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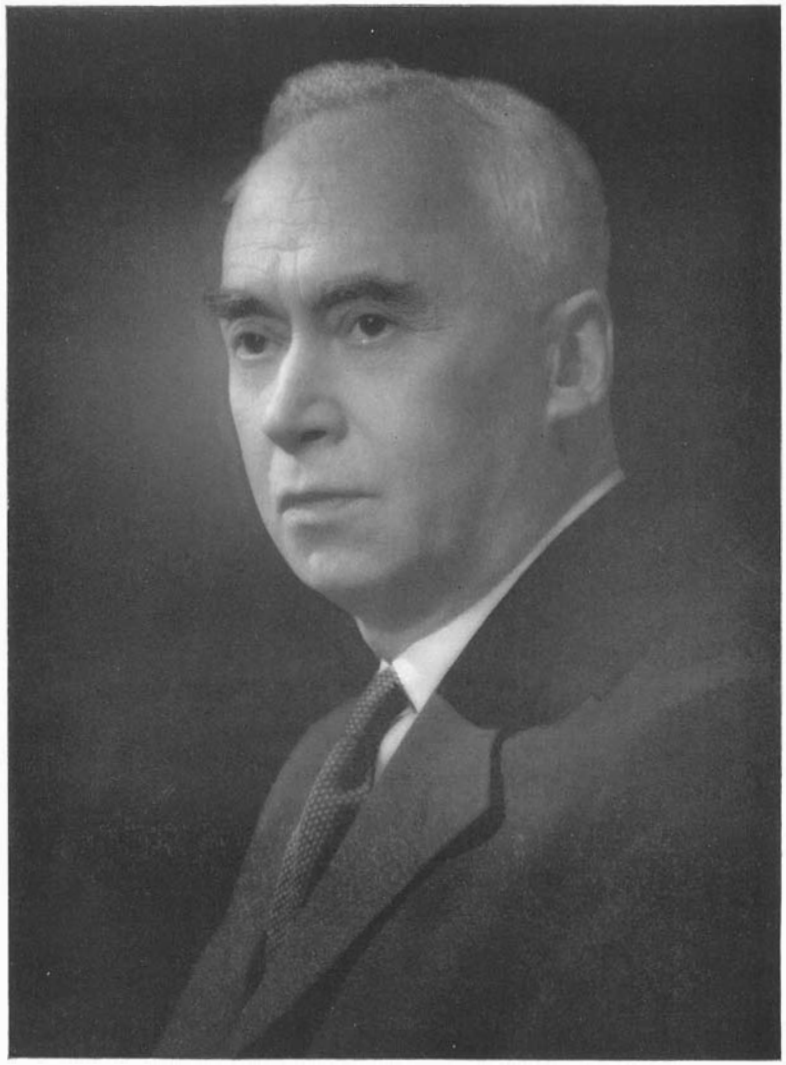
Editorial Committee

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, and the Magazine generally, 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.



THE MASTER

VOL. LIX APRIL 1960 NO. 255

The Master

JOHN Sandwith Boys Smith was born on January 8th, 1901, his father being the Vicar of Hordle in Hampshire and a former member of the College. He was educated at Sherborne School and at St John's College, which he entered in October 1919. He read initially for Part I of the Economics Tripos in which he was placed in the Second Class in June 1921; but Economics, however useful a subject it may have proved in his subsequent career, was not his real interest at the University. In June 1922 he took Part I of the Theological Tripos and was placed in Class I, and elected a Scholar of the College; and in the following year he also obtained First Class Honours in Part II of the Theological Tripos.

In 1927 Mr Boys Smith was elected a Fellow of the College, was ordained priest, and became the College Chaplain. He served as a Tutor from 1931 to 1939, and as Junior Bursar from 1939 to 1940. In 1940 his merits as one of the most promising of the younger generation of theologians were recognised by his election to the Ely Professorship of Divinity at Cambridge, which carried with it a Canonry of Ely Cathedral and residence in Ely. But he returned to live in Cambridge in 1944, when he resigned the Ely Professorship on being appointed Senior Bursar of St John's College in succession to Sir Henry Howard; though he remains an Honorary Canon of Ely. He has been Senior Bursar from 1944 until he became Master on October 30th, 1959.

In addition to his distinguished work for the College Mr Boys Smith has play a very active role in the affairs of the University and also in those of the City. He has been a member of the Financial Board since 1949, and of the Council of the Senate since 1955; while after acting for two years as a representative of the Colleges on the City Council, he was made Chairman of that body's Finance Committee in 1955—a post which he still holds. In both University and City circles he is held in high esteem by all who have worked with him, and there is widespread appreciation of his administrative and financial abilities, his personal integrity, and his high sense of duty—qualities which should serve to make him

an outstanding Vice-Chancellor when the time comes for him to assume the duties of that office.

Our congratulations and good wishes go out to Mr Boys Smith on becoming Master of the College, which for so many years he has served with devotion and for which he has already done so much.

A Notable Acquisition

READERS of *The Eagle* will be interested to know of the recent acquisition by the College of an important area of land adjacent to the College precincts.

After friendly negotiations, the College has purchased from Merton College, Oxford, the whole area, extending to about five acres, lying between the College Grounds on the south and south-east and Queen's Road and Northampton Street on the west and north-west. Thus the College site and the immediately adjoining property owned by the College now extend to the road-frontage throughout the distance from the south-west corner of the Wilderness in Queen's Road to the Merton Arms Hotel at about the middle point of Northampton Street, opposite the end of Pound Hill. The land had been in the possession of Merton College since about the year 1270, and formed part of Merton's most ancient possessions. St John's had long desired to own it, and it is a mark of friendly relations between the two Societies that it has now passed from the ownership of the one into that of the other.

The land includes Merton Cottage and Merton House, two pleasant dwelling-houses of the early nineteenth century, and Merton Hall or the ' School of Pythagoras '. The earliest part of the latter, the most ancient domestic dwelling in Cambridge and one of only about a dozen of comparable age in the country, dates from the beginning of the thirteenth century, and little of it is later than the seventeenth'. The land includes also the Merton Arms Hotel and two rows of cottages, Nos. 26-30 and Nos. 32-38 Northampton Street, a dozen cottages in all.

At the same time the College is acquiring from Magdalene College a strip of land, adjoining the north-eastern boundary of the land purchased from Merton, to form an entrance to the College precincts from Northampton Street. A reinforced concrete roadway has been constructed over this strip and a new bridge over the Bin Brook. The iron gates on this bridge have been designed by Mr H. Wright, Architect, of the firm of Messrs J. Carter Jonas and Sons, the College Surveyors, and made by George Lister and Sons, of Cambridge. The roadway gives the College for the first time a freehold access from the public street to the Pond Yard, the area north of the New Court, and enables the College to surrender to Magdalene the right of way from Magdalene Street to the Pond Yard, which was obtained in 1932

in exchange for the earlier right of way adjoining the river, acquired in 1842[2].

The original College site and grounds have been extended at various times in the past: by the acquisition of the Wilderness, partly from the Town and partly from Corpus Christi College, in the seventeenth century; by the acquisition of further additions to the Grounds in 1805; and by the gradual acquisition of the frontage to Bridge Street, the houses and inns and their yards between the street and the old St John's Lane, over the period from 1774 to 1930. But the recent purchase from Merton College, further extended by the purchase from Magdalene College, is the largest extension of the College site since the College's foundation.

J. S. B. S.

[1] *An Inventory of the Historical Monuments in the City of Cambridge*, Royal Commission on Historical Monuments, England, 1959, p. xc, pp. 377ff.

[2] *The Eagle*, vol. LIV, pp. 309f.

The Linacre Lecture

We are printing below the Linacre Lecture for 1959, prefaced by a short account of the origins of the Linacre foundation:

FOUR centuries and more have passed since the endowment by Thomas Linacre of his lectureships at Oxford and Cambridge. Born in 1460, Linacre was educated at All Souls, Oxford. An eminent Renaissance scholar, friend of Grocyn, Latimer and Colet, he was described as " the restorer of learning in this country ". A distinguished grammarian in his own right, Prince Arthur, the Princess Mary, Thomas More and Erasmus were among his pupils. But Linacre did more than take an active share in the revival of learning in England—he has a very special claim as one of the most distinguished of medical humanists. He became one of the earliest Englishmen to seek a medical education at Padua, then the resort of students from all Europe. Early in the sixteenth century he became the King's physician.

For some years before Linacre's death in 1524, proposed benefactions for the study of medicine were discussed. Lady Margaret had already established her Divinity professorships, but with these exceptions, Linacre's bequests are memorable as the first attempts to endow University teaching. Provision was made for 2 lectureships at Oxford and 1 at Cambridge, " dutifully his respect to his mother double above his aunt ". It is interesting to note that, while at Oxford the deed of foundation was to trustees for the University, at Cambridge it was directly and specifically issued to this College, to " Nicholas Metcalfe Clerke, Maister of the College of Saint John the Evangeliste in Cambridge and the Fellowes and Scolars of the same college ". The ' Belle and Lanthorne ', Adlying Street in the parish of St Bennet, and £209 in gold were given to the college, for which they were to pay £12 a year for a " certayn lectureship of physicke to be founded and established in the Universite of Cambridge ". Following on the liberal outlook of the Master and Fellows over the years, the Linacre Lecturers were not always physicians, and included 3 Johnian poets, of whom Matthew Prior's sole qualification for the position appeared to be the mirth and consequently health-giving character of his poems.

The Linacre lectureship in Cambridge falling vacant in 1908, St John's College, as guardians of the trust, decided to change the lectureship to an annual lecture to be called after the name of the founder.

THE THREE REVOLUTIONS IN MEDICINE

BY

SIR ARTHUR THOMSON, M.C., M.D., F.R.C.P.
Professor of Therapeutics and Dean of the Medical School, University of Birmingham

WHEN William Osler, Regius Professor
University of Oxford, gave the first of these annual lectures in 1908 he said that the invitation to him from the Master and Fellows of St John's College manifested in the sons of the pro
invite one whose working life has passed in a civic university founded but a few years ago shows that the old courtesy remains and is inspired by a generosity of which I am deeply conscious and appreciative.

The title of a lecture in commemoration of Thomas Linacre which includes the word revolution requires some explanation. No man was less revolutionary in spirit, and he loved the monastic peace of his study; as Fuller says, he was the restorer of learning in this country and sought to give back to medicine the uncorrupted spirit of Greece and to strip it of Arabian accretions. But, on the other hand, the Greek tradition was the child of the first major revolution in the history of medicine, and though the passage of wellnigh two thousand years had obliterated the memory of the completely different system which preceded it, Linacre in seeking to restore the Greek spirit was all unwittingly defending a revolution which had heralded a new epoch.

By precise definition an epoch is a point in time, a fixed date; in derivative use over three centuries the word has come to signify either the beginning of a new era or a period in history distinguished by the prevalence of a particular state of things or system of thought. In his studies of human history Professor Toynbee has drawn attention to something that was already widely known but worth emphasis—that epochs in the derivative sense of the term are rarely, if ever, to be defined accurately in terms of chronology. The old lives on in uneasy companionship with the new, and for many years there may be much confusion of thought, ideals, and practical activity. It is because I believe that we are ourselves passing through such a confused period that I have selected this subject for my address.

Knowledge of the past refines judgment of the present, and a man who knows something of the history of a rapidly

developing subject such as medicine is more likely to distinguish the significant and enduring features of the contemporary scene than one who limits his studies to a synoptic review of that vast confusion known as current literature.

THE PRIMITIVE EPOCH

It is commonly assumed that theory and practice are interdependent; that what men do is determined by what they think and believe, and what they think and believe is in turn modified by the result of what they do. That assumption is dubious, for much human activity is still conditioned by primitive instinct, untouched by conscious thought or formal creed, and even at the highest intellectual level it is probable that subconscious, imaginative intuition plays a greater part than many are inclined to admit. It is strange, too, how slowly and, as it were, diffidently practice affects theory; how reluctant men are to question authority and belief long established by time, education, or custom.

However that may be, there is little doubt that the shape of primitive medicine was determined by theories adopted in explanation of facts of nature. Man believed that phenomena like thunder, lightning, drought, or flood, were controlled by powerful beings other than himself, and his conception of the nature of these beings varied. Sometimes his conception was anthropomorphic; sometimes he thought of them as animals and established an elaborate system of totems. These conceptual images, whatever their form, were the earliest gods. Some were beneficent, but to account for catastrophe primitive man believed that many were malevolent devils. In such a theoretical system, sickness, obviously, was a work of malevolence, and the relief of it was sought in two ways—either by placating the ill-disposed god with sacrifice or sacrificial offering or by frightening him away from his evil work by noise, by violence, or by the assumption of grotesque and terrifying disguise by the physician or the sufferer. But, as Sir James Frazer has shown, the theory of animism does not account for all the practices of primitive medicine, for "along with the view of the world as pervaded by spiritual forces savage man has a different and probably still older conception in which we may discern a germ of the modern notion of natural law or the view of nature as a series of events occurring in an invariable order without the intervention of a personal agency."

This conception is involved in sympathetic magic and includes two principles of thought—first, that like produces

like, and, second, that things which have been in contact continue to act on each other at a distance and after the physical contact has been severed. The first principle—that like produces like—was probably suggested by the readily observed facts that children often resemble their parents and that different animal species do not interbreed; but the source of the second is more obscure. I hazard the conjecture that observations of cases of infectious disease may have promoted it. Imagine a savage stricken with dysentery or smallpox who is visited by a friend from a distance. Some days after the friendly visitor has returned to his home he is himself taken with the same symptoms of illness as appeared in the original victim, who may still, indeed, show them. To the savage with no conception of the bacterial world might it not seem that the sick men having been in contact were continuing to influence each other at a distance?

On such hypotheses was the primitive practice of medicine based, and faith in the efficacy of images, charms, and relics derives from them. If we add to the theories of animism and sympathetic magic the belief that the stars in their courses influence the fate of individual men (as they certainly determined the routine of their agriculture) we have the explanation of the extraordinary therapeutic practices which persisted in Europe down to the eighteenth century and later, and still hold sway in large areas of the world to-day.

THE GREEK EPOCH

In the course of centuries the primitive system of medicine I have described gained an authority so absolute and hallowed that to question it was an act of infamy deserving instant and condign punishment at the hands of its established and orthodox practitioners.

The fetters of primitive beliefs were strong, and it is part of the glory of Athens that they were broken there. Our debt to the Hippocratic physicians is threefold. First, they rejected the welter of superstition inherent in animism, astrology, and sympathetic magic, and in its place established the concept of disease due to natural causes and as a manifestation of disturbance of the normal equilibrium between an organism and its environment.

As an example take the opening words of Hippocrates on "The Sacred Disease" (epilepsy). "It is not, in my opinion, any more divine or more sacred than other diseases, but has a natural cause, and its supposed divine origin is due to men's inexperience." And later the blunt statement, "Every

disease has its own nature and arises from external causes, from cold, from the sun, and from changing winds."

His followers accepted the current scientific opinion of their time that there were four elements—air, water, earth, and fire—and matched them with four humours—yellow bile, phlegm, black bile, and blood. Healthy bodies contained proportions of all these, and when either the proportions were disturbed or one of the humours was altered, disease resulted.

The next achievement of the Hippocratic school was a sound method of clinical practice based on patient observation at the bedside and objective records of the course of individual cases.

The Greek physicians were much concerned with the crises of acute disease (which to them were an indication of the separation of noxious humours from the body) and particularly with prognosis. Their insistence on the importance of forecasting the outcome of a particular illness may justly be compared with the prestige that the power of prediction confers on many scientific activities to-day.

Greater than these achievements, however, was their definition of the proper role of a physician.

When first I heard them the words of the Hippocratic Oath seemed strange, fantastic, and even a little superfluous. "The regimen I adopt shall be for the benefit of the patients according to my ability and judgment and not for their hurt or any wrong. I will give no deadly drug to any . . . ," and so on. But in the older, magical system, medicine was not practised exclusively in the interest of the sick. Deadly drugs or poisons, spells, and rituals paved the path to power and satisfied the lust of private enmity. The primitive medicine man might be priest and king, but he was often murderer as well as healer. The Hippocratic Oath marked a clean break with the past; the practice of medicine was to be a way to the good life and no longer the instrument of ambition. To effect the change took time; there persisted long after the Hippocratic revolution cults of medicine which did not shrink from the invocation of evil and the administration of poison for private gain. I remind you of the advice that Cato, the Censor, gave to his son about Greek physicians in Rome, "They have sworn to kill all the barbarous with their drugs, and they call us barbarians. I forbid physicians for you."

The Oath was not superfluous at that time, and in our own sad events during the last war led to a revision of it in modern terms.

Another remarkable instance of the survival of the primitive idea of the work of a physician is to be found in a book by

John Keevil entitled *Hamey the Stranger*. At the end of the sixteenth century, Hamey as a young man from the University of Leyden was appointed private physician to the Tsar of Russia, and found to his distress that his royal master expected his doctor to poison ambitious nobles of the court whom he had cause to fear. When the Tsar himself was sick he deserted his physician and consulted the local sorcerers.

So great was the contribution from Athens, and later from Alexandria, that it seems a little ungenerous at this date to comment on aspects of Greek medicine which contributed to its partial eclipse in the centuries before the Renaissance. Nevertheless, it must be admitted that Greek physicians after Hippocrates tended to adopt sweeping generalizations with insufficient criticism of the evidence for their support. Galen, for instance, held that nature did naught in vain, and that he could detect Divine intention in every human organ—presumably a return to the principles of animism which had characterized the primitive system.

The Greeks also held " mechanical " labour and practical arts in some contempt, and this restricted their advance because anatomical dissection and the examination of diseased bodies after death were essential to progress, and both required considerable manual dexterity and physical exertion. Their point of view seems to have been derived from the argument that, although many things in the world appeared imperfect, it was impossible to believe that the gods would have created anything less than perfection, and therefore they must conclude that sensory perception was fallible (as indeed it often is) and not to be ranked as high as the mental activity of, for instance, pure mathematics.

Greek practice, too, was limited in its application. As Dr Donald Hunter has pointed out in his *Diseases of Occupations*, no one can read the *Regimen* prescribed by Hippocrates for a healthy life without realizing that Greek physicians were almostexclusively concerned with a privileged class: that their advice about the proper balance of food and exercise had no relevance to the mass of the people. Running on the track, wrestling after being well oiled, walks in the sun after dinner, warm baths, sleep on soft beds, and drunkenness occasionally, but not to excess, are no doubt admirable prescriptions for a man of leisure, but they were hardly applicable to the many who earned scanty bread in the sweat of their brows. We must not blame the Greeks for failure to test their hypotheses by experiment: that idea in its full development was to be the fruit of the scientific revolution that began in the sixteenth century of our era.

THE SECOND MAJOR REVOLUTION

" Since a babe was born in a manger it may be doubted whether so great a thing has happened with so little stir." In that terse sentence A. N. Whitehead assessed accurately the impact of the scientific revolution which, as its influence spread, completely changed the character of the habitual thought of men. From the point of view of medicine, 1543 (less than twenty years after Linacre's death) is the crucial date when Andreas Vesalius published his *De humani corporis fabrica* and restored accurate observation and description to a place of greater importance than that of commentaries on the writings of the Greek fathers. By strange coincidence *De revolutionibus orbium coelestium* by Copernicus was printed in the same year, but nearly a century was to pass before William Harvey published *De motu cordis* in 1628, and demonstrated for the first time that harmless experiments on men might be used successfully in the study of problems of physiological function and to test a hypothesis. The idea that accurate measurements and the experimental method of the physical sciences might be relevant to biology and medicine grew slowly. Lack of interest in it was due to several reasons. Biological problems are very complex, and particularly when they concern men.

In the more exact sciences, in chemistry and physics for example, observation, reflection, and experiment define a problem, and in a search for its solution the chemist or the physicist is completely free in the use of his material; the only limits are those imposed by the scope of his intelligence, the quality of his apparatus and assistance, and the limits of the established knowledge of his time. Modern experimental science has scored its greatest triumphs by the study of isolated systems in a controlled environment. Intuitive philosophers and artists, a decayed but deserving class, have indeed suggested that completely isolated systems are a fiction and that glimpses of reality derived from the study of them are likely to be misleading, but the hesitation of thinkers and the inspiration of artists gain little sympathy in the midst of material triumphs of the experimental method. In clinical medicine the material for study is a self-conscious human being; the isolation of a system is extremely difficult; indeed, we can never isolate the whole individual from his thoughts, his memories, his emotions, or his past, and the control of his environment will at best be partial. To these inherent difficulties must be added the inexorable claim of ethics that nothing may be done by way of experiment that could harm

the subject of it; and physicians cannot often repeat experiments at will; frequently they must await the chance event of nature.

Human biology and medicine, therefore, had to wait on the progress of chemistry and physics, on the discovery of the true nature of combustion, on the invention of the microscope, and on the development of techniques in neurophysiology and psychology as well as in the physical sciences.

More important still, from the standpoint of medicine, the labour of research seemed at first to promise no dividend for the patient. Even Harvey, the supreme scientist in his approach to the study of the circulation, continued in his clinical practice, as Sir Charles Dodds has pointed out, to use totally unscientific methods quite uncritically and without question. Apart from opium, purgatives, and emetics, " none of the drugs at his disposal had any pharmacological or therapeutic activity." It is not surprising that Thomas Sydenham in this country had a large following in the seventeenth century when he pleaded for a reversion to the Hippocratic method of patient study at the bedside as the only reasonable preparation for the work of a physician.

Nevertheless, despite all discouraging circumstance, the idea of a rational scientific basis for medical practice was never wholly abandoned: the development of physiology in France at the end of the eighteenth century, cellular pathology in Germany in the nineteenth, with the introduction of methods of clinical examination by percussion and auscultation, did much to increase the physician's understanding of the phenomena of disease, but they added nothing to his ability to control it. In the preparation of a review of the influence of the General Medical Council on education I came across two interesting passages in *The Times* of 1856, when negotiations for the Medical Act of 1858 were proceeding. The first, from the issue of January 25th, was generous. " Of the three learned professions the medical has attained the highest character for disinterestedness. Hard things are said of the cupidity of the clergy... still harder things are said of the lawyers who are supposed to eat the contested oyster while the plaintiff gets one shell and the defendant the other: but there is probably no class of the community generally so free from mercenary motives as the members of the medical and surgical professions." But on April 3rd a sterner note was struck. " There is so much guesswork in the [medical] profession that the president of the College of Physicians is nearly on a level with the meanest herbalist," and " The result of the longest, most varied, and most

profound medical experience is so often a discussion of the worthlessness of medicine."

In his Festival of Britain Lecture in 1951 Sir Henry Dale confirmed the opinion recorded in *The Times*, when he said that in the mid-nineteenth century " medicinal treatment, in fact, was hardly ever given then with any idea that it could suppress or remove the cause of disease." It was the " duty of the physician . . . to maintain the patient's strength . . . and leave nature with as free a hand as possible. . . We cannot . . . ignore the wide opening which a medicinal treatment with no other objective than this offered to self delusion, oracular posturating, and benevolent humbug."

In the past sixty years the picture has changed. No one now questions the value of medical treatment, and it is important to remember that most of the improvement has been derived from cultivation of basic sciences rather than development of clinical methods.

Nevertheless there has emerged a new discipline of clinical science for which we in this country are much indebted to the late Sir Thomas Lewis. It is the culmination of the second major revolution in medicine, which began with Andreas Vesalius in 1543 and was continued by William Harvey in 1620. That revolution added a scientific basis to the clinical practice and ethical position of the Hippocratic physician.

The Third Revolution

Fifty years before the therapeutic harvest of the scientific method in medicine had begun, the seeds were sown of a third revolution, which is the source of much confusion to-day.

Early in the nineteenth century Jeremy Bentham conceived the idea that medicine had a duty to society as well as to individual patients, and that, in certain circumstances, this social duty should take precedence of personal professional responsibility; in other words, that doctors should be concerned more with the public health and less with the relief of individuals. His followers, Thomas Southwood Smith, Edwin Chadwick, and John Simon, were disturbed by epidemics in the congested towns that were a consequence of the Industrial Revolution. They believed, rightly, that if doctors were made legally responsible for the notification of cases of infectious or contagious disease to a local authority steps might be taken to limit their spread, and they made proposals to that end. To-day those proposals seem harmless enough, but they were not adopted without spirited opposition from those doctors who considered they infringed the

passage in the Hippocratic Oath which required that whatsoever was seen or heard in the course of professional work should never be published abroad, and that notification might destroy mutual confidence and trust between a doctor and his patient.

As it is often believed to-day that by clinging to rules sanctioned only by long tradition doctors have been consistently hostile to changes in social policy, I take this opportunity to draw attention to some facts which deserve to be more widely known than they are.

In 1832 Charles Hastings, a kinsman of the great Governor General of India, founded the Provincial Medical and Surgical Association at a meeting of " 50 respectable medical gentlemen " in the Royal Infirmary at Worcester " to promote the medical and allied sciences and to maintain the honour and interests of the medical profession." A year later the new Association sent a recommendation to the House of Commons Committee on Parochial Registers " that great benefit might be expected to accrue to medical science and consequently to the community at large if arrangements could be made for recording causes of death in the provincial registers of mortality." The Registration Act was passed in 1836. At the same time the Association was much occupied with the Poor Law Amendment Act of 1834, and in 1837 a highly critical report on it from a committee was published. In that year Charles Dickens was writing about Oliver Twist—that item of mortality who cried lustily at his birth, and would have cried the louder had he known that he was an orphan left to the tender mercies of churchwardens and overseers commissioned by the Act to make poverty as unpleasant as possible even for small children. Whether Dickens ever saw the Association's report I cannot say, but the similarity of the views expressed is remarkable.

In 1839 the Association spent £700, which it could ill afford, to encourage an investigation of " cowpox and vaccination," and an Act was passed in 1840 to provide vaccination for those who asked for it. Vaccination was not made compulsory in the United Kingdom until 1853, forty-six years after it was first established in Bavaria.

I have already referred to the controversy about the notification of infectious diseases: this was bitter and protracted, but there is no doubt that the patient work of the Association (which in 1852 became the B.M.A.) eventually made agreement possible about the Acts of 1889 and 1899.

The list of adventures in what is now called social medicine

which were sponsored by the Association is a long one, and I can mention only a few. The school medical service, for instance, was foreshadowed in a committee report of 1888, and the virtual elimination of ophthalmia neonatorum came from a similar source in the early years of this century. The medical campaign against secret remedies began at the Annual Meeting of the Association in 1906. A nefarious vested interest had been created from human distress and credulity. Lists of unfortunate people, the victims of various diseases, were compiled and sold to enterprising scoundrels, who then circulated advertisements of their useless wares to the sufferers. Abortifacients were advertised in the press, and some newspapers charged exceptionally high rates for the notices as the traffic in them was so profitable. A prosecution in 1889 drew attention to a particularly vile aspect of the business. A firm engaged in it sent letters purporting to come from " a public official " to thousands of women who had bought their drugs. These unfortunates were threatened with proceedings for " the fearful crime of abortion " unless they paid two guineas to avert them. It is not surprising that the jury, in returning a verdict of guilty, added a rider that it was a vile plot made possible by the advertisements.

But of all the activities of doctors in the past one hundred and twenty years the one that would have interested Linacre most is the reform of medical education.

In retrospect it seems strange that he was so little stirred by the writings of his friend Sir Thomas More, who was not only Speaker of the House of Commons and Lord Chancellor but also a Commissioner of Sewers and of Plague Control. More, truly, was the Chadwick of the sixteenth century. In the *Utopia*, published in 1516, he makes a complete blueprint for public health legislation of the future; a city well built, with gardens and open spaces, a public water supply and drainage, cleansed streets, public abattoirs without the walls, hospitals of the sort we call general, and special institutions for the isolation of infectious disease. He even discusses the problem of eugenic human mating and the supply of maternity nurses. To all this Linacre seemed oblivious when in 1518 he founded the College of Physicians to regulate the practice of physic in London and for seven miles around.

Four years later the powers of the College were extended to cover the whole of England, and only graduates of Oxford and Cambridge and those who obtained the Lambeth degree from the Archbishop of Canterbury could practise as Physicians without its licence. Nearly a hundred years earlier,

in 1421, the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge had supported a measure to exclude from practice everyone who had not obtained the degree of bachelor of medicine, but it is doubtful whether it ever achieved the force of law, and certainly it had no significant effect. The first English law on the subject was in the Act of 1511, which seems to have been replaced by the Charter granted by Henry VIII to the College of Physicians in 1522.

In founding the College, Linacre was no doubt influenced by his experience during the seven years he passed in Italy, where the regulation of medical practice in Europe had developed and he had seen its advantages. The Harveian Librarian of the Royal College of Physicians (Sir Charles Dodds), to whom I am indebted for the information, has pointed out that the first known legal enactment for the regulation of medical practice in Europe was promulgated in 1140 by Roger II, King of Sicily. It required those wishing to practise to be examined by "our officials and judges." Two hundred years later the examination was transferred to the Masters of Salerno. There were many Arabs at the court of that remarkable Norman, Roger II, and it is conceivable that his measures to control medical practice were a reflection of Eastern customs. It is possible, therefore, that by founding a College to regulate the practice of physic Linacre may all unwittingly have introduced one of those Arabian accretions to which he was in general opposed.

Despite the efforts of Linacre's College and of many other "licensing bodies" which in the course of time acquired the right to confer professional titles, the state of medical education in this country at the dawn of the nineteenth century was deplorable, and the conflicting interests of various authorities hindered reform. In 1813 a Bill introduced to the House of Commons to put down empirical practice or quackery failed to gain support, and in 1834 a parliamentary committee appointed to inquire into the state of the medical profession revealed a situation which was truly shocking. Their report would probably have shared the humble obscurity which in England is the common fate of such labours, had not the doctors themselves, in the shape of the Provincial Medical Association, given unremittent support to their recommendations until the General Medical Council was established in 1858. One of the many Bills presented to the House of Commons was actually drafted by George Hastings, the son of the founder of the Association and a Member of Parliament, in 1852.

My purpose in this summary and incomplete review of old

forgotten far-off things is to show that in the nineteenth century doctors, far from opposing change, were leaders in liberal reform. I doubt if they were inspired by political principles: to me it seems more probable that their reactions were instinctively those of ordinary decent men whose work brought them in close contact with the misery of the poor and unprivileged.

How, then, has it come about that ever since Mr Lloyd George introduced the National Insurance Bill in 1911 the doctors have appeared to the public to be consistently hostile to measures of social reform?

In the first place it should be made clear that a dispassionate review of events in the past fifty years shows that there has been no dispute about matters of fundamental importance. Doctors have accepted readily enough most of the implications of a Welfare State.

As early as 1905 they published a report on contract practice, and recognized that in many places it was necessary. Six years later they issued another on "The Organization of Medical Attendance on the Provident or Insurance System," and acknowledged that public opinion demanded "that adequate medical attendance shall be placed within the reach of all members of the community." Soon afterwards Mr Lloyd George introduced his National Insurance Bill. Trouble ensued because in its original form the Bill entrusted day-by-day administration to the same approved societies which had organized much of the contract practice that had proved unsatisfactory in the past, and because no income limit was fixed for those who wished to join the insurance scheme. There were also difficulties about remuneration. Amendments in the Bill which in the light of subsequent events must be considered reasonable failed to satisfy a number of doctors, and for a few years considerable ill feeling persisted, but gradually the insurance system won general support. Its defects were that no provision had been made for hospital treatment, and that the families and dependants of insured persons were excluded from benefit.

The Ministry of Health was established in 1919, and a consultative committee headed by Lord Dawson made proposals for "the future provision of medical and allied services" in the following year. In 1930 the British Medical Association issued a "Report on a General Medical Service for the Nation," and during the war its Planning Commission took the matter further. The recommendations of this Commission were largely adopted by Lord Beveridge in his final report, which shaped the National Health Service as

we know it to-day. Controversy was most acute about the abolition of the right to buy and sell practices, the fear that a whole-time salaried service might be instituted, and the regulations for discipline and for the better distribution of doctors among the population.

Through the whole of this perplexing period doctors have been in a very curious and difficult position. Their work and their intimate knowledge of the condition of the people had convinced most of them that medical reform was both desirable and inevitable, and their reports indeed admitted it. The best of them however, are anxious lest reform should take such a shape that they will forfeit their independence and that the ideals of medicine will be lost. Some, it is true seem to be concerned principally about remuneration, but during the past two years I have had an unusual opportunity to observe them, and I am confident that most doctors are more disturbed about the fate of their profession and the nature of their work than they are about their pay. No one who has any knowledge of what happened to German medical practice under the tyranny of Hitler would wish social medicine to become an instrument of policy and no more.

Some reconciliation there must be: the mere cost of the National Health Service shows that. Social policy must influence practice, but it must never dominate it and exclude that intimate relationship between a doctor and his patients which is essential to all good clinical work.

SUMMARY

What I have attempted in this lecture is a sketch of the three major revolutions of thought which have influenced the shape of medicine in its evolution from the primitive system. The third revolution is now in progress: it involves the precise relation of medical practice to society, and it is the task of this generation to find the solution of the problems that it raises. As the years pass some of the defects of the present National Health Service have become apparent: the division of responsibility between three types of authority; the virtual exclusion of the general practitioner from all hope of promotion to the rank of consultant in the hospital service; the difficulties in changing from one place of practice or one type of work to another, are obvious defects, and there are others. Despite all the failings and the controversy, however, it is doubtful whether any political measure has ever brought so much relief and help to those who needed it as the Act which came into operation in July, 1948.[1]

[1]Reprinted from *The British Medical Journal* of August 8, 1959.

The Blast of Puffery

COMMUNICATION is perhaps the most primitive and long-enduring instinct of mankind; and one whose forms are manifold. It is in the guise of Advertising that communication has least been digested by society. At once a medium of age-old and latter-day application, it is nevertheless only in the last two or three hundred years that it has come to play the subtle yet penetrating part in our lives acknowledged by critic and enthusiast alike. Indeed, advertising as we understand it today embraces a good deal more, and has travelled far, since Thomas Carlyle described it 100 years ago as " an all-deafening blast of puffery." Today, its impact is no less thunderous, but the dynamic part it plays in modern society would have been unrecognisable in Victorian England. In an age when those who wield political power undertake to double our standard of living within a generation, when the burdens of the Welfare State are anxiously balanced against its bounties, we are entitled to question the value and the trends of Advertising.

There are those who fear that advertising is giving birth to a social malaise, that it encourages acquisitiveness, and debases popular taste. As for the first, they conjure up an advertiser's Tenth Commandment—" Thou shalt covet thy neighbour's car, and his television, and his refrigerator, and everything that is his "—which means no more in effect than that advertising gives men ample scope for that ageless game of ' Keeping up with the Joneses ', which they would certainly indulge in anyway. Secondly, Francis Bacon had something relevant to say about popular taste: " Doth any man doubt, that if there were taken out of men's minds vain opinions, flattering hopes, false valuations, imaginations . . . and the like, but that it would leave the minds of a number of men poor shrunken things ?" Even a more optimistic view of human nature would allow that a gullible public often gets the advertising it deserves.

But it does not follow that the public is today at the mercy of men deliberately out to deceive. Lord Peter Wimsey's dictum that ' truth in advertising is like a leaven, providing a suitable quantity of yeast with which to blow out a mass of crude misrepresentation into a form that the public can swallow ', remains fiction rather than fact. For if, until the 1930's, the advertising profession had a stigma attached to its name, from then onwards,

when a self-instituted disciplinary body, the Institute of Practitioners in Advertising, produced a code of rules, the good name of advertising—by and large—has steadily advanced.

More polemic has been the debate over the economic effects of advertising. As a nation, we spend more on advertising than on education, and the burning question is whether the annual expenditure of over £300,000,000 is ' worth ' it. Not all that sum is controversial, and we must early distinguish between the purely informative, and the persuasive, roles of advertising. The former, the mental tap on the shoulder, rarely forms the basis of contention—the promulgation of local and national information can do nothing but good. Thus £100,000,000 is spent annually on clasified advertisements, on Government advertising, and on the dissemination of technical information by traders and manufacturers—the advertising of producer's goods as opposed to goods for the final consumer. It is over the remaining two-thirds of national expenditure, when the advertiser attempts to persuade and cajole and convince, that controversy centres. It has frequently been stated that the colossal sums spent on advertising keep prices higher than they need be, wasting resources much better spent in more essential directions.

Paradoxically, even the critics must begin by admitting that there is one group of prices which are directly and significantly *reduced* by advertising—and that is the price of newspapers. The daily press would never have come into existence as a force in public and social life as soon as it did had it not been for the need of commercial men to advertise. Even the national dailies rely for 40% of their revenue on advertising; and for many other journals the proportion is higher. Not all of the national expenditure, therefore, represents a net cost to the community. As for the proportion that does, let us analyse the purpose for which it is dispensed. Advertising encourages innovation, and is primarily responsible for the introduction of new goods—be it terylene or transistors. The risks involved in launching a new product on the market are enormous. No business man is going to take that risk, unless he can be fairly certain of a rapid mass demand; and this can be ensured, in most cases, only by a prodigious advertising campaign. It is therefore undoubtedly true, that mass advertising, directed to creating a mass demand, is an essential condition of the introduction and spread of new products; it is to business what fuel is to an engine—the great propelling power.

The question that logically and inevitably follows is this: why prolong these lavish expenditures once a product has been successfully launched ? One reason is that a market will not necessarily be instantly saturated, and there may remain a large potential to be tapped. Far more cogent, is the fact that no individual oil

company or detergent manufacturer, for example, could afford to stop advertising. If he did, he would go out of business tomorrow. In such cases the advertising is essentially defensive, a necessary condition of survival in a harshly competitive world. Would it not then be better to merge all the firms into a single monopoly, and to use the money now spent on competitive advertising to lower prices ? Surely not. Advertising is one of the influences that has given rise to a small number of large firms, offering all the technical economies of large-scale and mass production while still retaining the element of competition; and if advertising is the price we have to pay for retaining such competition, it is usually worth paying for.

If the *principle* just referred to is acknowledged, commercial advertising does leave something to be desired where *method* is concerned. Competition, it would seem, could more often be pursued by price reductions than by advertising expenditure. A case in point is the bargain, and reduced-price, detergent pack—clearly a genuine and permanent reduction would be infinitely preferable to retailer and consumer alike, although equally clearly such a step would only be feasible by mutual agreement between the large firms. All this remains a question of degree; on balance, advertising outlays are, economically, ' worth ' it, if some are more ' worth ' it than others. The value of advertising as an agent of economic progress is undeniable.

The most significant *trend* in advertising today is the development of its media in the direction of Television advertising. Whatever opinion one may hold on the social effect of the " Idiot's Lantern ", the results of commercial Television advertising in the comparatively short time it has been in existence, are little short of phenomenal. It has 3 main advantages over other media; one is the intimacy, the effect of the advertiser's product on potential customers while sitting at leisure in their own homes; a second is the tremendous impact of television advertising on perhaps millions at a time—and on an audience whose composition can fairly accurately be forecast; and thirdly, the astonishingly immediate sales response, and the subsequent increasing gearing of sales campaigns to the television medium. Indeed no national advertising campaign in the future can fail to be centred around it. Commercial sound broadcasting, thwarted in the early days of radio by a wavelength shortage, will almost certainly follow in time.

Of the threat of subliminal advertising, it can only be said that the Institute of Practitioners in Advertising have rejected it as a body from the outset, and that a generation heedful of the insidious nature of ' brain-washing ' in all its forms, a generation mindful of the prophecy for 1984, is scarcely likely to sanction it.

Those today who contemptuously dismiss all Advertising as a " racket ", would no doubt confine their remarks, if pressed, to those *methods* of commercial advertising that were described above. For them, manifestly, obtains the rejoinder that advertising will never be perfect while it remains a mirror of mankind: and human nature is glacially slow to improve. In *principle*, commercial advertising remains a key to the standard of living. Declared Sir Winston Churchill, as early as 1924, " Advertising nourishes the consuming power of men. It creates wants for a better standard of living. It spurs individual exertion and greater production. It brings together in fertile union those things which otherwise would never have met ". In a far wider sense, Advertising has come to play an increasing, often unseen, part in our lives. Proverbially, it is said that ' good wine needs no bush '; in practice, Carlyle's ' blast of Puffery ' ensures today that Man's impulse for communication remains unquenchable, and unrestrained.

I. S. WORDSWORTH

Art and Economics in Cambridge

It was never my good fortune to hear Alfred Marshall lecture. I did not turn seriously to Economics until after he retired; but when I was working on my fellowship thesis, A. C. Pigou suggested that I should go to see Marshall, and for a time I used to visit Balliol Croft and hear Marshall pour forth learning, advice, reminiscences, warnings and adjurations. After each visit, I staggered back to College under the weight of a dozen books in three or four different languages, with the pages I ought to read marked with a slip of paper; and the next visit I would stagger back, having read what I could (which was never very much) steeled to carry away a new load. At the time, I found listening to Marshall very much what listening to Isaiah must have been. So far as I can remember, five minutes disposed of the fellowship thesis; thenceforward, I began to learn what economics is, how it should be studied, and, above all, its moral and ethical significance. The austere diet of *The Principles* took on new meaning and new life, and for me it became one of the sacred books.

The visits to Balliol Croft, however, opened other vistas. There I met Mrs Marshall; there I heard reminiscences and stories of their travels—over tea, Marshall would unbend, and take part in a duet—and occasionally I would be shown one of Mrs Marshall's watercolours. Incidentally, as an example of Marshall's prescience, I remember his insisting on the enormous potential value of the rivers of South Tyrol and North Italy as a source of power, a prophecy which later events have completely justified.

After the first World War, economics and the Chancery Bar had to be abandoned, and the arts became my profession and the centre of my life. When I was at the National Gallery, and later Slade Professor, I was sometimes asked to give the annual criticism of the Cambridge Drawing Society. Mrs Marshall always sent one or two watercolours to the exhibition; and I remember the Secretary saying to me, " Do try to say a kind word about Mrs Marshall " (I now realize I was regarded as a stern critic, having been reared on the pure milk of the Slade). There was, however, no need for the suggestion. It was clear that here was an artist of complete integrity, who used no tricks or clichés in trying to express what she saw and felt. What was more important to me was that the visits to Balliol Croft were resumed, though this time the talk was mainly about painting and painting holidays, with naturally and delightfully occasional

reminiscences of Marshall. I'm not sure that Mrs Marshall did not regard me as a sheep strayed from the fold, with whom it was fun to wander into lusher pastures, as a relief from the stern uplands which are fit feeding grounds for economists. "The mountain sheep were sweeter, but the valley sheep were fatter," and I think Mrs Marshall agreed with Peacock that sometimes it was meeter to gossip about the latter.

So it was that I gained a considerable acquaintance with Mrs Marshall's drawings and watercolours; and it was therefore with great pleasure that I heard from C. R. Fay that he had given to the Marshall Library of Economics a volume of watercolours, bequeathed to him by Mrs Marshall, mostly made when she and Marshall were staying in the Tyrol. Mounted in the volume are ninety-seven watercolours, of which thirty-four measure about 9½ by 14 inches, the remainder being for the most part about half this size. Under each one is an inscription in pencil giving the subject, usually also a date, and occasionally additional information. A few are signed with M and P in monogram, presumably for Mary and Paley Marshall, the M doing double duty.

The watercolours virtually provide a record, sometimes tenuous, of the Marshalls' holidays, especially of those spent in the Tyrol. The earliest group dates from 1881-1882, when the Marshalls spent a winter in Palermo, on account of Marshall's health, leaving there in February, 1882, to travel through Italy to the Bavarian Alps, and down the Rhine. Mrs Marshall describes their experiences in *What I Remember* (1947) and in her account of their life in Palermo reveals the sensitiveness and accuracy of her visual impressions, though there is no mention of her painting. The watercolours include views in Palermo, and studies of flowers and fruit, evidently also made there; four views made in Capri, one in Rome, twelve in Venice, and several in Bavaria and on the Rhine. As a whole, they are exactly what would be expected from a conscientious beginner, who has had some lessons from a Victorian drawing master. Details are carefully observed; but the outlook is conventional, and the handling tight and niggled. As almost always happens, Venice proved a graveyard for good intentions (even Monet and Renoir were sometimes baffled by it), and sunsets anywhere provoked little more than picture postcards. Yet, given views in Capri or Palermo that were Mrs Marshall's own discovery, personal feeling and delicacy of touch overcame obstacles due to inexperience.

There is a gap of some years between these early works, and the next series of dated paintings, there being no record of the visit in 1890 to Paris, Vienna, and Germany, which followed the finishing of the *Principles*. Then comes a watercolour dated 1894, of which

the subject is not given, though the mount carries the cryptic inscription "White Elephant idea occurred." C. R. Fay has supplied an explanation from notes he made of conversations with Mrs Marshall. "The idea occurred at Stuben in the Arlberg when he [Marshall] was doing Vol. II [of the *Principles*]. There he got the idea of writing a history of money, banking, etc. He regretted the time he took on thinking about this. He wanted any spare time for further work on the *Principles*." It's a fair deduction, therefore, that the sketch was made at Stuben. More important is that in the twelve years since the early watercolours were painted Mrs Marshall had found herself as a painter. Here is a new breadth of handling, a new feeling for tone relations, and consequently a closer adjustment of technique to express a conception. What had happened to bring about that change, I don't know; but probably much quiet practice combined with the study of other watercolour painters. Possibly, too, in mountains Mrs Marshall had found material to which her imagination responded (it is very difficult to get away from history and other people's notions in Italian cities); or possibly, since Marshall preferred to spend his holidays among mountains, necessity had truly become the mother of invention.

There follow a small group of watercolours made in 1896 at Ospitale in the Ampesso Tal, all broadly handled and very atmospheric, but sometimes revealing inability to give the foreground vigour and interest—incidentally, one of the most difficult tasks in landscape painting. Also painted in the Ampesso Tal, in 1898, is a view of Cimabauch, a trifle insecure in tone relations; and to 1899 belongs a charming view of Der Zirmerhof, near Neumarkt, apparently designed for a calendar or Christmas card, a space being left lower right for an inscription. Wolkenstern and the Grödner Tal provided subjects in 1900 and 1902, the smaller sketches being somewhat uncertain and worried in handling; though some of the larger ones reveal an excellent combination of freedom in handling, and acute perception. So it is with two paintings made in the Engadine in 1901.

In 1903 begins a series of seventeen painted at or near Colfosco and Stern, especially beloved by the Marshalls. Two of these, at Colfosco, are dated 1903, fourteen of the remainder 1903-6, and one 1903-5 6-9. Probably this spread in the dates is due to their being put on the mounts some time after the watercolours had been painted, Mrs Marshall not remembering in which particular year a painting was made. Certainly, there is no indication of the paintings being begun in one year, and finished in another. On the basis of a pencil outline of the main forms, the colour was evidently applied directly in successive washes, and the work completed in one operation.

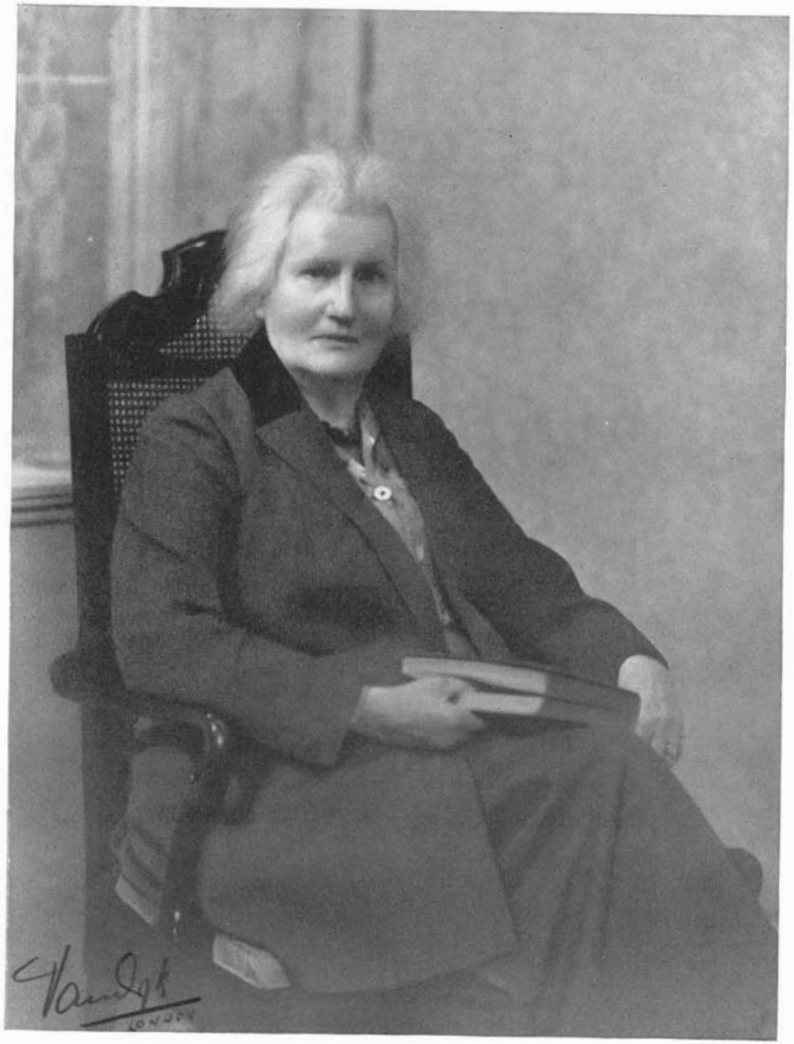
This group reveals Mrs Marshall's weaknesses and strength. She had never been trained in figure drawing, and when figures are introduced they are always poorly constructed and lifeless; and she was never too certain of how to express the structure of a tree. But she was wise enough usually to leave out figures, and to prevent her trees becoming obtrusive, so that her feeling for the wide sweep of a valley, for the form of a great mountain, and the shape and movement of clouds, could be given full scope. The Stern group undoubtedly includes some of her best work, notable examples being *Varella from Stern in Abtei,* and the two paintings of the Sella Gruppe. Equally successful are four paintings made during a visit to Dauphiné in 1905, *La Meige from La Grave* bearing comparison with an H. B. Brabazon, and *La Grave, Dauphiny* tackling the problem of sunset light on mountains with great success. A return to the Ampesso Tal in 1908 is recorded by two watercolours, which emphasize how much had happened since the earlier visit ten years before. The view of Cimabauch, with the mountain reflected in the lake, is a truly imaginative treatment of the subject, putting the other painting artistically in the shade; though this carries on the mount the pregnant (possibly sinister) note " revised Fiscal Policy."

Mountain scenery had been exchanged in 1906 for that of the Riviera and North Italy, not altogether to the benefit of the paintings made. But a visit in 1912 to Mentone secured the rewards of hard work. In subjects akin to those found in Sicily and Italy thirty years earlier, amateur timidity has been replaced by confident mingling of breadth in treatment and subtlety of observation, seen in the delightful *From the Annunciata above Mentone.*

Latest of all are some paintings dated 1913-1920 made at St Martin in Thurn. These are uneven in quality, but one of them with olive trees in the foreground, the village mid-distance, and a mountainside beyond, is for me one of Mrs Marshall's best works.

The volume described here is only a part of all that Mrs Marshall produced; but it is a fairly complete cross section of her work as I know it. Today, critical opinion may regard her as merely one more amateur Victorian water-colour painter. Amateur she was, but with the advantage over many professionals of never becoming slave to her own conventions; and for the rest, as mastery grew, while humility and sensibility remained, she was able to put into terms of form and colour her own invincible delight in contemplating nature, and to communicate that delight to others. How she accomplished this, with all the other responsibilities she carried, we shall probably never know; any more than we shall know what Marshall himself thought about it all. Did he realize that Balliol Croft sheltered an artist ?

W. G. CONSTABLE



MARY PALEY MARSHALL AT THE AGE OF 85 YEARS

MARY PALEY MARSHALL

MARY Paley was the daughter of the Rev. Thomas Paley, a former member of St John's College, where he read Mathematics, and was elected into a fellowship in 1835. He was the grandson of the Archdeacon Paley whose *Evidences of Christianity* constituted a bugbear for many successive generations of would-be undergraduates, since it was a compulsory subject in the Little Go.

In 1871 Miss Paley went up to Cambridge as one of the first five women students of Newnham College. She read for the Moral Sciences Tripos, and took the examination in 1874. There were four examiners, but no chairman, and they disagreed irremediably as to her merits. Her official certificate states that she was " declared by two of the Examiners to have attained the standard of the First Class, by two that of the Second Class." Dr Kennedy (of Latin Grammar fame) celebrated the occasion with the following verses:

Though two with glory would be cramming her
And two with fainter praise be damning her,
Her mental and her moral stamina
Were certified by each examiner.
Were they at sixes and at sevens,
Oh! Foxwell, Gardiner, Pearson, Jevons.

One of her lecturers (in Political Economy) was Alfred Marshall then a Fellow of St John's College. In 1877 Marshall married his former pupil, Mary Paley; but under the then prevailing College Statutes he had to resign his Fellowship upon his marriage. He was for a time Principal of the newly founded University College of Bristol, and later Fellow and Lecturer to Indian Civil Service Probationers at Balliol College, Oxford, an appointment which he owed to the good offices of the Master, Benjamin Jowett.

In 1884 he was elected Professor of Political Economy at Cambridge; and the Marshalls returned to their old University, and built themselves a house—Balliol Croft, in the Madingley Road.

Alfred Marshall held the Chair of Political Economy until his resignation in 1908; he died in 1924 at the age of 82. He was one of the most distinguished Johnians of his time; for he was unquestionably the outstanding British economist of his period and can rank with his great fore-runners, Adam Smith, Ricardo and John Stuart Mill.

Mary Marshall lived on for many years at Balliol Croft, enjoying what George Trevelyan, in writing of her, described as " a great widowhood." She was a remarkable person in her own right, possessed of a good mind, a lively sense of humour, with a

broadminded and tolerant attitude towards people and life in general. For nearly twenty years she acted as an assistant librarian of the Marshall Library of Economics in Downing Street, and she used to bicycle there from Madingley Road until well on in her eighty-eighth year. She died in 1944 at the age of 93, and right up to the end was in full possession of her faculties, her memory being particularly good.

After her death I edited a short autobiographical sketch entitled *What I Remember* by Mary Paley Marshall (there is a copy in the College Library) which contains some interesting reminiscences of the early days of Newnham and of Cambridge Academic society at the end of the nineteenth century. George Trevelyan in his Introduction said of this: " If people who know not the Victorians will absent themselves from the felicity of generalising about them for a while, and read this short book, they can then return to the game refreshed and instructed."

C. W. GUILLEBAUD

Letter from the East

My son,

Confuse not solemnity with sanctity. If thy philosophy will not sustain a good countenance he is no fit company either for youth or age. He that hath a light heart is not thereby condemned to carry upon his shoulders a light head. Yet carry on thy shoulders such weight as thou canst. Think hard and be happy, for today thou shalt live. This is a more robust dictum than that which today seeks to pile dust upon dust to make tomorrow a bigger heap of decay. He is dead already who eats and drinks only in fear and for him there is neither present nor future. Man lives only in faith; the folly of his fears buries him alive. Eat therefore, and drink therefore, for today there is much to do and tomorrow there may well be more.

CH'ENG-HUANG

(and to the Editor of *The Eagle* by one David Ralphs of St John's College, Cambridge).

Poppy Day, 1959

THOSE acquainted with the behaviour of Cambridge undergraduates on Armistice Day Eve, and the contribution made to the Earl Haig Fund by Cambridge University, might find it hard to believe that forty years ago one of the few places in England where no Earl Haig Fund collections were made was Cambridge. " Possible interference by undergraduates " was the reason for this unfortunate state; a reason which did not improve the humour of one small body of men in the University at that time. These few undergraduates sought, and gained, permission for the collecting to be done by the undergraduates themselves, and in this way instituted the first Cambridge Poppy Day Appeal in 1921, under the leadership of a certain Mr P. A. Bainbridge.

Poppy Day in Cambridge has continued and, stimulated by competition among the colleges to collect the highest amount, has expanded every time it has been held. It is now no ordinary collection. Advantage is taken of its being an " unrestricted flag day ", and floats and processions crawl through the crowded streets, bands play, battles are fought on the Cam, revues are produced, and every year there are new eccentric ideas, all with the purpose of making more people give more money to the Earl Haig Fund. These efforts are not without avail ; last November the University collected £12,000, of which £861 came from St John's College.

The reason for holding a Poppy Day at all grows less obvious as younger generations come up to Cambridge, and tends to be hidden behind the carnival atmosphere on the day itself; but the needs of the Earl Haig Fund are as great as they ever were, and are unlikely to lessen for many years. In last year's Poppy Day programme, Group Captain Leonard Cheshire wrote " . . . . human memory is short, and we forget all too easily how much was at stake and at how great a cost victory was won. Words and speeches are not enough; we need to show by our actions that we have not forgotten those who have gone before us, and in whose shoes we now stand. In supporting this Appeal we not only honour their memory, we help and sustain their friends and dependants, and so carry out what must surely be their wish ".

* * * * * *

Poppy Day, Saturday, 7th November: this date remained, locked in our minds from the beginning of the Easter vacation. It was at this time that we had to plan, on pseudo-business lines, the

events we were to have in the Michaelmas term. Why pseudo-business lines? Because we had no capital outlay apart from some stamps, notepaper, and envelopes. These items were soon invested in letters to 140 firms in this country and America asking for prizes for the raffle: the net result was 20 gifts. A very charming letter was received from the Ford Motor Company, Dearborn, Michigan, regretting that " it has become necessary to adopt a policy which does not permit donations of automobiles for raffling purposes ." The raffle, we were to find, took a great deal of time, both selling the tickets, and persuading people to sell them.

What form was Poppy Day to take from the College's point of view ? We had a file from previous years, and our own experience of one such day. We knew we should have to find people, to build floats for the procession, to sell poppies, to perform individual stunts, to do any number of things, all of which to raise money. Apart from this, necessary details had to be timed correctly, letters for permission to hold the event, letters to freshmen, letters for aid in various forms; we wish a secretary had been provided. So much for the details; the main money-raising schemes had to be found. The raffle has already been mentioned; by tradition, we produced the University official programme, and were responsible for selling 9,000 copies. A souvenir edition of the *Evening News* had been experimented with in 1958 and had been proved successful. We considered this and, having discussed details with the *Evening News*, decided to act as agents again, on a larger scale, with two editions.

All of these schemes we knew we could rely upon to guarantee a certain collection for the Haig Fund: the exact amount would depend on the enthusiasm of the people executing them, which proved to be considerable. At this point in our reasoning, new ideas were introduced; consequently, much of the outcome of them would be trial and error. A professional escapologist had kindly offered his services: would he be an attraction on a day noted for its excess of exhibitionism and the unusual ? Use had never before been made of the New Court cellars on Poppy Day; we felt that an evening attraction was desirable, therefore, we planned a jazz session, with two jazz bands from the College playing; an ice-cream firm gave some of its products; and no charge was made for the hire of the cellars or its flooring. It could not fail to show a profit !

The merits of extending the market were discussed: we argued that a certain sum of money existed in Cambridge on Poppy Day for the Haig Fund; consequently, colleges would be competing among themselves to eat the largest portion of the cake. Why not then, organise a cycle marathon, starting near London, together

with a float, with the object of collecting money en route? The problem of finding a dozen men to undertake such a hazardous adventure was solved by "volunteers" coming from the Boat Club. The fact that Watney's were giving two cases of beer to the participants had no bearing on the matter. Last, but far from least, the traditional revue. A group of versatile actors, ably supported by some young ladies from Girton and New Hall, imaginatively gathered together material, from every walk of life, to present to an eager audience; they helped us enormously, as they were virtually self-contained, needing very little help.

Plans were allowed to rest during the summer vacation, but the beginning of the Michaelmas term brought with it the need for concerted action. Ideas were explained to freshmen, and groups were formed to perform various tasks. Float themes caused much amusement: some suggestions were clever, meaningless, humorous, or positively disgusting; eventually five floats were constructed on lorries lent by local firms. As November 7th drew nearer, last minute arrangements were made, and publicity embarked upon, helped by some ably designed posters; in fact, Poppy Day had become a business.

* * * * *

Even at half-past-five on Poppy Day it was obvious that the day was going to be most unusual; several undergraduates were already busy hanging posters, some were on their way to erect traffic blocks on roads leading into Cambridge, and thirteen of the most resolute young men were just leaving for London to test their stamina on a "gruelling" cycle marathon back to Cambridge. As the lorry carrying the cyclists disappeared into the cold morning mist of Trinity Street, the spontaneous shout made one feel sure that here was a band determined that we should beat the usual college competition winner.

The floats were not allowed on the streets before ten o'clock, but their creators had to make an early start in order to finish them by that time; some of the lorries that we were lent could not be at our disposal until that morning. Much of the enjoyment of Poppy Day came from producing and watching floats, and the great influx of people into Cambridge was largely due to them. Floats provided an outlet for the artist, engineer, chemist, musician, or just someone with a good idea.

Each college had an area, chosen by numbers drawn from a hat, in which it could take poppies and collect from door to door. Members of St John's College were also allowed to approach those parking their cars in New Square from 7 a.m. onwards. Distributing poppies might not have been exciting, but it was very remunerative; the Flanders poppy has become a part of our national

tradition, and most people were very anxious to have one, and gave generously.

Programmes of Poppy Day in Cambridge were also on sale from the early hours of the morning, and the sellers planned to come back and take away the first edition of the souvenir newspaper produced by the *Evening News*. Even the best planned events often go wrong; although Cambridge had been blessed with reasonable weather, London was in the middle of a dense fog. The helicopter that was to bring the newspapers from London could not take off and valuable selling time was being lost. Other copies were sent by rail and road, and when it became obvious that the road transported copies would arrive first, the helicopter plan was abandoned. The newspapers arrived at lunchtime when few people were outside to buy them, but selling was fast during the afternoon. A second edition was planned for early evening, with photographs taken on the day itself, and was to be sent by train. The fog was still thick in London and the van taking these copies to the station was involved in a car crash, so the second edition was late as well. In spite of these delays, which meant fewer copies of the first edition were sold and hardly any of the second edition, the *Evening News* enterprise was one of the most successful. With all the unattractive work of selling, and in many other capacities, invaluable help was given by students from the English language schools and teachers' training colleges, and nurses and other friends.

Dill-Russell, the famous escapologist, did a mystifying underwater escape which attracted hundreds of people to the back of New Court. This site was not ideal; not all of the vast crowd could see the incredible performance, and many were unfortunately disappointed. One unsatisfied undergraduate pugnaciously asked the gateman for his money back, upon which the gateman gathered his takings under one arm and disappeared behind the locked door of the nearest cloakroom.

What proved a great help on the day were those enterprises which were entirely self-contained and did not need any help from the organisers. There was a road block on Magdalene Bridge; it was an important state where customs duty, among other charges, was exorbitantly high, both on entering and leaving.

Just as Poppy Day started early, so it finished early. During the evening the sixth performance of the revue was given, and when this ended the only sign that people were still being urged to give to Haig was the muffled sound of jazz being played in New Court cellars; muffled because of the vast number of people who were attempting to jive, listening to one of the two bands, or just being there.

* * * * *

Poppy Day taught us several things, not least of which was how to approach people. It was interesting to compare the different types of reception afforded us when canvassing for help, from sheer bewilderment (" What is Poppy Day?"—this is where the story really starts!) to rudeness. Generally, great help was given, especially by the College staff and local firms; fellow undergraduates who helped could not have been more helpful, but we wish a few more had helped. However, if people are just not interested, then it is pointless to impose oneself upon them. We have learnt one important thing; it is essential to have a committee to organise the events, as they are too numerous for two people to manage successfully. Finally, although Poppy Day takes a certain amount of one's time, there is no doubt that the majority helping enjoyed doing so, probably for a variety of reasons, varying from the opportunity for exhibitionism, to satisfaction at seeing efforts rewarded, and the money collected contributed to a worthwhile cause.

JOHN GARNER AND R. R. JORDAN

The Restoration of Second Court

THE Second Court building, put up between 1599 and 1602, has long been recognised as the least satisfactory structure within the precincts of the College. The west range in the south west corner was the first part to give trouble, and in 1691 the two massive buttresses now visible in Third Court were erected in a successful attempt to stabilize the outer wall, whose foundations had probably been affected by the presence of a large brick culvert running under the building at this point. It was with a view of these buttresses from his window that Thomas Baker shortly afterwards wrote of Second Court as " a slight and crazy building ..... which can never live up to the age of the first court " (at that time just about two centuries old) and yet in spite of these gloomy prognostications it survived for more than another two centuries with the minimum of attention to the main fabric. The next major alteration was the erection of an observatory on the top of the Shrewsbury Tower in 1765. This involved the insertion of three great oak beams, which spanned the tower from north to south and which were built into the north and south walls. They supported a massive brick arch on the top of which were stone slabs carrying the instruments of the observatory, which were thus free from the vibration of the floor, although incidentally the loading on the tower itself had been substantially increased.

It seems that the present dark pointing of Second Court was done in 1793, perhaps under the superintendence of Soane, the evidence for this being the following quotations from the Conclusion Book and the Rental:

Conclusion Book, 28 *February* 1792. " Agreed to desire Mr Soane to superintend the repairs in the First Court and to give plans for the general improvement of the College buildings."

Conclusion Book, 29 *November* 1792. " Agreed to slate and repair the new building, and the chimneys round the College."

Rental of 1793, *head Q:*

" Mr Soane for Superintending Buildings and repairing the first court ... ... £19 15 6 "

Rental of 1793, *head R:*

" Mr Newman for slating new building and pointing 2nd Court £74 17 3
Smithy Dust for do. 16 6
Ale for slaters 7 weeks ... ... £1 7 4 "

The new building mentioned in the second of these quotations would at that time have been the Third Court building of 1670.

The observatory had a life of almost a hundred years and is well shown in the Ackermann illustration of Second Court. In 1859, having by this time been superseded by the observatory on the Madingley Road, it was demolished, the brick arch was removed leaving the timber in position, and the top of the tower was restored to a flat lead roof, probably similar to the original one. At the same time the Collyweston " slates " which had hitherto covered the inner faces of the north, west, and south ranges were removed and replaced by the present green Westmorland slates, a change which people much regretted at the time. At the same period the bulk of the gables on the inside of the Court were rebuilt in a machine-made Victorian brick, and similar bricks were used to replace part of the facing of the plinth. There was little further change until about 25 years ago, when the condition of several parts of the Court was giving serious cause for concern. Immediately south of the Shrewsbury Tower several of the main beams had rotted at the ends and the walls were becoming unstable, so that it was necessary to build a steel skeleton into the inner parts of the walls and tie the whole structure together with steel rods and joists, to which the plates now visible on the outside of the building were fixed. The next major problem was the Combination Room ceiling. Here again the main beams supporting the ceiling had rotted at the ends, and steel structures resting on the main outer walls of the building were inserted in the party walls of the rooms above the Combination Room. In this way a set of " sky hooks " was provided to which the beams were fixed, without disturbing the Combination Room ceiling itself. There were problems elsewhere—notably in the southern part of the east range above the Kitchens, the top of the Shrewsbury Tower, and the Combination Room floor, but at this point the war came and further restoration had to be abandoned for the time being.

In describing what has been undertaken since then it may be of assistance to give a short description of the basic structure of the Second Court building. The original intention was to have a building essentially similar to First Court; unfortunately, in the event it turned out to be not nearly so good. As plans for the Court developed the idea of a battlemented main wall with dormer windows behind was abandoned, and replaced by the present system of gables, thus both enlarging the rooms in the top storey and making the building look more imposing, while incidentally making the feet of the principal rafters exceedingly difficult to inspect. However, the main wall, which is 3 ft. thick for the first storey and 2 ft. 6 in. for the second, extends upwards only as far as the ceiling of the first floor rooms. Above this it is carried on in

brickwork which in places is 13½ in., in others only 9 in. thick. The main beams which carry the first and second floors are built into the main walls, and the second floor beams also act as tie beams for the roof trusses. In this way all the main weight of the structure was carried on the outer walls, and none of the partitions were structural in intention, although in the course of time some of them have become so by the decay of the part which should be carrying the load. The bulk of the partitions consist of wooden stud work, and in the ancient ones the studs are massive oak posts, which are thus able to carry very considerable loads if needs be, although this was not originally intended. The specification of 1598 provides that " all the timber of this new building shalbe for bignes proportion and euery respect awnserable to the timber vsed in the building of the vpper Court," but, alas, this is in general not the case. It should be borne in mind that in restoring a building of this kind it is most inadvisable to attempt to take the weight off the outer walls, because one of the functions of the main beams is to hold the outer walls together. If the weight of the floors and roof be transferred to some internal structure, walls of this type may easily bow outwards and become unstable.

When restoration work was begun again after the war, there were first some urgent problems to be tackled in other parts of the College, such as strengthening the river wall between New Court and the Binn Brook, and reslating the Chapel roof. Work in Second Court began with the laying of paved paths and re-cobbling, which has already been described (*The Eagle*, LV, September 1953). Fortunately, in the meantime, the terms of reference of the Ancient Monuments Branch of the Ministry of Works had been revised, allowing the advice of their architects, whose knowledge of the restoration of ancient buildings in this country is unrivalled, to be made available to Colleges. This advice is naturally restricted to questions of principle in the repair of specific structures, and does not conflict with normal practice in the case of any work for which the services of an architect would be required. It appeared at this stage that the most urgent repairs were to the Combination Room floor and the bulging wall on the Second Court side of the block above the Butteries and Kitchen. As it happened the Combination Room floor proved very much the easier of the two. It turned out that along the south wall many of the floor joists were short, and did not rest on the walls, while the ends of some of the main beams, although generally sound, had decayed sufficiently on their lower surfaces to prevent them also from bearing on the walls. In consequence the load of substantial parts of the Combination Room floor had been transferred to the stud-work partitions below, which, as we have seen, were fortunately of ample strength. In consequence there was

no movement or threat of collapse, but the creaking and groaning of the panelling of the ground floor rooms when there was a crowd in the Combination Room was very alarming. Following the advice of the Ministry's architects, the College maintenance staff were able to deal with this problem without interfering seriously with the use of the Combination Room, Two or three floor boards adjacent to the south wall were taken up and the skirting removed, and working in this space it was possible to bed lengths of angle iron in the wall and bolt the ends of the joists and beams to them. In this way the weight of the floor was once again transferred to the walls of the building and this region stabilized. The cost of the work was small, amounting to no more than £209 and it was completed early in 1955.

The wall above the Kitchen proved, as might have been expected, to be very much more serious, At its worst, about a third of the way between the Screens and the O Staircase turret, the top of the wall leant forward into the Court by 11 in. from the vertical; while further along, the main wall up to second floor level leant forward, while the thinner upper wall leant back, producing a very curious bulged appearance when seen from below. In this case it proved possible to examine some of the rafter feet by taking up floor boards in the gyp-room cupboards under the eaves of the roof. This revealed that at some distant time in the past the feet of at least two of the principal rafters had rotted away, and although they had subsequently been propped up, they had lost all contact with the ends of the tie beams, which were themselves extensively decayed. Furthermore, the removal of a few trial bricks in the bulging areas showed that the brick skin was detached from the main mass of the clunch wall behind. On the other hand, the repetition of plumb line measurements originally made in 1938 showed no significant further movement of the wall.* In view of all these facts the Ministry's architects could not but consider the wall to be unsafe. It might have stood for decades or with a little further movement the outer brick skin might have fallen into the Court, bringing down the gables and second floor windows with it. In this unpleasant contingency it was, however, to be expected that the main inner wall supporting the floors and the rest of the structure would have continued to stand, being, as it was, 3 ft. 6 in. wide at the top, so that a few inches overhang

* At first sight the cessation of movement in such a leaning wall appears a little puzzling. It has been suggested that it may be the consequence of improved rain water drainage. Originally all the rain water from the roof was discharged by spouts on the floor of the Court, and the ground must have been very sodden. When the pipes were connected to drains carrying the water away to the river, the ground within and around the Court may have gradually consolidated, causing the movement of the wall first to slow down and then almost to stop.

would not have rendered it unstable. It will be noticed that this wall, having been put up as part of the original First Court building, was substantially thicker than the corresponding walls of the Second Court building of 1598-1602.

It was accordingly imperative that immediate steps should be taken to make the wall temporarily secure while arrangements were being made for a more complete repair, and taking the advice of the Ministry's architects once again, this was done by clamping x-shaped pieces of iron to the outside of the brickwork opposite the top of the main wall, that is to say at second floor level, and hooking the inside ends of the clamps over a sound and massive oak beam which ran along the top of the inside of the wall. In this way the outer and inner walls were bound together for the time being, and the small initial movement of the upper part of the wall which must have preceded collapse was prevented from taking place.

In the course of the visits which the Ministry's architects had paid to look at these specific points there had also been discussions about the state of other parts of the Court. It was clear that it would shortly be necessary to repair the upper part of the Shrewsbury Tower: the roof of the south range on the Kitchen Lane side would certainly need to be re-tiled: much of the Roman cement which had been used in the past to repair the clunch jambs and mullions of the windows had begun to crack away, and in due course extensive repairs to the windows would be needed, and so on. In view of these numerous defects, some major, some minor, the Council decided, on the advice of the Old Buildings Committee, that it would be wise to have a survey made of the whole of the Second Court buildings so that a comprehensive plan of repair could be drawn up. This survey was entrusted to the Department of Estate Management, under its Director, Mr Noel Dean, and its chief architect, Mr A. C. Crook. After many months of work they produced in March 1956, a very detailed report running to over 40 pages, with drawings and 26 photographs of different parts of the structure, and embodying recommendations of the work necessary to preserve the fabric.

The Old Buildings Committee decided to pass this report on to the Ancient Monuments Branch of the Ministry of Works for their comment and advice, and the recommendations were endorsed practically in toto, the Department and the Ministry's ancient monuments architect for East Anglia jointly producing for the College a suggested programme of work. The necessity for this programme was accepted, and quantity surveyors were commissioned to make measurements of all the work which it was possible to foresee in detail, and to produce a bill of quantities. Needless to say this was a slow job compared to the normal

practice of preparing bills of quantities from architect's drawings, involving, as it did, much detailed measurement on the spot, and to speed the work and make it possible for a start to be made on the restorations early in the Long Vacation of 1957, it was decided for the time being to exclude the north and south elevations of the Court, facing respectively into Chapel Court and the Kitchen Lane. It had been realised from the first that in a number of cases the detailed course of the work could only be determined when some parts of the old structure had been demolished, and accordingly the bill of quantities included as an appendix a schedule of rates for all types of building work, which could then be used to price variations from the original contract. In this way it was intended to keep control of the cost of the work, all variations from the contract being the subject of variation orders signed by the Architect, and being measured by the quantity surveyors, as the work proceeds. Thus a price fair to both contractor and client is assured, arguments are avoided, and the benefits of putting the work out to tender are retained.

The bills of quantities were completed during May 1957 and tenders were received on the 21st June, the lowest one being that of William Sindall Ltd of £96,985. This tender which, as we have said, excludes the north and south elevations into Chapel Court and Kitchen Lane, was accepted, and it was agreed that work should begin early in the Long Vacation of 1957.

While all these preliminaries were going on the Old Buildings Committee had been considering materials. It had been apparent for some time that one of the most difficult tasks would be to find a suitable brick for rebuilding any reconstruction of the walls. The Second Court bricks are unusual in colour, in texture, and in size, and obviously it would be difficult to find old bricks which would make a good match. Accordingly as early as 1954 the assistance of the building inspectors of the Ministry of Works was sought in an endeavour to find a suitable brick. They are required to inspect and report on any scheduled historic building which the owner wishes to demolish and in this way information of intended demolitions from which suitable bricks might be obtained was available over a wide area. Using this and all other available sources of information many visits were paid to old buildings in East Anglia and elsewhere, but as time went on it became apparent that nothing short of a very fortunate chance would yield the necessary bricks in time to be of help in the reconstruction of Second Court. The visits, however, were by no means fruitless. Lord Townshend very kindly presented to the College some old oak panelling from a room at Toftrees Hall, near Raynham. These panels, which have a fine figure, have been used in the Combination Room and in the hall of the Master's

Lodge to replace some incongruous Victorian panels that were put in during the reconstructions of the 1860's. We were also able to obtain from Holbeach a substantial supply of early 19th century hand-made bricks suitable for repairing the crumbling brickwork of the Master's Lodge—some have already been used in the gables above the large oriel window looking into the garden and a glance will show what a good match they are.

As time went on and the brick problem remained no nearer a solution the Committee turned their thoughts to the possibility—undesirable but perhaps inevitable—of being forced to use new bricks, and a variety of samples were collected from many sources. The problems here were rather different from those encountered in looking for old bricks. Old bricks of the right surface texture, and covering at any rate some part of the colour range to be found in the Court, had been discovered both in an old building at Magdalen, near King's Lynn, and in a partially demolished Hall at Outwell, but the first were much too small and the latter much too large, so that they could not have been bonded in with the existing brickwork. In buying new bricks size would be a very minor problem, and surface texture would also be to some extent under control. The main problem was the colour, and it was complicated by the necessity of having to consider, not what the bricks would look like when they were first put up, but what their appearance was likely to be in 20, 50 or 100 years' time.

The old bricks of Second Court were made by the process known as clamp-burning, where the bricks are mixed with combustible material and made into a huge oblong stack in the direction of the prevailing wind. The stack is ignited at its up-wind end, and allowed to burn, the whole combustion taking perhaps a couple of months. When the stack is cool enough it is broken open and the bricks are removed and sorted. This method causes local irregularities of heating which are not encountered if the bricks are fired in a kiln, and is the reason why clamp-burnt bricks usually show a considerable range of colour in the face of a single brick, while bricks made in a kiln are relatively uniform. Clamp-burning was formerly wide-spread, but it has gradually given way over most of the country to kiln-burning, and it is now mostly used in regions south of the Thames, and particularly in Sussex. If a suitable clamp-burnt brick could have been found there would have been an obvious attraction in using it, but it turned out that the lighter end of the available range of colour did not match at all with the lighter red bricks in the Court, and modern clamp-burnt bricks had to be abandoned for the main brick repairs. They are, however, very fine hard bricks, and it was decided to use them throughout the Court for the repair of the plinth. This feature, in the areas where it was still made of old bricks, had

become exceedingly decayed, while the Victorian brick repairs were also crumbling in their turn. It was accordingly decided to replace the entire brickwork of the plinth all round the Court in clamp-burnt bricks from Newdigate, near Dorking, in a selected range of colours which match the darker shades of the old brickwork, and bricks of the correct size were specially made.

All our enquiries failed to produce a standard kiln-burnt brick at all closely resembling the brickwork of Second Court, and the possibility of obtaining bricks from the Low Countries was examined and excluded. Accordingly, when it had become clear that nothing save a very fortunate accident would produce a stock of suitable old bricks, the Old Buildings Committee sought the assistance of Messrs Collier, of Tilehurst, near Reading, who have for long had a reputation for the manufacture of bricks for special purposes. For example, they made specially shaped bricks for window heads to match the standard Dutch bricks of the Veterinary School building, and the passer-by would certainly not suspect that all the bricks were not from the same source. Mr Crook, of the Department of Estate Management, and the Bursar for Buildings paid a visit to Colliers' brick yard in January 1958, and after consultation it seemed likely that they would be able to make a range of special hand-made bricks which would cover much of the colour range of Second Court. The process of experimentation was prolonged, because it took about two months to make, burn, cool and deliver each set of samples. However, by the end of the Long Vacation a range of about seven likely bricks had been made, and samples delivered to the College, By using five of the available colours a proportion was achieved which seemed reasonable when standing in a panel against the wall of the Court, and a substantial experimental piece with these proportions was built between the two windows of the Scholars' Buttery. This panel was so encouraging that the bulk order was placed for the bricks which have been used in the reconstruction.

Another major problem of materials was posed by the necessity of renewing much of the stone work. Although the original windows had been made with sound Northamptonshire stone sills and dripstones, the jambs, mullions and heads had been constructed of the local chalk rock, clunch. Being in a relatively sheltered position this had stood up remarkably well considering what a very soft stone it is, and how liable to disintegrate if frosted when damp. Nonetheless steady surface erosion had been going on through the centuries, and on various occasions in the past almost all these pieces of soft stone had to some extent been repaired with Roman cement while in many cases the original stone had quite disappeared under the repair. However, the

stone itself is so soft that a repair of this kind cannot be permanent, and ultimately the cement rendering comes away from the clunch behind, a process which had already begun in many of the windows. It was, therefore, obvious that a very great deal of new stone would be needed as soon as reconstruction began. The original specification of Symons and Wigg, the builders of the Court, had called for " Cliff ston" that is to say, stone from quarries (no longer open) at King's Cliffe, near Stamford. However, it appeared that this was not the only stone which had been used, and advice was sought from Dr Arkell, who kindly visited the Court, identified the stones and reported as follows: " The string course all round seems to be mainly Clipsham. The Hall buttresses and door A are mainly Ketton. Most of the doorheads and window heads are clunch, variously painted or plastered or both, but occasionally more or less naked. The most easterly window in the north range has been extensively renewed in Ancaster. Some other windows have been largely renewed in cement. In the south range some of the mullions seem to be entirely cement or artificial stone (e.g. the very worn ones in the window west of door M). The gateway and gate turrets in the west range are of a very hard, fine oolite which seems to be Edith Weston or a hard variety of Ketton; but higher up and in the gateway itself could be Ancaster, or perhaps Weldon. With such variety of stones already on view, it seems to me that in a brick court like this it does not matter what stone is used for repairs, so long as it is one of the Lincolnshire Limestone oolites like Clipsham, Weldon or Ketton.

N.B. Positive identification is often impossible as between Weldon, Ancaster and Ketton or Edith Weston."

Most of the quarries for what is technically known as Lincolnshire Limestone oolite are as it happens situated in Northamptonshire and Rutland; some, like Barnack, have long been worked out and abandoned; Ketton is now chiefly quarried for cement, and the amount available for building purposes is extremely limited; otherwise, the principal quarries open at the present day are those at Ancaster, Clipsham and Weldon. Members of the Old Buildings Committee inspected various buildings in Cambridge built in these different stones, as well as considering the effect of their use in different parts of the College; the Chapel for example is built mainly of Ancaster stone, whereas Clipsham was used by Sir Edward Maufe for his Chapel Court block. It was concluded that Clipsham most closely resembled in texture the old stones of the Court, while having the added advantage of being extremely durable.

The question of colour then arose. Clipsham stone is quarried in many shades: there is an extremely hard blue type, not

deposited in regular strata but found in irregular masses embedded in fine grained and biscuit coloured stone; whole strata of the biscuit coloured stone are found, sometimes grading into pink; and there is also a wide range of yellowish to ochre coloured stones, which include some of the coarser and softer varieties. All these are to be found in the same quarry, and after paying a visit and considering samples tooled in various ways the Committee decided to use the biscuit coloured stone, with as much of the rather rare pink as was obtainable, for all new stone work except the windowsills. These, as being particularly exposed to the weather, are to be of the blue stone, which experience shows to weather within two or three years in Cambridge to a pale grey.

We seem to have been taking a leaf out of Sterne's book, and sitting with uncle Toby talking about munitions of war while waiting for the baby to be born. " To speak the truth, unless the company my father led upstairs were tolerably clear-headed, or my uncle Toby was in one of his explanatory moods, it was a difficult thing, do what he could, to keep the discourse free from obscurity." However that may be, we are now so near the end of this article that it may be well to conclude our account of the materials to be used in the restoration, and to defer a discussion of the progress of the work itself to a later occasion.

The other important elements in the appearance of the Court are the roof covering, the windows, and the pointing. Of these the last is soon dealt with. In their joint report of December 1956, the architects of the Department of Estate Management and of the Ministry of Works were unanimous in recommending that " the pointing generally shall be carried out as one operation at the conclusion of the work in Second Court so as to secure an even colour throughout. This would involve the re-erection of scaffolding, but we consider that the extra expense would be fully justified because of the better results which would be obtained thereby ". In view of this the Old Buildings Committee decided to postpone a decision about the pointing until the work is nearing completion, when the effect of the restoration will be visible in the setting of the Court as a whole.

The roof of the east range, which has been the first to be restored, was covered with old local clay tiles having the variation of colour from yellow to red, with more or less blackening by soot, so characteristic of old roofs in this district. Many of the old tiles were cracked or pitted, and it was necessary to reject almost a half of the total before replacing the roof. Very fortunately at the time that the old houses in Bridge Street were demolished in 1938 the roof tiles were removed by the College maintenance staff and stacked behind New Court. It was accordingly possible to select from this large supply some which had the same distribution

of the various colours as had the original tiles of the roof. They were mixed together, and already, after a winter's rain, the northern and southern sections of the roof are practically identical in appearance. This is a fortunate circumstance, as it contributes much to the continuity of appearance of the building.

It is thought that the original glazing of the Court was in diamond panes, because a single window of this pattern survives at the back of K 6 Second Court, looking into Kitchen Lane. This window was probably blocked up at least as early as the first half of the 18th Century, and therefore survived when the remaining glazing of the Court was altered. The bulk of the present glazing has two ranks of rectangular leaded panes, a most unusual arrangement but one to which we have become accustomed in its setting of this particular Court. A more common arrangement would have been to have had the leaded panes in three ranks, and some such can be seen in Scott's alterations facing into Chapel Court at the back of A and C Staircases. The experiment was made of painting some of the Combination Room windows so that from the inside they gave the impression of one or other of these two types of glazing, and it was agreed that it would be best to use throughout the restorations the two rank pattern which has for so long been characteristic of the Court. The old iron casements were so extensively decayed that their replacement was inevitable, and bronze is being used for the reconstruction; in spite of the considerable extra initial cost there will be long term savings on maintenance. A special bronze section was designed for the frames, so as to give a projection from the stonework similar to that of the old iron casements, and already the change is very inconspicuous. Owing to the irregularity of the old windows little of the old glass can be re-used, and modern window glass is far flatter and more uniform, After experiment it was decided to introduce into the modern glazing randomly distributed panes of the irregular, so-called " white cathedral ", glass in the proportion of about one in ten, so as to break up somewhat the regularity of reflection of the sky in the windows when seen from below.

G. C. E.

Bridewell Revisited

Or *" Have with you to Saffron Newnham."*

Fit One.

Well, here's to Cambridge and the ranks of all
Who've joined her swollen army, heard the call
To academic arms from counties far,
And trooped into oblivion. Here the star
Of learning nightly sinks above a scene
Of saturnalia and bibacious spleen.

I pity those who dreamed of silent towers
Ivied with age and halcyon through hours
Of meditation and the calm pursuit
Of trivial quadrivia to suit
Scholastic minds intent on incubation
Throughout a life of timid titillation.

Unhappy Platos, ill-advised Descartes,
Frustrated Russells—say farewell to Arts!
Betrayed by fate beyond all hope of fame
Into the smothering bosom of the Dame
Establishment, as "Alma Mater" dressed,
Mad, ribald, dowdy—anything but blessed.

We see them come in unassuming hordes,
Boasting prize volumes cased in solemn boards.
They look for learning, taste, or merely sanity,
But find instead incorrigible vanity,
Smug ostentation by the self-possessed,
And fatuous insouciance by the rest;
In short, a world where *ignorance is blessed.*

Poor sucklings these, who dreamed of hallowed days,
Th' Hesperides by Granta, Odysseys
Of punting, and Old Saturn's land of Cam
With ether-clothèd Backs (not Uncle Sam
On pilgrimage the length of King's Parade
With pious Leicas, Baedekers displayed).
K.P., where every moment of the term
Some nauseating nymph makes ten fools squirm.

O Cambridge, this to thee I dedicate
With deep devotion, who didst educate
The wisest of the wise—quite by mistake,
We grant, but there! the whole world is a fake.

Fit Two.

But now to flights by other hands controlled;
Go hop it Pope, I've raised another Jack!
Here's Byron trailing glory, with a bold
Look in his eye, fame's harness on his back.
—That is, "raised Cain", for as we've all been told,
Lord Byron's quite a boy, and rather slack
In morals, damned Satanic some would say;
But that's all one, since Hell's in pawn today.

" Lasciate ogni speranza voi ch'entrate."
We're here, arrived; the rest's a half-baked wait.
The perfect motto for a Cambridge party
Might just as well serve Cambridge; curse your fate
For leading you where sweet young things grow tarty
And every sucker learns to suck the State;
Where grave dons bicker till their final totter,
And every copy-book's a perfect blotter.

Young Bacchus will supplant Athene's vapours
With headier liquids than the sage relies on;
St John's peculiar academic capers
Are blessed with more than books to keep one's eyes on.
Some take "The Times", and some The Sunday Papers,
But most are happy with a pad to size on.
God bless the Queen, and bless Her Royal Brewer!
Time's short—quare da nobis vina puer.

But hail! Don Juan; this is your domain;
Such pastoral delights as fit your taste
Await you here; there's no need to explain
A talent such as yours won't go to waste.
Discover Cambridge; delve in every drain;
You're on Commission, so there's no great haste.
The slough is deep: we'll pay you well to flounder.
Now on your way! Dame Fortune loves a bounder.

Juan went forth; he cast his sultry eye
On every marvel, everything we're here for;
The strutting peepshows as they flutter by,
All heels and secrets (which are what most peer for);
He saw the limpid Cam and gave a sigh;
Saw New Court which he really shed a tear for;
Saw punts with cargoes of Platonic loafers,
And other punts like navigating sofas.

Along the banks lay ranks of gaping laggards,
And idlers listless paced the lazy Backs;
A horde of lotus-eaters, slackers, blackguards
Lounged on the bridges, launching brief attacks
With bread-crumbs on their punting fellow-braggarts,
Or whistled at the broad-beamed hips in slacks.
Don Juan paused before such studied leisure.
" So this is Alma Mater! What a treasure."

Away went Juan from these realms of gold,
Seeking the centre of a dizzy world
Where merit seemed to lie in being bold
With girls, who (to be sure) were always curled
In coy seductive poses where men strolled
(And that was everywhere); the river purled
And sparkled with the calmness of delight;
A thousand cameras snapped at Juan's flight—

—His cloak had marked him as "eccentric don",
Such as, immortal, oftentimes have stalked
Half-hid by shadows when the day is done,
Renowned for foibles—so the tourists gawked,
And clicked their vacuous shutters one by one,
Gibbering in triumph, "That's a real one—walked
Just like on Telly—looked a silly clot—
Against King's College Chapel—what a shot!"

At length he reached the "Copper Kettle"; ordered
A cup of Cambridge coffee, weak and costly;
Observed his fellow-gourmets; found they bordered,
If male, on female; female, lynx; and mostly
They spoke with lispings dulcet, self-applauded,
Tilting their cups with fragile fingers; lastly,
He saw that Bloomsbury resurrection, Culture,
Ruffling its feathers like a weary vulture.

Dismayed, he rose, and battled to the door,
Provoking simpers, scowls, and fishlike stares
(The gamut of expression from the more
Sophisticated, vain "accomplished snares").
He cursed his task, "This place is just a bore:
A paradise for pampered prigs: who cares
For learning here, who thinks a sober thought?"
Up Silver Street, across Queen's Road he sought

A better land; but finding Newnham belles,
His eyes glowed brighter than the evening star.
"A place" he cried, "to beat all previous hells!"
And entered Newnham; he was seen no more . . . .
. . . . Coy Newnham ladies love Don Juan's spells;
For he can charm their hearts with his guitar,
And warm their cheeks with his well-practised smiles,
(And warm their hands)
—he's found his Happy Isles.

DAVID MORPHET

College Notes

Honours List

Birthday Honours, 1959 (Additional):

Bar to Air Force Cross: Wing Commander G. H. DHENIN, M.D. (B.A. 1939).

New Year Honours, 1960:

K.B.E.: Instructor Rear Admiral JOHN FLEMING (B.A. 1925),
O.B.E.: DAVID SCOTT (B.A. 1937), specialist epidemiologist. Medical Services, Accra, Ghana.

Elected into Fellowships

From 1 January 1960:

Dr N. F. MCK. HENRY (Ph.D. 1938), University Lecturer in Petrology;

Dr C. L. SMITH, of Sidney Sussex College (B.A. 1935), Assistant Director of Research in Radiotherapeutics.

From 1 July 1960:

Mr T. C. THOMAS, Fellow of Trinity Hall (B.A. 1938), University Lecturer in Law.

Mr THOMAS has been appointed Senior Bursar of the College in succession to the Master.

From 1 October 1960:

Mr K. J. PASCOE (B.A. 1941), University Lecturer in Engineering.

Prizes, Awards, and other Honours

The following University awards have been made to members of the College:

Allen Scholarships: D. H. V. BROGAN (B.A. 1959) and A. J. JACOVIDES (B.A. 1958).

Amy Mary Preston Read Scholarship: P. V. LANDSHOFF.

W. A. Meek Scholarship: R. W. LARDNER.

David Richards Travel Scholarships: C. A. JOSEPH for travel in Bornholm, and H. D. WOODWARD for travel in the Canary Islands.

Henry Arthur Thomas Travel Exhibitions: A. J. BOWEN, W. A. MCMULLEN, I. A. K. MURRAY and R. W. THEOBALD.

Marmaduke Sheild Scholarship: J. B. G. TROUERN-TREND.

Grant from the Brancusi Travel Fund: N. WOOD.

Grant from the Scandinavian Studies Fund: P. J. D. DAY D. R. MUIRHEAD, B. R. WEBSTER, H. D. WOODWARD and P. VANDER MEER, participants in the Cambridge Osterdalisen Expedition for surveying, glaciology and geomorphology in Norway.

Adams Prize: Dr A. SALAM (B.A. 1948), formerly Fellow.

Raymond Horton-Smith Prize: Dr J. H. ANGEL (B.A. 1944).

Mayhew Prize: R. W. LARDNER (*aeq*).

Archibald Denny Prize in Theory of Structures: J. R. EVANS.

Royal Aeronautical Society Prize in Aeronautics: C. G. B. MITCHELL.

K. E. Woodman Prize in the Chemistry of Foods: H. E. FULLER-LEWIS.

Members' Latin Essay Prize: J. B. HALL.

Philip Lake Prize for Advanced Physiography: D. R. STODDART.

The Prestwich Medal of the Geological Society of London has been awarded to Sir V. E. FUCHS (B.A. 1929).

The De Morgan Medal of the London Mathematical Society has been awarded to Professor Sir W. V. D. HODGE (B.A. 1925), formerly Fellow, Master of Pembroke College.

On 4 July 1959, the honorary degree of Master of Arts was conferred by the University of Liverpool upon Mr H. S. MAGNAY (B.A. 1925), Director of Education for Liverpool.

Professor Sir W. V. D. HODGE (B.A. 1925), formerly Fellow, has been elected a Foreign Associate of the United States National Academy of Sciences.

The newly instituted Ottesen Medal of the International Institute of Refrigeration has been awarded to Dr J. C. FIDLER (Ph.D. 1937), of the Ditton Laboratory, Agricultural Research Council, East Malling, Kent.

A Royal Medal of the Royal Society has been awarded to Professor RUDOLF PEIERLS (M.A. 1936).

The honorary degree of Doctor of Science was conferred by the University of Leicester on 7 November 1959, upon Professor Sir W. V. D. HODGE (B.A. 1925), formerly Fellow.

The Sir Banister Fletcher Prize of the Authors' Club, for the best book on architecture published in Great Britain during 1957-8, has been awarded to Professor NIKOLAUS PEVSNER (M.A. 1950), formerly Fellow.

Dr R. PENROSE (Ph.D. 1957), Fellow, has been awarded a N.A.T.O. Science Fellowship at Princetown University.

Academic Appointments

Dr E. W. PARKES (B.A. 1946), Fellow of Caius, University Lecturer in Engineering, has been appointed Professor of Engineering in the University of Leicester from October 1960.

Mr S. P. H. MANDEL (Matric. 1956), has been appointed assistant professor of Genetic Statistics at Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa, U.S.A.

Mr F.K.G. COLLIER (B.A. 1931), principal lecturer in education in St Luke's College, Exeter, has been appointed principal of Bede College, University of Durham.

Mr B. A. RUDDEN (B.A. 1956), has been appointed assistant lecturer in law, University College of Wales, Aberystwyth.

Mr D. B. GRIGG (B.A. 1956), has been appointed assistant lecturer in geography in the University of Sheffield.

Mr B. G. NEWMAN (B.A. 1947), has been appointed Canadair Professor of Aerodynamics in McGill University, Montreal.

The Rev. J. A. GARDINER (B.A. 1951), minister of the parish of Dyke and Moy, Moray, has been appointed lecturer in New Testament studies in the University College, Ibadan, Nigeria.

Mr H. M. STEWART (B.A. 1950), has been admitted a Fellow of the Institute of Actuaries.

Mr I. H. DAVIES (B.A. 1954) has been awarded a Yarborough-Anderson Scholarship at the Inner Temple.

Mr P. K. PAPALOIZOU (B.A. 1959) has been awarded a Frank Knox Fellowship at Harvard University.

G. H. DUNN (Matric. 1958), has been awarded the Texaco Scholarship, instituted by Texaco Trinidad, Incorporated, to an undergraduate reading engineering at Cambridge.

Mr D. J. O. MANN (B.A. 1957), a trainee manager at the Normanby Park iron and steel plant of John Lysaght's Scunthorpe Works, Limited, has been awarded a Mond Nickel Fellowship to study the practical applications of recent metallurgical research and techniques to the production of basic semi-finished steel.

J. G. MACKENZIE (Matric. 1959), has been awarded a Harmsworth Major Exhibition at the Middle Temple.

The following University appointments of members of the College have been announced:

Dr E. D. JAMES (B.A. 1951, from Trinity), Fellow, to be a University Lecturer in French.

Dr P. A. PARSONS (Ph.D. 1958, from Trinity), Fellow, to be an Assistant in Research in the Department of Genetics.

Mr R. H. BASON (B.A. 1954), to be Technical Officer in the Department of Organic and Inorganic Chemistry.

Dr A. E. CAMPBELL (B.A. 1952), Fellow of King's College, has been elected into an Official Fellowship in Keble College, Oxford, in Modern History.

Mr R. K. LIVESLEY (B.A. 1947), University Lecturer in Engineering, has been elected Official Fellow and College Lecturer in Engineering in Churchill College from 1 October 1960.

Mr P. V. DANCKWERTS (M.A. 1948), Shell Professor of Chemical Engineering, has been elected a Fellow of Pembroke College.

Dr R. B. DINGLE (B.A. 1946), formerly Fellow, Reader in Theoretical Physics, University of Western Australia, has been appointed Professor of Theoretical Physics in St Salvator's College, St Andrew's University.

Mr J. DIAMOND (M.Sc. 1938), Professor of Mechanical Engineering in the University of Manchester, has been granted the title of Beyer Professor of Mechanical Engineering from 1 January 1960.

Dr M. R. HORNE (B.A. 1942), Fellow, University Lecturer in Engineering, has been appointed Professor of Civil Engineering in the University of Manchester.

Mr A. W. E. WINLAW (B.A. 1936), headmaster of Achimota School, Ghana, has been appointed headmaster of the Government Cadet College, Hasan Abdal, West Pakistan.

Mr D. H. REES (B.A. 1937), senior classics master of Dame Allan's School, Newcastle upon Tyne, has been appointed headmaster of Carre's Grammar School, Sleaford, Lincolnshire.

Mr D. A. FOXALL (B.A. 1942), headmaster of Adam's Grammar School, Wem, Shropshire, has been appointed headmaster of Forest School, Essex.

Mr J. A. BALLANTYNE (B.A. 1936), headmaster of St Bartholomew's Grammar School, Newbury, Berkshire, has been appointed headmaster of Cranbrook School, Kent, in succession to Mr C. R. SCOTT (B.A. 1920), who is retiring on 1 September 1960.

Mr E. G. HILL (B.A. 1938), headmaster of Waverley Grammar School, Birmingham, has been appointed headmaster of Harrogate Grammar School.

Ecclesiastical Appointments

The Rev. D. S. PAINE (B.A. 1945), curate of Freshwater, Isle of Wight, to be vicar of South Cerney with Cerney Wick, Gloucestershire.

The Rev. W. H. VANSTONE (B.A. 1950), vicar of St Thomas, Kirkholt, Rochdale, to be an examining chaplain to the Bishop of Manchester.

The Rev. E. C. RATCLIFF (B.A. 1920), Fellow, Regius Professor of Divinity, to be canon emeritus of Ely Cathedral.

The Rev. E. SIDDALL (B.A. 1949), rector of Alexton with East Norton and Loddington, to be rector of Houghton on the Hill with Keyham, Leicestershire.

The Rev. E. G. KNAPP-FISHER (incorp. M.A. 1949), chaplain of the College from 1949 to 1952, Principal of Cuddesdon Theological College and vicar of Cuddesdon, Oxford, since 1952, has been appointed Bishop of Pretoria.

The Rev. J. W. GLEAVE (B.A. 1912), vicar of St Mark, Sheffield since 1931, has retired.

The Rev. E. K. QUICK (B.A. 1910), rector of Ellisfield and Farleigh Wallop, Hampshire, is resigning at the end of March 1960.

Ordinations

Mr D. C. K. WATSON (B.A. 1957), Ridley Hall, was ordained deacon by the Bishop of Rochester, 27 September 1959, to the curacy of St Mark, Gillingham, Kent.

Mr M. A. BENIANS (B.A. 1941), formerly a Methodist minister, was ordained deacon by the Bishop of London, 29 September 1959, to the curacy of St George, Headstone, Hertfordshire.

The Rev. O. N. EVERSON (B.A. 1956), Wycliffe House, Oxford, was ordained priest 20 December 1959 by the Bishop Suffragan of Aston, for the Bishop of Birmingham.

The Rev. C. G. SCOTT (B.A. 1954), Cuddesdon College, was ordained priest by the Bishop of Wakefield, at South Elmsall.

Legal and Medical Appointments

Mr R. K. MUIR (B.A. 1956), Mr W. E. L. REID (B.A. 1956), Mr B. A. RUDDEN (B.A. 1956) and Mr D. M. STEVENSON (B.A. 1955), have passed the Final Examination of the Law Society.

In the examinations for honours of candidates for admission on the Roll of Solicitors of the Supreme Court, Mr B. A. RUDDEN (B.A. 1956), was placed in the second class and Mr R. K. MUIR (B.A. 1956) and Mr D. BATY (B.A. 1954), in the third class.

Mr W. L. MARS-JONES, Q.C. (B.A. 1939), has been appointed Recorder of the Borough of Birkenhead.

Mr D. K. N. LAKHANI (B.A. 1957), was called to the Bar by Lincoln's Inn, and Mr T. S. LEGG (B.A. 1958) by the Inner Temple, 9 February 1960.

Mr R. J. WILLIAMS (B.A. 1941), F.R.C.S., has been appointed consultant general surgeon to the Pontypridd and Rhondda Hospital Management Committee group.

Mr J. V. WILLIAMS (B.A. 1952) was admitted a Member of the Royal College of Physicians on 30 July 1959.

Dr P. S. ANDREWS (B.A. 1945), has been appointed consultant pathologist to the Kettering and Northampton area department of pathology.

Mr E. W. PRICE (B.A. 1929), M.B., has been appointed consultant bacteriologist to the Birmingham (Selly Oak) Hospital Group.

Dr R. G. F. PARKER (B.A. 1942), has been appointed consultant pathologist to the Birmingham group of hospitals.

Mr O. E. F. HODGSON (B.A. 1945), has been appointed consultant psychiatrist to Fulbourne and Addenbrooke's Hospitals, Cambridge.

Public and Other Appointments

Mr K. FEARNSIDE (B.A. 1940), has been appointed director of research of Smith's Aircraft Instruments Company, at Bishop's Cleeve, Cheltenham.

Mr P. B. KENT (B.A. 1959) has been successful in the competition for the Administrative Class of the Home Civil Service and Mr B. J. WEBBER (B.A. 1959), for the Special Departmental Classes (Inspector of Taxes in the Inland Revenue Department).

Mr R. J. NEWTON (B.A. 1950), has been appointed textile marketing manager for Midland Silicones, Limited, Manchester.

Mr K. F. RABY (B.A. 1945), has been appointed manager, medium electrical machine engineering, Heavy Plant Division, Associated Electrical Industries, Limited, Rugby.

Mr JACOB WILSON (Matric. 1937, as a research student) has been appointed Director of the Sugar Experiment Station, Mount Edgecumbe, Natal.

Dr N. F. ASTBURY (B.A. 1929) has been appointed Director of Research, British Ceramic Research Association,

Mr D. R. TELFER (B.A. 1948) has been appointed a director of Vincent Murphy and Company, Limited, of Liverpool, timber merchants.

Mr ARTHUR LOURIE (B.A. 1925), Israel Ambassador to Canada, has been appointed Israel Ambassador to Great Britain.

Dr F. W. G. WHITE (Ph.D. 1934), sometime Professor of Physics, Canterbury College, New Zealand, has been appointed Chairman, Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organization, Australia, and Dr R. N. ROBERTSON (Ph.D. 1939), chief research officer, Division of Food Preservation and Transport, has been appointed a full time member of the Executive of the same Organization.

Mr C. F. CARTER (B.A. 1944), Stanley Jevons Professor of Political Economy in the University of Manchester, has been appointed a member of the Council for Scientific and Industrial Research.

Dr A. C. HULME (Ph.D. 1935) of the Ditton Laboratory, Food Investigation Board, has been promoted Senior Principal Scientific Officer.

Mr HARRY CARTWRIGHT (B.A. 1940), M.B.E., has been appointed director of industrial power in the Development and Engineering Group of the United Kingdom Atomic Energy Authority, at Risley.

Mr W. R. G. BELL (B.A. 1947) has been appointed Assistant Secretary, Ministry of Power.

At the General Election of October 1959, the following members of the College were re-elected Members of Parliament:

Mr E. R. BOWEN (B.A. 1935), Liberal, for Cardiganshire;

Mr G. A. N. HIRST (Matric. 1922), Conservative, for the Shipley Division of Yorkshire;

SIR HAMILTON WILLIAM KERR (incorp. M.A. 1950), Conservative, for Cambridge;

Mr. F. T. WILLEY (B.A. 1933), Labour, for Sunderland North.

The following were unsuccessful candidates:

Mr D. F. BURDEN (B.A. 1938), Liberal, for Altrincham and Sale;

Mr J. A. DAVIDSON (B.A. 1954), Conservative, for the Hamilton Division of Lanarkshire;

Mr R. S. JOHNSTON (B.A. 1939), Unionist, for Stirling and Falkirk Burghs;

Mr W. R. LEWIS (B.A. 1950), Conservative, for the Caerphilly Division of Glamorganshire;

Mr D. J. RIDLEY (Matric. 1951), Liberal, for the Saffron Walden Division of Essex;

Mr J. S. SNOWDEN (B.A. 1923), Liberal, for Pudsey;

Mr R. G. WATERHOUSE (B.A. 1949), Labour, for the West Flint Division of Flintshire;

Mr G. G. WATSON (M.A. 1958), Liberal, for Cheltenham.

Marriages

ROBERT JAMES GAVIN (B.A. 1955) to MARGUERITE MARIE DE BELLABRE, daughter of Baron Fradin de Bellabre, of La Baule, France—on 27 June 1959, at Martigné, Mayenne, France.

WILLIAM ROGER GORDON (B.A. 1948) to YOLANDA CASILDA OSBORN, daughter of E. Wentworth Osborn, of Newhaven, Connecticut, U.S.A.—on 27 June 1959, in Havana, Cuba.

FRANCIS WILLIAM KNIGHT (Matric. 1957) to DIANE BEVERLEY KNIGHT, youngest daughter of F. Knight, of New Eltham—on 1 August 1959, at Sidcup Baptist Church.

ANDREW STEPHEN NOBLE (B.A. 1958) to MARGARET BIRRELL RAYNE, only daughter of J. Rayne, of Buckhaven, Fife—on 7 August 1959, at the Collegiate Church of St Salvator, St Andrews, Fife.

JULIAN KITTO COMRIE (B.A. 1959) to HELEN CHURCHILL JAMES, daughter of J. C. James, of Conigre House, Rendcomb, Gloucestershire—on 22 August 1959, at St Peter's, Rendcomb.

WALTER JOHN BROMLEY (B.A. 1956) to SUSAN MARIABELLA HOWARD, eldest daughter of Lieutenant Colonel E. S. G. Howard, of Stroud—on 5 September 1959, at Holy Trinity Church, Slad, Gloucestershire.

WILLIAM WALLIS (Matric. 1955) to JEAN SPALDING, only daughter of Commander R. L. Spalding, of Farnham, Surrey—on 3 February 1960, at the Church of St Gabriel the Archangel, Cricklewood.

PHILIP HAROLD BALDWIN (B.A. 1939), Group Captain, Royal Air Force, to CONSTANCE PAMELA SPRINGFIELD—on 31 October 1959, at St Columba's, Pont Street, London.

PETER MICHAEL SPINNEY (B.A. 1953) to IRENE ELIZABETH FREW TULLIS—on 7 November 1959, at All Saints' Episcopal Church, Bearsden, Dumbartonshire.

ROBIN MITFORD NEWSON (B.A. 1957) to CATHERINE MARY JANET DAWSON, elder daughter of F. G. L. Dawson, of Shrivenham, Berkshire—on 26 September 1959, at St Andrew's Church, Shrivenham.

DAVID CHRISTOPHER WARD (B.A. 1955) to JANET INGLIS SMITH, daughter of J. J. Smith, of Hall Green, Birmingham—on 20 June 1959, at Hall Green Baptist Church.

THOMAS RICHARD OWEN FIELD (B.A. 1925) to CONSTANCE JOYCE WOOD, of Carshalton—on 27 November 1959, at St Stephen's, Rochester Row, Westminster.

PAUL EVERARD BARBER (B.A. 1958) to PATRICIA JAYNE WALFORD—on 22 December 1959, at St Basil's Church, Bassaleg, Monmouthshire.

ROBERT NICHOLAS ALCOCK (B.A. 1959) to B. RUTH ALPINE—on 2 January 1960, at Christ Church, Epsom.

GEOFFREY WILLIAM MARTIN (B.A. 1959) to PATRICIA ELIZABETH JONES, daughter of M. A. Jones, of Histon—on 26 September 1959, at St Andrew's Church, Impington, Cambridgeshire.

REX AUSTIN BINNING (B.A. 1931) to GERALDINE MARY MATTHEWS, only daughter of William Alexander Matthews—on 28 September 1959, at Brighton.

PETER ELTON WALKER (B.A. 1957) to NORMA MARY CLARKE, daughter of G. Clarke, of Horsforth, Yorkshire—on 26 September 1959, at St Margaret's Church, Horsforth.

SIMON JOSCELYN FULKE HARRIS (B.A. 1953) to MARGARET WRIGHT, only daughter of William Wright, of Canterbury—on 6 October 1959, at Folkestone.

GEORGE HOWELL GUEST (B.A. 1949), Fellow, to NANCY MARY TALBOT, only daughter of W. P. Talbot, of Cambridge—on 31 October 1959, in the College Chapel.

DONALD WILLIAM ROBERTSON (B.A. 1939) to MARGARET ELAINE CULLY (*née* Macdonald), of Marino, Co. Down—on 7 November 1959, at Aldershot.

Deaths

ROBERT SYDNEY JEFFREYS (B.A. 1909), formerly Judge of the Protectorate Court, Nigeria, died in London, 27 December 1959, aged 71.

FRANK SAMUEL HERBERT KENDON (B.A. 1921), sometime Fellow, assistant secretary of the Cambridge University Press from 1935 to 1957, died 28 December 1959, aged 66.

KENNETH BERTRAM FRANKLIN WILLIAMSON (B.A. 1897), Professor of Biology at King Edward VII College of Medicine, Singapore, from 1933 to 1938, died at Minehead 27 December 1959, aged 84.

THOMAS WILLIAM FRANCIS SPARROW (B.A. 1929), curate in charge of Bishop Burton, Beverley, Yorkshire, from 1949, died 18 February 1959, aged 52.

JAMES FISHER HOUGH, O.B.E. (B.A. 1902), headmaster of Brentwood School, Essex, from 1913 to 1945, died at Southwold, Suffolk, 16 January 1960, aged 82.

FRANCIS WILLIAM HICKS (B.A. 1908), of East Risdon, Tasmania, formerly chancellor and canon of St Paul's Anglican Cathedral, Malta, died 24 January 1960, aged 73.

CHARLES LENNOX SOMERVILLE RUSSELL, Knight, (Matric. 1891), formerly of the Indian Civil Service, died at Farnham, Surrey, 31 January 1960, aged 87.

JAMES SUTHERLAND MITCHELL BISDEE (Matric. 1913) died at Weston Super Mare, 22 November 1959, aged 64.

CHARLES HARTLEY DELACOURT ROGERS (Matric. 1923), marine engineer, a partner in the firm of Burles, Gordon and Rogers, died in October 1959, aged 58.

HAROLD GALE BURKITT (Matric. 1939), of Grange Hill Farm, Bishop Auckland, died 26 November 1959, aged 39.

WILLIAM BLAIR ANDERSON (Trin., B.A. 1903), Fellow, Kennedy Professor of Latin from 1936 to 1942, died in Cambridge, 9 December 1959, aged 82.

JOHN GEOFFREY WOOTTON WOODMAN (B.A. 1928), barrister at law, farmer and breeder of shorthorns, died at Avington Manor Farm, Winchester, 12 December 1959, aged 52.

EDWIN RICHARD BOWATER (Matric. 1957) died in hospital after a car accident near Elstree, 15 December 1959, aged 23.

WILLIAM SIMPSON (B.A. 1927), sometime principal of Government College, Umuahia, Nigeria, died at Teignmouth, Devon, 27 December 1959, aged 58.

CHARLES FREDERICK WHITFIELD (B.A. 1883), formerly a Manchester solicitor, died at Tunbridge Wells 23 August 1959, aged 98. He left £300 to the Lady Margaret Henley Fund, and the residue of his estate to the College.

CHARLES ALBERT KNAPP (Matric. 1893), captain Royal Munster Fusiliers, retired, died 26 August 1959, aged 85.

ALMA LATIFI (B.A. 1901, as Abdullatif Camrudin Amirudin Abdul Latif), C.I.E., O.B.E., late Indian Civil Service, died at Bombay 16 August 1959, aged 79.

ERNEST WADE FOXTON HALL-CRAGGS (B.A. 1922) died 1 September 1959, at Woodcote, Oxfordshire, aged 63.

JOHN MANISTY HARDWICH (B.A. 1895), in Holy Orders, assistant master at Rugby School from 1899 to 1933, died at Rugby 3 September 1959, aged 86.

BEVIS BRUNEL LOW (B.A. 1921), lecturer in Mechanical Engineering, Military College of Science, Woolwich, died at Melbourne, Cambridgeshire, 4 July 1959, aged 63.

ROBERT SINCLAIR MCDADE (B.A. 1927), M.R.C.S., L.R.C.P., physician, Broomfield Hospital, Chelmsford, died at Broomfield 4 June 1959, aged 54.

PERCY HENRY BOWN (B.A. 1898), rector of Great Haseley, Wallingford, from 1923 to 1945, died at Totland Bay, Isle of Wight, 28 June 1959, aged 85.

PERCY JESSE GOWLETT ROSE (B.A. 1901), C.B., assistant Under-Secretary of State for Scotland from 1921 to 1942, and King's and Lord Treasurer's Remembrancer in Scotland from 1949 to 1952, died in Edinburgh 27 June 1959, aged 80.

ALAN CHARLES TROTT (B.A. 1921), C.M.G., O.B.E., Consul-General at Ahwaz, Persia, from 1945 to 1947, and Ambassador to Saudi Arabia from 1947 to 1951, died at Weybridge, Surrey, 6 July 1959, aged 64.

HAROLD EDWARD CARRIS (B.A. 1930), a Rugby Football and Cricket Blue, managing director of Beaden and Company, printers, of Manchester, died at Cheadle Hulme, Cheshire, 29 July 1959, aged 50.

KENNETH HIRST SCOUGAL (B.A. 1909), formerly senior legal assistant, Treasury Solicitor's Department, died at Oxshott, Surrey, 16 August 1959, aged 72.

REGINALD HARRY SALOWAY (B.A. 1927), K.B.E., C.M.G., C.I.E., Controller of Operations, Colonial Development Corporation, formerly of the Indian Civil Service and the Gold Coast Administration, died in London 1 October 1959, aged 53.

JOSEPH HENRY NEWTON (B.A. 1888), a master at Branksome House Preparatory School, Godalming, from 1894 to 1922, and at Winchester House Preparatory School, Eastbourne, from 1923 to 1936, died at Penrith, his birthplace, on 18 September 1959, aged 92.

ERNEST HANDLEY VINES (B.A. 1895), sometime mathematical master at St Anselm's Preparatory School, Croydon, died at Newport, Monmouthshire, on 4 October 1959, aged 85.

JOHN LINDSELL (B.A. 1914), Major, The Loyal Regiment, retired, of Hitchin, died 14 October 1959, aged 66.

ARTHUR OWEN SAUNDERS-DAVIES (Matric. 1920), of The Island, Romsey, Hampshire, died from the effects of a road accident 12 October 1959, aged 58.

WILLIAM HENRY CHARNOCK (B.A. 1923), engineer, died at Goring by Sea, Sussex, 14 November 1959, aged 57.

ISAAC JAMES BEST (B.A. 1906), rector of Highclere, Hampshire, from 1922 to 1927, vicar of Shidfield, and from 1931 an assistant master at Highfield School, Liphook, died 31 January 1960, aged 76.

WILLIAM HENRY ROBERT REYNOLDS (B.A. 1913), assistant master, Boys' High School, Kimberley, 1929-1943, chaplain and assistant master, St Andrew's College, Grahamstown, 1943-7, and rector of St George's Cathedral, Windhoek, South West Africa, 1954-1956, died at Graaff Reinet, Cape Province, 16 September 1959, aged 71.

Book Reviews

FRED HOYLE. *Ossian's Ride.* (Heinemann, 1959, 15*s.*).

Mr Hoyle's second 'scientific romance' is an exciting narrative that at times recalls the work of John Buchan. Less science-fictional than 'The Black Cloud', and more of an adventure novel, it tells of the sudden rise in the early 1970's of a rather sinister and fabulously powerful industrial organisation in Southern Ireland, centred in that part of Co. Kerry where Ossian once rode. All efforts by Intelligence to penetrate the mystery fail; until Thomas Sherwood a brilliant young Cambridge graduate is sent to investigate. The book is in the form of a report by Sherwood on his activities. Such literary devices as this are usually irritating but here it is less so than usual, and the power of the dénouement is accentuated rather than diminished by its use.

This is an exciting story skilfully told and in an original setting. I cannot see that anyone would not enjoy reading it.

C. A.

J. B. BEER. *Coleridge the Visionary.* (Chatto & Windus, 1959, 30*s.*).

The kernel of this book is a study of the salient imagery in three poems of Coleridge—*The Ancient Mariner, Christabel, Kubla Khan.* This occupies chapters V to VIII. I to IV discuss Coleridge's major intellectual interests—for example, mythology, mysticism, metaphysics. IX assesses his achievement. In the preliminary discussion we are introduced to certain myths and symbols that fascinated Coleridge, such as the lost Shechinah, Isis and Osiris, Cain, the Serpent, and this discussion prepares the way for interpretation of the imagery in the three poems.

Dr Beer is doing something different from J. L. Lowes in *The Road to Xanadu.* Lowes examined Coleridge's reading only for the poetical material it contained. Dr Beer argues that Coleridge did not read books simply to get ideas for his poetry, but in pursuit of his major interests. Lowes assumed that the images Coleridge came across in his reading were stored up in his subconscious without any organizing principle. Dr Beer argues that in most cases there was a conscious organizing principle, related to his major interests. Thus Dr Beer's book is an attempt to get inside Coleridge's mind and expound his poems vicariously from the point of view of their author. To do this he has steeped himself in Coleridge's own writings, published and unpublished, and in much of Coleridge's own reading. Whereas Lowes sometimes ridiculed Coleridge's interests, Dr Beer to a certain extent shares them himself and can expound Coleridge's thought with sympathy and understanding. Not that he is uncritical, but he suspends criticism during his exposition and only expresses it in the last chapter —forcibly enough; for example:" Coleridge's philosophy as a whole..... consisted of a long series of attempts to impose theories on an experience which refused to fit them, and his vision of himself as an inspired genius was a pitiful delusion." (p. 279). None the less, Coleridge, he maintains, is important for his attempt to bridge the gap between " Reason and Imagination ". If the book's general argument is accepted, it follows that this attempt reached a climax in 1797, Coleridge's twenty-fifth year, the

year in which the three poems were composed: " the *annus mirabilis* is the centre not only of his poetry, but of his thought. During this brief period, the creative ecstasy which he enjoyed embraced his thinking as well as his emotions " (p. 41).

Dr Beer sees all three poems as variations on a single theme—the fall of man. 1. The Mariner's killing of the Albatross is an image of the fall; his blessing of the water-snakes ' unaware ' an image of reconciliation; his vision in the middle of Part V a vivid, though transient, experience of redemption, which causes him on returning to ' his native country ' (i.e. to himself) to feel a sense of separation from everyday experience. 2. Christabel and Geraldine, the dove and the serpent, image the disharmony of fallen man. Although the poem is unfinished, some kind of reconciliation is foreshadowed by Christabel's unconscious taking of Geraldine's evil into her own nature. (A reconciliation, perhaps, also implied in the Gospel injunction " Be ye therefore wise as serpents and harmless as doves "?) 3. Kubla Khan images fallen man trying to regain the happiness of paradise. His failure to do so is apparent in the menacing images of the second stanza. But the third stanza (" The shadow . . . . . caves of ice ") harmonizes the first two, and " in the last stanza, there is a vision of paradise regained: of man revisited by that absolute genius which corresponds to his original, unfallen state " (p. 267.)

This account would not be complete without a specimen of the kind of argument Dr Beer uses to support his thesis. To the question " What does the sun symbolize in *The Ancient Mariner* ? " he replies by quoting four of Coleridge's verses from elsewhere

> Whene'er the mist, that stands 'twixt God and thee
> Defecates to a pure transparency,
> That intercepts no light and adds no stain—
> There Reason is, and then begins her reign!

and comments " The Sun remains unchanging as a symbol of the divine Glory. Psychologically, it is the divine Reason in mankind, which the unenlightened understanding of the guilty experiences only in the heat and wrath of conscience. When, in the ' vision ', therefore, the Mariner sees it in its true glory, it is because in that brief period, his understanding is transfigured. In the act of seeing the true sun, it partakes of its qualities, and becomes Reason " (p. 168).

Though not all his arguments are as persuasive as this—occasionally they are over-involved or too tenuous—as a whole his thesis carries conviction, and he makes it certain, or at least highly probable, that Coleridge himself thought of the inner meaning of the poems in these terms.

It will be seen that Dr Beer is concerned with interpretation, not literary criticism. But he sometimes passes over the vague boundary between the two in order to make a critical judgement. One of the most interesting of these judgements concerns *Christabel*. " I am inclined to think " he writes, " that Coleridge had set himself an insoluble problem in the poem as we have it. He had, in fact, raised the problem which is involved as soon as we ask how innocence can ever redeem experience. The problem is not peculiar to Coleridge: it runs through the whole of Victorian literature, and remains unsolved " (p. 195). Despite this he puts the poetry of *Christabel* in the same class as that of *The Ancient Mariner* and *Kubla Khan*. I cannot help feeling that he is wrong here. *Christabel* has dated badly. Sir Leoline, Geraldine and Bard Bracy are characters as phoney as their names, and too often in the poem one gets a whiff of bogus Gothic:

> Five warriors seized me yestermorn,
> Me, even me, a maid forlorn.

However, even if true, this does not affect the cogency of Dr Beer's exposition. He has written a very remarkable book. Has any previous interpreter penetrated quite so far into Coleridge's labyrinthine mind ?

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THE following extract is reprinted from the review, in *The Times Literary Supplement* of 13 February 1959, of an Exhibition of Cambridge Calligraphy, held in the University Library in the Spring of 1959:—

> Official letters, written by the University or colleges to the King or the Chancellor of the University, were the subject of especial care; and in them a series of Cambridge scribes brought to perfection the " ceremonial," or pointed, italic hand. Richard Croke, Fellow of St John's, wrote a decent humanistic hand in the earliest exhibit, a letter to Henry VIII dated 1 February, 1526, but by ten years later the University's letters were written by a scribe, perhaps Ascham, in a nobly regular black official script which persisted, with certain refinements, for the rest of the century. To Sir John Cheke, Fellow of St John's and later Provost of King's, must go the credit for the introduction of several improvements to the traditional italic script. Cheke had original ideas on Greek pronunciation and spelling reform, and his influential role in sponsoring certain new features in handwriting is quite in character. Among many examples of his hand exhibited is a long inscription in the copy of Hesychius's *Dictionarium*, 1521, which he gave to his favourite pupil, Roger Ascham. It is likely enough that Ascham owed his own splendid handwriting to his master's example. In 1544 Ascham claimed that for twelve years he had been employed as the writer of official letters for the University, and he in turn influenced a third Johnian, Bartholomew Dodington, Professor of Greek. Dodington wrote an exquisite ceremonial hand, one of the most remarkable features of which, in Mr Fairbank's view, was its consistency over a long period (1562-1590).