



Perspective

HISTORY OF MEDICINE

A National Medical Response to Crisis — The Legacy of World War II

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This August marks the 75th anniversary of the conclusion of World War II. In history's largest, most destructive war, an estimated **80 million people**, or roughly **3%** of the world population,

died. Nearly **420,000 Americans** were **killed**, and 670,000 were wounded. These grim numbers were mitigated, however, by an incalculable number of lives saved as a result of medical care. Many of the advances that were made would persist long after the war concluded — a silver lining that we hope will have parallels in our current struggle with Covid-19.

A reductive argument that “war is good for medicine” would minimize the horrific human cost of combat. Yet multiple scholars have highlighted how the urgency, aura of crisis, national attention, and material resources inherent in organized armed conflict have catalyzed developments in medicine and surgery.

George Washington successfully **inoculated** his army against **smallpox**, demonstrating the value and efficacy of that **public health intervention**. **Walter Reed** helped elucidate the epidemiology of **typhoid** and **yellow fevers** during the **Spanish–American War** and its immediate aftermath, which led to effective control methods. Efforts to care for wounded veterans after **World War I** contributed to the rise and professionalization of **physical and occupational therapy**.

But the unprecedented scale and intensity of the Second World War created a particularly fertile environment for U.S. medical and surgical innovation. Moreover, whereas government involvement

had generally dissipated after previous wars, World War II marked the commencement of a long-term, deeply integrated relationship between government and medicine that continues to shape the U.S. research agenda.

The story of **penicillin**, one of the war's most successful and best-known medical developments, highlights the involvement of the federal government in translational research.¹ In 1928, British physician Alexander Fleming had noted by chance that the mold penicillium appeared to kill bacteria — a discovery that was publicized around the world but then lingered untapped for a decade. In 1941, the U.S. government, contacted by Oxford researchers Howard Florey and Norman Heatley and recognizing this drug's potential, sponsored a national effort to discover and implement a more efficient production system, an undertaking on the scale of

the Manhattan Project. By D-Day in 1944, there was abundant penicillin for wounded soldiers, and by 1945, both service members overseas and civilians at home had ready access to the drug. The requisite scientists, laboratories, and production facilities would never have joined together in peacetime or through private industry alone. Other therapies, such as chloroquine and radioisotopes, have similar histories.

In addition to providing massive resources to stimulate innovation, the government leveraged its hierarchical chain of command to deliver and use new technologies at unprecedented scales, as exemplified by the proliferation of blood transfusions.² The devastation of World War I had led to active investigation of shock, and research elucidated the crucial role of whole blood. Yet daunted by the logistics of supplying fresh blood to forces fighting across the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, the U.S. military in World War II initially relied on substitutes such as albumin. Publicly declaring the situation unacceptable in a widely read 1943 *New York Times* article, Edward Churchill, the chief surgical consultant for the Mediterranean theater of operations, helped transition the military to blood-based resuscitation. This switch required a herculean logistical effort in the United States to collect, type, and transfer blood to far-flung military hospitals. By war's end, fresh whole blood was widely available to U.S. casualties.

The ability to alter practice by fiat and the organization required for implementing such developments globally and rapidly similarly advanced the surgical management of colon injuries and psychiatric care for battle fatigue, among other examples. And such

changes endured long after the war. Before the war, for instance, blood banks were uncommon and chiefly local affairs, serving the needs of individual institutions. The processes institutionalized in World War II, with the American Red Cross assuming a leadership role, ultimately led to a network of blood banks in a decentralized yet national system that effectively supplied communities throughout the country with needed blood.

World War II also fundamentally transformed health care provision nationwide. By rewarding physicians' board certification with rank and pay, the military catalyzed medical specialization in post-war America. Equally important, it remade the Veterans Administration (VA; now Veterans Affairs) hospital system.³ Whereas the VA had previously focused on patients with tuberculosis and mental illness, after the war, it came to manage a range of acute and chronic conditions. Increasingly affiliated with academic medical centers in the 1950s, VA hospitals proliferated and broadened their capabilities to create a functionally parallel, government-run health care system that now treats approximately 10 million veterans per year.

The war similarly stimulated the expansion of private health insurance. During a 4-year wage freeze, U.S. companies began attracting employees by offering health insurance — a previously rare benefit that brought coverage to millions of workers and their dependents and fundamentally reshaped the delivery of health care in this country.

The government's involvement in medical research outlasted the war. Before the 1940s, the federal government had had little interest in or influence on medicine

during peacetime; what minimal research funding existed came from private sources. Today, the National Institutes of Health alone provides about \$41.7 billion in annual research support. In recent years, the U.S. military has separately spent about \$50 billion per year on health care, including \$2 billion on research — accounting for a sizable percentage of the national research budget.⁴ Although much of this attention is focused on military concerns such as trauma, in other arenas, such as antimalarial drugs and cold injury, the military has led investigative efforts decades after civilian attention has faded. Just as a military-industrial complex arose in the 1950s, a parallel military-medical complex emerged that leveraged the Cold War's quasi-wartime footing to marshal significant resources and shape the evolution of U.S. medicine.

For the past few months, the world has been dealing with another global crisis, the Covid-19 pandemic. Politicians, clinicians, and the public have been quick to draw analogies with war, describing a “battle” against an “unseen enemy,” led by a “wartime president.” War and pandemics clearly differ. Attention during a pandemic focuses on a single disease rather than on the myriad medical problems created by warfare. Commercial interests and personal freedoms vie with public health considerations, without regard for the imperative of military victory. An unruly, disorganized, international mass of civilians account for the bulk of patients, and they are treated in independent health systems that don't coordinate with one another and thus lack the benefits that a martial command structure provides. Moreover, such comparisons

