landmark advance in clinical science: the 500-bed Clinical Center in Bethesda, Maryland, a world-renowned center for clinical research.

Scheele’s skills in conflict management were put to the test with the controversy that erupted after the release of the Salk polio vaccine in 1955. There was intense public pressure to release the vaccine quickly, and a breakdown in testing procedures at one of the six pharmaceutical company production sites, created the “Cutter Incident.” Some children who had received the Cutter Laboratory vaccine developed polio. Scheele immediately brought national leaders together and they quickly diagnosed and solved the problem, thus minimizing delay in vaccinating America’s children. The effectiveness of Scheele’s management of this politically explosive issue was recognized publicly when Eisenhower reappointed Scheele as surgeon general.

By November 1955, children who had received Salk vaccine had 67 to 90 percent fewer paralytic polio attacks. In May 1956 Scheele and Salk addressed the American Medical Association and predicted that mass vaccination of children was the dream that, if realized, could lead to a “final conquest” of polio. The last cases of paralytic polio in the United States were reported in 1979.

Scheele retired from the Public Health Service in 1956 and another Indiana native, Leroy E. Burney, became surgeon general. Scheele became president of Warner-Lambert Research Institutes, but he was often called on to consult on national and international health issues. In 1962 Attorney General Robert Kennedy oversaw secret negotiations with Fidel Castro to release 1,180 prisoners held in Cuba following the April 17, 1961, U.S. invasion of Cuba at the Bay of Pigs. Kennedy met with Eugene Beesley of Eli Lilly, who represented the U.S. Pharmaceutical Manufacturer’s Association, to gain its support for medical drugs-for-prisoners’ exchange. A friend of both President John F. Kennedy and Robert F. Kennedy, Scheele was asked to meet with Castro to answer his questions about the drug inventory under review. Scheele joined the small negotiation team in Havana at a pivotal time, and their success was rewarded with the return of the prisoners; President Kennedy thanked Scheele for his “energetic and devoted participation in the rescue program.”

When asked in 1989 by Otis R. Bowen, former Indiana governor and at time Secretary of the Department of Health and Human Services, to reflect upon his distinguished career, Scheele said three things gave him the greatest satisfaction: creation of the National Library of Medicine on NIH grounds, approval of the polio vaccine, and the building the Clinical Center at NIH.

At his death at eighty-five in 1993, scholars suggested that another legacy be added to this list: Scheele’s raising the once obscure position of the U.S. Surgeon General to national and international prominence by speaking forcibly and clearly on the importance of science and public health in America. Scheele closely adhered to the adage: “Knowing is not enough; we must apply; Willing is not enough; we must do.”

STEPHEN J. JAY

For Further Reading


Schweitzer, Ada Estelle

1872–June 2, 1951

Advocate for pre- and postnatal care of infants and head of Indiana’s Division of Infant and Child Hygiene.

Ada Schweitzer, leading proponent of pre- and postnatal care of infants and positive eugenics, was born in Lagrange County, Indiana in 1872. After attending Michigan State Normal College, and subsequently teaching for several years, Schweitzer entered Indiana University’s medical college. She graduated in 1902 and soon began the work that would be her legacy to the state.

Schweitzer had studied bacteriology while in medical school, with a special emphasis on diseases that affected pregnant women and their babies. Not only did her work lead to opportunities to speak and present at national conferences about the subject, but it also led to a job at the Indiana State Laboratory. Here, she studied the impact of diseases such as malaria, typhoid fever, and diphtheria in the state, but also expressed an
interested in the spread and prevention of “social diseases.” It was here as well that she caught the attention of the very influential Doctor John Hurty, who, in 1906, gave her a platform from which to work for nearly a quarter of a century.

Hurty, secretary of the state board of health from 1896 to 1922, was a leading advocate of progressive reforms (both medicinal and political) as well as a eugenicist. Indeed, the reforms he advocated married well with the “science of the well born,” including helping to craft the historic eugenic sterilization law in 1907. While it is likely that Schweitzer had encountered both strains of reformist thought before, it was under Hurty that they were encouraged to blossom and where “hygiene” was able to take on a reformist connotation to address societal ills in her work. Originally tasked with pediatric infectious diseases, by the 1910s Schweitzer became focused on children’s health. She believed that better babies could be produced by better rearing as well as “superior breeding” by the wellborn. And she soon became the state’s leading advocate for such a cause.

Early twentieth-century Indiana was home to a host of public-health initiatives keyed to eugenics. For Schweitzer, reading the reports and findings generated by Hurty and his allies, especially those from the Eugenics Records Office and the Indiana Committee on Mental Defectives, seemed to indicate that many poor, rural Hoosiers were living in squalor and rearing children unprepared both intellectually and physically for the demands of the modern world. While some might see in such reports the need for sterilization, Schweitzer saw a chance for education and to increase the health of the oft-maligned poor, while also showcasing the middle-class values she embodied. As head of Indiana’s Division of Infant and Child Hygiene, created in part from state and federal grants, Schweitzer had the perfect platform from which to act.

Starting in 1920, the state board of health, under Schweitzer’s direction, sponsored a Better Babies Contest at the Indiana State Fair. The goal was to help educate the public, especially parents, about raising healthier children. For twelve years the contests were a popular and well-publicized part of the fair. Babies were separated into groups based on age, sex, and place of residence. Doctors looked over the entrants—all adorned in matching togas—and ranked the babies. They were then rated by development, height, weight, mental aptitude, and checked over by a team of doctors and nurses, all with standardized forms to be filled out, which might be crossed-checked with forms that parents had to fill out as part of the enrolling process, generating a record used not only for judging, but also for the families of the contestants. Although scores were kept high, comments on the health of each child was medically accurate. Under Schweitzer’s close scrutiny, the contests were run fairly and with a good deal of precision year in and year out.

There were benefits to the Better Babies idea, among them that infant mortality in Indiana dropped considerably. That being said, Schweitzer was also a firm believer in what later scholars labeled as negative eugenics, including advocating for limiting the procreation rights of some Hoosiers, as well as tightening marriage laws to prevent the breeding of “any person who is not well born.” The very notion of breeding and judging babies, as if they were another category of species to be viewed at the State Fair, was not lost on either supporters or detractors of the contests. Likewise, the Better Babies contests tended to exclude both African American and immigrant babies. Indeed, the contests helped go a long way in normalizing the very concept of eugenics for many Hoosiers.

Schweitzer used her time at the state board to write extensively about the topic of children’s health. Among her writings include “Infant Conservation” (1919), “Child Hygiene and the Doctor” (1920), “Vitamins and Health” (1928), and “A Doctor Looks at a Child’s Teeth” (1932). These were in addition to various “notes from the field” as well as her own pamphlet writing for the Better Baby contests. She was considered among the leading experts in the field and did not confine herself merely to the State Fair, traveling the state speaking to civic groups and meetings across Indiana making the case for better pediatric care. Schweitzer also spearheaded “mothers’ classes,” reaching thousands of pregnant Hoosier moms-to-be with her message of the importance of prenatal and baby care.

Her career largely came to an end because of the Great Depression and the shift in both Indiana’s politics and economy. A staunch Republican, Schweitzer found herself out of a job shortly after the Democratic administration of Paul V. McNutt came to power in 1933. She largely faded from public view, devoting more time to the Methodist
Church and less time to her signature reforms. The Better Baby Contests also did not survive the Depression. In many respects a pioneering woman in the field of public health, Schweitzer died in June 1951. Her legacy of promoting better health for infants and mothers, influenced as it was by eugenics, continued on.

JASON S. LANTZER

For Further Reading


Scott, William Edouard

March 11, 1884–May 16, 1964

Noted African American artist, muralist, and portrait painter.

William Edouard Scott was once described “as a Rembrandt of race artists, a master wielder of brush and pen, whose love of beauty and high ideals are apparent in every one of his master pieces” He is best known for his portraits, murals and Haitian scenes. He sought to portray African Americans in a positive and uplifting way, in an effort “to perpetuate a type of painting and create racial pride.”

Scott was born in Indianapolis in 1884, the son of Caroline Russell and Edouard Miles Scott, who worked in a wholesale grocery business. William studied art at Manual Training High School under OTTO STARK, one of the five famous impressionist painters known as the Hoosier Group. After graduating from Manual he returned to assist Stark in the art department. In 1904 Scott enrolled at the Art Institute of Chicago, where he began painting some of his famous murals.

Scott was awarded the Frederick Magnus Brand Prize for $50, which he used to support his first trip to France. He became closely associated with Henry O. Tanner, an acclaimed African American painter who left the United States to escape racial prejudice. Tanner encouraged Scott’s interest in blacks as subject matter. Scott returned to Chicago, where he exhibited and sold some of his artwork but returned to France two other times.

He studied at the Académie Julian and the Colarossi Académie. In 1912 and 1913 he had paintings accepted at the Salon de la Societe des Artistes Francais in Paris and at the Royal Academy in London. Scott’s work in France focused on scenes that emphasized peasant life, a direct influence of Tanner. Two of his most famous French works were painted at Étaples, Tanner’s summer home. One of those, La Misère (1913), was awarded the Tanqueray Prize of 125 francs. Another of the paintings, Rainy Night, Étaples (1912), was purchased by the John Herron Art Institute and is now at the Indianapolis Museum of Art.

With the outbreak of World War I, Scott returned to the United States. He painted numerous murals in Chicago and Indianapolis. In 1915 Booker T. Washington invited Scott to visit Tuskegee Institute. While there he painted several portraits of Washington. Years later he combined a portrait of Washington with George Washington Carver, famous for his work at Tuskegee with peanuts and sweet potatoes. One art historian observed “by placing these two prominent African Americans in the same portrait, Scott emphasized the importance of working together for the betterment of the black population.” Scott painted more than thirty portraits of prominent black Americans including a posthumous portrait of Frederick Douglass, social reformer, orator and abolitionist leader. One of Scott’s most famous murals features Douglass. Entitled Douglass Appealing to Lincoln, Scott painted it when he was chosen in 1943 as one of seven artists in a juried contest for the Recorder of Deeds building in Washington, D.C. Scott was the only black artist among the finalists. A noted art historian said that Scott’s numerous murals “allowed black people, for the first time in the history of American culture, to see themselves through the eyes of their own artists.”

Highlighting pride in the race was also evident in a series of murals illustrating seventy-five years of black history Scott completed for the 1940 American Negro Exposition in Chicago. Some of the titles of the murals were Haiti; Negro Congressmen, depicting the seven post-Civil War congressmen; and One Way Out, featuring Washington, Carver, and philanthropist Julius Rosenwald. Although he was not black, Rosenwald, former president of Sears Roebuck and Company, had donated millions of dollars to support the education of southern black children. Ernest L. Heitkamp, art editor and critic, said that Scott’s canvases for the exposition “showed