

II. THE SCHOOL OF MONTPELLIER.¹

By W. G. MACCALLUM, M. D.,

Associate Professor of Pathology, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore.

The early history of Montpellier loses itself in the darkness of the middle ages. The town apparently arose about 738 when, on the destruction of Maguelonne by Charles Martel, the fugitives found refuge at Montis Pessulani, named from the neighboring place where high boulders seemed to attest the activities of some earlier people. There was a liberal sprinkling of Jews and Arabs in this first settlement and for a long time their influence was felt, although at first the Jews were persecuted as they had always been. Physicians there were in those times who made such excellent cures that their fame spread abroad and in 1137 we read that Archbishop Adalbert II of Mayence journeyed there by way of Paris to consult some of these eminent men. William VIII, the prince of that region, angered by the persecution of the Jews, issued a decree giving liberty to teach, to all, of whatever creed or nationality, who felt themselves capable of teaching, and this was to hold for all future times. Discussion arose, however, and in 1220 Honorius III felt it necessary to send a pontifical legate to regulate their affairs. Cardinal Conrad, a German archbishop of St. Firmin, was this man, who by an edict established for the much praised school of Montpellier a constitution which should regulate the choice of professors and subject them to the bishop of Maguelonne. Only those were granted the privilege of teaching who were approved by that bishop and two of his chosen professors. A chancellor was elected and the relation of the students to him and the school defined. Later, in 1289, Clement V, on the advice of Arnold of Villanova, Jean d'Alais and Guillaume de Mazeres issued three bulls to regulate the examinations through which the students must pass before being granted their degrees and license to practice and further regulating and prescribing the authors to be studied, and even the very books to be used in the teaching of the school. Thus arose a well ordered school whose dignity and discipline has been maintained until the present day.

At this time the famous school of Salerno was passing the zenith of its glory. Already it was being dominated by the Arab medicine and was neglecting the purer stream of Greek medicine which it had so long cherished. It was at this time too that there arose throughout Europe the great philosophical movement which changed the character of medical thought. In the place of the simple objective descriptions of the older writers men began to look upon the idea as the primary reality, the thing itself as a result which must be regarded with reference to this primary idea and all became involved in an inextricably tangled web of disputation and dialectic from which no clear result could be expected. Skill in twisting and distorting question and answer was indeed developed to an

extraordinary degree but the real purpose of knowledge was stayed in this side eddy. Bernard Gordon, a writer of Rouergue, who was one of the physicians of Montpellier, was through and through a Scholastic as his writings attest. He, as Gui de Chauliac declared, was nourished among philosophers, and his works are little more than the complicated embroidery of a few of the books of his illustrious predecessors. Profound believer as he was in the astrology and magic of the times, we find some remarkable mystic formulæ and amulets which, in his hands, were said to cure the gravest diseases.

Of quite another stamp was the great Arnold of Villanova, perhaps the very greatest man of whom Montpellier may make her boast. In his adventurous life, so well discussed by Lalande and others, he still found time for the most extraordinary amount of personal observation and experiment, and it was really to his skill in experimentation, as well as to his broad independence of thought, that we must ascribe much of his true worth. Astrologer, magician, and alchemist—he undoubtedly was—indeed he was regarded as the greatest of all alchemists even by his student, the celebrated Raymond Lully. He was really the discoverer of the spirit of wine and of the application of alcohol in diseases, as well as many other chemical substances which have kept their place to this day. Aside from his belief in amulets and magic formulæ and the influence of the stars, he was extremely objective and reasonable, and we cannot be surprised to find in those days, even this the greatest man of his time, a devout believer in the supernatural. But he was relatively emancipated from the cramping dogmas of his predecessors. He saw with his own eyes and operated with his own hands and knew that the things themselves were the rational basis of a medical science which could by no means be built up on a fabric of reasoning, and it was his great service that he sent the first gleam of light into the darkness prepared by the scholastics. He was the spirit of the pre-renaissance. That he taught for a time at Montpellier seems fairly clear, although his actual work there is somewhat veiled by the lapse of time and the meagerness of the records. He died in 1313 while on his way from Sicily to visit Clement V at Avignon.

After him in the fourteenth century there looms up another great figure, Gui de Chauliac, the surgeon who was probably not definitely a teacher at Montpellier but who speaks of it as "our faculty," and of the others there as his intimates. He too was a reasoning objective thinker, whose works were the standard text-books for hundreds of years, and one reads them with delight even to this day. His descriptions of the plague that raged in the whole of that century in the south of France, are unsurpassed in their graphic presentation of the horrors of those times. Others, especially Raimond Chalin de Vinario, wrote at the same time of the same plagues but not in the same enthralling way.

¹ Paper read before the Johns Hopkins Hospital Historical Club, April 13, 1908.

Jean de Tornamira, Gerard de Solo and Ermengaud Blasius were others who flourished in this century but have left no such deep impress on the times, contenting themselves usually with the translation into rather bad Latin, of some of the Greek or Arab authors, to which they added commentaries, the results of their prescribed lecture work. Joannes Pisis, Valescu or Balescon de Tarante with his Philonium, or review of the practice of medicine fantastically divided like a flower into seven parts; Joannes des Concoregio, Joannes Bruguiere, Martial de Genoilhac or Genouillac, are names which echo out to us from the ancient roll of chancellors up to 1470, but they are now little more than names. So it is too with Bassolus, Louis Saporte the ancestor of several other Saportes who appear later, Beaucaire, Trossellier, Martini Miro, Corandus and Jacques Ponceau, which brings us to the time of Louis XII and the Royal Professors.

Up to this time the income of the professors had depended upon their students and there were rules laid down even by Conrad which regulated the relations of teacher to student, and the method by which the lectures must be given so that the student could derive from them the greatest good. No professor might read the same author twice in succession, nor might two discuss the same work at the same time. Since the emoluments varied with the number of students and many of the doctors were unwilling to teach for glory alone, there were times when hardly any lectures were given and the disorder was great in consequence. The school was exposed to interruptions which menaced it with a complete downfall. It was at this time that Charles VIII, informed of the laxity that prevailed, established four regencies or royal chairs which were confirmed and really established by his successor, Louis XII, with fixed salaries and privileges and rights to the emoluments accruing together with the authority to examine the students. The immediate result was the disappearance of the great crowd of teachers who had divided the honors and emoluments before. Since their authority was gone they retired, although for a long time several young doctors continued as *aggrégés*, the number being later reduced to two.

The mode of teaching and character of the teaching remained almost unchanged through this. The first of these four professors was Grassin and Robert Pierre was another, Picquet a third, none of them men of great eminence, but they were soon followed by Tremolet, Fontanon, Faucon, Griphi and Schyron. The most interesting of the early royal professors was undoubtedly Rondelet who, after a sickly youth spent in Paris, returned to his birthplace, Montpellier, where with Griphi as his chosen preceptor he graduated in medicine and afterwards went with Cardinal Tournon to Italy. There he did much of his celebrated work on fishes, for in ichthyology he became a well known authority. In 1545 he replaced Pierre Laurent in one of the chairs at Montpellier. As he was interested in anatomy he played a great part in the construction of the old amphitheater of the school and meanwhile wrote a number of treatises on fevers, therapy, etc. He was a famous physician and died while visiting the sick wife of one of his friends. Huge in frame and stout, he attracted

the lively interest of Rabelais, who immortalized him as Rondibilis.

His writings are not admirable, for Rondelet composed, as Astruc tells us, with precipitation without having reflected upon what he wished to say or upon how he should say it, and without reading over what he had written.

With Rondelet there lived in his house a student for whom he had conceived a friendship, Laurent Joubert, who was born in Valence in 1529. Joubert was unable to accept in marriage either of the daughters of Rondelet who were offered him by their father with an insistence that embarrassed Joubert, because the oldest of these daughters did not please him and he was sensible that he was not pleasing to the younger. When Rondelet died his chair fell to Joubert, who taught there until his death in 1582. Joubert's works are not especially important but he is interesting as the representative in Montpellier of the antigalenistic movement which arose at this time.

Paracelsus had raged against the dogmas of Galen and the sort of false Galenism which had rendered the system more than ever rigid and cramped, and had brought forward his idea of specific remedies or arcana for disease. These are found in the most various substances and among them mineral salts were prominent. It was by the ill-considered use of some of these substances, especially quicksilver and antimony, that ignorant physicians had caused serious injuries to their patients and there arose an uproar on the part of the Paris school and others against their use and especially against the use of antimony. It was in this regard that Joubert took strongly the side of antigalenism.

In Paris it was forbidden by a decree of 1567 to administer antimony and Turquet de Mayerne of Montpellier, who advocated it there in the medical faculty of Paris, was ejected from its membership and forced to flee to England where he became physician to Kings James I and Charles I, to his great fame and glory.

It was about this time that François Rabelais was associated with Montpellier. Born at Chinon, he led the life of a vagabond monk until 1530, when he studied at Montpellier for nearly two years; there he gave his public readings on the Aphorisms of Hippocrates and works of Galen and incidentally wrote comedies for the students. In 1532 he went to Lyons where he wrote his *Pantagruel* and *Gargantua*. Later after many adventures he returned to Montpellier in 1537 and received his doctorate, and afterwards gave public lectures on the Prognostics of Hippocrates, which he explained from the original Greek—a thing practically unknown in that school. He even entered the faculty that year teaching anatomy. His name has been greatly honored in the school of Montpellier ever since. His bust stands in the court—his portrait in the *Salle des Robes* and every student wears at his examinations the red robe of Rabelais.

After Joubert came Nicolas Dortoman, who studied the waters of the spring at Balaruc, and Jean Hucher, a nobleman of Beauvais, who became chancellor in 1583. Antoine Saporta and his son Jean lived at this time too, and each was chan-

cellor for a time. Nicholas Dortoman and André du Laurens played an important rôle in that they became physicians to the king and were then able to manage the establishment of two new double chairs in the school of Montpellier. These were the chairs of botany and anatomy and of surgery and pharmacy. Up to the time of Gui de Chauliac no dissections had been carried out by the Jews and Arabs whose religion forbade them to touch a body, but in 1376 they asked and obtained from Louis d'Anjou permission to dissect each year the body of one of the executed criminals. This was ratified in subsequent years by several of the kings and the privilege was thus in the hands of the faculty of Montpellier long—two hundred years—before it was introduced by J. Sylvius in Paris. Nevertheless it must be confessed that whether from neglect or lack of skill they failed to profit much by it.

When Henry IV in 1595 established the chair of anatomy and botany and placed in it Richer de Belleval with Barth. Cabrol as his assistant, he paved the way for the growth of surgical studies, and in truth he himself set up in 1597 the chair of surgery and pharmacy, which he entrusted to Pierre Dortoman, the son of Nicholas Dortoman. In this project he was aided by Nicholas Dortoman and André du Laurens.

Difficulties arose between the more cultured and highly educated students of medicine and the students of surgery and pharmacy. Lectures must be given to this latter class in French instead of Latin, and it was even necessary to insist that the surgical aspirants should limit themselves to the approach by way of the rue de Cannou, leaving the rue St. Matthieu to the medical students, since fierce battles arose when they came together. Further, to prevent these encounters Dortoman was forced to separate his lectures, explaining to the medical students Galen's treatise on tumors in the afternoon at 2 o'clock, while for the turbulent surgeons he commented on the works of Gui de Chauliac at 4 in the morning and for the pharmacists the fifth book of Dioscorides at noon. Dortoman served with zeal in this double chair for 12 years, but then, wearied, he asked for relief and on the death of du Laurens was made physician to the king.

In 1635 the company of master surgeons of Montpellier decided to establish official annals like those of the faculty of medicine where it might inscribe its acts, and these records extend from 1635-1683. The company of surgeons numbered at first 40 members, but included no great men during these times. There were constant quarrels and disclosures of corruption among them, and in 1640 they were publicly condemned, in that they had abandoned the city during the epidemic of the plague in order to save themselves—conduct in grievous contrast to that of Ranchin and others in the faculty. When in 1692 Louis XIV established the offices of surgeons royal, the company of surgeons in haste made new rules for themselves in the effort to be ready to secure the prizes, the two offices which were offered, and these new regulations established in more respectable form, the position of surgeons in the city. It was at this time that François Lapeyronie entered on the scene. He was educated by his father, Raymond Lapeyronie, in the art of surgery and received his

masters degree in 1695. This was a degree very different from that of the medical faculty giving him the privilege of practicing surgery and barbery and of keeping an open boutique or shop, in front of which he might hang basins. Pierre Chirac presided at the triduanes of this student, showing that the faculty of medicine must at least be represented in their examinations.

The school of surgery was frequently in debt and borrowed money. Among other things it entered on a dispute with the *perruquiers*, who formed a separate society, as to the limits of their professions, the surgeons claiming it their right that they should perform the offices of painting and powdering perruques just as they curled and powdered natural hair, although they did not dispute the right of the *perruquiers* to manufacture wigs. They even consented to abstain from curling wigs and making them up into puffs but the use of paint and powder seemed to them their exclusive domain. The trial was dragged out through several years before the parliament of Toulouse, but the surgeons lost their case and had to borrow more money to pay the costs.

There were disputes with the school of medicine, the professors of which finally even withdrew from any participation in their examinations. In 1741 the king charged them to teach the branches of surgery in the four established chairs and to build a new building for that purpose which in time they did with the legacy of Lapeyronie in the rue Grande, a building that far outshone the old school of medicine. Housel also made a great benefaction for the study of practical surgery and the school grew, although the students were indolent and wayward and always enormously inferior to the teaching body. It was suppressed in 1792 and disappeared in 1794, and was united in the new *École de Santé*, created by the national constitution on December 4, 1794, with the *École de Médecine*. The new school thus founded was installed in the old bishop's palace, once the monastery of St. Germain.

The other chair established in 1593 in the medical school, by Henry IV, was destined for the teaching of anatomy in the winter and botany in the summer, and Richer de Belleval was chosen to fill this post. He was born in Chalons sur Marne and studied medicine in Montpellier but practiced at Avignon. No sooner was he established in his chair than he began to cause difficulties, for in spite of the earnest remonstrances of the rest, and even of André du Laurens himself, he refused to give any lectures in anatomy, although he was interested enough in the botanical studies at the Jardin des Plantes. It was only at his death in 1623 that these troubles were quieted, when his place was taken by his nephew, Martin Richer de Belleval, whose succession had been arranged by his uncle. He was somewhat more tranquil but even he attended to his duties but ill, and on his death, in 1664, was succeeded by M. Chicoyneau.

Prominent among the names of this era is that of François Ranchin, a rich man, who graduated in 1593 and succeeded in 1612 to the chancellorship after the death of André du Laurens. He loved the faculty and spent his great means in embellishing the school. It is to him that they owe the new

amphitheater which replaced the old one, built by Rondelet, and to him belongs the credit of repairing the ancient Collège de Mende and restoring the inscriptions on the walls of the school, as well as erecting several new ones to the memory of Hucher, du Laurens and others. He was the author of the Apollinaire Sacrum from which so many details of history of the university have been obtained.

After him Jacques Durant, Lazare Riviere, M. Chastelain, Simeon Courtau, the Sanches and others of whom no deep impression is left. In 1675 long after the turmoil over the innovations in therapy which the followers of Paracelsus sought to introduce in the form of mineral drugs, Louis XIV established a seventh chair in the faculty for the teaching of chemistry and in this was installed Arnand Fonsorbe, who graduated in 1660. He gave courses in chemistry but seems to have made little advance, and on his death, in 1695, his chair was vacant for competition.

Michael Chicoyneau succeeded to the chair which Durant left vacant in 1659, but in 1664 when Martin Richer de Belleval died, he arranged to succeed him in all his places and this he contrived to do by political methods, despite the opposition of the faculty, for he stood high in favor with de Valot, the physician to the king. He was a haughty, quarrelsome man who acquitted himself of his various professional functions with exactitude but without any superior talent. I cannot find that he wrote anything of note. With this family, however, the methods of nepotism were still further abused at Montpellier, for Chicoyneau attempted to transmit to three of his sons in succession his offices as professor and chancellor. Since, however, two of them died in youth, he was forced to recall the third, François, whom he had destined for a naval life, to the study of medicine. In the very year of his graduation, 1693, he obtained through Antoine d'Aquin, the king's physician, the provision for his succession to the chair. Thus at 21 the young man assumed the high offices of his position as professor and chancellor and although he was no distinguished anatomist nor botanist, his grace and facility were such that he was generally loved and respected. After a mission to Marseilles during the plague from which he returned with great honor, he died, aged 80, in 1722. Chirac, who was at that time physician to the king and sent Chicoyneau with Verney and Deidier to Marseilles, had himself curious ideas about the plague, believing it to be not at all contagious. Chirac graduated at Montpellier in 1683 and secured by the help of M. Chicoyneau and d'Aquin the chair of Tenque at Montpellier. He was a much honored professor, respected by the students, but his actual work was slight and always involved in quarrels as to priority. Astruc speaks with especial scorn of his mode of thought, the *méthode analytique* which consists in saying as much as one would on the subject of which one understood nothing without bringing to it the least illumination. Of his book, "*De motu cordis*," the same writer says that it is undoubtedly the poorest book that has appeared in all the history of medicine.

It was in his time that Raymond Vieussens was a student at Montpellier and on one occasion there arose a violent dis-

pute between them as to priority in the discovery of an acid in the blood. Vieussens lived and practiced in Montpellier except during the time when he was physician to Mdlle. de Montpensier, but although he wrote many learned treatises, especially upon the anatomy of the nervous system and the heart, the ear, etc., I cannot find that he was ever professor in the school.

Other names which Astruc mentions at this time are those of Jean Bezao, Antoine Deidier, who succeeded Arnaud de Fonsorbe in the chair of chemistry, Lazerme, A. F. Chicoyneau and Jean Astruc.

Up to this time there extend as sources of information the monumental works of Astruc and Germain, but since the beginning of the eighteenth century the activities of the school seem not to have been recorded by any one writer—nor shall any attempt be made to record them here, but rather in a later paper when after another pilgrimage to that ancient seat of learning, they may be more thoroughly known. Nevertheless the chief movement—the support of the doctrine of vitalism—which was represented there by the celebrated Barthez, must be mentioned. P. J. Barthez (1734-1806) was a precocious child; after a period as military physician and another of journalism in Paris, he became professor and vice chancellor of the university of Montpellier in 1773, but in a few years he left again for Paris where he was titular chancellor of Montpellier to Paris. In 1796 he returned to the faculty of Montpellier only to go again in 1802 to Paris as government physician, to which post he was nominated with Corvisart by Napoleon. The underlying thought in his writings is the search for the "elements" of normal and pathological processes. The vital principles are expressed in the "*force de situation fixe*," that force which tends to bring back to normal the distorted form, size, etc., of the diseased organ. The anomalies of this force play therefore the most important part in pathology and are in a sense the elements of disease which must be combated by suitable methods, natural, analytic, and empirical.

Grimaud and Pinel were scholars of Barthez and carried on his ideas through their work to greater perfection. Pinel in his application of the method of analysis of Condillac was led to the idea that organs which in healthy and diseased states show similar phenomena, must agree in their elementary construction and this idea, although it guided him to the separation of diseased states according to the organ affected, led the great Bichat, who was also a student at Montpellier, to the separation and distinction of tissues.

The life of the students and their relations to the faculty at Montpellier come to us with interesting side lights in the writings of many of their number. In general there was maintained there, throughout, a dignity and respectful treatment of those in office which is not surpassed in other schools. It is true that there were disputes among the faculty and personal encounters and lawlessness among the students which had to be repressed, but on the whole the history of that body is one full of dignity and charm. Much was done there to protect the public from the charlatans who have in all ages

been so ready to prey upon the credulity of the people. The standards of scholarship were always high and the examinations rigid. The degree from this school has always held the high place it deserves. As to the nature of the examinations and their attendant ceremony, I may translate from Astruc:

"At Montpellier the first of the examinations is that which leads to the Baccalaureat. This act to which one is admitted only after three years of study lasts from eight in the morning to midday and is under the charge of a professor. The student must answer the questions and overcome the difficulties which all the other professors offer him. The dispute concerns the explanation of a disease or a question of physiology at the choice of the presiding professor."

One commences this examination with an ordinary robe but when one is received a different robe is donned—one of red cloth with great sleeves and collar and a small hood, like enough to the ceremonial robe of the professors. This is the famous robe of Rabelais, known through all Europe and regarded as the symbol of the doctorate of Montpellier. It is worn at the examinations until the granting of the license, after which the ordinary robe is resumed. They say that the first robe of that sort was designed toward the middle of the sixteenth century by François Rabelais, a celebrated doctor of the faculty of Montpellier, from whom it takes its name. It was renewed in 1612, but in spite of these changes the robe preserves its name and reputation.

There are then three months during which public lectures must be given in presence of one of the professors, on the treatise of medicine which has been assigned by the dean. These lectures are called *the course*.

This course finished and the three months expired, the aspirant is received to take the four examinations called "*per intentionem*" because they are taken with the aim of obtaining the license. The examinations are under four different professors and treat of four different maladies. The subject is proposed in the evening and next day at the same hour a thesis must be brought in which one explains in detail everything regarding the disease assigned, answers all the objections of the professors on that subject and satisfies all the questions which may be asked on the rest of medicine. These acts are carried out every other day and each lasts an hour or more. Eight days after the end of the examinations, subjects are chosen for the "*points rigoureux*" by lot in two books, one before the chancellor and the other before the dean. The first concerns a disease different from those already discussed and the second an Aphorism of Hippocrates. Next day at midday these two points must be elucidated, all difficulties explained away, and all questions answered. This lasts from midday to four o'clock. Once it was held in the chapel of St. Michael of Notre Dame des Tables as appears by the statutes of 1340 and several other more recent records. But now it is held in the *Salle des Actes* before all the professors.

When the student is accepted after this trial he goes after a week to receive the license from the hands of the bishop of Montpellier or his vicar general in the presence of two royal professors whom the faculty deputed. When the bishop re-

sided at Maguelonne the license was given "*in aula Episcopali*" in the hall of the palace which the bishop of Maguelonne had in the old part of Montpellier, of which he was lord, near the place where the college of Jesuits is built, but now the presentation is made in a hall of the Episcopal palace.

The new licentiate then prepared himself for the triduanes, that is to say, for six other examinations which must be undergone morning and evening during three days. For that purpose he presented a list of twelve maladies to the chancellor, who assigned him three while the dean assigned three others. They took care to choose diseases which had not yet been given to the aspirant. Each of these examinations lasted an hour and was held in the presence of one of the professors.

These tests finished, when the aspirant has merited in all, the votes of at least two-thirds of the professors, he is admitted to the doctorate. The professor who is charged with conferring this degree commences always with a discourse full of instruction and counsel for the new doctor and then gives him the cap with the ordinary formalities. Since this ceremony is carried out with much circumstance and dignity it is called the "*Acte de Triomphe*."

Formerly this was done in the church of St. Firmin. It was carried out with much solemnity as appeared from the ancient records. Morning and evening on the day when they were to receive a doctor, the great bell of the church was sounded. The faculty in a body led the recipient thither to the sound of instruments of music and accompanied by a crowd of spectators, and after some Latin discourse he was given the ornaments of the doctorate in the presence of the whole assembly, to whom the doctor caused to be distributed, gloves and comfits. At present the ceremony is performed in the *Salle des Actes* of the public schools, but there have been retained of the ancient usages, the Latin discourse, the violins and the distribution of gloves.

The ceremonies of the doctorate practiced at Montpellier and established by usage nearly as ancient as the faculty, consist in the following: the cap is presented; a ring of gold is put on the finger; a belt of gold about the waist; the doctor is presented with a volume of Hippocrates; he is made to sit in the chair beside the professor; the professor embraces him, finally giving him the benediction, each ceremony being accompanied by a short discourse which explains its value and significance.

When we look back over the history of Montpellier, we receive the impression that in all this time there were indeed many learned and useful and true men, but of the really great there were but few and those not permanently attached to the school. The scientific achievements of the school do not stand out, therefore, as epoch-making points in the history of medicine, but there are streams of thought and influence which have had untold value in supporting and directing the great onward current of medical wisdom through those dark ages. As in Salerno, it was especially in Montpellier, that Greek medicine flourished for a long time in the west.



FIG. 1.—View of the *École de Médecine*.



FIG. 2.—Statue of Barthéz at the right of the main door of the *École de Médecine*.



FIG. 3.—Statue of Lapeyronie to the left of the door of the *École de Médecine*.



FIG. 4.—Anatomical theater in the court of the *École de Médecine*.



FIG. 5.—Statue of Rabelais in a niche in the court of the *École de Médecine*.



FIG. 6.—Amphitheater in the anatomical theater showing the ancient chair of stone for the professor.

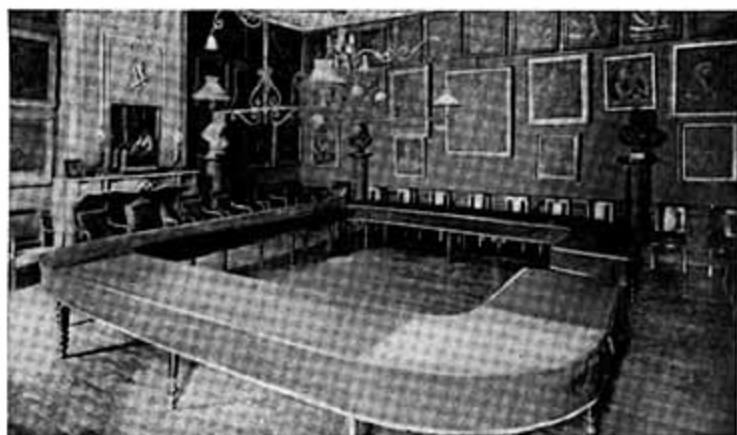


FIG. 9.—Salle d'Assemblée—Here and in the Salle des Robes is the remarkable collection of portraits of the chancellors.



FIG. 7.—Grand hall of the École de Médecine.



FIG. 10.—Salle des Actes—Above the chancellor's chair is the small bust of Hippocrates. This hall contains the more modern portraits.

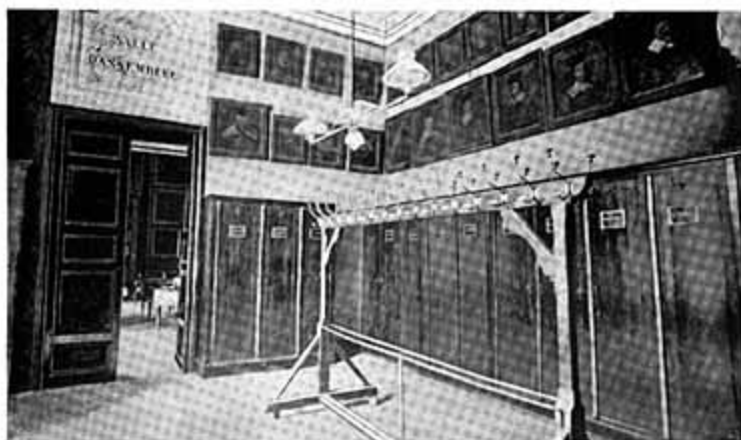


FIG. 8.—Salle des Robes—Antechamber to the Salle d'Assemblée.



FIG. 11.—Museum of anatomy, École de Médecine.



FIG. 12.—Dissecting room of the anatomical theatre of the *École de Médecine*.



FIG. 14.—University of Montpellier—Interior of the court.



FIG. 13.—General view of the *École de Médecine* and of the adjacent Cathedral.



FIG. 15.—General hospital at Montpellier.

From Montpellier there sprang the great influence of Arnold of Villanova that helped so much to overthrow the scholastic forms of thought and set medicine on the firm basis of experiment, observation and conclusion, and this is one of the greatest glories of the school. Throughout the ages while other universities, notably that of Paris, were enchained in the dogmatism of the distorted Galenism which had reached them, Montpellier showed a tendency to a broader, freer, more independent thought. Her graduates are practical men, not mere philosophical theorists. This was shown in the anti-

galenist struggles of the sixteenth century when the new doctrines found more ready entry at Montpellier than at Paris. The same may be said of that later period when the ideas of vitalism began to sway medical thought and found there in the south a sturdy champion in Barthez. Long may it continue in this liberal way and long may its graduates look with pride backward upon the honorable history of the school of Montpellier.

NOTE.—Figs. 1-5 are photographs taken in the summer of 1907; the others are from post cards bought in Montpellier.