

THE EAGLE

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All contributions for the next issue of the Magazine should be sent to The Editors, *The Eagle*, St John's College. The Editors will welcome assistance in making the College Notes as complete a record as possible of the careers of members of the College. They will welcome books or articles dealing with the College and its members for review; and books published by members of the College for shorter notice.



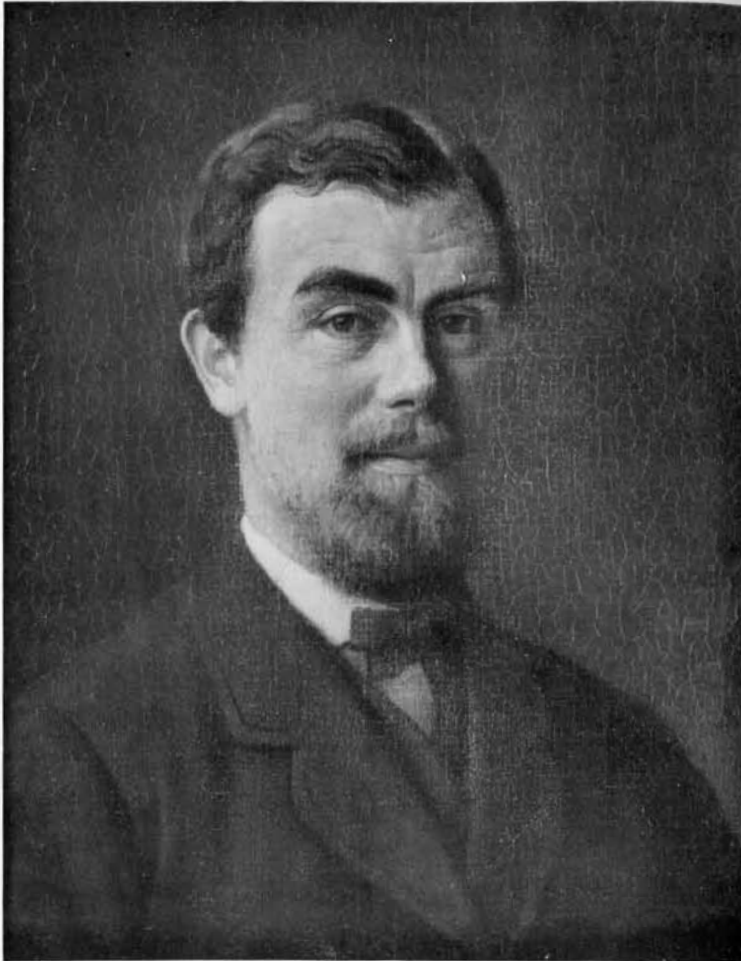
SAMUEL BUTLER

FIFTY years ago there appeared the first edition of a work by a celebrated Johnian: *The Way of All Flesh*, by Samuel Butler. Butler came up to St John's from Shrewsbury School in 1854. He read classics, dabbled in music, and coxed the Lady Margaret First Boat. He took a First in the Classical Tripos, and was a good amateur composer, but was apparently not so successful as a cox, for in the Lent races of 1857 he narrowly missed steering the boat into the river bank.

"The scene is one which can never fade from my remembrance", he wrote to his mother, "and will be connected always with the gentlemanly conduct of the crew, in neither using opprobrious language nor gestures towards your unfortunate son, but treating him with the most graceful forbearance."

The Eagle was founded while Butler was at St John's, and in its first issue he saw his first published work, an essay *On English Composition*. For the fifth number of the magazine he wrote an account of a long vacation tour of France and Italy, showing that a three weeks' holiday abroad could be managed satisfactorily on the prophetic sum of twenty-five pounds. The article ends with a description of the view from his rooms on D staircase, New Court:

Next day came safely home to dear old St John's, cash in hand 7*d*. From my window in the cool of the summer twilight I look on the umbrageous chestnuts that droop into the river; Trinity library rears its stately proportions on the left; opposite is the bridge; over that, on the right, the thick dark foliage is blackening almost in sombreness as the night draws on. Immediately beneath are the arched cloisters resounding with the solitary footfall of meditative students and



SELF-PORTRAIT BY SAMUEL BUTLER, 1878

suggesting grateful retirement. I say to myself then, as I sit in my open window, that for a continuance I would rather have this scene than any scene I have visited during the whole of our most enjoyed tour, and fetch down a Thucydides for I must go to Shilleto at nine o'clock tomorrow.

Butler went down in 1859, and left in the same year to become a sheep-farmer in New Zealand.

Long after his return from New Zealand, when he began his long residence in London, at Clifford's Inn, he met the kind, witty, strong-minded blue-stocking, Miss Eliza Mary Ann Savage, of whom he wrote

For she was plain and lame and fat and short,
Forty and over-kind. Hence it befell
That though I loved her in a certain sort,
Yet did I love too wisely, but not well.

Butler valued highly the companionship and literary judgment of Miss Savage—she was, in fact, the only woman he ever tolerated. And when he began to write *The Way of All Flesh*, he sent along sections of the manuscript for her criticism and approval. The progress of the novel may be traced in their correspondence, from August 1873, when he sent her the first fifteen pages, until the day she received the complete manuscript ten years later. Butler began to revise the book shortly afterwards, but Miss Savage died in 1885, and the manuscript remained untouched from that time until Butler's death. It was published posthumously a year later.

The Way of All Flesh is Butler's best novel, and the key to his whole work. Any discussion of Butler's work must centre upon his character, which was moulded for life by the experiences of his childhood. *The Way of All Flesh* is a strongly biased account of this childhood—a miserable time spent in a Nottinghamshire vicarage, under the tyranny of an austere, sadistic father, against whose authority Butler gradually gained strength to rebel. In all his writings he attacks authority, whether it is Christian morality, Darwinian evolution, or the English criminal laws. His childhood had put him in the habit of rebellion. Few people will be convinced now by his revolutionary theories supporting Lamarck against Darwin, exalting Handel and condemning Beethoven, or proving that the *Odyssey* was written by a female in Sicily. But his account of his own life, out of which the revolutionary spirit sprang, continues to find a wide reading public.

Butler's readers are, however, not as numerous as he hoped. His works were not especially popular during his life, but he always comforted himself with the thought of posthumous fame. One of

his characters escaped from the land of Erewhon in a balloon, and on returning some years later found that he was being worshipped as a sun-god. Butler half-hoped that if he returned after death, he might discover a similar situation. He has not been canonized, but his relics are being kept safely in a cupboard of the College library, ready for the event. In the College are kept the drab remains of his sparsely furnished rooms at Clifford's Inn, among which are his paintings (including the self-portrait reproduced here), a tiny bust of Handel, and a kettle-holder, knitted for him by the indefatigable Miss Savage.

J. S. W.

SIR JOHN CHEKE AND THE TRANSLATION OF THE BIBLE

IT is very generally agreed that the College passed through one of its most distinguished periods in the later years of the reign of Henry VIII. This is the golden age to which Roger Ascham looked back with so much admiration in a passage of *The Scholemaster* which ought to be, and no doubt is, well known to every member of the College. We had then, he says, "soch a companie of fellowes and scholers in *S. Iohnes* Colledge, as can scarce be found now in some whole vniuersitie: which, either for diuinitie, on the one side or the other, or for Ciuill service to their Prince and contrie, haue bene, and are yet to this day, notable ornaments to this whole Realme." And it is quite clear, both from Ascham's writings and from those of other Cambridge men, such as Haddon of King's and Smith of Queens', that the outstanding intellectual influence, the "seminal" mind of this great period of the history of the College was Sir John Cheke. What is less clear to us now is the reason for Cheke's great influence. It is clear enough from the details of his career that he combined academic and practical abilities of a high order: the former was needed to make him the first Regius Professor of Greek in the University, the latter to secure his selection as tutor to Prince Edward, later Edward VI. It is clear too that he stood for something definite in that troubled age, that he was no sitter on fences. He used his influence at the court energetically on the side of the Reformation, and after the death of his old pupil, Edward VI, he had the resolution to become one of the few distinguished supporters of Lady Jane Grey, and served as the Secretary of her Council until the very last day of her reign. A man of ability and distinction, certainly, but there is hardly enough here to explain why, nearly a century later, he should have been regarded by Milton not merely as a great man, but as the typical, the representative man of his age, at any rate in the sphere of learning:

Thy age, like ours, O soul of Sir John Cheek,
Hated not learning worse than toad or asp,
When thou taught'st Cambridge and King Edward Greek.

The modern reader finds this a lame ending, the more so because it was Milton's habit to lead his sonnets up to powerful conclusions; but to Milton, the evocation of Cheke was itself a powerful conclusion. His name still had authority and resonance.

Yet the explanation of this authority is hardly to be found in the

SIR JOHN CHEKE A

details of his public career, still less in his published works, which are few and not in themselves obviously remarkable: there is no work of his that is commonly read to-day, even by students of the period. We have to look elsewhere for the secret of his great reputation; we have to see both the man and his ideas set more closely against the background of his time and place.

Cheke left so deep and clear a mark on his own age mainly in two ways. First, as a teacher at Cambridge in his twenties he wielded an almost magical power over his contemporaries and pupils; second, when he went to Court, he used his influence there to place these contemporaries and pupils in positions from which they, in their turn, could develop and apply the ideas of their teacher. Compared with his influence on other minds, the whole body of his writings is of small importance; he is one of those men whose greatness is the harder to recapture now because he taught more than he wrote, and left behind him men rather than books. It is, however, one of the natural compensations of life that such men produce pupils who are both willing and able to pay tribute to their masters, and hand down to posterity materials from which it is not hard to reconstruct their teaching. It must be remembered too that in the sixteenth century, the age of undergraduates was much lower than it is now; a powerful teacher would impress them more deeply and more irrevocably because they were so much at his mercy, for good or ill. This impression, moreover, could only be made on young minds by a man of few and simple ideas, very clearly and very often repeated. And Cheke was just such a man. He had none of the wide-ranging curiosity and variegated speculation of a Coleridge: fortunately, for Coleridge would have been able to give very little to the Cambridge of the sixteenth century. The main conceptions that concerned Cheke were few, simple, and closely knit together into an outlook, which could be, and was, effectively transmitted to his young pupils.

Among them, the ablest writer, and most faithful portrayer of his master, was Roger Ascham. In *The Scholemaster*, Ascham gives what seems to be a careful, almost verbatim, account of one of Cheke's College lectures, from which we can gather more clearly than from any of Cheke's own writings his leading ideas:

My dearest frend, and best master that euer I had or heard in learning, Syr *I. Cheke*, soch a man, as if I should liue to see England breed the like againe, I feare, I should liue ouer long, did once giue me a lesson for *Salust*, which, as I shall neuer forget my selfe, so is it worthy to be remembred of all those, that would cum to perfitte iudgement of the Latin tong. He said, that *Salust* was not verie fitte for yong men, to learne out of him, the puritie of the Latin tong: because, he was not the purest in proprietic of wordes, nor choisest

in aptnes of phrases, nor the best in framing of sentences: and therefore is his writing, sayd he neyther plaine for the matter, nor sensible for mens understanding. And what is the cause thereof, Syr, quoth I. Verilie said he, bicause in *Salust* writing is more Arte than nature, and more labor than Arte: and in his labor also, to moch toyle, as it were, with an vncontented care to write better than he could, a fault common to very many men. And therefore he doth not expresse the matter liuely and naturally with common speach as ye see *Xenophon* doth in Greeke, but it is caried and driuen forth artificiallie, after to learned a sorte, as *Thucydides*, doth in his orations. And how cummeth it to passe, sayd I, that *Caesar* and *Ciceroes* talke, is so naturall and plaine, and *Salust* writing so artificiall and darke, when all they three liued in one tyme? I will freelie tell you my fansie herein, said he: surely, *Caesar* and *Cicero*, beside a singular prerogatiue of naturall eloquence geuen vnto them by God, both two, by vse of life, were daylie orators emonges the common people, and greatest councellers in the Senate house: and therefore gaue themselues to vse soch speach, as the meanest should wel vnderstand, and the wisest best allow: following carefullie that good counsell of *Aristotle*, *loquendum ut multi, sapiendum ut pauci*. *Salust* was no socy man. . . *Caesar* being dictator, made him Pretor in Numidia where he absent from his contrie, and not inured with the common talke of Rome, but shut vp in his studie, and bent wholly to reading, did write the storie of the Romanes.*

So deeply was this lesson fixed in Ascham's mind, that he was careful to repeat the substance of it in his *Toxophilus* before he gave this fuller account of it:

He that wyll wryte well in any tongue, muste folowe thys counsel of Aristotle, to speake as the common people do, to thinke as wise men do; and so shoulde every man vnderstande hym, and the iudgement of wyse men alowe him. Many English writers haue not done so, but vsing straunge wordes as latin, french and Italian, do make all things darke and harde.†

And not only in Ascham's mind had Cheke left this doctrine; it is found also, and again twice over, in the writings of another of his disciples, Sir Thomas Wilson, writer of our first *Arte of Rhetorique*. Here is the first version of it:

Emong al other lessons this should first be learned, that we neuer affect any straunge ynkehorne termes, but so speake as is commonly receiued: neither sekyng to be ouer fine, nor yet liuyng ouer carelesse, vsyng our speache as most men do, & ordryng our wittes, as the fewest haue doen.‡

* Arber's *English Reprints*, London, 1870, pp. 154-5.

† Arber's *English Reprints*, London, 1868, p. 18.

‡ The passage is on p. 162 of Mair's edition, Oxford, 1909.

The second is in a letter written in 1579 to another of Cheke's old pupils, Sir William Cecil. This letter was prefaced to a translation of Demosthenes, and Wilson took the occasion to praise Cheke, and recall his liking for this author:

Moreouer he was moued greatly to like Demosthenes aboute all others, for that he sawe him so familiarly applying himselfe to the sense and vnderstanding of the common people, that he sticked not to say, that none euer was more fitte to make an English man tell his tale praise worthily in an open hearing, either in Parliament, or in pulpit, or otherwise, than this onely Orator was.*

Certainly Cheke had driven his point home; and many times must he have repeated it, to many pupils, many friends, varying sometimes the illustrations and examples, but never the main point that wisdom and knowledge however rarefied should never express themselves remotely, should as a matter of duty, as well as of style, place themselves at the disposal of the common people, by taking on a form that lay within the common understanding.

But it would be a great mistake to look upon these repetitions merely as the result of Cheke's insistence upon them, of his force of personality, and of the loyalty of his pupils and friends. None of these things would have sufficed to place Cheke's point where it stood, at the very heart of contemporary controversies about the use of language. For this, it was necessary that he should in fact have put his finger firmly and exactly on a main problem of his time, and offered a solution of it. To see the real magnitude of his work, it is needful to look for a moment at this problem, and to consider his solution.

The great linguistic problem of the sixteenth century was new not in its nature, but only in its acuteness. It had been inherited, indeed, from the time when the Norman Conquest suspended the existence of English as a national language, and left it untended, untaught, and almost unwritten to the common people, while the serious business of government, religion, thought and literature was carried on in French and Latin. During this period of rustication, English gained its great simplification of grammar; but at the same time it suffered an arrest, even a retrogression of vocabulary. The words which might have dealt with government, religion, thought and literature were not added to it, or even kept in usage, and when, in the later part of the fourteenth century, the language again became a full mother-tongue, expected to cope with the whole range of human thoughts and feelings, this impoverishment of vocabulary became painfully clear, and a remedy for it was urgently needed. Two methods of enriching

* *Olynthiacs of Demosthenes*, London, 1570.

it were brought into wide use. First, there was straightforward borrowing from those fuller tongues which possessed the terms needed, chiefly French and Latin. Second, there was the modification of existing English words, either by expansion of meaning or new combinations, or any of the other ways in which a language can adapt itself to new needs, from its native resources.

The sixteenth century took over this problem still unsolved, indeed further from solution than ever because social and religious changes were combining to widen more rapidly than ever before the potential uses of English. The social changes were those that lay behind the invention of printing; the religious were those we may compendiously call the Reformation. Both tended in the same direction, to create a further and more rapid increase in the number of people who wished to read books, and who considered themselves entitled to understand and discuss whatever was written in English, whether or not they had received a clerkly education in Latin. For this new and wider reading public, it mattered a great deal what kind of English was to be used in the printed book. If it was to be an English full of borrowed terms, redolent of the learned languages, it would be of little more use to them than a book written in French or Latin. If, on the other hand, it was to be an English which represented the terms of theology and political thought common in Latin by means of adaptations of a purely English vocabulary, they would be able to hold their own. The problem was, in fact, to decide whether learned English should so far borrow from the older learned languages that it would effectively carry on the monopoly of culture which had hitherto been vested in Latin, or whether it should become a language open to anyone with the use of his native wits and his mother tongue.

This was the problem on which Cheke had put his finger so effectively, and to which he so emphatically gave the democratic, the Reformer's solution. The case he made out for it was all the more impressive because it came from one who was himself so incontestably learned in the ancient tongues, and because it was based upon the use of these tongues in their days of glory. His criticism of Sallust, for example, really implies something of this kind, in sixteenth-century terms: "this man wrote bad Latin, because it was recondite, studious, remote from the common people; good Latin was the language of men who wished to make themselves understood by the ordinary Roman. In the same way, bad English will be recondite, studious, clerkly, removed from the common people by its wealth of borrowed terms; and good English will be the language of men who genuinely desire to share their thoughts with the ordinary Englishman." Sir Thomas Wilson put exactly the same view, in simpler terms, when he said:

either we must make a difference of Englishe, and saie some is learned Englishe, and other some is rude Englishe, or the one is courte talke, the other is countrey speache, or els we must of necessitee, banishe al suche affected Rhetorique, and vse al-together one manor of language.*

It is, then, Cheke's great and incontestable achievement that he lent the whole weight of his immense influence and authority at this critical moment to English as a language fit to stand on its own feet, fit to be used, as he said, "cleane and pure, vnmixt and vnmangeled with borrowing of other tungen."† From him springs that attitude which runs through the minds of all who spoke of "inkhorn terms", and to him we owe it in no small measure that English did not indulge in such an orgy of borrowing that it would now be little more than a bastard Romance language.

But he himself planned to achieve even more, or to secure this in fuller measure. And he saw very clearly, as an earnest Reformer and a practised politician, that the future of English, and indeed of England as he saw it, would necessarily depend on the kind of language used in the printed translation of the Bible. Here, more acutely than anywhere else, would be fought the battle between those who wished to preserve in new forms the old clerkly monopoly of learning, and those, like himself, who wished to throw learning as well as salvation open to the people. Among the papers in Archbishop Parker's Library at Corpus Christi College, Cambridge, is a translation of St Matthew and part of St Mark. It is clearly unfinished, even as it stands; but it is, even in this form, a remarkable sketch of what the English Bible might have been, had events turned out differently.

This manuscript was published in 1843 by James Goodwin, B.D., Fellow and Tutor of Corpus Christi College, together with an introduction which, if not fully recognizing the broader issues involved, at least examined carefully Cheke's actual practice as a translator, and left to succeeding scholars a clear account of his innovations in English. The table on p. 114, showing how he kept his version free from borrowed words, is still the best of its kind.‡

It is perhaps unnecessary to point out (though very disastrous to forget) that we are liable to find Cheke's terms both strange and unnecessary, because we are quite familiar with the borrowed words,

* On p. 164 of Mair's edition.

† *A Letter of Syr J. Cheekes To his loving friend Mayster Thomas Hoby*, prefixed to *The Book of The Courtier*, ed. W. Raleigh, 1900, p. 12.

‡ *The Gospel according to Saint Matthew, etc. Translated into English from the Greek, with original notes*, by Sir John Cheke, Knight etc. James Goodwin, B.D., London: William Pickering. J. J. and J. Deighton, Cambridge, 1843, p. 15.

but that the ordinary reader in the sixteenth century would have been in a very different position. Our familiarity with words such as "centurion", "apostle", "parable" and "proselyte" is due entirely to the Authorized Version, and even to-day it may be suspected that the word "publican" gives rise to many curious misunderstandings in the minds of the great majority of those who hear it. The actual course of history has been against him, and has turned into a mere philological curiosity what might have been a profound change in the whole direction of the language.

CHEKE		WICLIF. 1380	TYNDALE. 1534	AUTHORIZED VERSION. 1611
outpeopling,	ch. i. 17	transmygracioun	captivite	caryingaway.
wiseards,	ch. ii. 16	astromyens	wyse men	wise men.
moond,	ch. iv. 24	lunatik	lunatyke	lunaticke.
tollers,	ch. v. 46	pupplicans	publicans	publicans.
groundwrought,	ch. vii. 25	foundid	grounded	founded.
hunderder,	ch. viii. 5	centurion	centurion	centurion.
frosent, note,	ch. x	apostlis	apostles	apostles.
biwordes,	ch. xiii. 3	parablis	similitudes	parables.
orders,	ch. xv. 2	tradiciouns	tradicions	tradition.
freshman,	ch. xxiii. 15	prosilite	(circumlocution)	proselyte.
crossed,	ch. xxvii. 22	crucified	crucified	crucified.

The obvious philological curiosity of these terms, moreover, has drawn so much attention to itself that little has been left for the other qualities of this version, perhaps less tangible and demonstrable, but of no less significance. It has, for example, besides these specially striking terms newly coined for particular purposes, a simpler range of more or less common English words, used where other versions, both earlier and later, brought in terms from French or Latin. It has also, as it seems to me, a pervasive directness and simplicity, almost a raciness both of words and of sentence-structure, which makes it more emphatically *vernacular* in tone than either Tyndale or the Authorized Version. These qualities can only be seen in considerable quotations, which I am the more willing to make because Goodwin's edition must now be inaccessible to most students of English. The following passages show Cheke at his most typical, and Tyndale's version is added as a measuring rod:

Cheke

Hord not yourself vp greet hoords on the earth, wheer nother moth nor rust can wast them, and wheer theeves mai dig vnto them and steel them. But hoord yourselves

Tyndale

Gaddre not treasure together on erth, where rust and mothes corrupte, and where theves breakes through and steale; But gaddre ye treasure togedder in heven,

hoords in heaven, wheer nother moth nor rust can wast them, and wheer theves can not dig vnto them nor steel them. For wheer your treasur is theer be your harts. (ch. 6, 19-21.)

Theerfoor I sai vnto yow, be not thoughtful for yowr life what ye eat or drink, nor for yowr bodi what ye put on. Is not your life of moor valew then food, and your bodi then clothing. look upon the birds of th' aier. Thei sow not, thei reep not, thei gather not into their garners, and yowr hevenli father fedeth them. Be not yow much better then thei. Which of yow bi ani thought taking can put an half yard mete to his haight. And whi be ye thoughtful, for clothyng. Learn how the lilies of the feld encrease, thei labor not, thei spin not, and yet I sai vnto yow, that Salomon in al his glori was not clothed lijk on of thees. And if god doth clooth the gras of the ground, that this dai is, and to morow is cast into the furneis, how much moor ye smalfaieth men, wil he cloth yow. Be not thoughtful theerfor, saieng what schal we eat, or what schal we drink, or what schal be clothed withal. For the hethen looketh for thees thinges. But seek first for the kingdom of god, and his rightuousnes, and al thees thinges schal be provided for yow besides. Be not thoughtful theerfor for to morow, for let to morow taak thought for itself. Eueri dai hath inough adoo with her own troble. (ch. 6, 25-34.)

where nether rust nor mothes corrupte, and wher theves nether breake vp, nor yet steale. For whearesoever youre treasure ys, there are youre hertes also.

Therefore I saye vnto you, be not carefull for youre lyfe, what ye shall eate, or what ye shall dryncke; nor yet for youre boddy, what rayment ye shall weare. Ys not the lyfe more worth then meate, and the boddy more off value then rayment? Beholde the foules of the aier, for they sowe not, neder reepe, nor yet cary into the barnes; and yett youre hevenly father fedeth them. Are ye not better then they? Whiche off you though he toke tought therefore coulede put one cubit vnto his stature? And why care ye then for rayment? Beholde the lyles off the felde, howe thy growe. They labour not, nether spynn; And yet for all that I saie vnto you, that even Solomon in all his royalte was nott arayed lyke vnto one of these. Wherefore yf God so clothe the grasse, which ys to daye in the felde, and to morowe shalbe cast into the founnace, shall he not moche more do the same vnto you, o ye off lytle fayth? Therefore take no thought, saynge, What shall we eate? or, What shall we dryncke? or, Wherewith shall we be clothed? Afre all these thynges seke the gentylys; for youre hevenly father knoweth that ye have neade off all these thynges. But rather seke ye fyrst the kyngdom of heven and the rightewesnes ther of, and all these thynges shalbe ministred vnto you. Care not therefore for the daye foloyng, for the daye foloyng shall care

Cheke

Then cam zebedais mother and her children vnto him, and sche bowed down herself, and asked a thing of him. What wilt yow said he vnto her. Comand saith sche, that thees mi ij sones mai sit th'oon of thy right hand and th'other of thy left hand in thy kingdom. then answered Jesus ye know not saith he what ie ask. Can ie drink that cup that I schal drink, and be wasched with that wasching that I schal be wasched withal. We can sai thei to him. ye schall then drink mi cup saith he, and be wasched with that wasching wheerwith I am wasched awai, but as for sitting on mi right hand and mi left hand, it is not in mi power to give but vnto them to whom it is prepared for of mi father. And the x. heering yt, and thei weer greved with the ij brothern. And Jesus called them vnto him and said. Ye know that the princes of the hethen do overmaster them, and the greet men do overrule them. It schal not be so amongst iow, but whosoever wil be great amongst iow let him be iour waiter on, and whosoever wil be chief among iow let him be iour servaunt. even as the son of man cam not to be waited on, but to wait on other, and to give his soule for the ransoming of the people. (ch. 20, 20-28.)*

* In transcribing Cheke I have retained his spellings, but filled out the contractions. I did not wish to make the impression of his version any stranger than was necessary to my present purpose.

Tyndale

ffor yt selfe; eche dayes trouble yis sufficient for the same silfe day.

Then cam to hym the mother off Zebedes children with her sonnes worshippynge him, and desyrynge a certayne thyng off hym. He sayde vnto her, What wylt thou have? Graunte that these my two sonnes maye sitt, one on thy right hond, and the other on thy lifte honde, in thy kyngdom. Jesus answered and sayd, Ye wot not whatt ye axe. Are ye able to drynke off the cuppe that Y shall drynke of, (and to be baptised with the baptim that Y shalbe baptised with?) They answered to him, That we are. He sayd vnto them, Ye shall drynke of my cupe, and shalbe baptysed with the baptim that Y shall be baptysed with; but to syt on my ryght hond and on my lyft hond, is not myne to yeve; but to them for whom it is prepared of my father. And when the ten herde this they desdayned att the two brethren. But Jesus called them vnto hym, and saide, Ye knowe, that the lordes of the gentyls have dominacion over them, and they that are great, exercise power over them. It shall not be so amonge you; but whosoever wyl be greate among you, let hym be youre minister; And whosoever wilbe chefe, let him be youre servaunt. Even as the sonne off man cam not to be ministred vnto, butt to minister, and to geve his lyfe for the redempcion off many.

The comparison can be left largely to speak for itself, but it needs perhaps this reminder: we are so accustomed to the words and rhythms of Tyndale's translation, through the Authorized Version, that a positive effort is needed to give a fair hearing to other words and other rhythms. If this effort is made, however, there can surely be no doubt that Cheke, both in his choice of words and in his phrasing, had achieved in great measure that simplicity, that approximation to the actual speech of the common people, for which his views on the English language led him to seek. To take but one phrase, "Each day hath enough ado with her own trouble" is surely more racy, more genuinely vernacular, than either Tyndale's "eche dayes trouble is sufficient for the same self day", or the Authorized Version's "sufficient unto the day is the evil thereof". Had Cheke's theories and example enjoyed a greater influence on later translations of the Bible, we might well have had a version much more genuinely colloquial, less learned in tone; and such a version would have exercised as important an influence on the whole history of the language as our present Version has done, but in a different direction.

The course of events, however, was otherwise. Cheke's translation lay unread and unheeded among the Archbishop's papers, and of all the versions made before that of 1611, it had the least influence on the future. Yet to recall it now is to do something more than to amuse ourselves with an historical curiosity. For it serves to show rather more clearly the actual character of the Authorized Version itself, and of its influence on the use of English. The translators of 1611 well knew what they were about; they were aware of the two extremes of language, one remote from popular usage and full of borrowed terms, the other based on the vernacular, making new compounds where no English words could be found. And in a spirit of compromise which was altogether typical of their Church, they deliberately chose to make their path midway between the extremes. As their Preface put it:

wee haue on the one side auoided the scrupulositie of the Puritanes, who leaue the olde Ecclesiasticall words, and betake them to other, as when they put *washing* for *Baptisme*, and *Congregation* in stead of *Church*: as also on the other side we haue shunned the obscuritie of the Papists, in their *Azimes* *Tunike*, *Rational*, *Holocausts*, *Praepuce*, *Pasche*, and a number of such like, whereof their late Translation is full, and that of purpose to darken the sence, that since they must needs translate the Bible, yet by the language thereof, it may be kept from being vnderstood. But we desire that the Scripture may speake like it selfe, as in the language of *Canaan*, that it may bee vnderstood euen of the very vulgar.*

* I omit references, since the pagination of editions varies so greatly. The passage will be found at the close of the penultimate paragraph.

Their profession was surely more than their practice here. "Understood of the very vulgar" their Version has never been, for though it indeed avoided such use of the "olde Ecclesiasticall words" as darkened the Rheims New Testament, it kept enough of them to create many difficulties for any reader without a tinge of letters. And this Anglican compromise over the English of the Bible has exercised a formidable influence over the whole subsequent development of the language. The whole weight of its authority, its iterated ring in the ears of Englishmen, has operated in favour of a vocabulary with a considerable borrowed element, and against a pure vernacular such as Cheke desired. The Authorized Version, in fact, is one, and not the least, of the factors which have made English irretrievably a mixed language, with all the special benefits and disadvantages of such a mixture. And it is perhaps the best reason for remembering Cheke's version that it reveals the Authorized Version so clearly in this light.

H. S. D.

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THE FABRIC OF SURGERY

(LINACRE LECTURE, 1952)

By SIR JAMES LEARMONTH, K.C.V.O., C.B.E.,
CH.M., F.R.C.S.E.

Regius Professor of Clinical Surgery and Professor of Surgery,
University of Edinburgh

I AM well aware that to be asked to give the Linacre Lecture is a high academic distinction, and I thank you for it. I have had much difficulty in selecting a topic: in fact, so much that at one time I entertained the idea of constructing a lecture around the mental processes involved in considering, and in turn discarding, a number of possibilities which occurred to me. At the outset I have to confess that I am not in the enviable position of some of my predecessors, who used this opportunity to make epochal pronouncements concerning their own researches. Nevertheless I reflected that I had always been prudent enough to follow the advice of the Duke of Wellington about public speaking: "I never speak about what I know nothing, and I never quote Latin." To maintain this laudable consistency, it seemed inevitable that I should choose a surgical subject on which I could speak with some authority however technical it might be, and indeed such an one was my early choice. And then in the course of my reading I came across a piece of advice by Mr G. M. Young on the conduct of a University. "In every department a lecture should occasionally be given by a student in another department: so that everyone should have some experience in conveying in the language of common discourse ideas which are usually expressed in technical language." I thought this an admirable idea, and resolved to introduce it in my own Department in Edinburgh. Then, almost subconsciously, I began to wonder how a surgical student would set about speaking to a class in another Faculty; I foresaw his difficulties. And finally I began to doubt if even a Professor of Surgery could give such a lecture. I resolved to try on the occasion of the Linacre Lecture, for I had been told that my audience would be a mixed one. Linacre must have had something of this sort in mind when he founded the College of Physicians as a meeting place where men of differing interests could interchange their experiences and their views. This lecture then will be both an attempt to describe to you my own conception of the Fabric of Surgery, and an academic exercise in what the pundits would call cybernetics. After the manner of Joseph Conrad, it will be punctuated

by third-party reflections on my own technique; and I shall double the roles of lecturer and third party.

How should I begin a lecture? Clearly it would be undesirable for me to plunge at once into my topic: I must give my audience an interval in which to compose themselves for attention or inattention and this I conceive that I have already done. Shall I continue in the traditional way by first defining my subject? Or shall I hope that a proper definition will emerge from my lecture? There is so much misconception about the purpose of surgery that I would choose the former opening, and would offer, as my notion of the aim of surgery, "the multiplying of human enjoyments, and the mitigation of human suffering"; in other words, to enable as many people as possible to continue to lead happy and useful lives. You will observe that this definition does not necessarily entail the recounting of recent or dramatic advances in surgical technique, for I must neither puzzle nor dazzle. My audience must realize from the beginning that the greater part of a surgeon's work has to do with common affections, and that much of his time and much of his thought are devoted to the designing of small improvements in the care of these, improvements which will add factors of safety to undertakings already without great hazard. To consolidate these improvements the active co-operation of the patient, of his family and of his friends is often indispensable. Thus my lecture must be more than merely informative: it must indicate the need for willingness to give this co-operation as a result of an intelligent appreciation of the surgeon's problems. It follows that my lay audience must understand what modern surgery does, and even more importantly how it came about that surgery can do what it does.

That settles the background for the lecture: obviously it must be an historical one. This in turn involves the immediate settling of another problem: shall I include eponyms? As I construct the lecture in my mind, I foresee that it will inevitably have defects which should be avoided in spoken communication: that it will contain too much and too varied information. In my teaching experience the constant addition of names accentuates these defects and so, with few exceptions, I shall deal with facts and not with persons. Moreover time is limited, and the history of surgery is long. There must be a point of departure.

I think that I should begin the study of the fabric of surgery at the time of John Hunter, who flourished about 1760. He was—as you may have anticipated—a Scotsman, although early in his life he prudently migrated to London, where he made his home and his reputation. His position as the "point of departure" he owes to the general agreement of surgeons that he was the father of scientific

surgery. This sweeping claim in human genetics is well based. Three ancillary sciences are generally regarded as providing the basis of surgery: anatomy, the science of structure; physiology, the science

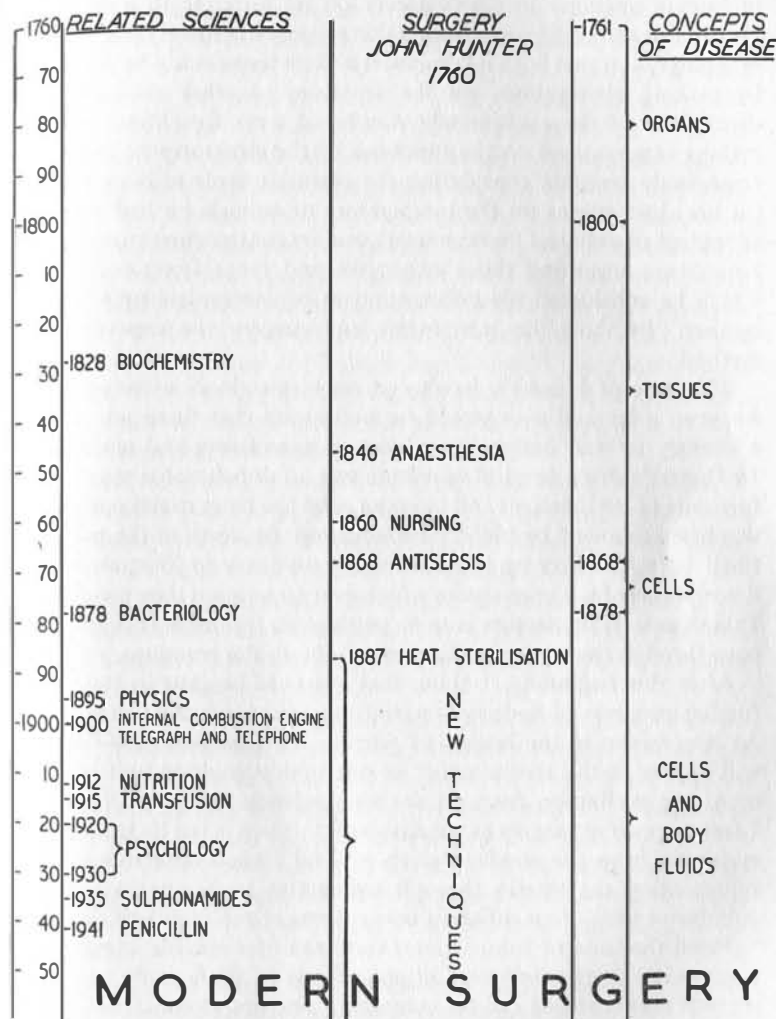


Fig. 1. A calendar of surgery.

of function, and pathology, the science of disease. In Hunter's time only one of these was relatively complete. This was anatomy, almost the whole content of which had been published in 1543 by Vesalius, when he was only twenty-eight years old. (Not only written, but

written so completely that his *Fabrica* cost him his Chair and his security; in these days the theologians did not care for a layman to be too right.) How then did John Hunter use the proverbial dullness of human anatomy to start surgery on its progress to a science? He did this through his realization that surgery was merely one branch of biology, and that both its exactness and its scope could be widened by making observations on the structure of other animals—his dissections of these ultimately numbered over five hundred; by making observations on the functions of the structures he isolated, remarkably accurate considering the scientific tools at his disposal (in his observations on the temperature of animals he had not the advantage of a clinical thermometer), and by constructing stimulating hypotheses regarding those structures and those functions about which he considered his information to be incomplete or possibly inexact. In short, he introduced into surgery the experimental method.

The date of Hunter's heyday at once introduces a temptation: for even a lay audience would be well aware that there was about a century to wait before the advent of anaesthesia and antiseptics. In Hunter's day a surgical operation was an unbelievable tax on the fortitude of both patient and operator, and the most trivial operation was often followed by blood poisoning and the death of the patient. Shall I try for effect by introducing my audience to illustrations or descriptions of the grim scenes which every operation then provided? I think not. If my lecture is to be persuasive, it must secure its purpose through the understanding, not through the emotions.

After this beginning, I think that it would be best to trace the further progress of surgery as a continuous one, now fast, now slow. As is common in the history of science, the considerable advances will appear as the results either of one man's intuition and labour, or of a contribution from an ancillary science. It would be best, I feel, to portray surgery as a main stream, which is fed by tributaries springing from the ancillary sciences: and I shall have to add—as representing the terrain through which this main stream and its tributaries flow—four different conceptions of the nature of disease.

From the time of John Hunter until the first notable advance in surgery itself—the discovery of anaesthesia in 1846—only two important events would call for comment. The first is concerned with a considerable change in the conception of the nature of disease. Macroscopical pathology—the first concept of disease processes—had been set out in book form about Hunter's time, in admirably accurate descriptions of the changed appearance wrought by various diseases in the organs of the body. The microscope was not yet the constant and indispensable tool of the pathologist; the most highly

thought of method of investigating structure was the delineation of the blood vessels of a part by the injection of some resistant coloured material, and the subsequent removal of the tissues surrounding them. This method emphasized unduly the importance of blood vessels, and the other tissues in an organ were often ignored. Their importance was realized with the increasing use of the microscope, and in 1800 it began to be understood that in any given organ or structure one kind of tissue alone might be involved in a process of disease. This second concept of disease processes was highly important, for it marked the beginning of the idea of conservative surgery—the removal of only diseased tissues. It retains some of its significance to the present day, because although in 1800 the possibility was not known, the concept was to provide the structural basis for the present selective therapeutic use of certain drugs; for example, the giving of the recently discovered drug cortisone, to affect certain particular kinds of tissue. I think that I should have some doubt about my ability to explain this concept to my lay audience: but on balance I should hope to make clear to at least a proportion of them the great significance of this change in outlook.

The second event happened in the year 1828, when the substance urea was manufactured in a laboratory. Urea is a compound found in the living body: and although it was to be many years before medical men appreciated the whole significance of urea in both physiological and pathological processes, this was the first hint of the future usefulness of that linkage between organic chemistry and the study of organic compounds in the living body to which the name biochemistry is properly applied.

With these two exceptions, surgical science made no spectacular advance for nearly ninety years after Hunter's heyday. There were few—too few—who adopted or inherited Hunter's outlook, and the great bulk of surgery was undertaken by anatomical surgeons, whose greatest asset in their profession was speed in operating, whose difficulties were measured in terms both of the suffering of any patient submitted to operative treatment and of the appalling death rate from the blood poisoning which might follow the most trivial operations.

Then in 1846 there came anaesthesia: first with ether in the United States, then with chloroform in Edinburgh, then with a throw-back to nitrous oxide in London. But the names of the places and even of the anaesthetic agents themselves do not matter so much. For here again I would be in a dilemma. Should I proclaim anaesthesia because it eliminated human suffering? Or should I examine the results of its introduction on a wider basis? I think, on the whole, the wider basis.

It would, of course, be attractive to emphasize the relief of suffering which these various drugs brought to the patient: a one-sided view, for the relief to the feelings of most surgeons was certainly as great. It would be pleasantly malicious to record the objections to anaesthesia, particularly in childbirth, which thundered from certain pulpits. If I am to avoid these attractive if meretricious approaches, I must examine the advent of anaesthesia in the light of its impact on the whole practice of surgery. The real blessings conferred by anaesthesia were in number two. The first was that, instead of an operation being an experience limited in time by the fortitude of both patient and surgeon, it became an experience in which rapidity of completion was no longer *the* essential. There was now time for the accurate observation of the effects of disease in the living subject, for the display of diseased parts by unhurried dissection, and if practicable for their anatomical isolation and removal. This was a revolutionary step, because it narrowed the gap between that conception of disease processes which had hitherto been the prerogative of the pathologist in the post-mortem room, and the conception of the surgeon in the operating room. After 1846 speed was no longer of necessity the stamp of the accomplished surgeon.

The second blessing, and one which is still accruing, was that with anaesthesia there came the possibility of exposing and observing during life parts of the human body which had hitherto been denied to the surgeon. It is vital that my audience should not regard this as a merely technical advance. Its supreme importance was that, for the first time, the surgeon was enabled to be the creditor, and not the debtor, of physiology and pathology. He was able to disclose, at varying stages before they might prove fatal, processes of disease which might interfere with the functioning (or physiology) of the human body: a step at first limited in its scope by the high death rate from infection which attended these bold adventures. Bold, but not rash, for this was the beginning of the science—so termed by Moynihan—of “hominal physiology”: or better perhaps, though a contradiction in terminology, of “pathological physiology”. These contributions by surgeons were to be of increasing importance as surgery became safer.

At this stage of my lecture I think that it would be convenient, if somewhat untidy, to try to complete the story of anaesthesia, because all the subsequent advances have been those of techniques. In 1896 local anaesthesia was introduced, a procedure by which parts could be made anaesthetic by the local injection of drugs: a not wholly beneficent addition to the resources of the anaesthetist because the original drug used, cocaine, led to a number of cases of addiction in surgeons who—unaware of this potentiality of the drug—tried it out

upon themselves. After 1905, when the fluid-containing space round the spinal cord was successfully tapped, it was a short step to the introduction of anaesthetic agents around the origins of the nerves which carried the sensations of pain. Then came drugs which could be distributed throughout the body by introducing them into a vein, drugs which produced unconsciousness by their action on the brain. From time to time many new volatile fluids or gases which could be inhaled were introduced: after absorption by the blood, they too produced unconsciousness. The primary disadvantage of many of these general anaesthetic agents was that they acted on the nervous system by poisoning it—in the broad sense of the term poisoning. If allowed to persist or to exceed the required intensity, this effect might be dangerous to life. Although if recognized in time the “poisoning” was usually reversible, in that respect it was often dangerously slow. Modern anaesthesia obviates this by employing a combination of agents or of techniques which achieves several specific effects; taken together these provide safety for the patient, and unembarrassed operating for the surgeon, in that order. Although it has made revolutionary advances, modern anaesthesia has still one considerable contribution to make—the complete and continuous control of pain after operations or injuries.

The next date on the calendar of surgery is 1860, the year in which Miss Nightingale established the first school of nursing. This is an important date, because it marks the beginning of the emergence of the surgical nurse from Gampness to membership of a profession. This process should not be over-dramatized, because it represented but one phase of the emancipation of women which began in the Victorian age. Nowadays the nurse shares with the surgeon the task of dispassionately balancing the practical application of her scientific knowledge, and her emotional call to her great office. It is possible for her to be guided too far in either direction, although her behaviour is to some extent determined by the temperament of the country in which she serves. I do not think that the lecturer should elaborate this topic: but he should not leave any doubt in the minds of his hearers, that good nursing is irreplaceable in the fabric of surgery.

The year 1867 is the watershed of surgery: it has been said that there are but two periods in surgery, before Lister and after Lister. In that year Lister gave to the world particulars of his antiseptic system, a quite revolutionary event: and, at the risk of being thought smug, I should point out to my audience that, although revolutions in the scientific world may be attended by conflicts of opinion, they do not run the risk of being carried out partly by irresponsible and amoral extremists, a risk which has attended many political

revolutions. It would be quite essential for my audience to grasp the implications of Lister's work, although they were not necessarily immediate. The first result was that henceforward it was possible for surgeons to perform operations without fear of blood-poisoning as the result of the entrance of bacteria into operation wounds. Again I must avoid the temptation of considering this result solely from the point of view of the patient's safety, although quite properly that should be placed first. Indeed, this change in mortality after surgical operations had and has that dramatic quality which might appeal to the more phlegmatic listeners. While naturally most important to the individuals concerned, the reduction of mortality was of great importance in a number of other directions. Thus it rid the surgeon of his haunting dread of a complication which could offset all his skill; now he could concentrate on his immediate technical problem. Then the correct and timely application of Lister's principle prevented the development of infection in a large proportion of accidental wounds, and ensured that the absence of the injured person from his trade or profession was as short as possible: thus it had sizeable repercussions on the economic activity of workers.

Lister deduced from the work of Pasteur that the cause of infection in wounds was bacterial. His antiseptic method sought to destroy these bacteria; in the air by a spray of carbolic acid, on and in the bodies of patient and operator by a solution of the same chemical. This was an example of the value of imagination in scientific research, for the problem of wound infection was largely solved by Lister before the emergence of bacteriology as a science. The organization of bacteriology into a science had to await the discovery of a method of isolating individual types of bacteria and growing them in the laboratory, a discovery which was reported by the German doctor Koch in 1878. It would be absolutely necessary for my audience to comprehend this matter, for the following reason. When the germ theory of wound infection (and of many other diseases) was definitely established, an inevitable corollary was the search by surgeons and others for an agent or agents which would kill bacteria—if possible *all* bacteria—without injuring the cells of the body. Obviously the initial step in any such enquiry was a study of the effect of each agent under consideration upon each of as many different types of bacteria as possible—outside the body, in the laboratory. I shall have to return to this matter later, when I come to chronicle the great advances made when "sulpha" drugs and penicillin were discovered. Time was to show that heat was the best way of killing germs contaminating the inanimate materials used at a surgical operation, such as dressings and instruments.

Anaesthesia and antiseptics became the guarantors of safe surgical

access. On the whole this was a good thing, but the background against which it appeared provided an almost inevitable pitfall. I have already told my audience that hitherto anatomy had been the dominant basic subject. For a generation of surgeons trained in the anatomical tradition and familiar with normal human anatomy, it was easy to assume that variations from normal position were the primary causes of many surgical diseases, and perhaps particularly abdominal diseases. In the new safety quite a number of operations were introduced and widely practised, in which various organs that happened to be slightly displaced were returned to the exact positions which they occupied in standard text-books of anatomy. It was, as a distinguished surgeon of my acquaintance remarked, the era of "cut well, sew well, get well". The phenomenon of a burst of uncritical activity is one which tends to appear when any freedom is newly found, and has not been peculiar to surgery. It has conspicuously attended newly found political freedoms, and in such circumstances has been labelled by the surgical term "latchkeyitis". In surgery it usually takes the form of confusing the newly possible with the ultimately advisable.

I think that it would be logical to indicate at this stage of my lecture the factors which led to the abandoning of this passion for anatomical tidiness. They included both physiological and pathological reasons, and although it is to my way of thinking the wrong order, it would be convenient to consider the pathological first. The publication of Virchow's text-book on pathology in 1858 changed the emphasis in conceptions of processes of disease from tissues to cells, the behaviour of which might or might not be affected by malposition; and as a corollary the criteria regarded as essential to identify disease became microscopical rather than macroscopical: this was the third concept of processes of disease. Although the emphasis shifted from tissues to cells, on the whole it was still concerned with cellular form, perhaps not a surprising inclination in the industrial age; but at any rate Virchow's teaching was the beginning of the disappearance of the temptation to regard as pathological all anatomical displacements of structures or organs. It made one other supreme contribution. By its insistence on the importance of cellular form, it encouraged the search for and identification of diseased tissue throughout the body, and thus laid the foundation of accurate knowledge of the processes by which certain diseases spread throughout the human body, processes about which we have now fairly comprehensive information. The modern surgeon uses this store of knowledge as it were in reverse; because, having identified a primary focus of disease, he can use the knowledge to seek for evidence of the spread of the disease to other parts. This enables him to separate

certain types of disease—for example, malignant growths—into two broad surgical groups: the operable and the inoperable.

In considering the physiological factors which led to this change of outlook, I think that it would be best to begin by stating the modern view, that in a large number of surgical conditions what matters is disturbance of function, and that normal or adequate function does not necessarily depend upon anatomical normality. Modern surgery has to do with the restoration of normal or adequate working of the human body, and not with the restoration of so-called normal structure. This objective imposes on the modern surgeon the need for two kinds of knowledge: a knowledge of normal physiology, and a knowledge of methods of detecting deviations from this. I ought now to explain the steps by which he has acquired this knowledge. First, it would be necessary for me to return to one important result of the introduction of anaesthesia and antisepsis, the significance of which is often overlooked. This was that the new safety in operating could be utilized in the experimental laboratory as well as in the operating theatre in the hospital. Both natural and artificially induced processes of disease could be studied in animals, and their correction attempted, under the same technical conditions as in man: that is, painlessly and without the fear that infection would vitiate the observations of the investigator. I cannot recall a branch of surgery in which the experimental laboratory has not initiated some advance, and greatly accelerated the adoption of many others. Moreover in many cases the study of any local function is best begun in the laboratory.

The pursuit of the goal of restoration of normal function which so dominates surgery to-day, owes much to the investigations and teaching of Claude Bernard, a French physiologist who in 1878 crystallized his views by saying that the fluids of the body had a constant composition, and that the maintenance of this was a major object of normal physiological processes. Disturbance of the composition of the body fluids represents the fourth conception of processes of disease. The normality of the body fluids depends upon the complex co-ordination of certain chemical and physical reactions: and it would be necessary for me to indicate how it has become possible to investigate these. The chemistry of the living body implies a knowledge of its components (organic chemistry) and their behaviour during life (biochemistry). I have told my audience that this knowledge dates from 1828, when the organic compound urea was synthesized. Since that date it has been possible to isolate and to estimate quantitatively a great number of organic compounds occurring in and often manufactured by the living body, and to compute the range of normal values for these in tissues and especially in the circulating blood and in the secretions and excretions of the

body, such as the gastric juice and the urine. This knowledge of body fluids had to wait for the introduction of antisepsis, which permitted samples to be taken of such complex mixtures as blood, without the risk of introducing infection by the use of unclean hollow needles. Quantitative analysis of these tissues and fluids, and the detection in them of abnormal constituents, provided medicine and surgery with methods of detecting abnormal function: or it might be that a specific function (such as the function of the kidneys) could be assessed by testing their ability to excrete a harmless foreign substance (such as a dye) introduced into the blood stream. The problems of the actual sites in the body in which each particular function was disturbed were largely solved in experimental laboratories. Again, the modern surgeon uses this mass of information in reverse: for example, failure of the function of the kidneys can result from a variety of causes, and can present a variety of clinical pictures; but clinical examination and the results of clinical tests will point to the kidneys as the structures affected.

Physics has aided the investigation of function in many different ways. My audience would easily understand that, by the use of simple mechanical contrivances, it is possible to measure and to record changes in the size and changes in the rhythmic action of many organs. Electrical devices increase the accuracy and the scope of such measurements. Electronic apparatus allows of the magnification of the smallest changes in size and in rhythm, of their continuous recording and of the representation of the records in a variety of ways, for example, either visual or auditory, a choice which in turn poses physiological (or should it be psychological?) problems in the science of communication. The invention of electric light enabled surgeons in search for disease to inspect the cavities of the body, and awkward corners could be turned by the embodying of optical systems of lenses. An important date for the surgeon is 1895, the year of the discovery of X-rays. At first used to delineate structure, their value as a diagnostic accessory was greatly increased with the introduction of various radio-opaque fluids. These may be used to fill and outline directly either constant spaces in the body such as abscess cavities, or hollow muscular tubes such as the stomach whose movements thus become visible to the radiologist. On the other hand, they may be chosen because they are got rid of from the body by a particular physiological process, for example by the kidneys, and then their employment not only outlines the structure of the organs concerned, it may also be used as a test of their ability to excrete; that is, of their function.

Surgery is something that is woven into the fabric of everyday life, and it is essential that I should remind my audience of this more than

once in the lecture. The most accomplished surgeons with the best equipment at their disposal are useless without some administrative machinery for bringing the surgeon to the patient, or the patient to the surgeon: except in war, the latter is the better course. This problem is to some extent a matter of professional relationships, but the situation was greatly improved about the beginning of this century by two of the most useful gifts of physics—or better perhaps applied physics—to surgery: the invention of the internal combustion engine, which will bring surgeon and patient together in space by transporting either by land or by air; and the facility for rapid intercommunication provided by the telegraph and telephone, both cable and wireless. Moreover these inventions, like the invention of printing, helped in the rapid diffusion of knowledge of surgery, in the speedy interchange of ideas and even, in circumstances of emergency, of advice. On my travels it has always seemed to me odd that in spite of these contractions in space and time, each country appears to retain something identifiable as national in its practice of the art and science of surgery. This is probably well enough, provided that it is not pushed to chauvinism.

I have chosen 1912 as the next significant date, and here in Cambridge I should be professionally ungrateful did I not link it with the name of Gowland Hopkins. This was the beginning of an era in which provision for the nutrition of the human body, from being rather a haphazard affair, became a matter of great importance to the surgeon and to the surgeon's patients. There were three main reasons for this. The first was that it was realized that the process of healing of accidental and deliberately inflicted wounds—the process of repair—depended for its speed and for its completeness on the adequacy of the nutritional state of the patient. It was realized that the state of nutrition must be estimated and adjusted not only as to quantity of diet but also as to its balance, the latter including a supply of those accessory food factors whose existence and importance Hopkins did so much to determine. The second was the recognition that certain surgical lesions led to profound disturbances in nutrition. It was gradually realized that the immediate correction of such a lesion, without any previous attempt to correct the nutritional disturbance, might turn the scale against the success of an operation; I shall have to say more about the importance of this when I come to assemble all the threads of my fabric. The third was the discovery of methods of controlling established nutritional disturbances (such as diabetes) to enable the patient to withstand the added burden of surgical interference.

During the nineteen twenties and thirties, and partly no doubt as the result of experience in the first World War, there was a growing

realization of the importance of treating the patient as a whole—both his mind and his body—and of the way in which psychological disturbances could be reflected by disorders of bodily function. This is a vast subject, with which I would not be particularly competent to deal: but I should emphasize that its repercussions on surgical practice were two in number. The first and most important was the attempt to secure for the patient mental quiet—the attempt to solve or to adjust the many problems now seen to be inseparable from the direct treatment of a surgical condition: personal problems, social problems, economic problems. To this end there contributed: on the part of surgeons, a better understanding of the need for it, and the efforts of such indispensable allies as almoners. The second influence was the additional care taken to exclude from operative treatment patients whose illnesses had a psychological origin, however closely such illnesses might mimic processes due to somatic diseases, and the realization that such cases were more common than had been thought.

The year 1915 is an important landmark in surgery. In this year there became available a safe and simple method of transfusing blood from one person to another. The advantages of being able to do this are many: surgeons can replace blood lost as a result of injuries, and blood lost at operations during which bleeding (and sometimes excessive bleeding) is inevitable. Thus the procedure can be life-saving in otherwise relatively minor conditions such as the wounding of a large blood vessel: in addition, it makes possible operations in which haemorrhage is the most dreaded complication, and it adds a factor of safety to operations in which unexpected bleeding might prevent a successful outcome. There is no substitute for the red cells of the blood. There are many substitutes for its fluid part, of which the heart demands a quantitatively adequate supply for its work: many such substitutes have been provided by the researches of organic chemists in their laboratories. At this stage it would be convenient for me to record also the benefits to surgery which may derive from the introduction of fluids other than blood into the blood stream. Water and salt lost by vomiting can be replaced in this way. Water and food can be provided in the form of solutions of certain sugars. After solution many drugs can be most rapidly distributed throughout the body by the blood stream.

The introduction of the "sulpha" drugs in the year 1935 marked the first part-realization of the dream of having available compounds which had a selective action on bacteria of certain types; this was followed in 1941 by the production and clinical application of penicillin, still the most perfect of antibiotic drugs at our disposal. The list of these antibiotics grows. In the search for moulds or

bacteria, extracts of which would conform to the criterion that they must kill other bacteria without killing the cells of the human body and without having any other harmful effect on the patient, tests have been made of samples of earth and other material from all over the world. The planning of this search illustrates the permeation of modern life by surgery (or science). To obtain one particular drug more than 100,000 samples were tested. These were furnished by, amongst others, foreign newspaper correspondents, explorers, travellers, and friends. The samples came from Alaska to Australia, from the banks of the Amazon to the shores of the Ganges, from the swamps of Florida to the Swiss Alps. The advent of such selective antibiotic drugs has had two main effects on the practice of surgery. First, their use has reduced the number of patients in whom direct surgical intervention is required in the treatment of infective processes. Secondly, their administration before and after operation has reduced the risk of infections arising during and after surgical procedures. Any surgeon of experience has haunting memories of patients whose deaths, often in the most tragic of circumstances, might have been prevented had these drugs been available. In clinical work the choice of the correct antibiotic depends on the vulnerability to a variety of them of the germ which is causing the mischief, and this must be determined in the laboratory. Some varieties of bacteria are insensitive to all known antibiotics and some become insensitive in the course of treatment: so the search must go on. Most antibiotics produce their effect by interfering with the nutrition of the bacteria: what the bacterial population of the world is doing about repelling this attack by mankind is a matter for surmise—and perhaps for some human disquiet. It might well occur to my lay audience that the availability of these powerful substances has permitted surgeons to relax some of the rigid precautions which they take against the introduction of infection, particularly in their operative work. Laymen should understand that no such relaxation is permissible. The late Lord Moynihan spoke of surgical ritual as a religion. During his training the young surgeon may make an error, which is corrected. A second error becomes a crime, which is punishable. Any subsequent error is a sin—irremediable except, as in other matters spiritual, by a change of heart.

If I add to this outline of the progress of surgery the information that from Lister's time each year has seen one or more advances in surgical technique—often derived from the experimental laboratory—I shall have provided almost all the threads that I shall require. But before I draw together the threads of my lecture into a fabric, I ought to scrutinize their spinning. If I am to succeed in conveying an idea of surgery in "common discourse", which, you will remember, was

the object I set myself, I must examine the constituents of my communication from four points of view. The first is that of vocabulary: has it been possible to convey to the audience a general idea of surgery in words which do not in their turn demand explanation? Obviously a surgeon is not the right person to judge this, for he is habituated to his own jargon: and so, before making my definitive attempt to enlighten members of another faculty, I ought to submit my material to an intelligent—and candid—non-medical critic. He too would judge of the second aspect: the clarity with which the material was to be presented. The third aspect is the continuity of the account: and here I should be content with the simple scheme which has been before you throughout this lecture (Fig. 1). I am quite unrepentantly opposed to the employment in a university of artistic or other devices to retain the attention of an audience: and I never myself quite trust a voice speaking in the dark, or from a sound-track. Finally, I should have to be quite sure that I had not fallen into the trap of trying to educate my audience in matters of disease: whether this be in principle a right thing to do, or a wrong, it is not the purpose of my lecture, though it cannot be denied that even the most erudite sometimes retain a morbid curiosity in such matters, and might expect some free advice. Were I so tempted, I should, I hope, remember in time the wholesome practice of Oliver Cromwell, to think less of what people want and more of what is good for them.

An audience from the Faculty of Arts would contain many students of history: for them, the history of surgery (or indeed of any science) would not conform to any of the patterns created by the professional historians of eras or of peoples. It most certainly does not repeat itself. There is no gloomy decline and fall, or other teutonic pessimism. Surgery has been influenced by a variety of at first sight unrelated episodes, occurring in a haphazard way that would not have surprised H. A. L. Fisher, and would-be systematists must accept this. Each past achievement of surgery must not be analysed in the light of present knowledge and practice, but on the background of the period when it was made. To some extent the history of surgery, or rather the position which it has reached at present, may be used to predict trends, or even future accomplishments (if the period involved be short).

My audience would, I hope, now be prepared for the statement that, with all the wealth of his own and of other disciplines at his disposal, the surgeon's first care when confronted with a problem is to try, so far as is possible, to adjust the patient as a person to the crisis which has arisen in his life. His next duty is to ascertain what, if any, general or local disturbance of physiology attends the surgical

condition, and to restore this as nearly as possible to normal (by such procedures as for example the injection of solutions into the blood stream) before carrying out any operative procedure. My distinguished predecessor in Edinburgh, Sir David Wilkie, emphasized this outlook by remarking that operative treatment should be prompt, but never precipitate. Then comes the operation itself: an incident, often perhaps the most important incident, in the plan of treatment. After the operation, there may be need artificially to maintain normal physiology, while the affected part of the body is recovering a function deranged both by disease and by surgical interference. The ability to provide this background of artificial physiology represents as great an achievement in surgical practice as is embodied in any list of new operative techniques: and indeed the application of new techniques must sometimes await the devising of new adjustments in the provision of artificial physiology.

My lecture must include some account of the purposes to which such a fabric can be put. It is general knowledge that there are occasions—all too many occasions—when the efforts of the best of surgeons, exerted in the best of circumstances, are unavailing. These cases excepted, it is nearly always possible to restore to a patient ability to work, and I regard this as one of the most satisfying rewards which can come to a surgeon, irrespective of whether the work be the lessons of the school child, the tasks of a trade, or the activities of a profession. In the case of adults, it may not always be possible to return the patient to activity on the pre-operative physical or mental plane. Sir Frederic Bartlett, who has done so much to clarify this field, would I think agree that the plane to be aimed at is one which the patient can manage without obvious allowances being made for any residual physical or mental disability, even if it be a less remunerative activity. The choice is of fundamental psychological importance. If these be accepted as the surgeon's immediate aims, I should put to my audience the modest claim that there are each year a decreasing number of conditions where the possibility of surgical treatment arises, in which the surgeon alone, or the surgeon in co-operation with other professional colleagues, has no partial or complete solution to offer.

My audience being by definition of undergraduates and therefore youthful, might well expect some estimate of the future trends of surgery. As in any other science, prophetic estimates can be only short-term ones. In spite of the introduction of some new procedures, I can foresee a gradual restriction in the ambit of surgery. Bacteriologists and chemists will provide new substances effective in infections which resist those remedies now in use. Pharmacologists will unravel the chemistry of certain glandular disturbances which

still require active surgical treatment. The incidence of accidental injuries can be lowered by general education and by the application of what has been learned of industrial psychology. I cannot foresee any revolutionary change in the treatment of tumours. Above all, operative procedures will become safer, largely as the result of a combination of small improvements in methods, possibly as the result of some more momentous addition to the surgeon's resources.

There remains *the* matter to which an audience composed of members of a university might properly expect some reference. Is it

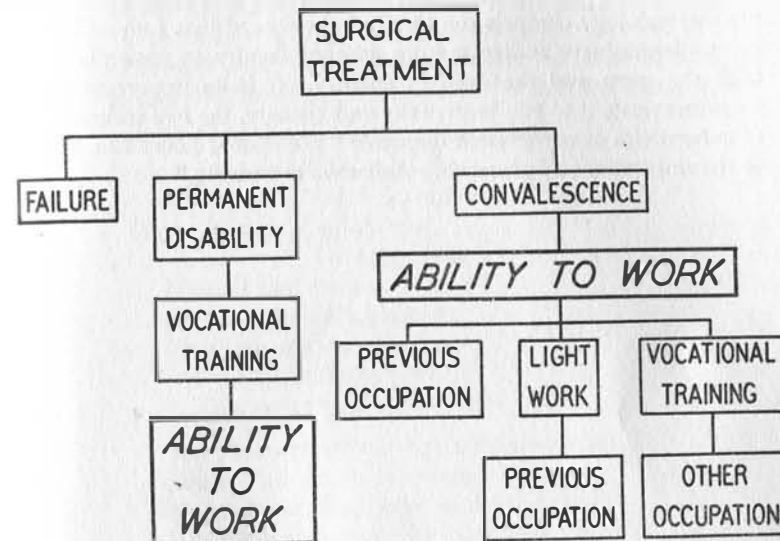


Fig. 2. The objectives of surgery.

possible for the modern surgeon, whose work is of necessity often concerned with technical matters, to derive spiritual and intellectual satisfaction from the pursuit of his profession? I would reply that he can. His spiritual satisfaction is drawn from the knowledge that he is one of an international body of men and women who are bound together by the same ideal: the restoration of useful and happy lives to a proportion of their fellow men. Intellectual satisfaction he can obtain in much the same way as does the classical scholar, the historian or the literary critic: by making himself familiar with every aspect of some one part of the body of knowledge common to his profession.

I am unrepentant enough to believe that the systematic lecture, so established in Scottish universities, is the most suitable way "to

convey in the language of common discourse ideas which are usually expressed in technical language". It has been said that the greatest defect of the systematic lecture is that it tends to be repetitive. I do not agree that this is a criticism. One of the advantages of experience is the ability to separate what is important from what is unimportant, and it is a primary principle of pedagogy that it is important to repeat the important.

On the other hand, a surgical teacher of mine once warned me that I ought not to expect even the most intelligent audience to take away from a lecture, without distortion, more than one point. Therefore my methodology compels me to select the thread that I should like my undergraduate audience from another faculty to remember as both the warp and the woof of surgery. It is so important that I communicate it to you both orally and visually, the two techniques of cybernetics at my present disposal: "We should never lose sight of the importance of preserving whilst we are curing."

THREE POEMS

S LURRING on the shore against the shifting shingle,
 Heard afar on the wine-dark sea; lo! distant mingle
 Of fairy bells, the edging waves against the magic isle;
 Fragrant mystery to the plunging argosy, clear as a tile
 Painted by the old Chinese; sad sand, the slow smoke plume
 Rising through viridian groves, wisp pillar in th' arboreal gloom,
 Like summer flame in the plushy sky. Set like a watching eye,
 Amid the ancestral jade. Sea birds land and swirl and cry,
 Soundlessly, chips in the enamelled blue, talismen of Her,
 Wheeling and swaying, royal coloured where the shingles slur.

Pitching knee-deep, trudging, slap-keeled,
 Or flying and air-light, feathery,
 Heavy, dropping,
 Then drawn by old Aeolus,
 On angel wings,
 Dipping and soaring
 On Neptune's shoulder,—
 Crew echoing bolder,
 At the look-out's cry,
 The wind snatcher of words.

The many wiled one, the slyly clever one,
 Son of Laertes, Zeus sprung Odysseus,
 Nuzzled the prow, sang to the red cheeks,
 Watching the island, dripping with sunlight.

Through the narrow sound, the gap in the coral,
 Guiding the ship,
 Slips through the water, scarce a ripple
 In the oil-soft water,
 Grounding and driving her, half her length onward,
 Up the pebblewart.

(A vision of another city, smoke stacked,
 Fog towered, abode of the stifle-bug;
 Church of the new God, God of the others;
 Piered and piled and putrefied,
 City of a different Odyssey.)

Hermes through the woodland,
 Met the wiled one, gave him drugs
 To master Circe, magic Goddess,

THE EAGLE

Human formed; judge of men
 Imaginative judicatory;
 And they dance to the woodland
 Pipe, dance with the Nymphs.

And led Odysseus to the midnight
 Mystery of the grave; and then away
 And home to Ithaca.

F. M. R.

ZEYS ΠΕΠΤΩΚΩΣ

YOU sat there sunned in shadeless marble;
 Your indicated hair an undulation in rivered stone;
 Your lips some deftly shaped declivity.

Wide-eyed, not humanized by pupils, Zeus stared
 Into the flake-petal whisperings of the grove.
 His temple, fettered with clinging ivy,

Arched against the tall caerulean sea, twin-pillared
 Stood short of the bubbling spring, and some old priest
 Pottered among the flowers with a watering can.

Zeus, couched in marble, full-eyed faced the sun.
 Birds flitting, drifting, dimpled the cheek of the sky;
 Away the thoughtful plashing of the sea saved mystery.

A boat hushed across the yielding water. A man,
 Bolt-jawed, raised a weal across that sky. His sullen
 Jolting of the oars offended the easy waters.

He landed. The flashing sands received him trustingly.
 His boots left welts along its submissive back
 And passionately he flung back the lushy foliage.

The full-lipped grass crushed to black bruises;
 The willing twigs snapped at his wanton fingers.
 He entered the grove and flung through the temple.

His footfalls ringing set the quiet hall to thunder,
 His angry glance startled the birds to silence.
 He pushed the priest from off his path and set against the hill.

Zeus watched the pathless sea. You climbed that hill
 And flung his image down; you broke that quietude
 And flung him to splinters with a Christian cry.

F. M. R.

FEBRUARY 1950

WHERE are our great men,
 Whose very whisper caused a continent
 To whimper for forgiveness?

Where are our Olympians,
 Whose vision gave a people strength,
 To fight for trite ideals?

Where are the tall leaders,
 Who gave our history climax
 With their magnificence?

I saw a small man in homburg hat
 And sleek black overcoat begging
 Pause from newspapermen.

I wandered up, thinking to find
 Some petty swindler or divorcé
 Who'd lacked a bed in a wagon-lit.

A minister of state, peeked of nose
 And small of eye, hunched there
 Against the granite pillars.

A lion was frightened by a mouse.

F. M. R.

THE ORGANS IN THE CHAPELS OF ST JOHN'S COLLEGE

ST JOHN'S CHAPEL is considered by some to be the biggest architectural misfortune that has befallen the College. It seems scarcely to belong to its surroundings, so little does its style harmonize with that of the other college buildings. But it contains many good things, and of these one of the best is the organ, which gives cause for little regret and much rejoicing. The history of the four organs which the College has possessed since 1511 is obscure in many places, and there are many gaps in it which will probably never be filled: but what we know of it may be of interest to readers of this magazine.

Three organs were built in the old chapel between 1511 and 1869, and the fourth, built for the new chapel, remains fundamentally unchanged to-day. The first seems to have stood in a room above the chantry chapel of Bishop John Fisher, in the old chapel. This chantry was built between 1525 and 1533, on the north side of the chapel sanctuary, and was connected with the sanctuary by three arches in the north wall. Above the chantry was a large chamber which also opened into the chapel, by a single arch placed above the central chantry arch. This room was later referred to in one of the Prizing Books as being "called the organ chamber", and the organ itself is mentioned in an entry in the Audit Book for 1557—"Item, for makyng a lecturne for ye orgaines in the queere, iijjs." The lectern was presumably a music desk for the organist. The organ seems therefore to have been on the first floor at the north-east corner of the chapel—a position not unlike its present one. Of the instrument we know little. It was built in about 1528, as in that year "sondry and divers marchauntes in London gave emongist theyme X^{li} (£10) towards the buying of the newest orgaynes".* In 1560 or thereabouts the organ chamber was converted into an apartment "for the advantage of the Master".† What happened to the organ is not known. It may have been removed altogether, or may have been transferred to the roodscreen. The latter had been denuded of its rood at the beginning of Queen Elizabeth's reign, when alterations had been made to the ornaments of the chapel.

The second organ was built in 1635, by Robert Dallam, a famous organ-builder of the time. The Master from 1633 to 1644—the last Master before the Commonwealth period—was Dr William Beale.

* MS. List of Benefactors, 1528.

† Baker, *History of St John's College*, p. 153.

He, being a Laudian High Churchman and so attaching importance to ornament and ceremony, carried out several works on the "ornaments of the chapel, which having been left very naked by some of his predecessors was adorned and beautified by him, . . . besides the cost that was bestowed about the organ, cherubims, and other furniture".* This was not the only connection between Beale and Dallam; the former had been Master of Jesus College before coming to St John's, and Dallam had built an organ there, for £200. In 1635, then, an agreement was made between "Dr Beale and the fellows and scholars of St John's, and Robt. Dallam of the City of Westminster, organ-maker".† The latter was to build

one payre of organs or Instrumentes to conteyn six severall stoppes of pipes every stoppe conteyning fortyne pipes (viz.) one diapason most part to stand in sight, one Principall of Tynne one Recorder of Wood one small Principall of Tynne one two and twentieth of Tynne with Sound boords Conveyances Conducts Roller boord Carriages and Keyes two bellowes and wind trunkes with the case and carving onely with all other necessaries thereunto belonging finding all maner of stuffe both of yron, brasse, tynne, timber and wainscote incident to the making and finishinge of the said Instrument which the said Robert Dallam shall make up and finish and sett vp in the Chappell of St John's Colledge aforesaid between the day of the date of these presentes and the first day of July now next ensuing 1636.

The cost was to be "9 score and five poundes of lawfull money of England". Apparently there was a little trouble anticipated about finding the money, and steps were taken to provide it which were unnecessary. For at the end of the Rental for 1635 appears the following: "Memorandum that these pieces of Colledge plate here after specified being growne old and vselesse were sould att London by order of the Master and Seniors who did then purpose that the money should goe towards the Organs which since was wholly paid for with Mr Boothe's money." Robert Booth was appointed Fellow in 1573, and Senior Bursar in 1588.

Whether this organ had five or six stops it is impossible to say: the apparent contradiction in the agreement seems inexplicable. It was placed, it seems, on the rood screen, the latter being altered for the purpose, as there is a record of "Sawyers' billes for the Organ loft and staires to it, £32/0/6". It was enclosed in a case, which remained in the chapel till 1869, when it was removed to the church of Bilton in Warwickshire.‡ The organ had a short life. In 1643

* Baker, p. 217.

† This and the following two quotations come from the Lease Book of 1627-68.

‡ See the account of the old organ screen and cases, by Mr Aylmer Vallance, *The Eagle*, January 1938.

it was removed, as these entries in the Audit books for 1642-3 and 1643-4 show: "Item paid by Mr Heron the Junior Bursar for taking down the pictures and the organs and whiting the walls £2/8/6", and "Paid to old Dowsy when the Organ case was taken away £0/6/8".

The Puritans had their way with the chapel and its contents; but they did not destroy the organ, as its subsequent history shows.

At the Restoration the College had a new Master—Peter Gunning, a Laudian like Beale, and a leading ecclesiastic of the time. He left money for the building of a new chapel: this purpose was not carried out till 1869, over two hundred years later. But he also improved and restored the existing chapel, especially repairing the losses suffered during the commonwealth period. He rebuilt the organ and reconstituted the choir "whereby", to quote his instructions, "God's service may be more solemnly performed and decently sung upon the Lord's Days and other holy days and their eves, and their commemorations, by what way my very reverend friends the master of the college and Dr Humphrey Gower and the senior fellows shall contrive". Perhaps it was at this time that the organ became a "double organ", i.e. one possessing two manuals, great and choir. For in 1642 the Audit book describes the instrument as "one pair of organs": in 1669 there appear

To John Ivory for painting the case of y^e great organ and grounding y^e pipes with blew and gilding the armes and balls at y^e top, per bill

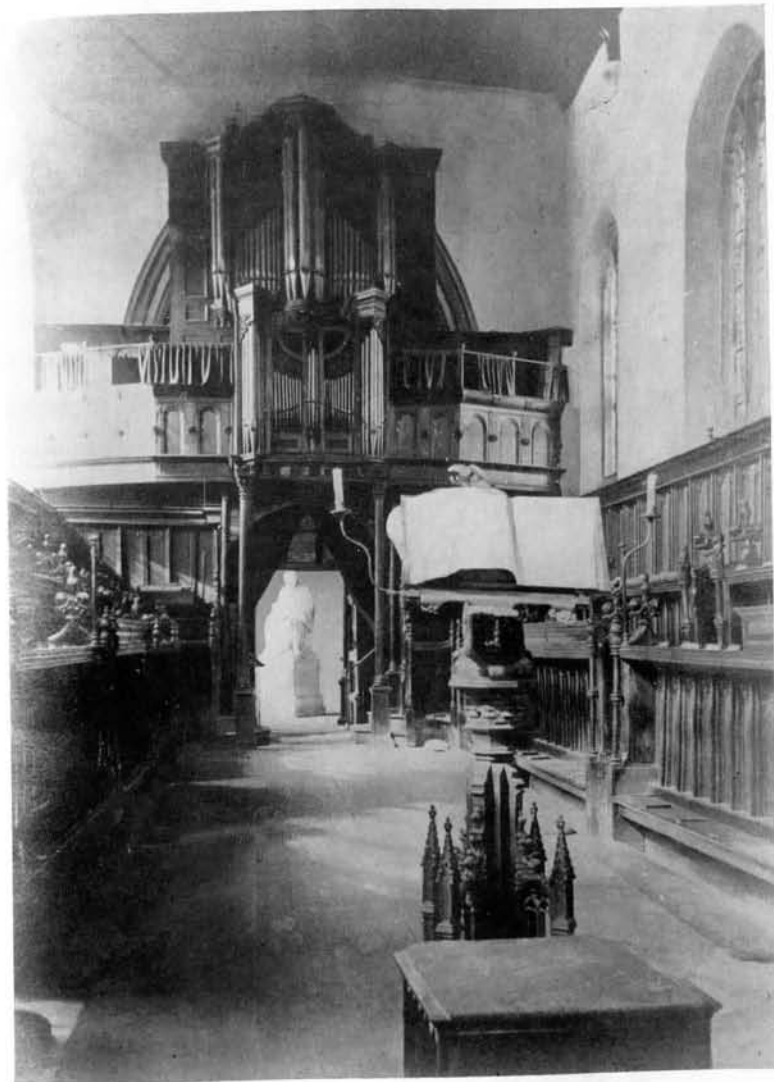
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To Mr Tho. Thamer for 3 weekes work and materials for mending both y^e organs, per bill

04 00 00

The phrase "both y^e organs" makes it probable that the organ had two manuals from this Restoration building. The organ remained thus, with some additions, until 1838. It stood on a screen at the west end, filling the ante-chapel arch. Its polygonal gallery projected into the chapel, and had a seat for the Master. He could leave the Lodge, then situated to the west of the ante-chapel, and walk along a sort of bridge which connected the Lodge and the organ loft through the ante-chapel at first floor level. In 1664 the Warden of New College, Oxford, wrote of a visit to Gunning: "he showed me his passage from out of his lodgings into the gallery where their little Organ stands: and a seat there for himself, if he please, to hear Prayers, seeing all the Chapel, but the Scholars not seeing him. . . ." In 1691 there was paid "for a Turkeywork Carpett for y^e Master Seat in y^e Organ Loft 5s."* There is an old photograph in the Library of the organ as it was between 1661 and 1869, and it is

* Audit Book, 1691-2.



THE WEST END OF THE OLD CHAPEL SHOWING
THE ORGAN CASE

reproduced here (Fig. 1). The choir organ overhangs the loft, the great organ rising to fill the arch behind. The keyboard was probably behind the choir case, as in the organ at Emmanuel College chapel. This choir case was also disposed of in 1869, to Brownsver Church, near Rugby.

The history of the organ between 1700 and 1838 is obscure. In 1710 Renatus Harris, another famous organ builder, added six stops at the cost of £150. In 1777 a local builder, Mr Argent, was paid £80 for cleaning and repairing the organ, and "tuning it to concert pitch". In 1796 a Mr Lincoln received £63, also for repairing the organ. By 1800 it must have been in bad condition; it had been there for 140 years, parts of it for 170. By 1830 a new organ was necessary; and its building was directed by Dr T. A. Walmisley, who had become organist of St John's in 1833.

The new instrument was built by Messrs Hill and Son, at a cost of £800. It had three manuals, and probably incorporated some of Dallam's old pipe-work. Its position remained the same: the great and choir cases must have stayed in their old places, though two wings were added to the casework which were considered incongruous by A. F. Torry.* The organ at this time was quite small, as its specification shows:†

GREAT ORGAN, 10 stops FFF-f ³ in alt		CHOIR ORGAN, 6 stops FFF-F in alt	
1] Open Diapason	6] Clarabella	11] Open Diapason	14] Flute
2] Stopped Diapason	7] 12th and 15th, on one slide	12] Stopped Diapason	15] Principal
3] Double Dulciana	8] 15th (no. 2)	13] Dulciana	16] Cremona
4] Princinal	9] Sesquialtera		
5] Flute	10] Trumpet		
SWELL ORGAN, 9 stops FF-f in alt		PEDAL ORGAN, 1 stop	
17] Open Diapason	22] Sesquialtera, 4 ranks	26] Open Diapason, to FFF	
18] Stopped Diapason	23] Hautboy		
19] Dulciana	24] French Horn	Couplers	
20] Princinal	25] Clarion	Swell to Great	
21] Harmonica		Octave Swell to Great	
		Choir to Great	

This may well have been the first time that pedals were built on the chapel organ: they may have been added during the previous century, but there is no evidence for this. An organ was considered complete without a pedal board until comparatively recently; and

* Torry, *Founders and Benefactors of St John's College*, 1888, p. 104.

† Taken from Hopkins and Rimbault, *The Organ*, 1855.



THE PRESENT ORGAN CASE

if this was the first pedal board on the organ, the single pedal stop may be accounted for. The possibilities of the pedal department would hardly be exploited if pedals were being added for the first time. It may be noted that the lack of a 2' stop on the Swell was to some extent made up by the Octave Swell to Great coupler, and that there were no pedal couplers. The action was of course tracker, or mechanical, action.

The 1838 organ lasted as long as the old chapel. In 1869 the present chapel was built, and Messrs Hill and Son rebuilt and enlarged the organ for the new building. The organ screen and cases were disposed of, and the organ placed in its special chamber at the north-east of the chapel, in a position rather like that of the first organ in the old chapel. The specification was sufficiently enlarged for us to consider the 1869 organ the fourth the College has possessed. Here is its specification:

GREAT ORGAN		SWELL ORGAN	
CC-g ² , 56 notes, 16 stops		CC-g ² , 56 notes, 13 stops	
1] Double Open Diapason	metal, 16'	17] Lieblich Gedackt	wood, 16' tone
2] Open Diapason	" 8'	18] Open Diapason	metal, 8'
3] Open Diapason, no. 2	" 8'	19] Stopped Diapason	wood, 8' tone
4] Stopped Diapason	wood, 8' tone	20] Pierced Gamba	metal, 8'
5] Cone Gamba	metal, 8'	[from tenor C]	
6] Clarabella (from tenor C)	wood, 8'	21] Voix Céleste [from tenor C]	" 8'
7] Quint	metal, 6'	22] Suabe Flute	wood, 4'
8] Gemshorn	" 4'	[from tenor C]	
9] Harmonic Flute	" 4'	23] Principal	metal, 4'
10] Principal	" 4'	24] Fifteenth	" 2'
11] Twelfth	" 3'	25] Sesquialtera	" 4 ranks
12] Fifteenth	" 2'	26] Double Trumpet	" 16'
13] Full Mixture	" 3 ranks	27] Hautboy	" 8'
14] Sharp Mixture	" 4 ranks	28] Horn	" 8'
15] Posaune	" 8'	29] Clarion	" 4'
16] Clarion	" 4'		
CHOIR ORGAN		PEDAL ORGAN	
CC-g ² , 56 notes, 10 stops		CCC-F, 30 notes, 9 stops	
30] Double Dulciana (from tenor C)	metal, 16'	40] Great Stopped Bass	wood, 32' tone
31] Open Diapason	" 8'	41] Great Bass	" 16'
32] Stopped Diapason	wood, 8' tone	42] Violon	" 16'
33] Dulciana	metal, 8'	43] Principal	metal, 8'
34] Flute	wood, 4' tone	44] Flute Bass	wood, 8' tone
35] Gedackt	" 4'	45] Fifteenth	" 4'
36] Viol di Gamba (from tenor C)	metal, 8'	46] Mixture	metal, 3 ranks
37] Cremona	" 8'	47] Great Trombone	wood, 16'
38] Principal	" 4'	48] Trumpet	" 8'
39] Flageolet	" 2'		

COUPLERS		
Swell Octave	Swell to Choir	Swell to Pedal
Swell to Great	Great to Pedal	Choir to Pedal
Tremulant to Swell		Tracker action
4 composition pedals to Great Organ		Hydraulic blower
2 composition pedals to Swell Organ		
2 composition pedals to Choir Organ		

This scheme was planned by Dr Garrett, organist of the College from 1857 to 1897. The most striking improvement is the great enlargement of the pedal organ: the increase of couplers and the addition of composition pedals are also of great importance. It may be noted, too, that the size of the keyboards was changed to what is now standard size. No organ case was built: Scott designed one, but there was not sufficient money until in 1888 a "distinguished member" of the College gave £2000 for an organ case. By this time Scott's design had been lost, and so his son, J. Oldrid Scott, designed the pleasing case we have to-day (Fig. 2). It was erected in 1889, being executed by John Thompson of Peterborough. At the same time some important additions were made to the organ itself. The action was made pneumatic—pneumatic lever action on the great and swell, tubular pneumatic on the pedal organ and drawstops. A second hydraulic motor was installed for this action, and a Dulciana was added to the pedal organ. The new action was, however, noisy; in 1892 the lower part of the case-work was altered to check the sounds which used to emerge from it. Dr Rootham, writing in *The Eagle* in 1902, describes the organ as in need of a thorough overhaul and rebuilding at the end of the nineteenth century. He comments on the noisy action, the harshness of the reeds which overpowered the softer stops, and the bad state of the hydraulic motors. Once again the organ had become too bad to be endured, and so in 1902 it received its last big rebuilding, by Messrs Norman and Beard.

The specification was little different from that of 1869: the following enlargements were made. All the stops which had ended at tenor C were completed. A Hohl Flute, 8', was added to the great, and a Lieblich Bourdon, 16', to the pedal organ. The old Voix Céleste on the swell, of two ranks, was split to give two stops, an Echo Gamba and a Vox Angelica (to tenor C only). Two couplers made their first appearance—a Choir to Great coupler, replacing the Octave Swell, and the Great Reeds to Choir. The latter transfers the Great Posaune and Clarion to the choir manual, and thus these reeds may be used as solos against an accompaniment on the great: on an organ with no solo manual it is a very valuable device. The Swell Octave coupler has never re-appeared, unfortunately, although the swell organ can do quite well without it. The action was entirely new, and of the

tubular pneumatic variety; several combination pistons were added to the great and swell manuals, and all the reeds were put on heavy wind pressure. To cope with all this wind supply, two new hydraulic motors were put in, and the 1869 one removed: there were thus three motors to supply wind for the action and the pipes. The whole of the pipe-work was revoiced. Dr Rootham, in the 1902 *Eagle*, remarks upon the completeness of each department, due to Dr Garrett's scheme, and the success of the revoicing. The rebuilding lasted from June to November 1902, and the organ was opened on 4 November with a service and recital by Dr Parratt, the then Organist of St George's Chapel, Windsor. During the Long Vacation and Michaelmas Terms the choir had been forced to sing the services unaccompanied, and it was now decided to sing evensong unaccompanied every other Saturday. This presumably began the present custom of singing Saturday evensong without the organ.

Since 1902 there has been no fundamental change, but a good deal of work was done in 1921 by Messrs Harrison and Harrison of Durham. They cleaned and overhauled the instrument, rearranging the interior to some extent. The only change of stops was the reconstitution of the great and swell mixtures. The two mixtures on the 1869 Great became the present 5 rank mixture called "Harmonics". The 1869 swell Sesquialtera of 4 ranks became the present "Mixture" of 5 ranks. The greatest visible alteration was that done to the console (Fig. 3): new drawstop and piston action, and a re-arrangement of the drawstop jambs, changed the appearance of the keyboards, and many of the stops acquired new names. A comparison of the 1869 and 1921 specifications will show how little the pipes themselves were altered. Lastly, several new combination pistons appeared on the keyboards and pedals, giving the organist more ease in stop-changing. This 1921 specification has not since been changed: before giving it we may mention the installing of a "Discus" electric blower by Messrs Harrison and Harrison in 1931—the last major piece of work on the organ. Here then is the present specification:

GREAT ORGAN, 15 stops

1] Double Open Diapason	16'	9] Octave	4'
2] Large Open Diapason	8'	10] Quint	5 $\frac{1}{3}$ '
3] Small Open Diapason	8'	11] Octave Quint	2 $\frac{2}{3}$ '
4] Spitz Flute	8'	12] Super Octave	2'
5] Hohl Flute	8'	13] Harmonics	5 ranks
6] Stopped Diapason	8'	14] Great Reeds to Choir	
7] Harmonic Flute	4'	15] Trumpet	8'
8] Gemshorn	4'	16] Octave Trumpet	4'



THE PRESENT CONSOLE

ORGANS IN CHAPELS OF ST JOHN'S COLLEGE 147

SWELL ORGAN, 14 stops

17] Lieblich Bourdon	16'	25] Fifteenth	2'
18] Open Diapason	8'	26] Mixture	5 ranks
19] Stopped Diapason	8'	27] Double Trumpet	16'
20] Echo Salicional	8'	28] Horn	8'
21] Echo Gamba	8'	29] Clarion	4'
22] Vox Angelica	8'	30] Oboe	8'
23] Flute	4'	31] Tremulant	
24] Principal	4'		

CHOIR ORGAN, 10 stops

32] Contra Dulciana	16'
33] Open Diapason	8'
34] Dulciana	8'
35] Stopped Diapason	8'
36] Viola da Gamba	8'
37] Suabe Flute	4'
38] Lieblich Flute	4'
39] Principal	4'
40] Flageolet	2'
41] Clarinet	8'

PEDAL ORGAN, 11 stops

42] Sub Bass	32'
43] Open Wood	16'
44] Violone	16'
45] Dulciana	16'
46] Bourdon	16'
47] Flute	8'
48] Principal	8'
49] Fifteenth	4'
50] Mixture	3 ranks
51] Ophicleide	16'
52] Posaune	8'

COUPLERS

Swell to Great	Choir to Great	Swell to Pedal
Swell to Choir	Great to Pedal	Choir to Pedal

Reversible thumb-pistons for Great to Pedal, Swell to Great, and Choir to Pedal

Reversible foot-piston for Great to Pedal

6 combination thumb-pistons to Swell Organ

6 combination thumb-pistons to Great Organ

Reversible thumb-pistons for Pedal Ophicleide and Great Double Open Diapason

4 combination thumb-pistons to Choir Organ

6 combination pedals for Swell and Pedal Organs coupled

6 combination pedals for Great and Pedal Organs coupled

Full Pedal and Pedal Cancel pedals

Tubular pneumatic action "Discus" electric blower

Notable qualities of the organ are the selection and variety of quiet stops, the individual quality of these, nearly all of which can be used singly with good effect; and the excellent ensemble, wherein the part played by the full swell is notable. That it includes some of the 1635 pipes by Dallam is almost certain, and thus we may regard the present organ as an enlargement of the old one, if we please.

J. H. D.

*A Programme of four recitals... 1956
contains an account of the rebuilding
carried out in 1955, with specification.*

SONNET

I HAVE grown old in Troy. Now you depart,
 My old man's wit is empty of disdain
 That I still loved, when wisdom said refrain.
 Serenely through the rough roads of my heart
 You paced, securely through the twisting years
 That neither I nor Time had yet made straight
 And braving my high battlements of hate
 You left my grey-haired wit too dumb for jeers.

While you were there, weak wisdom found no room
 In our high Troy and sense besieged in vain,
 Though conscious of our future in its womb.
 So while you paced the walls it could not gain
 Admittance, though the walls without you fell
 And left to sense heart's ravaged citadel.

ANON.

AU REVOIR

FAREWELL, you trees and air of morning,
 I am leaving, loving
 Still your tenderness in loving me.

O! what charming cure is here
 Within thy shade, in this cool bowl
 That pulses with the levity
 Of leaves. . . here, when the day
 In birdsong fills the air,
 Spilling its light as the day broadens,
 Thrilling the broadening day!

Here have I stood alone
 And been at rest at morning—
 With the new sky and the sun,
 Whiteness
 In the air, aquivering to rest.

And I have been at peace—
 And seen the mystic music that is life
 Poised

In the air, as though the morning sounds
 Did freeze from their abstraction;
 Did fuse to something visible and soft.

Yes, I am leaving, loving
 Still the memory they shall not take.

And all our leaving is a gentle one;
 To freshen and to prove
 My cherishing of thee,
 Till in an evening I return
 And in a morning, love.

D. I. M.

MILTON'S "SAMSON AGONISTES"

Performed in the Chapel by the Lady Margaret Players
in the Michaelmas Term 1952

LA TOUR D'AVERGNE was a French grenadier captain of such legendary courage that, though he fell in action at Oberhausen in 1800, his name is still called on the roll of his regiment at ceremonial parades; and on each occasion an N.C.O. answers, "Dead, on the field of honour."

The sentence might serve as an epitaph for this Lady Margaret Players' production. The life of a Cambridge man is short, only three or four years, but in spite of this the pressure on the repertory of possible plays is enormous, so that it is almost an axiom that if it hasn't been done it isn't worth doing. In these circumstances, for a college dramatic society further to limit its choice of play, argues courage verging on the foolhardy; and when the limitation is that of finding a religious play—and producing it in St John's College chapel—the odds against success become astronomical. There is no satisfactory religious play in English, and if there were it would not have been written by Milton.

All this should be said in fairness to the producer and cast, who did far more with *Samson Agonistes* than we had any business to expect. This is a most undramatic play. Unity of time and space is strictly maintained, and all the action takes place in a secluded spot to which Samson, released for a time from his labours, has retired, and where he is confronted in turn with Manoa his father, Delilah his wife, and Harapha of Gath, a champion of the Philistines. In these three encounters, and the comments of the chorus, the character of Samson and the tragic dilemma are revealed.

Wisely, Joseph Bain made no attempt to modify this static quality with any tricks of production. He accepted the play for what it is, more oratorio than opera, and gave most of his attention to the speaking of the verse, and especially to the chorus. In this he was triumphantly successful. He is one of very few people in Cambridge with an instinctive feeling for the subtlety of a well-wrought line of blank verse—and Milton's use of blank verse in *Samson Agonistes* is extraordinarily flexible and subtle—and he had drilled his chorus till they almost always realized his conception. Indeed the chorus was more effective in unison than individually. At least two of the voices were sufficiently different to suggest character and to break the anonymity of the chorus; but they blended into a wholly satisfying composite which was, surprisingly, more audible

than many of its components. That is a measure of the producer's skill.

Visually the production was less happy. Not only was the lighting fussy and the costumes poor, but there was a lack of any unifying style, which seemed to trouble most of the actors, Christopher Stephens's Messenger being the notable exception. For the chorus, either much more stylized movements or better still none at all, even where the text plainly permitted them, would have been preferable to the rather vague gestures we saw. They looked just what they were—ten people remembering a trifle late that they had been told to raise an arm or turn towards Samson.

The three main subsidiary parts are ungrateful ones, and Iain McGlashan in his first scene as Manoa remained somewhat withdrawn, a little unwilling to become involved. Age and weakness he conveyed, but not anguish. He had his moment later when with elegiac voice he spoke in the last moments of the play some of Milton's finest lines. Of the three parts, Delilah's is the most important and most difficult. She hardly comes to life—Milton, after all, was hardly the man to have much insight into a *femme fatale*—and the purpose of her visit is not apparent. Its dramatic purpose is plain enough. As Samson says,

God sent her to debase me
And aggravate my folly.

Her visit illumines Samson's character; but why did she come? What were her motives? The actress playing Delilah must balance between the sincerity which would swing the sympathy of the audience to her—we, after all, have no such cause as Samson to know her wonted arts—and the patent insincerity which would make her coming merely a joke in bad taste. Miss Hume declined to walk this tight-rope. She stayed firmly on the ground, struggling unavailingly with a hard and unpleasing voice, an odd trick of swinging one arm and not the other, and far too much green eye-shadow. (This was an incredible piece of make-up—Delilah looked like an anthropomorphic insect at a ballet school parents' night.) "There can be no doubt", says Professor Hughes in a fine sentence, "that Harapha is what Herr Christian Kreipe calls a collectivismus." Mercifully, however, we were spared the political implications of the play, and Harold Cannon gave us Rhodomont, all brawn and bluster. If many of his words boomed round the roof and were lost, that was hardly his fault—the acoustics of the chapel must take the blame—and unimportant anyway. The effect was made.

But the play is Samson's. The part is greater than the whole. A tragic hero Milton could create, though his smaller, more human

figures may fail to convince, and his personal reason for special insight into Samson's mind has been stressed often enough. Frederic Raphael as Samson gave a performance of real stature. From his first speech with its great agonized cry,

O dark, dark, dark, amid the blaze of noon

to the resigned dignity of his final response to the Officer's summons he brought the part to life, acting both with power and, more difficult, with restraint. He conveyed the sense of despair held in iron control.

So he departed; and the bumbings of Manoa were cut short by the tremendous climax of the play, the fall of the Theatre of Dagon. This was admirably done. The audience jumped in their seats, the organist had great fun and the boys and girls of the cast were provided with an opportunity of shrieking such as they too rarely enjoy. This was fine, full-blooded stuff; but no cast could do anything with the reaction demanded of them on the Messenger's stricken arrival. The play may be thoroughly Greek in construction—critics can spend long happy hours debating to which of the Greek tragedians Milton owed most—but it could hardly be less Greek in spirit. Manoa and the chorus receive the news of wholesale destruction not with awe but with primitive delight. Samson's got his own back. Shucks to silly old Dagon. "Nothing but well and fair." Politics again, no doubt. This is near bathos till the attention is drawn again to Samson himself and the beauty of Milton's threnody silences criticism.

It is difficult to know how to review a college production for a college magazine. It is easy, and rather insulting, to treat it as a Caucus-race—"Everybody has won, and all must have prizes." This production deserves better. It was a brave, able and interesting attempt to do the impossible. Dead on the field of honour? Yes, but there are worse epitaphs; and this reviewer can only say of the Lady Margaret Players what archy said with wistful respect of a moth:

... at the same time i wish
there was something i wanted
as badly as he wanted to fry himself.

A. E. C.

COLLEGE NOTES

Honours List

New Year Honours, 1953:

Knight Bachelor:

HAROLD JEFFREYS (B.A. 1913), Fellow, Plumian Professor of Astronomy and Experimental Philosophy in the University.

K.C.M.G.:

EDWIN ARTHUR CHAPMAN-ANDREWS (*Matric.* 1926), H.M. Ambassador Extraordinary Plenipotentiary, Beirut.

C.M.G.:

R. N. BOND (B.A. 1922), Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Posts and Information, Ceylon.

O.B.E. (Military Division):

Lieutenant-Colonel W. J. C. TODD, R.A. (T.A.) (B.A. 1932).

Honorary Fellowships

Elected into Honorary Fellowships, November 1952:

Sir BERNARD WILLIAM GILBERT (B.A. 1913), Joint Second Secretary, Her Majesty's Treasury.

MARCUS LAURENCE ELWIN OLIPHANT (Ph.D. 1929), F.R.S., formerly Fellow, Director, Research School of Physical Sciences, Australian National University.

Sir MARTIN PEARSON ROSEVEARE (B.A. 1921), Senior Chief Inspector, Ministry of Education.

Prizes and Awards

The MASTER has been awarded an American Geographical Society's medal "for superior contributions to the field of geography".

At the centennial celebrations of the American Geographical Society, held in New York in August 1952, the Charles P. Daly Medal was awarded to the MASTER.

The Copley Medal of the Royal Society has been awarded to Professor P. A. M. DIRAC (Ph.D. 1926), Fellow, and a Royal Medal to Sir F. C. BARTLETT (B.A. 1915), Fellow.

The Association of German Physics Institutes and the Planck Foundation have awarded the Max Planck Medal to Professor P. A. M. DIRAC (Ph.D. 1926), Fellow.

Dr E. H. F. BALDWIN (B.A. 1931), formerly Fellow, Professor of Biochemistry at University College, London, has been awarded the European Cortina-Usisse Prize in Milan for his text-book *Dynamic Aspects of Bio-chemistry*.

Dr K. E. BULLEN (Ph.D. 1937), Professor of Applied Mathematics in the University of Sydney, has been awarded the Hector Medal of the Royal Society of New Zealand, for work in the analysis of seismological records.

The Burney Studentship in the Philosophy of Religion has been awarded to M. A. JEEVES (B.A. 1951).

The Craven Studentship has been awarded to L. D. REYNOLDS (B.A. 1952).

The Henry Carrington and Bentham Dumont Koe Studentship has been awarded to E. W. MARSDEN (B.A. 1950).

The Gedge Prize in Physiology has been awarded to Mr B. A. CROSS (B.A. 1949).

M. A. JEEVES (B.A. 1951) has been elected to a Rotary Foundation Fellowship for study in the United States.

College Appointments

The Rev. H. G. HILL (B.A. 1950) has been appointed Chaplain of the College in succession to Mr Knapp-Fisher.

Other Academic Appointments

Mr J. C. BURNS (B.A. 1949) has been appointed a Lecturer in Mathematics at Victoria University College, Wellington, New Zealand.

Mr J. G. W. DAVIES (B.A. 1933) has been appointed Secretary of the University Appointments Board.

Mr JACK DIAMOND (M.Sc. 1938), a senior principal scientific officer at the Atomic Energy Research Establishment at Harwell, has been appointed to the newly established Chair of Mechanical Engineering in the Faculty of Science at the University of Manchester.

Mr H. S. L. HARRIS (B.A. 1941) has been appointed a University Demonstrator in Engineering.

Mr H. H. HUXLEY (B.A. 1939) has been appointed Senior Lecturer in Latin in the Victoria University of Manchester.

Dr J. R. MARRACK (B.A. 1908), formerly Fellow, has been granted the title of Professor Emeritus on his retirement from the Chair of Chemical Pathology at the London Hospital Medical College in the University of London.

Mr V. J. SANGER-DAVIES (B.A. 1930), Headmaster of Bathurst School of Science, Gambia, has been appointed Principal of Queen's College, British Guiana.

Mr R. A. SMITH (B.A. 1950) has been appointed Lecturer in Mathematics in the University of Sydney.

Dr J. P. STERN (B.A. 1945) has been appointed a University Assistant Lecturer in German.

Mr I. P. WATT (B.A. 1938), formerly Fellow, has been appointed Assistant Professor of English in the University of California, Berkeley, California, U.S.A.

Dr C. P. WHITTINGHAM (B.A. 1943) has been appointed a Senior Assistant in Research in Botany in the University.

Ecclesiastical Appointments

The Rev. J. S. BEZZANT, Fellow and Dean, to be a Canon Emeritus of Liverpool Cathedral.

The Rev. E. N. B. CHAPMAN (B.A. 1923), perpetual curate of Emmanuel, Compton Gifford, Plymouth, to be rector of St John, Pembroke, Bermuda.

The Rev. V. Y. JOHNSON (B.A. 1913), rector of St Cuthbert, Collinton, to be a canon of St Mary's Cathedral, Edinburgh.

The Rev. E. G. KNAPP-FISHER (M.A. 1949, by incorporation from Oxford), Chaplain of the College, to be vicar of Cuddesdon and Principal of Cuddesdon Theological College.

The Rev. R. S. PHILLIPS (B.A. 1922), rector of Darlaston, Staffordshire, to be rector of Carlton-Colville, Suffolk.

The Rev. E. H. G. SARGENT (B.A. 1909), vicar of Christ Church, Virginia Water, to be rector of St Michael with St Paul, Bath.

The Rev. E. G. H. SAUNDERS (B.A. 1948), curate of St Ebbe's, Oxford, to be candidates' secretary of the Church Pastoral Aid Society.

The Rev. ALAN STOUT (B.A. 1928), vicar of Newburgh, Wigan, to be vicar of St Philip, Southport.

The Rev. W. T. WILLIAMS (B.A. 1914), formerly of the Cambridge Mission to Delhi, to be vicar of Shudy Camps and rector of Castle Camps, Cambridgeshire.

The Rev. P. N. F. YOUNG (B.A. 1906), formerly Chaplain of the College, to be vicar of Mathan, Herefordshire.

Ordinations

On 21 September 1952.

Mr M. L. H. BOYNS (B.A. 1949), Ridley Hall, ordained deacon by the Bishop of Southwark in his cathedral, to the curacy of Woodmansterne.

Mr P. G. CROFT (B.A. 1948), Wells Theological College, ordained deacon by the Bishop of Coventry, to the curacy of St Andrew, Rugby.

On 21 December 1952.

Mr C. G. W. NICHOLLS (B.A. 1947), Wells Theological College, ordained deacon by the Bishop of Oxford, to the curacy of Wendover.

The Rev. H. SCOTT-BARRETT, Brigadier, retired (B.A. 1909), ordained priest by the Bishop of Guildford in St Mary's, Burgh Heath.

Public Appointments

Mr J. L. DIXON (B.A. 1952) has been appointed to the Colonial Survey Service in Uganda.

Sir PERCY JAMES GRIGG (B.A. 1912), Honorary Fellow, has been appointed Chairman, and Professor H. J. HABAKKUK (B.A. 1936) a member, of a committee on departmental records, set up by the Chancellor of the Exchequer and the Master of the Rolls.

Mr C. W. GUILLEBAUD (B.A. 1912), Fellow and Senior Tutor, has been appointed a member of the Royal Commission on Scottish Affairs.

Mr D. A. OGILVIE (B.A. 1950), has been appointed to the Colonial Administrative Service, Northern Rhodesia.

Mr D. H. ROWLAND (B.A. 1952) has been appointed to a post in the Patent Office.

Mr ROBERT SOMERVILLE (B.A. 1929) has been appointed Clerk of the Council of the Duchy of Lancaster.

Dr E. J. B. WILLEY (Ph.D. 1926) has been appointed honorary scientific adviser and chief technical reconnaissance officer (Civil Defence) to the Cornwall County Council.

Dr P. L. WILLMORE (B.A. 1942), Fellow, has been appointed seismologist to the Government of Canada.

Legal Appointments

The following members of the College were called to the Bar on 1 July 1952:

By the Inner Temple: Mr K. T. FUAD (B.A. 1951).

By the Middle Temple: Mr P. M. LEIGH (B.A. 1951).

By Gray's Inn: Mr G. D. NAYLOR (B.A. 1927) and Mr K. G. R. GWYNNE-TIMOTHY (B.A. 1951).

Mr H. BRAMWELL (B.A. 1947) has been appointed assistant senior solicitor to the Hampshire County Council, at Winchester.

Mr A. L. JONES (B.A. 1949) and Mr J. K. YATES (B.A. 1946) passed the Final Examination of the Law Society in June 1952.

Mr P. H. LAYTON (B.A. 1927), of the Inner Temple, barrister at law, has been appointed Recorder of Smethwick.

Mr M. N. MUNIR (B.A. 1946) has been appointed Solicitor General of Cyprus.

Mr R. R. THORNTON (B.A. 1935) has been appointed Deputy Town Clerk of Southampton.

At the examination for honours of candidates for admission on the Roll of Solicitors of the Supreme Court, Mr A. L. JONES (B.A. 1949) was placed in the second class.

Medical Appointments

Dr R. G. BENIANS (B.A. 1937) has been appointed assistant chief physician to the Bradford Chest Clinic.

Mr E. E. PHILIPP (B.A. 1936), M.B., has been appointed honorary gynaecologist to the French Hospital, London.

Mr P. A. O. WILSON (B.A. 1940), M.B., has been appointed consultant in cardiology to the Iraq Government.

Other Appointments

Major R. T. ASHBY, R.A. (B.A. 1930), has been appointed bursar of Wycliffe College, Stonehouse.

Mr A. K. CHRISTIE (B.A. 1947) has been appointed to a mastership at Dulwich College.

Mr A. DEWHURST (B.A. 1950) has been appointed organist and choirmaster at St John's Church, Blackburn.

Mr C. M. GLOVER (B.A. 1933), works director of BX Plastics, Limited, has been appointed a director of the British Xylonite Company, Limited.

Mr H. C. KELYNACK (B.A. 1937), Mus.B., has been appointed director of music at Stowe School.

Mr E. H. LEATON (B.A. 1950) has been appointed to a mastership at Brighton College.

Mr A. M. MACKERRAS (B.A. 1952) has been appointed to a mastership at Christ's Hospital.

Mr J. B. MILLER (B.A. 1952) has been appointed to a mastership at St Peter's College, Adelaide.

Mr J. R. PEBERDY (B.A. 1952) has been appointed agricultural officer in Kenya.

Mr D. H. REES (B.A. 1937) has been appointed senior classics master at Rochdale Municipal High School.

Mr I. SUTHERLAND (B.A. 1945) has been appointed a member of the Statistical Research Unit of the Medical Research Council, at the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine.

Mr R. H. S. TURNER (B.A. 1929) has been appointed assistant works manager, Metropolitan-Vickers Electrical Company, Ltd., Manchester.

Marriages

GEORGE HERBERT ALEXANDER (B.A. 1947) to PAMELA MARY MAYCOCK, second daughter of T. O. Maycock, of Kenley, Surrey—on 27 June 1952, at Norwich.

ERNEST OSCAR BLAKE (B.A. 1949) to MAVIS RENWICK, only daughter of Thomas Renwick, late of Brussels—on 7 June 1952, at the parish church, Caldecote, Cambridgeshire.

PETER McCONNELL BOYCE (B.A. 1939) to IRENE EDITH BANT—on 21 October 1952, at the Basel Mission Church, Victoria, British Cameroons.

FREDERICK BRIAN CORBY (B.A. 1952) to ELIZABETH MAIRI McINNES, youngest daughter of Dr A. McInnes—on 1 August 1952, at Raunds, Northamptonshire.

ERIC DAVID CROFT (B.A. 1928) to CATHERINE MARGARET KELLY, youngest daughter of G. F. Kelly, of Edinburgh—on 23 July 1952, at St Stephen's Comely Bank Church, Edinburgh.

THOMAS YOUNG DARLING (B.A. 1947) to ANNA MARGARET MACLEAN, youngest daughter of Kenneth MacLean, of Stornoway—on 28 June 1952, at St George's Parish Church, Edinburgh.

ANGUS GARTH DAVIDSON (B.A. 1942) to ALISON YORA PRIESTLY, elder daughter of the Rev. R. E. Priestly, of Cheltenham—on 29 August 1952, at Cheltenham Parish Church.

JOHN ARTHUR FORD ENNALS (B.A. 1939) to JUDITH GARDE WILSON, daughter of F. Garde Wilson, of Armidale, Australia—on 7 July 1952, at the parish church, Oddington, Gloucestershire.

JAMES AITKIN GARDINER (B.A. 1951) to MARY MURRAY, daughter of William Murray, of Turriff, Aberdeenshire—on 12 July 1952, at King's College Chapel, Old Aberdeen.

MICHAEL ALGAR PARRISH GAY (*Matric.* 1944) to ZENA MAVIS SLOMAN, only daughter of Horace J. Sloman, of Kent House, Gidea Park, Essex—on 12 July 1952, at St Michael's Church, Gidea Park.

RALPH HOWLES (B.A. 1936) to DORIS MAY ABBOTT—on 16 August 1952, at Holy Trinity Church, Bedford.

CHRISTOPHOR CHARLES FRASER LAIDLAW (B.A. 1947) to NINA MARY PRICHARD, of Dockenfield, Frensham, Surrey—on 20 December 1952, at St Mary's Church, Frensham.

JOHN BROOK MARRIOTT (B.A. 1944) to MARY ELEANOR NORCLIFFE THOMPSON, only daughter of N. F. Thompson, of Lynsted, Shawford, Hampshire—on 6 September 1952, at All Saints', Compton.

CHARLES MURRAY MURRAY-AYNSLEY, knight (B.A. 1919), to ANNEMARIA ELEANOR GOLDBERG-CURTH, only daughter of Emil Curth, of Trebnitz, Silesia—on 20 December 1952, at St Andrew's Cathedral, Singapore.

IAN WILLIAM BERESFORD NYE (*Matric.* 1943) to MARY EVELYN STANDLEY, daughter of C. T. Standley—on 20 December 1952, at the parish church, Old Windsor.

ANTHONY GILES GALE OLIVER (*Matric.* 1941) to ELIZABETH ANN HOOPER, daughter of V. Hooper, of Reigate—on 12 July 1952, at Huntingdon.

WILLIAM DICKSON ORWIN (*Matric.* 1940) to BARBARA ISABELLE VAN DER STRAATEN, daughter of J. J. M. van der Straaten—on 27 September 1952, at St Andrew's Church, Bedford.

VALENTINE STEWART PATON (*Matric.* 1943) to JEAN ANNETTE COMYN, only daughter of Robert Comyn, of Rusimbiro, Southern Rhodesia—on 18 October 1952, at St Stephen's Church, Kensington.

DENNIS ROSS POULTER (B.A. 1947) to PATRICIA DOREEN PAYNE, younger daughter of J. Payne, of Broadway—on 16 August 1952, at St Michael's Church, Broadway, Worcestershire.

IAN CHRISTIE REID (B.A. 1947) to BARBARA HERIAN, daughter of V. Herian, of Bishop's Stortford—on 27 December 1952, at St John's Presbyterian Church, Kensington.

RICHARD ANTHONY LIONEL ROPER (B.A. 1942), Mus.B., to CORINA ANITA BENEDETTINI, only daughter of G. Benedettini, of London—on 21 June 1952, at the Free Church, Cherry Hinton Road, Cambridge.

MARK ANDREW RUGG-GUNN (B.A. 1930), M.D., surgeon-commander, R.N., to PATRICIA MARY ELIZABETH COWAN, of Sid Abbey, Sidmouth, Devon—on 1 October 1952, at the Church of St Mary and St Peter, Salcombe Regis.

JOLYON JAMES HUGH RYMER (B.A. 1947) to SALLY ANN SPROLES, daughter of Harris Brownlee Sproles—on 6 September 1952, at St Paul's Episcopal Church, Salinas, California.

Lord STAFFORD (*Matric.* 1949) to MORAG NADA CAMPBELL, younger daughter of Lieutenant-Colonel Alastair Campbell, of Ardhuncart Lodge, Alford, Aberdeenshire—on 16 June 1952, at St James's, Spanish Place, London.

ILLTYD HENRY STOCKWOOD (B.A. 1914) to AUDREY WILLIAMS, of St Albans—on 13 October 1952, at St Albans.

IVAN LAURENCE YOUNG (B.A. 1935) to ELIZABETH MOIR GARTSHORE, only daughter of John Stanley Gartshore, of Toronto, Canada—on 16 October 1952, at the Gartshore Chapel, St George's United Church, Toronto.

OBITUARY

FOR LESLIE EVANS (B.A. 1922), Principal of the University College of Wales, Aberystwyth, and formerly Fellow, died at Plas Penlais, Aberystwyth, on 31 May 1952.

He was born on 17 January 1897, the only child of Mr W. J. Evans, of Aberdare. His father was Welsh and his mother was from Herefordshire. After an early education at the local school, he went to Wycliffe College, Stonehurst, Gloucestershire, but left early to continue his education at a French lycée and in Germany. The war of 1914-18 broke out whilst he was on a bicycling tour near the Bohemian frontier, and he was interned as a civilian prisoner and spent the whole of the war in the prison camp at Ruhleben. His home was English-speaking, and it was at Ruhleben that he learnt Welsh. On his return to Wales he worked for a time, by his own choice, in the coal trade at Swansea; but, changing his decision, he came up to St John's in October 1920, already widely read and travelled. In 1921 he was placed in the First Class in the Economics Tripos, Part I, and was elected to a Whewell Scholarship. In 1922 he was placed in the First Class in the Historical Tripos, Part II, and in the following year he was elected to a Strathcona Studentship in the College. In November 1923 he was elected into a Fellowship on a dissertation published in 1924 as *The Agrarian Revolution in Rumania*, a country in which he had already travelled extensively and whose language he spoke. He was appointed a University Lecturer in Economics in 1926, and in 1929 a Supervisor in History in the College. He continued to travel widely in Central Europe and the Balkans, where he made numerous friends; and he acted as Secretary to the Layton-Rist Commission sent by the Council of the League of Nations to study economic conditions in Austria, lectured at the Post-graduate Institute of International Studies, University of Geneva, as visiting professor, and went to the United States as visiting lecturer at the Graduate School of Economics, Washington. He also worked for a time for *The Economist*. Rather later his interest turned particularly to native policy in Africa, and he made an extensive tour in tropical Africa. His two books, *The British in Tropical Africa* (1929) and *Native Policy in Southern Africa* (1934), were the outcome. During the absence of Sir Henry Howard in the early part of 1931 he acted as Senior Bursar of the College, and he was Secretary to the College Council in succession to Dr Shore from 1931 to 1933, when he was succeeded by M. P. Charlesworth, one of the closest of his Cambridge friends. In 1934 he left Cambridge on his

appointment as Principal of the University College of Wales, Aberystwyth, at the age of thirty-seven.

It was during his eighteen years at Aberystwyth that his most important and constructive work was done, but at no period was his personality more vivid or his versatility greater than during the years when he was a young Fellow of St John's. He was the centre of any company, and no company which included him was dull. He had an exceptional gift, which seemed to be exercised intuitively, of making quick contact with those he met, of entering into their interests and of stimulating their response. The most formidable reserve would yield to the vivacity of his conversation and the warmth and generosity of his nature. The barriers of race or class or language seemed to impose no obstacles. In this he was assisted by his gift for languages. In his Cambridge days he was at his best as host in his College rooms, first D2, Third Court, and later G2, Second Court (where he had the upper and lower floors of the "Shrewsbury Tower"), over a bottle of wine or at the small dinner parties at which he regularly entertained his Cambridge friends and his many visitors from a distance. It was in the latter of these sets of rooms that he installed the first bathroom to be constructed in a Fellow's set in College. Those—and not all survive—who knew him intimately and most often enjoyed his hospitality in those days will appreciate the truth of two comments made at the time of his death by one who knew him well.

"He was complex", he writes, "in that he possessed an extraordinary combination of qualities which were almost incompatible. He had great practical ability, keen intelligence, lively intuition and strong emotion. Yet, somehow, he managed to blend them all, not without much inner tension, into a very rich and constructive whole."

"To be counted in the small circle of his accepted friends was in itself an exquisite privilege, for it meant ready access to a rich and colourful personality, to a generosity that knew no limits, to an atmosphere, less rational than instinctive, of warm, mutual trust, and to glimpses of a deep personal, mystical faith."*

This is not the place for more than a brief reference to his work as Principal at Aberystwyth and, for three periods, as Vice-Chancellor of the University of Wales. The post gave scope for his exceptional administrative ability, and his own unusual combination of associations gave to his tenure of it a much more than administrative importance. He was at once the Welsh-speaking Welshman, in love with the rural and cultural life of Wales; the student of University affairs who never lost sight of what a University exists to be; and the

* Sir Emrys Evans in *Ifor L. Evans, Principal 1934-1952* (University College of Wales, Aberystwyth), p. 19, and *The Times*, 9 June 1952.

European in touch with the wider cultural and political scene. The finances of the College were reorganized and a large debt eventually paid off; a new site above the town was developed, and, with the help of generous benefactors whose support his own enthusiasm and personality enabled him to enlist, extensive new lands were acquired for the College and its agricultural research; the opportunities of the position of Aberystwyth, separated from the main centres of population, were seized upon to make the College a residential college and to develop its corporate student life. He was deeply interested in its School of Agriculture and in the value of this for rural Wales; and in 1944 he published, in collaboration with Professor A. W. Ashby, *The Agriculture of Wales and Monmouthshire*. His return to Wales immediately preceded the transfer, which followed the Tithe Act of 1936, of extensive estates to the University, and as Chairman of the University Estates Committee he took the leading part in the successful administration of this new type of property. He was also Chairman of the University of Wales Press Board, the largest publisher of books in Welsh, and its publications include translations into Welsh and other works of his own, amongst them a Service Book in English and Welsh for his own bilingual, undenominational, college. Hymnology had long been a special interest. Principal J. S. Fulton, his successor as Vice-Chancellor, has said of him that "it is not too much to say that even after many more pages of its history have been turned he will still rightly be called the College's second founder".

But his unceasing energy found outlet also in University affairs beyond Wales. For example, he was a member of the Inter-University Council for Higher Education in the Colonies, and in this connection came to be intimately associated with the University of Malta, becoming a member of its Council and in 1948 receiving from it the Hon. Degree of Litt.D. In the same year he undertook an investigation of the administration of the Universities of Western Europe, thirty-eight of which he visited. Only a few months before his unexpected death he was in Nigeria on a commission of enquiry into the affairs of the new University College of Ibadan.

Ifor Evans in 1938 married Ruth Jolles, daughter of Frau Wolff-Mönckeberg of Hamburg, and had a son and a daughter.

J. S. B. S.

ROBERT ASHLEY BALDREY (B.A. 1920), some time geologist to the Lobitos Oilfields, Peru, died at Ipswich 29 July 1952, aged 57.

JOHN HAY BEITH (B.A. 1898), Major-General, C.B.E., M.C., writer of novels and plays under the name "Ian Hay", died 22 September 1952, in a nursing home near Petersfield, Hampshire, aged 76.

JOHN ROBERT CLELAND (B.A. 1911), died at Bromley, Kent, 28 December 1952, aged 63.

GEORGE ANTHONY HAWKES COOKSLEY (B.A. 1943), rector of North and South Lopham, Norfolk, since 1950, died at Norwich, from poliomyelitis, 14 August 1952, aged 31.

EDMUND GILBERT DYMOND (B.A. 1921), formerly Fellow, Reader in Natural Philosophy in the University of Edinburgh, died suddenly in Edinburgh 26 October 1952, aged 52.

HERBERT HANCOCK (B.A. 1887), rector of Stokesby, Norfolk, from 1910 to 1936, died at Worthing 17 June 1952, aged 88.

GERALD HOLLIDGE HARRIES (B.A. 1893), vicar of Burgh le Marsh from 1908 to 1931, and vicar of St Martin, Lincoln, from 1931 to 1939, died at Prestbury, Gloucestershire, 1 October 1952, aged 83.

JOHN HENRY ARTHUR HART (B.A. 1898), rector of Brandesburton, Yorkshire, from 1941 to 1949, formerly Fellow and Librarian of the College, died at Hull 12 October 1952, aged 76.

THOMAS EDMETT HAYDON (B.A. 1889), Q.C., County Court Judge from 1925 to 1940, died at Bournemouth 30 July 1952, aged 84.

GEORGE CHARLES HERBERT, fourth Earl of Powis (B.A. 1885), died at Powis Castle, Montgomeryshire, 9 November 1952, aged 90.

FREDERICK ARTHUR HIBBINS (B.A. 1900), headmaster of Bromsgrove High School from 1906 to 1940, died 2 September 1952, aged 77.

ERNEST LEWIN HOLMES (B.A. 1886), canon emeritus of St Albans, vicar of Milton Ernest, Bedfordshire, from 1896 to 1935, died at Norwich 25 September 1952, aged 88.

PERCIVAL HORTON-SMITH-HARTLEY (B.A. 1889, as Horton-Smith), Knight, C.V.O., F.R.C.P., formerly Fellow, consulting Physician to St Bartholomew's Hospital, died 30 June 1952, aged 84.

CHARLES FREDERICK JONES (B.A. 1890), vicar of Luxulyan, Cornwall, from 1903 to 1937, died at Hayle, Cornwall, 26 June 1952, aged 85.

HUGH PERCY JONES (B.A. 1894), vicar of Barnt Green, Birmingham, from 1922 to 1947, died October 1952, aged 79.

GUY MELVILLE KENDALL (B.A. 1914), M.R.C.P., in medical practice at Epsom, Surrey, died 3 December 1952, aged 60.

RICHARD DONALD KINGDON (B.A. 1945), D.S.C., died as the result of an aircraft accident 14 June 1952.

RODNEY NINIAN WARRINGTON LAING (B.A. 1923), died at Felton, Northumberland, 7 December 1952, aged 50.

WILLIAM MANN MITCHELL (B.A. 1886), rector of Clyst St George, Devon, from 1933 to 1937, died 25 October 1952, aged 88.

ANTHONY GORDON PHILLIPS (B.A. 1948), Lieutenant, R.N.V.R., was killed in a flying accident 20 July 1952, aged 26.

THOMAS EDWARD DONALD PHIPPS (B.A. 1921), managing director of P. Phipps and Company, Limited, brewers, of Northampton, died 21 December 1952, aged 52.

HENRY CABOURN POCKLINGTON (B.A. 1892), F.R.S., formerly Fellow, for many years a master at Leeds Central High School, died 15 May 1952, aged 82.

GERALD CAIRNS SHANNON (B.A. 1905), formerly of the Indian Civil Service, died at Worthing 29 December 1952, aged 69.

WILLIAM GEORGE SHEPPARD (B.A. 1909), late of the R.A.F. Educational Service, died at Watford 3 November 1952, aged 65.

NOEL THATCHER (B.A. 1894), O.B.E., formerly lecturer in mathematics and physics at York Training College, died in Cambridge 27 June 1952, aged 81.

ALEXANDER HAMILTON THOMPSON (B.A. 1895), C.B.E., F.B.A., Honorary Fellow, died at Exmouth 4 September 1952, aged 78.

Mr Humphrey Sandford (B.A. 1880), a rowing blue, who died 7 January 1952, has left his rowing cups to the Lady Margaret Boat Club.

THE JOHNIAN SOCIETY

THE Society was lucky this year in being allowed to meet for the Annual Dinner in the charming and dignified setting of the Armourer's Hall. In proposing the toast of The College, Mr Brian Tunstall spoke movingly of the important place it occupied in the hearts of all Johnians; he presented to the College, on behalf of a number of old L.M.B.C. men, a picture of the original Lady Margaret rowing at the head of the river in 1829, and asked that it be held in memory of the late Master. The present Master, who took the chair as President of the Society for 1952, replied to the toast and gave members an account of the College's continuing prosperity.

Later in the evening the Master presented the Marshall Hall cup to Mr Arthur Beard, winner of the golf competition, and he reminded members that modesty about their golfing ability should not deter them from competing and enjoying a cheerful Saturday in September on the College's own course at Sunningdale.

At the Annual General Meeting Sir John Cockcroft was elected President for 1953.

A number of Johnians working in London met for an informal lunch recently, and hope to make it a regular fixture when they have found a suitable and inexpensive meeting-place.

D. N. B.

PRESENTATION TO THE COLLEGE GARDENER

ON 9 January 1953 a silver dish was presented to Mr R. E. Thoday, College Gardener, by the Master on behalf of "The Master, Fellows and Scholars" of the College. The presentation was made in recognition of the many awards which have been made for fruit grown at the College Garden while he has been in charge, and in particular of the award made by the Royal Horticultural Society of its Silver (Hogg) Medal in 1950.

BOOK REVIEWS

L. A. TRIEBEL: *Fisher's Ghost and Other Essays*. (F. W. Cheshire, 1950. Pp. 208. 12s. 6d.)

L. A. TRIEBEL: *Facets of France and French Literature*. (Australian Publishing Company, 1952. Pp. 267. 10s. 6d.)

These two volumes of collected Essays, most of which appeared originally in Australian or English journals, are the work of Professor Triebel, who holds the Chair of Modern Languages in the University of Tasmania and who was the Dominion Fellow at St John's College during the calendar year 1952.

Fisher's Ghost contains a number of short essays on literary and general topics. The one which gives its title to the book has nothing to do with our Founder, but recounts the strange tale of an Australian murder in the early part of the nineteenth century, the victim being one Frederick Fisher. In what by general consent is a difficult genre, Professor Triebel moves lightly and gracefully with a skilful blend of humour and charm, while the enjoyability of his writing is enhanced by a vein of whimsical fancy.

The second volume has a more serious didactic purpose. Starting with *Aucassin et Nicolette*, he conducts the reader on a kind of tour through French literature up to modern times, devoting a few pages to one or two of his favourite authors of each period. Though these sketches can be read with pleasure by the ordinary layman in this field, they are clearly the fruits of wide reading combined with a mature judgment; and the French specialist would find not a little that would strike him as making a contribution to his knowledge and understanding of the great figures of the French literary world. C. W. G.

NIKOLAUS PEVSNER: *The Buildings of England: Cornwall, Nottinghamshire and Middlesex*. (Penguin Books, 3s. 6d. each volume.)

Doubtless, by this time, Professor Pevsner's Penguins will be in the pockets of most of those who travel the counties so far covered by them. The minority who do not know them can only be urged to repair the omission forthwith, and await succeeding volumes with such patience as they may possess. For these little books are exhaustive, catholic, packed with information and instruction, informed with grace and with wit. Everything is there: a general survey of the architectural history of the county by way of preface; a directory of buildings and their contents; a glossary for those who find even elementary architectural jargon easier to understand with a little guidance by the way. Then, of course, there are the illustrations which, in these volumes, include the prehistoric Trethevy Quoit, Sudbury Town Station, St Jude's Church in Hampstead Garden Suburb, and Boots'

Factory at Beeston (besides, of course, many things better known or that we would be readier to find). The remarkable thing, however, is that Professor Pevsner has managed to make these directories readable even with a constant use of abbreviation. Far be it from me to try and say where the secret of this achievement lies: but one thing is clear. Few people can say so much in a few words as Professor Pevsner, say it so well and give so much sense of gusto to the saying of it. It will be no more than his desert that he will from henceforth instruct us in our journeying and add delight to our travelling.

E. M.

PAUL CHRISTIAN: edited by Ross Nichols: *The History and Practice of Magic*. (The Forge Press, 1952, 2 vols. Pp. 621. £5. 5s.)

Paul Christian's large textbook on magic was first published in the middle of the nineteenth century and has been a standard work of reference for over eighty years. This is the first full edition in English of this work: it has been grangerized—there are new footnotes, and new material added to the text. The translation is by James Kirkup and Julian Shaw; there are supplementary articles by Mir Bashir, Margery Laurence and Julian Shaw; and emendations and notes by Charles Cammell, Lewis Spence, Gerald Yorke and Edward Whybrow. The whole work is revised, edited and supervised by Ross Nichols and is most attractively produced.

It is an interesting and soberly written account of magical beliefs and practices from Ancient Egypt to the present day: Kali and Thuggee, the Pyramids, Freemasonry, recipes for eternal youth, witches and warlocks, fairies and demons, spells and horoscopes—these and a thousand other occult and supernatural subjects are studied and discussed. Sometimes the treatment of important issues seems superficial; at others, as, for example, when witches' sabbaths are described at "Celtic dolmens, altars of vanished cults", out of date and inaccurate. But we must remember that this is still Paul Christian's book, and not a modern treatise on magic. An extensive list of books for reference helps us to the wider literature of this curious subject: but it should not have been passed for printing without the dates of publication of the books listed.

G. E. D.

JOHNIANA

THE following are reproduced from *In praise of Cambridge*, an anthology compiled by Mervyn Horder. It is published by Frederick Muller, Ltd., London. Price 2s. 6d.

St. John's was an universitie within itself, shining so farre above all other houses, Halles and hospitals whatsoever, that no colledge in the Towne was able to compare with the tithe of her students; . . . in which house once I took up my inne for seven yere altogether lacking a quarter, and yet love it still, for it is and ever was, the sweetest nurse of learning in all that Vniversity.

THOMAS NASHE (sixteenth century)

St. John's College Garden is very pleasant for the fine walk, both close shady walks and open rows of trees and quicke-set hedges, there is a pretty bowling green with cut arbours in the hedges. . . .

The Journeys of Celia Fiennes (1697)

The evening being so beautiful we proposed to walk out, and accordingly at ten set out in our curious costumes: Albert in his dress coat, with a macintosh over it; I in my evening dress and diadem, and with a veil over my head, and the two Princes in their uniform, and the ladies in their dresses, and shawls, and veils. We walked through the small garden, and could not at first find our way, after which we discovered the right road, and walked along the beautiful avenues of lime-trees in the grounds of St. John's College, along the water and over the bridges. All was so pretty and picturesque—in particular, that one covered bridge of St. John's College, which is like the Bridge of Sighs at Venice. We stopped to listen to the distant hum of the town; and nothing seemed wanting, but some singing, which everywhere but here in this country we should have heard. A lattice opened, and we could fancy a lady appearing, and listening to a serenade.

Queen Victoria, *Diary* (1847)Quoted by Sir T. Martin, *Life of the Prince Consort*

I certainly like St. John's College best. I had seen least of it, having only been over it once, so, on the morning we returned, I got up at six o'clock and wandered into it by myself—by myself indeed, for there was nothing alive to be seen but one cat, who followed me about like a dog. Then I went over to Trinity, but nothing hailed me there, not even a cat.

Mary Lamb (1815)