made to appear hateful, and men have made of it an art to poison each other." He wishes to see in doctors sane-minded scientists with a will and a vision of their own. There were in France at the time men of low grade, who deceived their patients for the sake of the fees. The ignorance and dishonesty of this particular group fired Molière's satire. The better doctors of his day did not cry out in rage against his invectives. They simply said that Molière did not know what he was talking about; still they offered no defense to his fiery attacks against their integrity. They knew well enough that he could say well, much that they dared not utter, as they, too, were fully aware of prevalent abuses.
"Right as it is to reduce the man to the document, the real art is from the document to resurrect the man."

-- Francis Hackett

The house of Tudor has always been surrounded with an atmosphere of fascination, and no monarch has created a more intense interest in the events of his private life and personal character than has Henry the VIII. The best historians of our times have come to conclusions that do not always agree. One representative historian ends by stating that Henry had the courage of a lion and that England was saved by the strong right arm and iron will of her Tudor King; while another authority, no less eminent, declares that Henry wasted the advantages he inherited, "was immensely vain, foolish, weak, and thoroughly dishonest."

The school boy has heard of Henry as an inhuman monster capable of almost incredible brutality. Some of us in our more mature years regard Henry as the incarnation of unbridled lechery, appropriating first this maid and then that maid for his bride, and then cruelly casting them aside as his whim and fancy changed. Still others, "with a gesture of worldly generosity, picture him as Bluff King Hall, singing gaily and irresponsibly as he perpetually feasts." Certainly both concepts cannot be true, and as usual the truth lies in neither extreme.

A sound evaluation of Henry's behaviour calls for experts who are able to portray him not only as a King of special interest because of English history, but also as a human being, surrounded by other human beings disturbed by sickness, torn by many conflicting aspirations and tormented by his religion and his sensuality. Henry, after all, had a finger print, like no other; and he left it on the pages of history. With our modern knowledge of psychology and medicine, let us take the finger print and try to resurrect the man.
We are often asked why Henry had so many wives, why he treated them so brutally, and what were the circumstances which governed his choices.

Henry's actions and conduct can be explained by frank reason. The explanation best follows two main lines, the psychological and the pathological.

If we were to put ourselves in the place of one of his contemporary physicians, we would regard many of the actions of his earliest years as psychological; but as we followed him through the years, we would be affronted by the various clinical manifestations which would make the final diagnosis amply plain. As a boy, Henry, undoubtedly, possessed exceptional intellectual endowments and was well educated in the fine arts under the strict guidance of his grandmother. Furthermore, Henry was extremely proud and ambitious.

Henry sought a divorce from his wife, Catherine (who had been previously left the widow of his youthful brother, Arthur) upon the ground that this second marriage of Catherine's was incestuous, adulterous, and, therefore, invalid. This, however, was merely a convenient excuse for far more substantial reasons than the religious and psychological.

To perpetuate the House of Tudor, Henry desired a male heir, but Catherine, after eighteen years, passed her menopause at the age of forty-two, and found herself, after some ten miscarriages, with only one living child, and that a girl, Mary. Henry considered it a national duty to have what he considered a legitimate male heir; hence, the necessity for a new and younger consort.

In May, 1533, Catherine's divorce was accomplished; but four months previously, Henry had already married Anne Boleyn. She was now pregnant and the astrologers predicted a son. But as so often happens, the stars failed to follow their usual course; and a daughter, later Queen Elizabeth, was born. Then Anne began to show the same disposition for miscarriage and stillbirth that Catherine had shown, and Henry's hope for
a male heir faded.

Under the circumstances of the time, and because of the reputation that Anne had established in the French and English courts, a doubt was cast on the paternity of Elizabeth. It thus became a simple matter to bring Anne to trial and to the scaffold.

Jane Seymour succeeded Anne and presented Henry with a son. She succumbed, however, in a few days to childbirth fever.

That the King desired a male heir above all things is shown by the fact that for the next two and one-half years, he showed no interest in the opposite sex.

His fourth marriage with Anne of Cleves was prompted by Cromwell for strictly political reasons, but she seemed so unattractive and unintelligent that the marriage was never consummated.

Katherine Howard, however, proved an antidote for the dose of disappointment in his other brides. "Katherine was happy with her crown and Henry with his Katherine." But she was an empty-headed little flapper who failed to keep her virginity for the royal pleasure, and through pressure from the council was brought to trial, convicted, and beheaded according to the law.

Henry took absolutely no part in the trial, and appeared very broken-hearted during and after the trial. One of his councilors wrote: "He seems very old and gray since the mishap to his late Queen."

"It has been said that the perfect wife should be the young man's mistress, the middle-aged man's companion, and the old man's nurse." Henry's first three wives filled the initial qualification because they were the potential mothers for the desired male heir to the throne. Anne of Cleves and Katherine Howard were his hopes for a companion. Both failed. Then, in his premature old age, the twice-widowed Catherine Parr nursed him to the end.

His twenty-four years with Catherine of Aragon suggest a degree
of constancy. His grief at the loss of Jane Seymour; his kindness to Anne of Cleves; his failure to push the trial of Catherine Howard, and his genuine distress at her death; the role of Catherine Parr, who nursed and mothered him, certainly do not point to Henry as England's monstrous Blue Beard.

Now let us pass from the psychological side and look at the surgical and pathological manifestations which present themselves. The tendency towards stillbirths and miscarriages in his first two wives gives us a clue to the possible role of spirochetes dictating some of England's sixteenth century history.

There seems to be no suggestion of syphilis in Henry's father or mother, as Henry the VII and Elizabeth of York had a large family and died natural deaths. At the time of Henry's youth, syphilis was spreading like a plague over Europe, and since Henry was unusually handsome, tall, fair-haired, strong and athletic, distinguished by his robust good health, and exceptional mental talents, we can not blame congenital syphilis. The spirochete must have gained entrance into Henry's body in his youth. Seven months after his marriage to Catherine of Aragon, she gave birth to a still-born daughter. Then followed three more stillbirths. Next followed a daughter, Mary. As she grew up, evidence of syphilis began to show. Her prematurely old and scarred face; her thin patchy hair, her square head, her poor vision diagnosed by Sir Clifford Allbut as interstitial keratitis; her miscarriage soon after her marriage to Philip II of Spain; her sudden and premature death at the age of forty-two, probably due to arterial degeneration and high blood pressure — all these certainly make the diagnosis of congenital syphilis obvious.

After the birth of Mary, Catherine had a few more miscarriages, and one still-born. She died at about the age of fifty-two; but before her death, she showed a rapid physical decline, suffering from edema,
violent pains in the legs and abdomen. It is likely that hers was a cardiac death, since she was conscious to the last. No authentic autopsy is available, but the tanner who embalmed the body stated that all the organs were normal except the heart, which was black and had a large black mass protruding from it. Could this have been an aneurism?

After the birth of Elizabeth, Anne Boleyn showed the same tendencies to miscarriages and still-births that Catherine had showed. Jane Seymour died before any similar misfortune befell her. The male heir which she gave Henry suffered throughout the brief seventeen years of his life from ill health. His death may have been due to the "Sweating sickness," but we suspect syphilis again, because of an ulcerous skin eruption and loss of hair and fingernails.

While Katherine Howard was queen, there was much mention of Henry's "Leg trouble" or "Old Fistulae" which when closed, gave him a great deal of pain and fever. The chief causes for chronic ulcers of the leg are varicose veins and syphilis. Ulcers due to varicose veins even of long standing and large size often are remarkably painless and are far less common in men than in women. On the other hand, syphilitic ulcers are usually associated with a similar disease of the bone and cause considerable pain. Osteomyelitis may be superimposed with a temporary closure; fever may develop. Before and up to the time of his death, Henry suffered many times from fever.

Apparently syphilis and sepsis were taking their toll of his cardiovascular system. He became short of breath, suffered from extreme headaches, edema and ascites. Death finally came after much pain.

The medical evidence strongly points to pathological changes due to syphilis which not only wrecked the life of Henry VIII, but also the health and happiness of his consorts and progeny.
During the Tsarist regime, there was no attempt at unification of medical practice in Russia. The physicians were members of the educated wealthy and privileged classes, and were independent of government interference. Most of the larger cities contained hospitals which though good, were all too few in number. Russia was unique in having in the rural districts a semi-qualified practitioner known as a feldscher. This was a condition met with in no other part of Europe and was the result of the totally inadequate medical facilities in the rural districts. The feldscher was given a modified medical course of about two years and was prepared to do emergency aid work, perform minor operations, and prescribe for the more common diseases.

The maternity cases were practically all conducted by midwives, most of whom were totally unqualified for the position. There were no medical courses given in the subject, and there was no supervision of any kind. The midwives were generally women who had given birth to several offspring and that served as an apprenticeship which they considered sufficient.

In 1913, there were only 12,677 physicians in the whole of Russia to care for a population of 150,000,000 people. Of these physicians, 71% lived in the larger cities, leaving an average ratio of one to 20,000 peasants; in some districts only one to 40,000, and in the cities a ratio of one to every 3,000 persons. At that time, the peasants comprised 80% of the population, and as these figures indicate, they received the care of only 29% of the physicians who happened to be the inferior type of practitioners, unable to make a comfortable living in the cities.

The death rate for all Russia in 1913 was 28.3 per one thousand population. Infant mortality in Moscow in that year was 270 per one
thousand live births; and in the rural districts, it was even greater. The mortality was more than twice that of England and four times that of Norway for the same period.

As before stated, there was no attempt made for unification or centralization of medicine. There was no organized attempt made to prevent epidemics of such diseases as malaria, cholera, small-pox, and typhus fever. Local authorities in several areas along the Volga River did make several feeble attempts to control the ravages of malaria, but their efforts met with little success because of the lack of quinine and money to establish sufficient drainage of stagnant pools and swamps.

The old regime, however, must be given some credit for the part it played in advancement of medicine. Names like Pavlov, Orbelli, Speransky, Pirogov and Yetchinkov should be familiar to all of us. In 1911, Pavlov acquired the Reflex tower at St. Petersburg, a laboratory in which the observer can be isolated from his experimental animals, and also from the outside world. Several child welfare clinics were established, but they were not considered successful.

After the world war began in 1914, the unsatisfactory conditions already existing in Russia were aggravated. Epidemics of all kinds were rampant. Unhealthy sanitary conditions became worse. The World's greatest wheat-raising belt was famished for bread. Infants and children became malnourished, and their death rate was enormous. The nation as a whole needed more facilities to take care of its sick. The physicians were busy with curative rather than preventive medicine.

Following the termination of the Tsarist's regime in 1918, medical practice and hospital care were nationalized and made an official function and responsibility of the new state. Dr. K. A. Semaschke was appointed Commissar of Health and undertook the development of this nationalization and socialization of medicine. He asserted that medicine should be unified; that medical aid should be available to all citizens;
that the medical personnel should be suitably qualified, and that the main emphasis should be placed on disease prevention. As a member of the Cabinet, Dr. Semashke was responsible for everything related to the public health; and it was his duty to see that the health program was efficiently carried out.

In order to increase the number of practicing physicians, it was found necessary to make changes in medical education. Formerly, any student who wished could study medicine. Now, however, the students are selected from the industrial workers and peasants. Eighty-five percent of the students are financed through school by the Central government. Everything, including room and board and spending money is furnished them. Special methods for the preparation of the students for the study of medicine have been devised. Special schools called "Workers' Faculties" have been adopted. The teaching in these faculties, as well as in the medical schools, has been made eminently practical and much of the former theoretical instruction has been omitted.

Each medical faculty is divided into three parts -- (a) A curative -- prophylactic faculty for the preparation of interns, surgeons, and dentists. (b) A hygienic -- prophylactic faculty for the preparation of public health officials, epidemiologists and nutritionists and, (c) A faculty for maternal and child welfare for training obstetricians and pediatricians. A medical student is, therefore, required to specialize almost from the beginning; and he graduates as a specialist. The medical schools have been placed under the Department of Health, rather than under the Department of Education.

In Russia, sickness is no longer a private and personal matter. Since every inhabitant is a social and economic unit, disease is looked upon as harmful to the State; and restoration of health, the prevention of disease and the cultivation of optimum health are regarded as State responsibilities.
Because of the increased number of specialists, it became necessary to organize the physicians into groups in "Unitary Dispensaries," each dispensary serving a district of about 30,000 persons. These receive about one thousand visits daily from patients. At a dispensary, every person of the district must report for examination, whether he be sick or not; and he is studied by a group method of diagnosis. The results of the study are recorded in the worker's "Sanitary Diary," a booklet which each person presents on his periodic returns to the dispensary.

The conditions of the different occupations are carefully studied, and the living conditions of the people in their homes are investigated with the object of instituting suitable preventive methods. It might be added here that housing conditions in Russia at present are anything but satisfactory. The industrialization of the country has concentrated more people into relatively small areas, making it necessary for two, three, or even four families to occupy a house which was formerly occupied by only one, which again makes preventive medicine an imperative measure.

Health education is promoted in various ways, such as public lectures, newspaper articles, radio talks, motion pictures, a large series of colored artistic medical posters, many health museums and traveling exhibits.

Soviet Russia has introduced certain institutions that might well be imitated in other countries. Thus, malnourished children are sent to "forest schools," where they live for several months under ideal health conditions, gain weight, and are taught what to eat and how to live hygienically.

The procedure in the case of a person suffering from tuberculosis is illuminating. Whereas, in the United States, a case of tuberculosis in a family is usually an economic disaster, nothing of this sort is true in Soviet Russia. In that land incipient tuberculosis will probab-
ly be discovered because of the periodic physical examinations. The patient is referred to the Tuberculosis Institute of his community. Those afflicted with tuberculosis, but who are capable of performing some work, are cared for in the "Day Sanitoria" or "Night Sanitoria" close to the place in which they work until they are believed to be in a condition to live ordinary lives outside.

If the patient needs attention in a sanitarium, his expenses are paid; and he receives his full salary, so that his family need not suffer. He is carefully watched after his discharge, and the type and amount of his work is adjusted to his strength.

Venereal diseases were formerly very prevalent and are still widespread, although the department of health is making a vigorous campaign against them. Prostitution has become illegal, and the Russians have adopted a novel method of eliminating it. When a woman is apprehended soliciting, she is not fined or jailed, but is taken to a training school where she is taught a respectable trade and encouraged to change her mode of life to a more favorable one. The Worker's Clubs are also influential in discouraging prostitution because of the number of interesting studies and free concessions which are designed to keep the young man's attention attracted away from that type of woman. The Government is also very active in distributing advice concerning prophylaxis against venereal diseases.

Abortion has been legalized in Soviet Russia. A woman who has been pregnant for not more than two and one-half months and who does not desire the child may have an abortion performed legally in a gynecological clinic, provided a committee of three members, including a physician and a social worker approves. The Government has taken this method of safeguarding womanhood because of the high mortality of the operation when performed by quacks in unsanitary surroundings. The Government claims to have saved the lives of 300,000 women by this procedure.
in a period of ten years.

From the above statement, it would seem that the officials of Soviet Russia are discouraging the increase in the population; but the opposite is true. Russia needs more manpower, and it is the only country in the world today which does not suffer from unemployment. Women are encouraged to bear children. The offices from which marriage licenses are obtained are decorated with pictures of small, frolicking children.

To further encourage child-bearing, the Government has established numerous maternity clinics affording free prenatal care. A woman is granted free hospitalization for a period of six weeks before and six weeks after child-birth. If she is a paid worker, she continues to draw full wages. Subsequently, she is also granted leave to nurse the infant during working hours.

Much medical research is also being encouraged. Plans are being laid for a huge new medical center at Leningrad, "The All-Union Institute of Experimental Medicine." Dr. S. S. Goldwater, New York's commissioner of Hospitals, is to be official adviser for this project. The Institute, costing over fifty million dollars, will occupy two hundred acres. There will be conditioned chambers in which human reactions to every Russian climate, from the Arctic to the sub-tropical, may be studied. There will be rooms in which the reverberation, din, and dust of industrial conditions can be reproduced. The auditorium for national and international congresses will seat 1,500 persons.

While medical conditions, in general, have improved tremendously, the position of the physician has not been so fortunate. He, like everyone else, is a vassal of the state. His salary now ranges from a mere $60.00 to $120.00 a month, and he must live in crowded tenement quarters. It may even be necessary for him to share the kitchen of his humble abode with others. The state demands six of his hours each day. Beyond that, he may have private patients. However, the practice is bound to be much
too small because free medical attention is so easily accessible to all.

If the physician wishes to do research work in any particular field, the Government establishes him in a small laboratory with the necessary equipment. His promotion is based upon the contributions which he makes to medical science.

Evidently, the Russians are making medical history at a rate which has never before been equalled. It will be interesting and instructive to watch the development of this gigantic project.
The CADUCEAN SOCIETY, the first cultural organization to be founded in the Creighton University School of Medicine, was established in 1931 by a group of students endeavoring to stimulate more interest in extra-curricular activities of a cultural nature.

Members are chosen from those attending the bi-monthly seminar, on a basis of their scholastic standing and interest in the history of medicine.

In its undertaking, the society has been inspired by the late Dr. Herman von W. Schulte. Dr. Charles M. Wilhelmj, Professor of Physiology, has been the guiding influence in its organization and its present high status among the faculty and the students of the University.

Bi-monthly papers, dealing with the history of medicine from its primitive beginning to the present time, have been given by the members of the organization. The purpose of these studies has been to give the members a deeper appreciation of their profession and to enable them to profit by the work of their predecessors.

At different times during the school year, outside speakers came before the organization to present their views of matters and to give new information which might enable the students to progress more rapidly along the lines of medical history.

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October 26, 1934

Dr. Gustav M. Dishong, Professor of Mental and Nervous Diseases, outlined the "History of Psychiatry," and contrasted the status of this science years ago with the rapid appreciation of its indisputable importance in the practice of medicine of the present and the future. His presentation of various cases which had come under his personal observation during the last few years gave the students a new interpretation of psychiatry.
November 9, 1933

Dr. WilhelmJ brought forth the relation of disease to the progress of civilization. His description of the "devils, drugs, and doctors" and their influence on the destiny of mankind inspired the members to further research into the history of medicine.

November 23, 1933

Colonel George A. Skinner, retiring Surgeon of the Seventh Corps Area, in a meeting of the society, vividly and enthusiastically portrayed the progress of the army and its contribution to the science of medicine. His personal experiences with the problem of yellow fever control added sparkling interest to the cultural enjoyment of the evening. Colonel A. S. Pinto, President of the Reserve Officers Medical Society, was also present, and, at the invitation of Colonel Skinner, modestly narrated his participation in the experiments conducted during the epochal war against the dreaded virus of yellow fever.

Gabriel P. Greco, '22, delivered a paper on "Holiere and the Medico."

December 7, 1933

Rev. Clayton spoke on "How to be a successful physician." He expressed his belief that the medical student must begin to learn as soon as he enters the University the value of ideals and the joy of sacrifice in relieving the suffering of humanity. The secret of success resides in the attainment of satisfaction, not by entering the profession for monetary or material gain, but by accomplishing one's duty with cheerfulness. Thus, by practicing the profession for the love of its ideals, the physician will in time receive his reward.

Leo C. Henrich, '35, presented a paper on "Henry the VIII."
December 14, 1933

The Caducean Society held its annual banquet at the Fontenelle Hotel. Guests of honor were: Dr. B. M. Riley, Dean of the Creighton School of Medicine; Dr. A. G. Pohlman, Professor of Anatomy; Colonel G. A. Skinner, of the U.S. Medical Corps; Dr. A. S. Pinto, former Health Commissioner of Omaha and recipient of a Congressional Medal for notable work in the eradication of yellow fever in Panama; Dr. C. M. Wilhelmj, Faculty Moderator, Dr. V. E. Levine, Professor of Bio-Chemistry; Rev. J. J. McInerny, Regent of the School of Medicine; Dr. G. W. Dishong, Professor of Mental and Nervous Diseases; Dr. N. Dietz, Jr., and Leo P. Clements.

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January 11, 1934

Dr. C. M. Wilhelmj expressed the hope that the physicians of the coming generations will dedicate themselves unselfishly to the cause of humanity. In order to achieve such an ideal, it is necessary that there be cooperation between the clinician and the experimental scientist.

A. L. Kazowsky presented a paper on the "Iatro-chemical and the Iatro-physical school."

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January 25, 1934

Dr. A. F. Tyler, guest speaker of the society, narrated a series of interesting episodes in the history of radiology of the State of Nebraska. His account of the early dangers, and anecdotes of the sacrifices and misfortunes of the heroic pioneers, inspired the members with respect for those unselfish men who paved the way for the recognition of the X-ray as a safe clinical and therapeutical necessity.

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February 8, 1934

Dr. Francis W. Hoagey, Associate Professor of Medicine, spoke
on "The Physician and Social Work," and emphasized the need of unselfishness in our relation with the poor and the unfortunates who have not as yet been eliminated from our civilization. This service, which is imposed upon us because of the sacredness of our profession, will bring indirectly inestimable results in the achievement of personal satisfaction and of material wealth.

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February 22, 1934

Irwin Beigus, who has worked in the Departments of Physiology and Experimental Surgery of Creighton University with Dr. C. Wilhelmj and Dr. Frederick C. Hill, presented a paper on the "History of Digestion."

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March 3, 1934

Rev. Leo Cullany, S. J., was guest speaker at a reception held in honor of Dr. Charles Wilhelmj at the Fontenelle Hotel. He interpreted the psychology of the patient in a unique presentation, entitled "100,000,000 Guinea Pigs." Morris Lev, vice-president of the society, exalted Dr. Wilhelmj, the physician, the scientist, the poet, and the man. His inspiring praise was a testimonial of the members to the guiding influence of our Faculty Moderator for the services rendered the society since the year of its foundation in 1931.

Richard Gigotti, D.D., presented a paper on "Blood Coagulation."

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March 22, 1934

Dr. Ernest Kelley, Associate Professor of Nervous and Mental Diseases, at a meeting recalled his early experiences as a psychiatrist, and delighted the audience with illustrations and examples of the various mental states. The relation of the criminal to the insane and his position in society was also discussed.
A. Riemer, M3, gave a paper on "State Medicine."

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April 5, 1934

Rev. John J. McInerny, S.J., Regent of the School of Medicine, exalted the ideals of the physician and stressed the relation between religion and medicine. He also spoke on "The History of the Society of Jesus." He expressed his pleasure in observing the gradual progress of the Caducean Society, and its importance in stimulating the interest of the student in the cultural aspects of medicine.

Adolph J. Bellantoni, M2, read a paper on "The History of Pathology from Ancient Times to the Seventeenth Century."

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April 19, 1934

Dr. Frank Murphy, Associate Professor of Obstetrics, was guest speaker and gave a lecture on "Primitive Obstetrics." The suffering of earlier women during the tragedy of childbirth, because of the ignorance of the ancients, and the tortures experienced by them in those hours of terror were the main proofs of the barbarous customs of those ages of filth and superstition.

P. L. Koch, M5, gave a talk on "The Development of Medicine in Russia since 1917."

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April 27 and 28, 1934

The History of Science Section of the Nebraska Academy of Science was sponsored by the Caducean Society. Dr. Charles A. Wilhelm acted as chairman. Papers were presented by the following students: Morris Blacker, Leo C. Henrich, Adolph J. Bellantoni, Herman A. Zampetti, A. Riemer, Gabriel P. Grecco, Wallace Graham, Morris Lev, and P. L. Koch. Two members of the faculty participated: Dr. Victor E. Levine and Dr. Nicholas Dietz, Jr.
Dr. Jesse Bollman, Assistant Director of The Division of Experimental Medicine at the Mayo Foundation, was the guest of the Caducean Society. A banquet was given in his honor at the Fontenelle Hotel. His subject was "The Experimental Production of Septic Ulcer." Dr. Bollman also gave a lecture at the Creighton University School of Medicine on "Experimental Pathology of the Liver."

The following officers were elected for the approaching term: John Collins, president; John Grayson, vice-president; Gabriel F. Greco, recording secretary; Irwin Neigus, corresponding secretary; Abraham Riener, treasurer.

Gabriel F. Greco
Recording Secretary
Blitz, Daniel, New York City, New York.
Caducean Society, '32-'33.
Intern, Israel-Zion Hospital, Brooklyn, New York.

Fellman, Abraham, Omaha, Nebraska.
Caducean Society, '31-'33.
Intern, St. Joseph's, Omaha, Nebraska.

Allegrini, Anthony Alio, San Jose, California.
Caducean Society, '31-'34. President 1931-1932.
Nebraska Academy of Science.
Intern, Southern Pacific Hospital, San Francisco, California.

Appelsis, Abraham, New York City, New York.
Caducean Society, '33-'34.
Nebraska Academy of Science.
Intern, Hospital for Joint Diseases, New York.

Caducean Society, '31-'34.
Intern, St. Vincent's Hospital, New York.

Blacker, Morris Roland, Omaha, Nebraska.
Caducean Society, '31-'34. Secretary 1932-33.
Nebraska Academy of Science.

Bourdeau, Emory Joseph, Missoula, Montana.
Caducean Society, '31-'34.
Intern, St. Joseph's Hospital, Omaha, Nebraska.

Campion, George Stuart, Moss, California.
Caducean Society, '31-'34. President 1932-33.
Nebraska Academy of Science.

Everman, Cornwall Claude, San Rafael, California.
Intern, St. Mary's Hospital, Kansas City, Missouri.

Green, Hubert Francis, Omaha, Nebraska.
Caducean Society, '32-'34.
Intern, St. Joseph's Hospital, Omaha, Nebraska.

Kelley, John Whitney, Omaha, Nebraska.
Caducean Society, '32-'34.
Intern, St. Joseph's Hospital, Omaha, Nebraska.

Caducean Society, '32-'34. Corresponding Secretary 1933-34.
Intern, Michael Reese Hospital, Chicago, Illinois.

Lipp, Frank Edward, Omaha, Nebraska.
Caducean Society, '31-'34.
McDonald, Daniel Claude, Portland, Oregon.
Caducean Society, '31-'34.
Intern, St. Vincent's Hospital, Portland, Oregon.

Moskowitz, Simon Lerner, Brooklyn, New York.
Caducean Society, '31-'34.
Intern, County Hospital, Omaha, Nebraska.

Murphy, John Joseph, Boston, Massachusetts.
Caducean Society, '32-'34. President 1933-1934.
Intern, Long Island Hospital, Boston, Massachusetts.

Hagle, John Michael, San Francisco, California.
Caducean Society, '31-'34. Corresponding Secretary 1931-32.
Intern, Southern Pacific General Hospital, San Francisco.

Smith, Arthur James, Utica, South Dakota.
Caducean Society, '31-'34.
Intern, St. Joseph's Hospital, Omaha, Nebraska.

Surha, James Albert, Milligan, Nebraska.
Caducean Society, '31-'34. Vice-president 1933-1934.
Intern, St. Joseph's Hospital, Omaha, Nebraska.

Williams, Harry Reull, San Francisco, California.
Caducean Society, '32-'34.
Intern, St. Luke's Hospital, San Francisco, California.