

LEGAL HISTORY OF MEDICAL QUACKERY

MANSLAUGHTER, CHRISTIAN SCIENCE AND THE LAW.

Substance of an Interesting Paper Recently Contributed to the Medical Record by William A. Farrington, Esq., a Member of the New York Bar.

The ordinary quack is content to lay claim to some special skill or knowledge in the use of natural methods or remedies. Thus in February, 1896, one John M. Cross induced the same legislature of New York that in the following April chartered the existing county and state medical societies to authorize by special act the purchase for sale and publication of the state papers by his "perfect and infallible remedy and cure for the hydrophobia or canine madness." And a wonderful remedy it was. Here is the prescription, and it certainly seems adequate to put an end to hydrophobia or any other malady:

"First: Take one ounce of the jawbone of a dog, burned and pulverized, or powdered to fine dust.

"Secondly: Take the false tongue of a newly hatched cutt, but that is also dried and pulverized, and.

"Thirdly: Take one ounce of vermicelli, which is traced on the surface of the copper by lying the vermicelli earthy, the copper of George I. or II. are the pistil and best. Mix these ingredients together, and in the proportion of an ounce to a full grown child, or two ounces to an adult, and so in proportion for a child according to its age. In one hour after take the above kind, if it be not, then take a small amount of any of the above metal of the kind; this to be taken in a small quantity of water.

"The next morning, fasting or before eating, repeat the same as before. This if complied with after the taking of a second and before the symptoms of madness, will effectually prevent any appearance of disorder; but after the symptoms shall appear a physician must immediately be called to administer the following:

"Three drachms of the vermicelli of the kind before mentioned, mixed with half an ounce of camellia oil, taken at one dose. This quantity the physician need not fear to administer, as the reaction of the system will be neutralized, and the whole system of the patient neutralized considerably the powerful quality of the medicine; and.

"Second if in four hours thereafter the patient is not completely relieved, administer four grains of pure opium or one hundred and twenty drops of liquid laudanum.

"N. B.—The patient must be careful to avoid the use of milk for several days after taking any of the foregoing medicines."—John M. Cross.

In the following year an act Feb. 14, 1897, passed, providing an unlicensed practice of medicine, with the proviso, however, that it should not be construed to deprive any one from using, or applying for the benefit of the sick, roots or herbs, the growth or product of the United States. This restriction favored at once the principle of protection to the industry of home herbs and the teachings of the Thomsonian or botanical school of medicine, founded upon the simple, obvious theory that natural remedies are infallible because their nature being to remain in the earth, they tend to draw man down to the grave; while herbs, having by nature an upward, skyward thrust, tend, on the contrary, to the advancement of those into whose midst they penetrate.

AN EARLY CASE. This system, once as popular as Christian science, furnished the leading American case on manslaughter by medical malpractice, that of Commonwealth v. Thomson, of Miss. 134. It there appeared that Samuel Thomson, founder of the system, undertook to cure "all fevers, whether black, gray, green or yellow." His staple remedies were "coffee," so-called, "well gristled" and "rain-cats." Being summoned on January 2, 1839, to attend Elizabeth Lovett, he ordered a stove of hot coals, wrapped him in a blanket, and, with a powder given in water, "naked" him to use the simple language of the day—violently three within half an hour, meantime administering copiously the warm "coffee." He then put Lovett to bed, and sweated and "poked" him pretty steadily for three days, the patient growing weaker and weaker, until, poor soul! he could make no more. Then Thomson asked "how far down the medicine had got," and, Lovett indicating his chest, the quack said that the medicine "would soon get down and unscrow his navel." On the third day the patient "lost his mind and went into convulsions," which condition lasted until the eighth day, January 10th, when he died.

The coffee proved to be a decoction of marsh-mallows and the bark of the cherry tree; the powder was Indian tobacco or Lobelia inflata. There was no evidence that defendant had killed any one else; on the contrary, there was testimony of benefit in one case from his treatment. The court therefore, did not put him, in his defence, but, ruling that the commonwealth had failed to make out a case even of manslaughter, charged the jury to this effect: Deceased, beyond reasonable doubt, lost his life by defendant's unskillful treatment; but there could be no murder, unless the prisoner was willfully regardless of his social duty and determined on mischief, of which there was no proof; on the contrary his intent was to cure. Neither could there be manslaughter, for although defendant's ignorance was very apparent, nevertheless, if he honestly intended to cure, he could not be guilty of that crime on account of death unexpectedly ensuing from his treatment, unless he was engaged in an unlawful act; and there was no law in Massachusetts forbidding any man, honestly intending to cure, from prescribing for a sick man with the latter's consent.

THE LAW LAID DOWN. The court cited Lord Hale an authority for the proposition that "if a physician, whether licensed or not, administers a poison, without any intent of doing him bodily harm, but with intent to cure or prevent a disease, and, contrary to the expectation of the physician, it kills him, he is not guilty of murder or manslaughter." And, accordingly, laid down this law for the case.

"The death of a man, killed by voluntarily following a medical prescription, cannot be adjudged a felony in the party prescribing, unless he, however ignorant of medical science in general, had some knowledge or probable information of the fatal tendency of the prescription that it may be reasonably presumed by the jury to be the effect of obstinate, wilful rashness, at the least, and not of an honest intention and expectation to cure."

"The court" further said that if the sufferer-general had proved, as he promised to do in his opening, that Thomson had killed others by his treatment, it would have been left to the jury to determine whether the evidence they would sustain the charge of manslaughter; which they might justly have done if they had found that defendant acted from "obstinate rashness and foolhardy presumption, although without intent to do Lovett bodily harm;" for it would not have been lawful for him again to administer a medicine of which he had fatal experience. Upon this reasoning Thomson was acquitted; and his case having proved as a precedent, a strong shield for manslaughtering charlatans, by establishing what has been called the humane American rule as contrasted with the strict rule of common law, it is well to state succinctly the reasons why he escaped conviction, viz: (1) because there was no statute in Massachusetts prohibiting medical practice by the ignorant and unlicensed; (2) because there was no proof that Thomson (a) knew his treatment to be dangerous or (b) had any other intent than to cure in good faith.

ANOTHER CASE. In 1842 the question arose in New York, upon an application for a bill of discovery, in March vs. Davidson (9 Paige 369), whether it was slanderous to have said of the complainant that he was guilty of malpractice as a cancer doctor and had killed a woman in Schoharie. Davidson not being licensed to practise, the court held that—inasmuch as he might be guilty of manslaughter, for that reason, if the patient died under his treatment—the words might be slanderous.

It thus appears that—even accepting the benign rule of Thomson's case, which, as we shall see presently, was not stated as a statute, but as a common-law rule—the unlicensed practice of medicine a misdemeanor, if death result from the treatment of a non-licentiate he is guilty of manslaughter at least, no matter how honest his intent. This is the rule of common law and of the New York penal code, which defines as manslaughter the killing of one human being by the act, procurement, or omission of another, without design to effect death, by a person engaged in committing, or attempting to commit, a misdemeanor affecting the person or property either of the person killed or of another.

In 1844 the case of Rice vs. The State, Mo. 553 was decided in Missouri. Rice had undertaken to cure Mrs. Keithley of scabies. She had not been so well for years as when he began to treat her, and was within six weeks of giving birth to her fourth child, when his system fell into a nervous labor and died within about ten days. He was convicted of manslaughter; but the appellate court, adopting the rule in Thomson's case, the facts being substantially the same, reversed the judgment.

AN IOWA CASE. In 1881 another case arose, in Iowa, State vs. Schulz (55 Ia. 828). Schulz treated a sick woman with leeches and an irritating oil, according to the system of Herr Bauschmidt, who, having been much benefited by the bitings of small insects, sought to give the world, for a consideration, a simulation of his system. Defendant admitted that he did not know the composition of the oil, that being Bauschmidt's secret. The patient died. Schulz claimed that if he had not been interfered with he could have cured her. The court, however, called witnesses to testify that Bauschmidtism, as administered by him, had benefited them. Schulz was convicted, but the appellate court reversed the judgment, following the cases of Thomson and Rice, and expressed the conclusion: "The interests of society will be subserved by holding a physician civilly liable in damages for the consequences of his ignorance, without imposing upon him criminal liabilities when he acts with good motives and honest intentions." The adoption of this theory by the New York statute of 1844 enabled quackery, in the words of Beardsley J., to "boast its triumphant and complete establishment by law." The facts in Pierce's case were these: Defendant held himself out as a physician. There was no more law in Massachusetts to prevent him from so doing in 1884 than there had been to prevent Thomson's like pretence in 1839. Being called to a sick woman, he caused her, she con-

sented, to be kept for some three days wrapped in flannel under clothing, saturated with kerosene. Under this treatment she died in great misery. There was evidence in the case that in some instances similar treatment by defendant had proved favorable, but also that in one case it had burned and blistered the flesh, as in the case of deceased. Defendant's counsel at trial asked the court to charge, following the rule in Thomson's case, that defendant could not be convicted unless it were proven beyond reasonable doubt that death resulted from his treatment and that he had such knowledge or probable information of the fatal tendency of his prescription as to justify the jury in presuming that death was the effect of his obstinate or wilful recklessness, and not of an honest intent and expectation to cure. This request was refused, defendant was convicted, and his conviction affirmed by the supreme court, who, by Holmes J., said that the language of Thomson's case relied upon by defendant—viz., that "to constitute manslaughter the killing must have been a consequence of some unlawful act,"—was not applicable to the case of any man from prescribing for a sick person, with his consent, if his prescription intends to cure him by his prescription. "It was ambiguous and wrong, if it meant that the killing must be the consequence of some unlawful act, lawful for independent reasons apart from its likelihood to kill." "Such," continued the court, "may once have been the law; but for a long time it has been just as fully, and latterly, we may add, more generally, recognized that a man may commit murder or manslaughter by doing otherwise lawful acts recklessly, as that he may be doing acts unlawful for independent reasons, from which death accidentally ensues." Thomson's case, it was said, did not intend to lay down new law, but cited and meant to follow Lord Hale, whom it had taken too literally, since his lordship admitted that other persons might make themselves liable. Thomson's case, it was said, (42) and why not a physician as well?

THE TRIBE STANDARD. As to what constitutes criminal recklessness, substantially the standard is not gauged by the actor's belief or idea of danger, but by the probable result of the thing done. "Generally supposed to be universally forcible, and only a specialist would foresee that in a given case it would do damage, a person who did not foresee it and who had no warning would not be held liable for the harm." The use of the thing must be dangerous according to common experience, at least to the extent that there is a manifest and appreciable chance of harm from what is done, in view of the actor's knowledge or of his conscious ignorance.

Common experience is necessary to the man of ordinary prudence, and a man who assumes to act as the defendant did must have it at his disposal. "The defendant knew he was using kerosene. The jury have found that it was applied as the result of foolhardy presumption or gross negligence, and that is enough."

Indeed, if the defendant had known the fatal tendency of the prescription, he would be liable for murder, not manslaughter. The rule laid down in this carefully reasoned case must commend itself to prudent men; for it really amounts only to this—that if one unversed and unskilled in medical science, and ignorant of the laws of medicine, the cure of a patient, and in so doing uses remedies or adopts a treatment—whether positive or negative—ought to make no difference—from which there is a manifest and appreciable chance of harm according to common experience, he shall be held liable for his recklessness and shall not be excused by the innocence of his intention. And certainly when part of the treatment adopted is the exclusion of proper food, this is just as his recklessness, as if positively injurious methods were adopted. It is just as much homicide to cause death by starvation as by keeping food from the victim, as to use an active poison.

CHRISTIAN SCIENCE. How does this principle apply to "Christian science," "faith cure," or any other system of medicine, which, by operating strongly on the mind, may restore the lost equilibrium? Is the pursuit of any of these methods "practice of medicine?"

While the ordinary quack, who, as has been said, pretends only to extract the "evil" from a patient, and, therefore, generally held to be a practitioner of medicine, Christian scientists, who go further and pretend to procure for their divine intervention by their prayers, content that in this respect they are not practicing medicine, but observing religious rites, and are therefore protected in their practices by constitutional safeguards. Are they, however, in the eyes of the law, the "practice of medicine?" The answer to this query must depend in most instances upon the words of the statute and the peculiar circumstances of the case. In the New York case of Smith v. Lane, 24 Hun 532, D. P. the plaintiff, a parent, a masseur, sued for damages for fees which defendant refused to pay on the ground that plaintiff, not being licensed to practice medicine, could not recover compensation for his treatment, which, as set out in the court report, "consisted entirely of the treatment with the hand. It was performed by rubbing, kneading, and pressure." The court said:

"The practice of medicine is a pursuit very generally known and understood, and so also is that of surgery. The former includes the application and use of medicines and drugs for the purpose of curing, mitigating, or alleviating bodily diseases; while the functions of the latter are limited to manual operations, usually performed by surgical instruments or appliances.

"To all who incompetent or unqualified persons to attempt or apply medical agents, or to perform surgical operations, would be highly dangerous to the health as well as the lives of the persons who might be operated upon, and there is reason to believe that lasting and serious injuries as well as the loss of life have been produced by the improper use of medical agents and surgical instruments and appliances. It was the purpose and intent of the legislature by this act to prevent a continuance of deleterious practices of this nature, and to confine the uses of medicine and the operations of surgery to a class of persons who, upon examination, should be found competent and qualified to follow these professional pursuits. No such danger could possibly arise from the treatment to which the plaintiff's occupation was confined. While it might be no benefit, it could hardly be possible or of any result in harm or injury.

"And for that reason no necessity existed for interfering with this pursuit by any action on the part of the legislature. It may be that credulous persons would be deceived into the

employment of the plaintiff, and in that manner subjected to imposition. But it was no part of the purpose of this act to prevent persons from being made the subjects of mere imposition."

Either the italicized words are superfluous or they contain an implication that if the treatment in the court's opinion, had been capable of causing injury like improper medical treatment, the judges would have classified it in the same category.

OTHER DEFINITIONS. In Eastman vs. State (16 N. E. 95), an Indiana case, the court said, on the other hand: "It is the purpose of the statute to prevent persons who do not possess the necessary qualifications to practice medicine or surgery from inflicting injury upon the citizens by undertaking to treat diseases, wounds and injuries." And again: "The state has an interest in the life and health of all its citizens, and the law under examination was framed, not to bestow favors upon a particular profession, but to discharge one of the highest duties of the state—that of protecting its citizens from injury and harm." In People vs. Phippin (70 Mich. 9), the defendant was held to have practiced medicine, on proof that he had himself out as "Dr. W. W. Phippin, magnetic healer," had attempted to cure the sick, and in the case of a child's death had certified the cause to be "cancer, sore mouth. Duration of disease, June 3 to July 22, 1887." In White vs. Simpson (181 N. E. 818), a Maryland case, the defendant was held to be practicing medicine. So also in Nelson vs. Harrington (72 Wis. 201). And in New York, De Leon, who prescribed for a child, drawing its horoscope and giving some "magnetic" convulsions, was held to be practicing medicine. The administration of electricity has also been held to constitute medical practice—Davison vs. Bohman (67 Mo. App. 576).

The Ohio statute provides that: "Any person shall be regarded as practicing medicine or surgery, within the meaning of this act, who shall accept the letters M. D. or M. B. in his name, or for a fee prescribe, direct, or recommend for the use of any person any medicine, or surgery, or any other treatment, cure, or relief of any wound, fracture, or bodily injury, infirmity, or disease." That seems very broad; but in the case of Eastman vs. State (16 Ohio, Dec. 29, 1887), it was held, in the opinion of the majority of the court, that a school of osteopathy of Kirksville, Mo., was not practicing medicine by kneading and manipulations, using only his hands and no medicines. The court cited Smith vs. Lane, and held that the defendant's acts were too vague and were limited by the particular words "drug or medicine."

The New York statute does not define medical practice. Such a definition is given in the dissenting opinion of 1887, but struck out because a certain senator, who died shortly afterward, declared that it would include an eccentric healer who had saved him from the grave. The definition in the Nebraska medical act defines as a practitioner, any one "who shall operate on, or profess to heal, or prescribe for, or otherwise treat any physical or mental ailment of another."

FAITH CURE AT ISSUE. Under this statute arose, in 1894, the case of State vs. Buswell (40 Neb. 158). The defendant, a man of ordinary intelligence, had undertaken to be a "Christian Scientist," graduated from the Metaphysical college of Mrs. Mary E. Eddy, of Boston. Defendant offered testimony to cures wrought by his cases of rheumatism, rattles, pneumonia, and scarlet fever—the last in the case of a child, four years old. He testified that in eighteen months he had treated about one hundred persons, of whom only two had died.

The defendant, in his own defense, testified that the text-books of the Christian Science church are the Bible and Mrs. Eddy's work "Science and Health." He denied that in a medical sense he treated physical or mental ailments, and that he understood that "God's laws, and not mortal man's," questioned as to the privilege of patients or parents to call in medical aid, he said: "We believe that every one has a right to express their wish, and if it is for the benefit of the patient, we prefer some other treatment, or some other mode, or some one else to aid them, it is their privilege. We always do that. It is taught in our text-books. We never give any medical aid, and we are not in the business of teaching of Christian Science." And his counsel said: "The defendant, and those of the same faith with him, believe as a matter of conscience that the giving of medicine is a sin; that it is a violation of the laws of God, and that it is a violation of the laws of God to take drugs for the alleviation of suffering or the cure of disease, as far as a Methodist clergyman can be held to take God into his hands to relieve his overwrought feelings."

Being asked if he took pay from his patients, he said: "As a rule I do not. We tell them we leave the question to them and God." "Can you see any reason why you should be paid for your services?" "The supreme court said in Reynolds' case: 'Laws are made for the government of actions, and while they cannot interfere with mere religious belief and opinions, they may with practice.' Can you be seriously contented, asked the court, that a civilized nation may not lawfully suppress human sacrifices and the Indian custom of suttee, because their votaries claim religious sanction therefor; or polygamy for the same reason? To suffer such things, it was answered, 'would be to make the professed doctrine of religious belief superior to the law of the land and in effect to permit every citizen to become a law unto himself, and to render the practice of the law of the land optional only in name under such circumstances.' These wise words of the court apply even to honest believers, whom we may respect, or, at least, sympathize with, even in their delusion. But if the defence of religion were allowed to the extent that the eccentrics claim, the deadly sin of lying would become even more prevalent than it is, and the dangerous classes would go over in a body to distant religion."

AN ENGLISH CASE. There was an English case in 1885, Reg. vs. Wainstaffe (10 Cox's Cr. 254, 539), wherein parents were charged with manslaughter of a child because, pursuant to their religion as members of the "Peculiar People," they neglected to provide medical attendance for a child in a case of acute inflammation of the lungs, instead they anointed and prayed over it. The court charged that if they had let the child starve for want of food, the case would have been different; for every one recognizes the need of food. But it was not

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the same when the question was one of medical attendance, for as to that opinion differed, and he read to the jury from the general Edict of St. James of 1570, which forbade any person, under penalty of imprisonment, to neglect the sick without adequate preparation by study of medical science, and convicted of manslaughter if death results from their interference.

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