

NIH Public Access

Author Manuscript

Epidemiology. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2013 May 01.

Published in final edited form as:

Epidemiology. 2013 March ; 24(2): 179–183. doi:10.1097/EDE.0b013e31827b5359.

Epidemiology's 350th Anniversary: 1662–2012

Alfredo Morabia

Center for the Biology of Natural Systems, Queens College, City University of New York, NY, and Department of Epidemiology, Mailman School of Public Health, Columbia University, New York, NY

Abstract

Between 1600 and 1700, sudden, profound, and multifarious changes occurred in philosophy, science, medicine, politics, and society. In an extremely convulsed century, these profound and convergent upheavals produced the equivalent of a cultural big bang, which opened a new domain of knowledge acquisition based on population thinking and group comparisons. In 1662, when John Graunt applied—for the first time—the new approach to the analysis of causes of death in London, he gave epidemiology a singular date of birth. This was exactly 350 years ago.

Is epidemiology really exactly 350 years old? You may ask: only 350 years? What about Hippocrates, the "father of epidemiology" who lived 2500 years ago? Or you may skeptically observe that epidemiology cannot be that old because John Snow, the "founder of epidemiology," was born only 200 years ago. You may also wonder whether the origins of any scientific discipline can be captured by a single birth date. Does physics, biology, or mathematics *have* a birth date? Is not epidemiology, such as these other sciences, the result of a historical process with well-defined milestones?

I cannot discuss how physics, biology, or mathematics was born, but epidemiology has a characteristic that differentiates it neatly from these other sciences: its mode of knowledge acquisition requires the prior existence of a concept of "population." Without an understanding that populations are more than aggregates of individuals, the comparison of groups of people makes no sense. And without group comparisons, there is no epidemiology.

Many aspects of human intelligence and medicine's ambitions have conspired against the emergence of population thinking. First, population thinking is not intuitive: it is not immediately obvious why the study of populations gives access to knowledge that is inaccessible from the study of individuals. This is in contrast with the trial-and-error approaches of Archimedes or Galileo, which make much more intuitive sense. Second, until recently, doctors were not attracted by population thinking. For most of recorded history, they have aspired to understand and treat individual patients on the basis of exact knowledge. To aggregate information from individual patients inevitably means the loss of some distinguishing information because no two persons get sick in exactly the same way for exactly the same reasons.

As a matter of fact, historians have not yet identified a doctor of antiquity or the Middle Ages, in Asia or in Europe, who grouped patients to obtain supraindividual information,

Copyright © 2013 by Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.

Correspondence: Alfredo Morabia, Center for the Biology of Natural Systems, Queens College, CUNY, 65-30 Kissena Boulevard, Flushing, NY 11367. alfredo.morabia@qc.cuny.edu.

The authors report no conflict of interest.

even though many of those doctors made eminent contributions to the evolution of the clinical sciences. For 4000 years, from the emergence of physicians until well into the 19th century, all civilized medical systems shared an approach to health and disease that can be characterized as holistic. This "antique" holistic medicine, to differentiate it from its modern revivals, considered health to be the result of a complex equilibrium between the human body and the constitution of a geographical area, that is, almost everything in the universe.¹ The symptoms of a patient were viewed as a result of a specific imbalance in this complex equilibrium. Doctors used all they knew about their patients to characterize this imbalance, and eventually to propose ways to correct it. In modern terms, this would be equivalent to explaining a patient's symptom (eg, abdominal pain) based on innumerable factors (eg, season, phase of the moon, personal temperament, wind direction) and all their multiway interactions. Holistic medicine focused on individuals and was incompatible with epidemiology. This was the case even in its most rational, nonreligious forms, such as Hippocratic medicine.^{2,3} Hence, at least until the 17th century, medicine did not use a concept of "exposure" (contextual factors were viewed as increasing a person's susceptibility to certain types of symptoms, but not as direct causes of symptoms) or a concept of "disease" that would stand out as the common diagnosis of a group of patients. Each patient was different.

The term antique holistic medicine is not derogatory. On the contrary, antique holistic doctors aspired to a personalized medicine that we continue to strive for today. It was in fact a humble retreat from these high goals—an acceptance of our ignorance of the exact determinants of individual health—that shook the foundations of the entrenched holistic—individualistic approach and ultimately gave birth to epidemiology.

Historically, epidemiology did not emerge progressively. It existed in 1662, but not in 1661. Epidemiology sprang from a singular event triggered by simultaneous and profound movements away from holism in several spheres of philosophy, science, medicine, and society. These movements were concentrated in a few decades of the 17th century and powerfully converged in 1662, exactly 350 years ago. Let us review the components of this explosive mixture of social and intellectual ferment leading to 1662.

CRISIS OF THE 17TH CENTURY AND THE PLAGUE

The first feature of the 17th century relevant to the emergence of epidemiology is the availability of population data about causes of death, in particular deaths from plague. The 17th century was an especially troubled time in Europe.⁴ A severe economic recession had produced famines, misery, sicknesses, and epidemics. There were terrible, complicated wars, including the Thirty Years' War. There were many social and political revolutions. Most failed, yet the Spanish Empire collapsed, and, during the English Civil War, King Charles I was beheaded. To reign in political instability, states began to assume political and military prerogatives that had previously belonged to local powers. However, these emerging absolutist states faced a major obstacle: plague.

After the Black Death of 1348 to 1350, outbreaks of plague recurred in Europe with increasingly tight periodicity between the 14th and the 17th centuries.⁵ These outbreaks became extremely disruptive to both political and economic life. Wealthy people, politicians, magistrates, and even doctors fled cities with each return of the plague. Soldiers were likewise securely sheltered in the countryside. Administrative and political institutions were paralyzed, with no authorities to quell rioting and looting.

The kings of England attempted to reduce the chaos that accompanied each outbreak of plague by monitoring the plague's progress. The Church of England was mandated to install a surveillance system for plague deaths at the level of local parishes. These first health-

related population data were the famous London Bills of Mortality.⁶ Elderly women, sometimes assisted by surgeons, identified cases by investigating the houses where deaths had occurred.⁷ This information was routed by the local parish clerk to the clerk of London, where it was printed and sold on a weekly basis. Thus, when those who were financially able to move out of London read in the Bills that plague deaths had seized the poor parishes, they could organize an ordered retreat, hopefully limiting the extent of the mayhem.

The Bills of Mortality played a decisive role in the birth of epidemiology because they became available for analysis as a series of health data collected in a relatively similar way, on a weekly basis, over several decades since 1603.

NEW IDEAS IN PHILOSOPHY, SCIENCE, AND MEDICINE

The second relevant feature of the 17th century was a simultaneous blossoming of fresh ideas in philosophy, science, and medicine, leading to new concepts of "exposure" and of "disease," and a drive away from the complexity of holistic thinking. The new worldview was compatible with population thinking and group comparisons.

A modern concept of exposure was formulated by Francis Bacon. In his health research agenda designed to prolong human life, he encouraged investigating the role of determinants that epidemiologists still study today: height and weight, date of birth, food, diet, behavior, exercise, housing, heredity, and medical treatments.⁸

Thomas Sydenham,⁹(p.92) meanwhile, made a decisive contribution to a concept of outcome. In the signs and symptoms shared by different sick people, he saw the manifestation of generic "diseases" with characteristic natural histories. Patients with the same disease could then be grouped and compared.

In addition, the drive toward simplification was best expressed by René Descartes in 1646.¹⁰ He proposed an approach to science and knowledge, now known as reductionism, that abruptly parted ways with the complexity of ancient holism. Descartes' central idea was to simplify working hypotheses, consider one factor at a time, ignore interactions, and rely on evidence rather than speculations.

In the holistic approach, a multiplicity of interacting causes divided populations into individuals. In the reductionist approach, individuals could be grouped according to a shared disease or a shared exposure, and then compared. Reductionism focused on one exposure and one outcome, as well as, eventually, sets of confounders.

Today, the qualifier "holistic" has positive connotations whereas the qualifier "reductionist" does not, especially in the context of medicine. Holistic medicine considers the complaints of the "entire" (*holos* in Greek) person, whereas reductionist medicine focuses on a symptom or on a diseased organ. However, medicine was holistic for 4000 years before it became reductionist. Reductionism was the indispensable step toward the implementation of group comparisons and, with it, the emergence of epidemiology.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE BILLS OF MORTALITY

The availability of population data and the development of a reductionist approach, combining Baconian and Cartesian ideas, created the conditions for the crucial step: the application of population thinking to health data.

John Graunt, a businessman admitted to the Royal Society, published a book in 1662 entitled *Natural and Political Observations Made Upon the Bills of Mortality.* In it, Graunt¹¹

In his analysis of the Bills, Graunt literally had to start from scratch. To make sense of the 50 years of weekly bills, maybe 2500 sheets originating from "several great confused Volumes," he produced the first known tables of health data.⁶ An example is shown in Figure 1. Figure 2 is a plot of some of Graunt's tabulated data. The shark-toothed evolution of plague deaths is quickly apparent to our modern minds. There were years with plague and others without. Some outbreaks were horrendous. In 1625 alone, Graunt computed that, after correction for misclassified plague deaths, the plague had killed 46,000 people—about 38,000 more than all other causes of death together.

However, this irregularity of plague outbreaks was what Graunt would have expected. He knew by experience that the plague had erratic behavior. What Graunt must have found much more surprising is a phenomenon that could not have been observed previously: the regularity of mortality from causes other than plague.

Imagine you are John Graunt. What would be your perception of the occurrence of death if you had never seen mortality statistics? Death on an individual level is haphazard and unpredictable. Why would death be regular and predictable on a population level? Even today, this question has no simple answer. Graunt may not have been able to explain it, but he was clearly fascinated by the predictable trends observed in his population data. He wrote,

Among the several Casualties some bear a constant proportion unto the whole number of Burials; such are Chronical diseases, and the diseases, whereunto the City is most subject.^{11 (II:19)}

The Chronical Diseases shew the ordinary temper of the Place, so that upon the proportion of Chronical Diseases seems to hang the judgment of the fitness of the Country for long Life.^{11 (II:15)}

The terminology is Baconian, but we are witnessing here the first report of observations derived from population health data. Graunt realized that some knowledge can be acquired only at the population level. Regularity of the causes of death during periods when London was free of epidemics provided a stable, "expected" number of deaths that he could then compare with the number observed during plague years. These comparisons also allowed him to identify outbreaks of specific causes of death, check the quality of the parish reports, and detect misclassifications of causes of death. Suddenly, Graunt had access to a feast of new information with which he jubilantly addressed an array of political and natural questions that had up to that time been unanswerable. This explains why, in Kenneth Rothman's words, "with this book Graunt added more to human knowledge than most of us can reasonably aspire to in a full career."¹²

Graunt's analyses gave him a clue to the origin of the plague. He observed that the irregularity of death rates distinguished the plague from the "chronical" causes of death. In 17th-century London, tuberculosis killed about 2000 people a year. Plague was different, it took 46,000 lives in 1625 and zero 4 years later. For Graunt, the contrast between the irregularity of plague deaths, which he described using deaths per week, and the regularity of the deaths from chronic diseases suggested that plague had an environmental origin:

[T]he Contagion of the Plague depends more upon the Disposition of the Air, then upon the Effluvia from the Bodies of Men. Which also we prove by the sudden

jumps, which the Plague hath made, leaping in one Week from 118 to 927: and back again from 993 to 258: and from thence again the very next Week to 852. The which effects must surely be rather attributed to change of the Air, then of the Constitution of Mens bodies. 11 (IV:11-12)

In Graunt's time, the Black Death was thought to have been provoked by a specific alignment of planets, and then transmitted by miasms (fetid gases) that emanated from the bodies of the sick and contaminated susceptible people who inhaled them. Hence, the habit of some doctors to fill long leather beaks with dry flowers and odoriferous plants, and place them under their nose when they attended plague patients (Figure 3). Graunt's analysis pointed to an environmental and fluctuating cause for the plague. Plague outbreaks were not synchronized with astrological (eg, specific planet alignments) or political (eg, coronations of kings) events.

IMPACT OF GRAUNT'S OBSERVATIONS

Graunt's book may have been a giant leap for epidemiology, but it was a much smaller step for society as a whole, at least in the short run. This work did not affect the practice of medicine or abolish beliefs in astrology. There are nonetheless several reasons to believe that this publication did not go unnoticed. First, the book sold well enough to justify several publications in the 17th century. Second, written in the aftermath of the Restoration of the English monarchy, the book was explicitly intended to help the government better manage societal and health-related questions. His conclusion was the following:

That a clear knowledge of all these particulars, and many more, whereat I have shot but at rovers, is necessary in order to good, certain, and easie Government, and even to balance Parties, and factions both in Church and State. But whether the knowledge thereof be necessary to many, or fit for others, then the Sovereign, and his chief Ministers, I leave to consideration.^{11 (last paragraph of The Conclusion)}

Third, by a puzzling coincidence, the last great epidemic of London took place in 1665. Could the subsequent disappearance of the plague in any way be related to the publication of Graunt's book? For example, did Graunt's quantitative demonstration that plague outbreaks were apparently related to a fluctuating environmental factor stimulate public authorities to more rigorously control the traffic of boats and people coming from plague-ridden areas? Some historians have stressed the role of quarantine and cordons sanitaires after 1662 in the withdrawal of the plague from Europe,¹³ but other theories involve a change in the rat population (rat fleas transmit the plague) or the replacement of wooden houses by brick ones, which more effectively separated humans from rats.^{5,14}

Whatever its immediate consequences, the 1662 publication by Graunt combined population thinking and comparisons of population data across time, in an unprecedented fashion, and one that bears the unmistakable hallmarks of epidemiologic thinking. The book was the culmination of an extraordinary convergence of historical events, including strong political will; new ideas in philosophy, science, and medicine; and the availability of population health data that were necessary for epidemiology to emerge. A line of thought that had been literally inconceivable became suddenly compelling. This was 350 years ago.

Acknowledgments

Supported by National Library of Medicine 1G13LM010884-01A1.

References

- Porter, R. The Greatest Benefit to Mankind: A Medical History of Humanity. London, UK: Harper Collins; 1997.
- 2. Jouanna, J. Hippocrates (Medicine and Culture). Baltimore, MD: The Johns Hopkins University Press; 1998.
- 3. Morabia A. Book review of "Public Health: The Development of a Discipline". Am J Epidemiol. 2012; 176:562–565.
- 4. Trevor-Roper H. The general crisis of the 17th century. Past Present. 1959; 16:31-64.
- 5. Biraben, J. Les hommes et la peste en France et dans les pays européens et méditerranéens (Civilisations et sociétés). Paris, France: Mouton; 1975.
- Rusnock, AA. Vital Accounts. Quantifying Health and Population in Eighteenth-Century England and France. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press; 2002.
- Hull, C. Introduction. In: Hull, V., editor. The Economic Writings of Sir William Petty. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press; 1899. p. lxxx-xci.
- 8. Bacon, F. History of Life and Death (1638). Whitefish, MT: Kessinger; 2010.
- 9. Sydenham, T. Anatomie, 1668. In: Dewhurst, K., editor. Dr Thomas Sydenham (1624–1689). Berkeley, CA: University of California Press; 1966. p. 85-93.
- Descartes, R. Discourse on Method and Related Writings (1637). London, UK: Penguin Books; 2000.
- 11. Graunt, J. [Accessed 5 December 2012.] Natural and Political Observations Made Upon the Bills of Mortality; 1662. Available at: http://www.edstephan.org/Graunt/bills.html
- 12. Rothman KJ. Lessons from John Graunt. Lancet. 1996; 347:37–39. [PubMed: 8531550]
- Slack P. The disappearance of plague: an alternative view. Econ Hist Rev. 1981; 34:469–476. [PubMed: 11614427]
- 14. Appleby AB. The disappearance of plague: a continuing puzzle. Econ Hist Rev. 1980; 33:161–173. [PubMed: 11614424]
- Graunt, J. Observations Upon the Bills of Mortality. Fifth Edition of 1676. In: Hull, V., editor. The Economic Writings of Sir William Petty. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press; 1899. p. 313-435.
- 16. Fuerst, P. Dress against death in Rome. Year 1656 [German]. Nuremberg: Paulus Fuerst; 1656.

NIH-PA Author Manuscript

10 In 20	1049 rears.	7 8559 15759 23784 1306	15 99 65 7818 7818	-2 ĝ	689 3364 82106	1389 598 4487	9073 22	30 9623 827	384	74 576 392 392	323 5	28886	23 5 1	8 7 8 8	22 Z	813.3 %	255	845	581 201 201	2633	504 27 68	3 " 5	937	38.8	42 357	385	54.5	
1629	1659) 4				2	- (1 (1	06 Q	5 2	4	- 14	2	0.4	-	m 6				-	~ ж	46	(1 - 00	292	
		237 237 17	16 1597 1597 19	114	133 490 4519	247 43 7197	1324	1302	55 2	2785 29 83	34 28 3	188 10 228	148 65 9	5 S 28	528	53 53 103	512	343	657 369 21	115	141	20 1	5	216 401	01 81 8 10 8 10	15 124	63 4190 2	
1655	1658	1832 3680 4363 445	14 14 1161 26	3 150	161 839 4788	497 140 2157	3377	2982	79	8 3361 27 130	36 2 2	17 225 6 428	194 102 21	191 16	259 259	27 215 87 33	\$2.8 \$2.8	8 % %	888	30 7	144	2 2	247	247 644	3915	123 69	4	age 406
1651	1654	1587 3452 4903 421	9 12 2181 31	157	244 769 4910	359 77 9914 1	2656	2321 182	76	8 2755 34 81	255 c	35 ²¹² 35	207 94 21	39 39	4 <u>5</u> 5 4	61 82 13 61 82 13 61 82 13	22 28	278	585 585 45	132	115	2 5	173	295 671	3436	27 224	4	face 🌶
1647 1648	1650	1342 3336 3865 280	5 11 1422 24	2 105	190 498 4678	341	2198 01	1538	26	1913 29 80 80	0.2584	28 2 8 2	217 94 13	213 47		4290 87	389	2 8 3	36	n <u>7</u> n	65	61	- 4	121 613	100 2502	17 424	6	able to
1633 1634	1636	2005 2814 6235 85	14 7 1466 19	4 2 0	8 668 8453	87 207 8266	1734 8 8	1734	52	21 69 48 48	0.458 s	197 35 315	10 201 7 7	356	1 0 0	15. 77 0401	887	791 55	30	34	8	4	185	6 721	13 2632 65	93 16 74	233	This T
1629	1632	1793 2475 4418 75	54 16 1587 25	85	15 590 9277	105	964 01 y	139	62	27 27 83 53	37 14 2	184 282 282	3 2 8 9	392 28 28	127	1599 1	8 = 8	3 22	5 <u>3</u> 8	33	16	14	114	445	23 1751 68	95 7 105	221	
	1636	523 714 2360	330 330	30 3	74 230 1895	50 57 2477	20°	389 45	13	8 24 22	~~ ² ∞	130 130	88"	8 2 2	1 2 0	8 14 0400	24	397	104 13	25	29		45	371	1207	ŝ	3	
	1635	507 794 1622 26	346 12	- 2	163 2113	37 50 2080	418	329 32	13	293 24 12	1 5000	7 4 5 4	20 20	n 86 u	27	2 <u>5</u> 5	45	245	10 22	8	32		33	132	539 27	34 27	78	
	1634	475 623 1279 35	513.3.4	30	143	54	20 Y	32	13	1354 8 17	375	45 62 62	20 41	22	33	2 1 2 0		125	4 8 8 4 8 7		61		49	114	454	355 31	62	
	1633	50 704 253	6 278 1	27	132 2130	45	22I 0 I	37	13	а <u>6 5</u> г	44	S 5 3	0 4 % %	85 4 82	21	∞ 4	21	22	84	6	61	-	28	104	632 23 23	[∞] δ u ō	4%	
	1632	445 671 1108 17	13 348 5	28	1 171 2268	1797	241	34 28	81	531 6 12	- 4 : 2	64 8 8 5 74 8 58 5 74 8 58 5 74 8 59 5 74 5 75 5 75 5 75 5 75 5 75 5 75 5 75	386	87 5	80	~ ~ 500	36	38	8 ⁶ 0		48		ŝ.	86	470 o 34 34	40 1 27	62	
S.	1631	410 661 1115	10 5 352 7	23	4 112 2035	1713 1713	2 -	279 29	12	2 2 28 4	° 2 °	35 13 73	18 18	8°9 7	5	3 13 17 274	26	°28	66 4	6	20		58	149	335 335 14	17	37	
E	1630	439 712 1091 36	8 438 10	14	4 157 2378	57 58 1910	87	²⁵² 33	13	12 33 40 12	∽8∞	828	25	= 12	61	10 23 1317	24	<u>%</u> %	72 6	24.7			39	157	505	23 4 31	59	9516
L	1629	499 579 956 22	13 5 449 3	20	6 150 2596	48 10 1827	23	²³⁵ 43	61	1823	- ~ ~ ~ ~	58 10 47	55 -	° 7°	42	471	26	32	4 .	5	23		35	63	245 8	15	63	ton. I
ЧT	1660	544 1095 2148 67	8 251 56	52	194 1123	167 24 3414	4	872 48	81	354 35 31	0 4 4 9 9	892 8	54 4 4 4	o 77 4	* ***	2 2 3 2	10	146	249 289	12	²⁰ 48	. 4	30	214 192	1008	0	-	e Creicl
5	1659	421 909 2303 91	346 346	63	73 226 858	33 2982 745	742 6	646 57	2	1523 2 51	4855	102 102	0,285	8 4 4	- 01	36.14.70	253	368	210	95	19		22	186 202	839 839	∞	-	ox. Se
A S	1658	467 1176 1800 138	233 233 4	35	27 225 1144	31 3610 3610	1 4	931 60	18	53 = 50	558	134 - 7°	282	- 5 20	3.8	1 2 2 4	91	126	228 18	82	47		Ś	277 218	1036	8 S	6	small r
C .	1657	463 869 999	362 362	34 3	19 236 1162	113 30 2757	3	631 63	20	835 9 25	24 0 8	* 6 ~ %	53 S	38	5	∿ 1 5 4 √	17	56	203 19	82	6 4	ŝ	72	129	878	16	-	confluent
6 0)	1656	419 892 875 102	3683	31	81 201 1393	120 58 3184	1027 I	706	53	8233 2453 2554	- 220	41 122	64 ² 43	64 20	153	0 2 2 0	315	13 22	212 20 20	12	34	-	57	145	8611	27		ume for 6
Tabl	1655	483 743 689 92	4 168 10	73	177 1089	26 21 %	702	43 664	61	4 1294 3 29	-∞04,	2 ° 2	52 9	9 ° 29) = 6	0.00 12 00	01	15	166	Io3	23	ŝ	49	94 128	803	2	-	bly a n
se	1654	433 974 1371 86	386 7	37	72 192 1343	101 36 2868 2868	828	30 20	21	- ⁸ 12 - ⁸ 20	976	° 5 ° 8	58 26	65 12 14	10.0	36.3	23	6° 6	178	44	32	, -	38	212	1131	14		¹ Prob
R	1653	384 864 282 118	5 203	361	53 158 1050	80 2286	8 -	617 53	19	²⁰ ¹ ³ ⁴	515	57 57	57 36 3	62 69	∞ ⊢	60 30 a	12	18	135	4	25	, ,	4	178	169	53.3		
	1652	381 834 1212 111	762 762 8	53 2	51 213 1280	102 2410 652	053 I	556 50	12	3 1279 9 20	v 4 4 6	43 105	45 20 4	72 11 6	62	20 23 10	61	\$ 8 8	138	43	32	6	41	67	305	86 6	11	
	1651	389 780 1038 206	6 6 833 11	31	68 206 1237	76 2350	203	44 49	24	525 7 21	wr <u>r</u> o	41 00%	42 23 4	65 87 87	33	4 8 8 8 8	23	225	134	29	30	I	20	104	602	* ⁸	N	
	1650	351 696 74 74	3 289 5	I 61	°458	82 1988	493	50g	43	584 1888 1893	014	59 49	94 49 4	59	33	28 28.	20	5-5	° 2 2	21	91	7	- 82	123	598	65		
	1649	327 889 751 64	1 802 10	31	54 114 1065	²³⁸⁸	530 1	30 ⁴²¹	29	2 0 0 S	- 29 21	39	33	- <u>2</u> 9-	ς,	36.7	13	525	115	12 22	41	00	29	136	540	3105	-	
	1648	329 835 884 74	1 2 176 6	29	28 106 1254	71	491	434 40	41	2 eq 9 °	. 0 0 0 4	35	- 26 26	46 18 13	6	22 21 611	26 3	4= 2	32	20	1 1	4	42	²⁹	597 47	6 107		
	1647	335 916 1260 68	155 33	261	1369 1369	103 2423 681	58	185 47	80	56 ³ 33	4051	57	27 3	12 23	50	3 25 27 3597	8	5±5		32	13 15		45	29	767 62	1 147	-	
	The Years of our Lord	Abortive and Stil-born Aged Ague and Fever Apoplex and Suddenly	Bleated Blasted Bloody Flux, Scouring and Flux Burnt and Scalded	Calenture Cancer, Gangrene and Fistula	Wour Canker, Sore-mouth and Thrush Chrisoms and Infants	Colick and Wind Cold and Cough Consumption and Cough	Convuision Cramp Cut of the Stone	Dropsie and Tympany Drowned Evocative drinking	Executed Bath	Falling-Sickness Flox ¹ and small Pox Found dead in the Streets French-Pox	Franced Gout Grief Hanged, and made-away themselves	aundice aw-faln impostume	Killed by several Accidents King's Evil	Luctures Lunatick Meagrom	Mother	Dverlaid and Starved at Nurse Palsie	Pleurisie Poisoned	Purples and Spotted Fever Quinsie and Sore-throat Sickers	Mother, rising of the Lights Rupture ical'd head	scurvy Smothered and stifled	ores, utcers, broken and bruised Shot (Limbs Spleen	Shingles starved	stone and Strangury iciatica	stopping of the Stomach burfet	Feeth and Worms	/ omiting Vorms	uddenly	

FIGURE 1.

"Table of Casualties" indicating causes of deaths in London for some years between 1629 and 1660, compiled from the Bills of Mortality. Reproduced from Hull 1899.¹⁵(p.406–407)

Epidemiology. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2013 May 01.

¹ Probably a name for confluent small pox. See Creighton, 1., 462-463.

Page 8



FIGURE 2.

Evolution of plague deaths, deaths from causes other than plague, and births in London between 1604 and 1661. Reanalysis of data from Graunt.¹¹

Morabia



