AN HISTORICAL RETROSPECT OF THE ARMY SURGEON IN BRITAIN, PRIOR TO THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

By CAPTAIN H. A. L. HOWELL.
Royal Army Medical Corps.

It is with the Roman armies in Britain that the army surgeon first appears in our history, and it is largely to the archaeological researches of the late Sir James Simpson that we are indebted for our knowledge concerning him.

A Roman army was divided into legions. Each legion was made up of ten cohorts, and each cohort numbered six centuries. A legion therefore included a thousand men, but it also had auxiliary troops attached, as well as 120 horsemen. The auxiliary troops were arranged in cohorts varying in strength from 500 to 1,000 men. Many cohorts consisted of mixed foot and horse, thus constituting a “cohors equitata.” The medical staff of a Roman army consisted of a surgeon or physician to each cohort. These were called “medicus ordinarius,” “medicus clinicus,” or “medicus cohortis”; but whether these terms referred to different grades in rank we are now unable to say. There is, however, evidence showing that there was a higher grade of medical officer in each legion, known as the physician of the legion. We also know that the Roman emperors, consuls and generals, had on their staff, when they took the field, several physicians and surgeons. These may have been medical officers of the highest rank in the army, but probably corresponded more closely with the “Sergeant-Surgeons” of later times. Galen himself was employed to attend upon the Emperor Marcus Aurelius on active service in Apuleia. The “Medici Militaris” were exempted from some taxes and the “Medicus Legionis” from civil duties when engaged upon the public service.

Many monumental inscriptions referring to the “medici” of the Roman armies are still extant. Thus, at Housesteads in Northumberland, on the site of the ancient Boscovinis, one of the military stations on Hadrian’s Wall which stretched from Solway to Tyne, was found a monumental tablet inscribed—
Retrospect of the Army Surgeon in Britain

This has been translated "Sacred to the Gods of the Shades below, to Ancius Ingenius, Physician in Ordinary of the First Tungrian Cohort. He lived twenty-five years." Other inscriptions have been found; one at Viterbi, by a father to his deceased son M. Vulpinus Sporus, Physician to the Indian and Asturian Auxiliaries; another dating from A.D. 83, dedicated by "Sextus Titius Alexander, Physician of the fifth Praetorian Cohort, to Æsculapius and the safety of his fellow soldiers." Maffei also gives the inscription on a monument raised by Scribonia Faustina to the manes of her very dear husband, L. Cælius Arrianus, Physician to the Second Italian Legion, who died, aged 49½ years.

In A.D. 138, the Emperor Antoninus personally communicated by letter with the surgeon of the Second Legion.

When a Roman army encamped, the ground was first levelled by pioneers. The camp was quadrangular and fortified by a ditch and rampart. Twenty thousand men were accommodated in a camp 700 yards square. The streets were perfectly straight, and a space of 200 feet was allowed between the tents and the ramparts. A part of the camp—the Valetudinarium—was set apart for the accommodation of the sick and wounded. The general arrangements and police of the camp were superintended by the "Prefect Castrorum," a sort of quartermaster-general, and Vegetius tells us this official had disciplinary powers over the "medici" and their patients, and that he had to provide all that was required for the sick. The regulation of the expenses appears to have been in the hands of the medical authorities.

From Cæsar, Livy, Tacitus and Justin we learn that, after great battles near Roman towns, the wounded were received into the houses of the Patricians, and there attended by the surgeons. It would appear also that, except when encamped, in order that the army might not be encumbered in its movements, the sick and wounded soldiers were entrusted to the care of neighbouring Roman towns; and we find it recorded that at least two generals—Cæsar and Labienus—made use of waggons in transporting their wounded to such places.
Great attention was paid by the Romans to the prevention of disease, for we learn from Vegetius that great care was exercised in the selection of the sites of camps. The necessity for frequent changes of camp-sites was also recognised. Care was taken to provide supplies of good water, wine, vinegar, salt, provisions and forage. The ration of the soldier consisted chiefly of meat, flour and lard. When wine could not be provided, vinegar, or other acid, was usually added to the drinking water. The men were kept constantly at exercise during the day, and meals were provided at regular intervals. In hot weather marches were finished before the hottest part of the day, and in winter there was no marching at night. In cold weather a sufficiency of warm clothing and of fire-wood was always provided for the use of the men. The Roman soldier, when in heavy marching order, carried 60 lbs. weight, and he was expected to march twenty miles in six hours.

On those occasions when a Roman army was defeated and obliged to retreat and found it impossible to carry off its wounded, it appears to have been the custom to kill the wounded before the retreat commenced. Cassius tells us this was done when the Emperor Septimus Severus, after taking an army of 80,000 men across the Forth, had to retreat to York. He lost 50,000 men during the expedition.

Invalids incapable of further active service were provided for by the State. Old soldiers enjoyed many privileges, and, under Constantine, were rewarded with grants of land in perpetuity and exemption from taxation.

The chief guides to the practice of medicine and surgery amongst the Romans were the works of Hippocrates, Celsus and Galen. During the four hundred years of the Roman occupation of Britain—a military occupation—large numbers of Britons were enrolled in the Roman Army, and towards the end of the Roman stay in Britain, legions of British soldiers were employed in supporting the Roman power on the Continent. Later on, we find that after the Romans had left some of the Roman military methods were adopted by British and Saxon armies. It is possible that their medical arrangements were also imitated, and it needs no strain of the imagination to think that the "medici" of the Welsh armies of later years—the descendants of the ancient Britons—represented the army surgeon of Roman times.

The introduction of Christianity into Britain led to the estab-
ishment of numerous monasteries, and into the hands of the monks fell most of the practice of medicine and surgery. To these monasteries were attached infirmaries to which the sick and wounded were admitted for treatment.

The Normans brought the feudal system to England. As a result, there sprung up over the land numerous feudal castles. Each lord had an armed force of retainers, and we know that to many of their households "leeches" were attached. In addition, the womenfolk of the period were instructed in the preparation of herbal remedies for the sick and of salves for the wounded. Upon them devolved a good deal of the care of the sick and wounded. There are numerous references in the romances of that time to the skill in leechcraft of women and monks.

During the period from the Conquest until the end of the thirteenth century, few members of the medical profession are mentioned in history. Creighton says, "the moral standard of the period was a low one and the profession was not one in which individuals could rise conspicuously above the level of their age."

Prior to the Edict of Tours, in 1193, the distinction between physician and surgeon scarcely existed. Learning and the practice of physic was almost entirely in the hands of the Church and Jews; the clergy having the bulk of the practice, as curing body and soul. In England, however, there were very few Jewish physicians and surgeons. In 1190 there were only two in all England, Isaac Medicus in London, and the great Jewish physician of King's Lynn, who fell in the massacre of the Jews in that year. Jews in England were practically restricted to one trade—usury. The Council of Tours decreed that the clergy should not shed blood and therefore could not practise surgery, whereupon came about a differentiation; the monks being tonsured, required barbers to shave their heads, and the barber was usually the clerical surgeon's assistant. Henceforth the barbers took over the surgical part of the profession, while their masters continued the practice of medicine and became the predecessors of the present physicians. It is this connection with the Church which explains the clause in the Act of 1511, that no one should practise as surgeon or physician in the City of London, or within seven miles of it, until he had first been examined, approved and licensed by the Bishop of London or the Dean of St. Paul's. The relation between the Church and the profession lasted for a long time, for according to Manningham's
Diary (1601-1603), "one Tristram Lyde, a surgeon, admitted to practice by the Archbishop's letters, was tried at Rochester Assizes for killing divers women by annoyntinge them with quicksilver."

Pope Honorius III. also directed that no priest should practise surgery, and that the clergy should refuse their benediction to those who professed it. Medicine then was practised by men of learning, while surgery, under the ban of the Church, fell into the hands of the barbers. The low social status of the surgeon during the Middle Ages is therefore easily understood. Surgery became a trade.

In Europe, medicine and surgery were at a standstill, and we must turn to the East if we wish to find evidences of progress in philosophy or medicine. The Saracens were moving westwards, and in 640, captured Alexandria and destroyed the great library there. The works of Galen were, however, rescued and, it is said, studied by Arabian philosophers. A great college of learning arose at Bagdad which contained at one time no less than 6,000 students.

The study of mathematics, astronomy and medicine made advances and chemistry originated. The wave of Mahomedan conquest swept along Northern Africa into Spain, and here the learning of the East came into touch with that of the West. The Crusades also drew attention to Oriental learning, and as a result a great school was established at Salerno at which the study of medicine and surgery was first put upon a sound basis. This college was the first to grant degrees in medicine. We find the medical student was obliged to study two years at philosophy, five at medicine, and if a student of surgery, one year at anatomy. The works of the great Oriental physicians and surgeons, such as Rhazes and Avicenna, thus became known in the West, and we find them quoted in the great medieval work on surgery by Langfranc.

Very little is known about the army medical arrangements during the Crusades, but we gather from the early accounts of Richard I.'s Crusade that a complement of "leeches" accompanied the Crusaders. In the "Itinerarium Perigrinorum et Gesta Regis Ricardi," the earliest and best account of the Third Crusade, we read that after the great battle before Jaffa, in 1192, the putrefying carcases of horses and the bodies of the dead "made the air corrupt, King Richard and our army were much distressed, and fell ill to such an extent that they almost all died." "The King lay very
sick on his couch; the typhus continued, and the leeches were whispering about the greater semi-tertian fever. They began to despair and the (same) wild despair spread over the camp.” During the same Crusade King Philip of France became seriously ill and he “sent to seek leeches, to whom he gave fair jewels, praying for their advice as to the best way of curing his disorder. The leeches took counsel together and God gave them His grace, so that he recovered of his ailment.” His symptoms were those of malarial fever. In Saladin’s army were many learned Arabian surgeons, and he appears to have been the first to attend to the personal hygiene of the soldier, for Abd Allatif, a physician of Bagdad, who accompanied his army, tells there were in his camp “more than a thousand baths” and a bath could be procured for a piece of silver. The sick and wounded Crusaders were chiefly attended by their comrades, but during the Crusades a great military and medical organisation sprang up around the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem (or the Hospitalers), one of the military orders. They possessed fortresses in Palestine and vast possessions in Europe. Their vows required them to protect and care for the pilgrims on their way to the Holy Sepulchre at Jerusalem. The order originated from the foundation of a hospital at Jerusalem, in 1023, by some rich merchants of Amalfi, who had won the favour of the Egyptian Caliph. This hospital was for the care of wounded and sick pilgrims. The original endowment was gradually added to and their possessions confirmed to them by a Bull of Pope Paschal II. in 1113. Gerard, the first master of the hospital of whom we have mention, died in 1118, and was succeeded by Raymond du Puy, who held office for forty years. He organised the order on a military basis, and the Hospitalers are first mentioned as a fighting body in a Bull of Innocent II. in 1130. The organisation was similar to that of the Templars and comprised knights, chaplains and serving brothers, under a Grand Master. The officers were termed conventual, capitarian, or honorary bailiffs. The conventual bailiffs were the heads of the different Langues, of which there were, in 1337, seven—Provence, Auvergne, France, Germany, Aragon and England. The English Langue was under two Grand Priors, one for England the other for Ireland. The heads of houses or commanderies were called Commanders or Preceptors. All wore a black mantle with a white eight-pointed cross. Their chief English house, the gateway of which is still standing, was
at Clerkenwell, and owed its origin to Jordan Biset, who died in 1110. In Stephen's reign, lands were acquired in Hertfordshire, Essex and Cambridgeshire. The Order became very wealthy, and on the suppression of the Templars in 1312, many of the possessions of the Templars came to it, and on it devolved the defence of Christendom against the Turk. Driven from Palestine, the Knights went to Cyprus, and then conquered Rhodes, which they held against the Turks for two hundred years. Driven out by Soliman in 1512, Charles V. gave them Malta, where they remained until their Commander surrendered to the French, in 1798. Within recent years the English Langue has been revived. The old gateway of the Priory at Clerkenwell has again become the head-quarters of the Langue. The Prince of Wales is now the Prior of the Order. The Order still devotes itself chiefly to the care of the sick and wounded in peace and war, largely through a branch known as the St. John Ambulance Association. It has branches in nearly every English speaking town of any size in England and in the Colonies. During the Boer war, the Order of St. John of Jerusalem again appeared on active service with troops in the field, for its Ambulance Association has supplied trained orderlies to many of the hospitals. These men have well maintained the past traditions of the Order, and it would be impossible to over-appreciate the value of their timely aid to the Royal Army Medical Corps.

Returning to the Crusades, we note that under the auspices of the Knights of St. John, hospitals and hostels were established along the pilgrim routes for the use of those going to and returning from the Holy Land.

When Richard I. received his death wound at Chalus, in 1196, his surgeon was blamed for his death. He is said to have withdrawn the arrow so unskilfully that the wound was made worse and mortification followed.

Simon de Montfort had a barber surgeon learned in heraldic lore. On the morning of the Battle of Evesham in 1265, barber Nicholas was sent to the tower of the abbey to examine the banners and blazons of the approaching enemy and report who they were.

Edward I. had an expert surgeon with his forces in Palestine. In 1272, that prince was attacked and severely wounded by a follower of that leader of assassins, "the Old Man of the Mountain." Edward's life was in much danger, for the weapon was poisoned, and though the Master of the Templars administered what was
considered to be a certain antidote, it was without avail. At last an English surgeon came forward and pledged himself to effect a cure. He ordered the weeping Queen Eleanor to be led from her husband’s presence; then he cut away the poisoned flesh, and under his care Edward was able to appear on horseback in public within fifteen days.

In England, in 1122, St. Bartholomew’s had been founded, and shortly afterwards opened for the treatment of sick and wounded soldiers, as well as of the civil population.

When in the reign of Henry II. Strongbow invaded Ireland, he found the Irish Abbeys the seats of learning in that country, and that each of the Irish septs or clans had families of hereditary physicians. Hospitals were attached to the abbeys and to some of the castles, as at Sligo. O’Halloran tells us also that a great military hospital was attached to the ancient palace of Tara. It was called “The House of the Sorrowful Soldier.”

In Wales, the medical profession held an honourable position under the ancient Welsh Kings. Probert tells us that the King’s physician ranked twelfth among the officials of the Court. He held his land free and was clothed at the expense of the King and Queen. He was required to treat the Royal household without payment, with the exception of three classes of wounds, for attendance on which he received a fee of one pound, or if his meals were provided, one hundred and eighty pence. These wounds were “a blow on the head which penetrates the brain, a thrust in the body which penetrates the bowels, and the breaking of one of the limbs.” If he were insulted the offender was fined six cows and one hundred and twenty silver pennies. His life was valued at one hundred and twenty cows.

In 1223 Henry III. was preparing a force for the invasion of Normandy, and the Bishop of Chichester was recommended to take with him “one Master Thomas, an army surgeon, who knew how to cure wounds, a science particularly useful in the siege of castles.”

The earliest mention of the payment of medical men to attend the army appears in the Wardrobe Account of 15 Edward II., A.D. 1322. In the Welsh corps officers were called “medici,” but whether surgeons or physicians we cannot say. No “medici” were charged to the English troops, and amongst the Welsh troops they were unevenly distributed. We find one corps of 1,907 men
with only one "medicus," whilst another, numbering 968, had two. The latter corps came from the King's land in Cardiganshire, and its "medici" only received fourpence a day each. The other "medici" received pay at the rate of sixpence a day each. Money at this date had from twelve to fifteen times its present value.

These Welsh spearmen, to which we find the "medici" attached, were the first troops in the English service to wear uniform, and they first received it in 1337. They were each provided, at the King's expense, with a tunic and mantle, and it was expressly laid down that these should be of the same material and colour for all. The colour remains unknown. At this time the national colour was white, and in Edward III.'s reign we find our troops in France clad in white emblazoned with the red cross of St. George. It was laid down in the "Ordinance made by Richard II., Anno 1386, for the Government of the Army," that every English soldier "should beare a signe of the armes of St. George, large before and behynde," on his apparel. The Welsh "medici" were probably the first army surgeons to wear the King's uniform.

From numerous entries in the Wardrobe Accounts of Edward the Second, we learn that it was the custom to send soldiers disabled in the King's service to a religious house, as to a hospital, to be there supported either for life or until they were well. This was called "having garisona in a monastery."

In the "Roll of Persons at the Siege of Calais," one of the Harleian Manuscripts, only one surgeon is named and he was part of the retinue of the Black Prince.

**Edwardus Walliae Princeps.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Princeps</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banneretti</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milites</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Armigeri</td>
<td>264</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sagittarii equites</td>
<td>384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sagittarii pedites</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capellani</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chirurghi</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vexillarii</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vinarii</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Petites</td>
<td>480</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clamatores (or Cryers)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total** 1,344
This surgeon was John Ardern, or Arderne, who was at the time of the French war advanced in years. He was the most eminent English surgeon of his time, and several advances in surgery were due to him. He lived at Newark, near Nottingham, from 1349 to 1370, and then went to London. A large number of his manuscripts are in the British Museum. He was a great favourite of the Black Prince, who gave him a grant of land in Connaught. His patients included many of the most eminent soldiers of the time. He wrote two important works "Liber de Fistulae," and "De Arte Medicæ." He operated for fistula in ano and greatly improved the methods of trepanning. He is said to have added the central pin to the trepan. He was also an historian, and is quoted as the authority for the account of the adoption of the three ostrich feathers as the Prince of Wales' crest.

Very little is known about the arrangements for the care of the sick and wounded during Edward III's campaigns. His transport was well attended to, for his army in France had a transport train consisting of 6,000 wagons, stretching two leagues. Some of this was possibly utilised in the carriage of the sick and wounded, but it is more probable that they were sent to neighbouring monasteries. With regard to the severely wounded, it appears to have been usual for his comrades to put him out of his pain. After the Battle of Poictiers "such of the meaner sort of soldiers whose wounds seemed to require a considerable time for cure were by the general dismissed with a small pecuniary provision to carry them home."

In the military establishment of the year of the same reign, as given in the accounts of Walter Wentwaght, treasurer of the household, Grose says, "there is one surgeon for the King's household troops; four physicians and one surgeon for the army of North Wales; two physicians and one surgeon for that of South Wales—a number by no means sufficient for the number of men to which they were appointed." To account for the small number of surgeons employed, Grose suggests that, "the inferior surgeons, stiled barbers, were taken from the ranks and therefore paid and mustered as private men." In the twenty-first year of the same reign, Walter Wentwaght's accounts contain a list of "Rates and Wages of Warre by the Daie." From this we learn that the King's surgeons received, "every man by daye. . . 1s.;" and "surgions of Welshmen" received 4d. a day pay. Twelve years
later, the Patent Rolls inform us “Richard de Wye is appointed the King's surgeon for life, with twelve pence daily wages, and eight mares per annum.” There is reason to believe that about this time it became usual to engage surgeons to attend soldiers on active service. Their engagement was limited to the period of hostilities or for a particular service. These surgeons received 4d. a day, and they also enjoyed the privilege of shaving the men and receiving from each soldier 2d. on pay day “as regards.” This custom of receiving 2d. from every soldier on pay-day continued for a very long period, for it was in existence over two hundred years later.

The most eminent French surgeon of his time published a work on the healing of wounds in 1363, in which he gives a classification of the surgeons of his time. This surgeon, Guy de Chauliac, writes “There are five sects of surgeons; the first follow Roger Rowland, &c., and apply poultices to all wounds and abscesses; the second follow Brumis and Theordoric, and use wine only; the third follow Saliceto and Langfranc, and treat wounds with ointments and soft plaisters; the fourth are Germans, who attend to the armies, and promiscuously use charms, potions, oils and wool; the fifth are old women and ignorant people, who in all cases have recourse to the saints.”

We next meet with the surgeon on active service in the reign of Henry V. That king was about to enter upon the campaign of Agincourt, and engaged “Mr. Nich. Colnet, phisitian, to serve him for one whole year, in the voyage then to be made (A.D. 1415), either to the Duchy of Guyenne or to France. He was to bring with him three archers. If the expedition went to Guyenne, he was to have for his own wages 40 marks, and 20 marks for each of his archers for the whole year; if to France, for his own wages, 1s. and for each of his archers 6d. a day, with regards.” By indenture, dated April 29, 1415, Henry also engaged Thomas Morsetde* and William Bradwardyn as surgeons. Morsetde was designated King’s surgeon, and agreed to attend himself and provide fifteen persons, of whom three were to be archers and the others “hommes de son mestier.” Nearly a month later he petitioned for an allowance of money to provide necessaries for his office, and a proper

---

* Morsetde was Sheriff of London in 1436, and Surgeon to Henry IV., Henry V., and Henry VI.
number of assistants and carriages. The king granted him twelve persons and “one chariot and deux somers.” Morestede was to be paid as a man at arms, 12d. by the day, and his twelve assistants and three archers each 6d., with the usual regards. One shilling a day was also the pay of an esquire in the same expedition. These head men (Colnet and Morestede) each got a quarter’s pay in advance; and that they might always have security for the next quarter, the King engaged to put into their hands, by way of pledges, as many jewels, as well as other articles, as might be equal to one quarter’s pay and subsistence. They were also entitled to hold prisoners to ransom and to plunder. If, however, the booty exceeded twenty pounds they were to give up one third to their kingly master. This was in accordance with the Ordinance of Richard II., which laid down “also that everi man paie the third part of his wynnyges to his lord and master.” Morestede was also directed to take with him “as many artisans as were needful to make certain surgical instruments which were required.” Many of the surgeons and artisans are said to have been pressed men. In the following year Henry issued a writ to Morestede and Bradwardyn worded thus: “Know ye that we have appointed to you, conjointly and severally, surgeons and other workmen, to take and provide without delay for the making of certain instruments necessary and fitting for your mystery, such as may be required for our present campaign beyond the sea.”

The actual medical staff which started on the expedition was, according to the list in Nicholas’ “Agincourt”:

“Mr. Nich. Colnet, Physician, with three archers.
Thomas Morestede, and
William Bradwardyn, Surgeons, each with nine more
20 men.”

In the list of Henry V.’s army of 32,000 men, we find mentioned “miners, gunners, armouers, painters, pavillion men, surgeons, grooms, purveyors, smiths, saddlers, &c.” According to the military code, drawn up at Mans by Henry V., to ensure discipline in the army, the classes of persons subject to the constable included, in order, “soldiers, shoemakers, tailors, barbers, physicians and washerwomen.”

The strength of Henry’s army at Agincourt is estimated by Henry’s chaplain, Elmham, to have been 900 men at arms, and 5,000 archers. Monstrelet says: 2,000 men at arms, and 15,000
The latter authority says the French numbered 150,000 men, and again, that there were six Frenchmen to each Englishman. The French lost 10,000 men in the battle; the English lost 1,600. On the morning after the battle, those prisoners who were not likely to recover from their wounds or who were not worth holding to ransom, were slain by the English. Shakespere says this was done owing to a false alarm that the French had been reinforced and were about to renew the attack. Fifteen surgeons were present at Agincourt.

We read that, at the Siege of Harfleur, just before the Battle of Agincourt, five thousand men became sick with dysentery and were sent back to England. A passage in a contemporary account of the campaign appears to show what was done with the sick when the army was on the march through the enemy's country. Thus we read that when Henry V. was marching towards Agincourt he came to Boyes, where a strong castle was held by the enemy. An agreement was made with the captain of the castle that the English should have free passage, and the English stayed in the village for the night. Next day the army resumed its march, and St. Remy, who was present, says: "the King of England had two gentlemen of his army very ill, whom he delivered to the said captain, and was to pay for their ransome, a horse for each." In other words the enemy took charge of the sick, agreeing to give them up on their recovery, if a ransome already agreed upon was paid.

Edward IV. came to the throne in 1461, and appointed William Hobbes to be his physician and surgeon. Grose quotes a manuscript which tells us that, amongst the different persons who engaged to serve the King in Normandy and France in the fourteenth year of Edward's reign, were the following physicians and surgeons:

Master Jacobus Fryle, King's Physician, 2s. per diem, with two servants at 6d. per diem.
Master William Hobbis, Physician and Surgeon of the King's body, 18d. per diem.
Richard Felde
Richard Elstie
John Smith
Richard Brightmore
Thomas Colard
Richard Chambre
Symon Coll
Surgeons every one at XII d. per diem.
This is an interesting list, for it shows us that there were four different rates of pay in the medical staff at this time, and two ranks of surgeons below that of the King's surgeon.

The Wars in France, and the Wars of the Roses, must have afforded great scope for the exercise of the professional abilities of the army physician and surgeon, but strange to say, the historical records of the period have not thought it necessary to mention them or their work. The same remark applies to the reign of Richard III.

Attempts had been made to control the practice of medicine and surgery. A guild of surgeons appears to have existed in London previous to 1369, and in 1423 an attempt was made to form a faculty of physicians and surgeons. The Company of Barber Surgeons was incorporated in 1461, and in 1492, "in the time of Hewe Clapton, Mayr.," King Henry VI. granted them arms.

In some instances pensions were granted to old soldiers who had been disabled by wounds in war. Thus it is recorded in the Parliamentary Rolls, 4th Edward, A.D. 1464, that "an annuity of four marks is given to John Sclatter for the loss of his hand at the battle of Wakefield, when under the command of the Duke of York, and his other hand so maimed that he could neither clothe nor feed himself."

Towards the end of the fifteenth century venereal disease first made its appearance in Europe. Introduced by Spanish soldiers in 1494, it rapidly spread to Naples, France and Germany. It reached Scotland in 1497, where its ravages were so great that James IV., that "cunning chirurgeon," issued a proclamation ordering those who were afflicted to go to the Island of Inchkeith, on pain of being branded on the cheek and being banished for three years.