

CLASSIC ARTICLE

The Need for a New Medical Model: A Challenge for Biomedicine

George L. Engel

At a recent conference on psychiatric education, many psychiatrists seemed to be saying to medicine, "Please take us back and we will never again deviate from the 'medical model.'" For, as one critical psychiatrist put it, "Psychiatry has become a hodgepodge of unscientific opinions, assorted philosophies and 'schools of thought,' mixed metaphors, role diffusion, propaganda, and politicking for 'mental health' and other esoteric goals" (1). In contrast, the rest of medicine appears neat and tidy. It has a firm base in the biological sciences, enormous technologic resources at its command, and a record of astonishing achievement in elucidating mechanisms of disease and devising new treatments. It would seem that psychiatry would do well to emulate its sister medical disciplines by fully embracing once and for all the medical model of disease. But I do not accept such a premise. Rather, I contend that all medicine is in crisis and, further, that medicine's crisis derives from the same basic fault as psychiatry's, namely, adherence to a model of disease no longer adequate for the scientific tasks and social responsibilities of either medicine or psychiatry. The importance of how physicians conceptualize disease derives from how such concepts determine what are considered the proper boundaries of professional responsibility and how they influence attitudes toward and behavior with patients. Psychiatry's crisis revolves around the question of whether the categories of human distress with which it is concerned are properly considered "disease" as currently conceptualized and whether exercise of the traditional authority of the physician is

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appropriate for their helping functions. Medicines crisis is the logical inference that since diseases are defined in terms of parameters, physicians need not be concerned with problems which lie outside medicines responsibilities and the Rockefeller Foundation seminar on the concept of health, one author urged that medicine concentrate on the real diseases and losses in the psychosociological underbrush. The problem be solved with problems that have arisen from the abdication of the theologian and the philosopher. "Another participant called for a disentanglement of the organic elements of diseases from the psychosociological elements of human malfunction," arguing that medicine should deal with the former only (2).



Psychiatrists have responded to their crisis tentatively, opposing their positions. One would speak from the field of medicine, while the other would adhere strictly to the medical model and limit psychiatry's field to behavioral disorders.

Qualitative vs Quantitative

qualitatively different provided that mental diseases are as
arise largely from natural rather than metaphysical, in-
stantial or societal causes. "Natural" is defined as
functions, either biochemical or neurophysiological in nature." On the

biological systems are physical in nature (4). They are devised by medical scientists for the study of a scientific model; that is, it involved a shared set of rules of conduct based on the scientific method and consistent for research. Not all models are scientific. Indeed, broadly a model is nothing more than a belief system utilized to explain phenomena, to make sense out of what is puzzling or disturbing more socially disruptive or individually upsetting the phenomenon, presenting the need of humans to devise explanatory efforts at explanation constitute devices for social adaptation. par excellence exemplifies a category of natural phenomena urgently demanding explanation (5). As Fabrega has pointed out, disease is its generic sense is a linguistic term used phenomena that members of all social groups, at all times of man, have been exposed to. When people of various intellectual and cultural perspectives use terms analogous in mind, among other things, that the phenomena in question involve a person-centered, harmful, and undesirable deviation or discomfort... as associated with impairment or discomfort" (5). Since condition is not desired it gives rise to a need for corrective latter involve beliefs and explanations about disease as conduct to rationalize treatment actions. These constitute substitute devices to resolve, for the individual as well as for which the sick person lives, the crises and disease (6). Such culturally derived belief systems constitute models, but they are not scientific models referred to as popular or folk models. As efforts at contrast with scientific models, which are primarily motivated scientific investigation. The historical facts we have to face in modern Western society biomedicine not only has for the scientific study of disease, it has also specific perspective about disease, that is, our folk biomedical model is now the dominant folk model of disease Western world (5, 6). In our culture the attitudes and belief systems physicians are molded by this model long before they professional education, which in turn reinforces it with clarifying how it is useful for social adaptation contrast scientific research. The biomedical model has thus become a comparative, its limitations easily overlooked. In brief, it has the status of dogma. In science, a model is revised or abandoned if it fails to account adequately for all the data. A dogma, on the other hand, requires that discrepant data be forced to fit the model or be excluded. Biomedical dogma requires that all disease, including mental

eas can be conceptualized in terms of derangement of underlying phys-
 cal mechanisms. This permits only two alter-
 ations: either the disorder can be reconciled with the reductionist, phys-
 ical behavioral phenomena of disorders, or it must be conceptualized in ter-
 ms of physicochemical principles, and the exclusionist physicians that
 never is not capable of being so explained must be excluded from the
 category of disorders. The reductionists concede that some disorders
 in behavior belong in the spectrum of disorders. They categorize
 them as mental disorders and designate psychiatry as a separate
 discipline. The exclusionists regard mental illness as a separate
 discipline and eliminate psychiatry from medicine. Among physicians
 today, the reductionists are the true believers, while the exclusionists
 are the apostates, while both condemn each other as heretics. The
 question is the ultimate truth of the biomedical model and advocate a more
 useful model.

In considering the requirements for a more inclusive medical model for the study of disorders, an ethnomedical perspective (6). In all societies, ancient and modern, preliterate and literate, the major criteria for identification of disorders have always been biological, and social in nature. Classically, disorders are marked by changes in physical appearance that frighten, puzzle, awe, and by alterations in functioning, in feelings, in performance, behavior, or in relationships that are experienced or perceived as threatening, harmful, unpleasant, deviant, undesirable, or unwanted. Reported verbally or demonstrated by the sufferer or by a witness constitute the primary data upon which are based first-order decisions to whether or not a person is sick (7). To such disorders, reports from all societies typically respond by evolving social institutions whose primary function is to interpret, and provide corrective measures (5, 6). Medicine as a discipline and as a profession, and physicians as a form of response to such social needs. In the colonial era, medicine became scientific as physicians and other scientists and applied scientific methods to the understanding and prevention of disturbances which the public first had described as "diseases" or "sicknesses". "Why did the reductionist medical model evolve in the West? Raschke identifies

concessions of established Christian orthodoxy of the human body some five centuries ago (8). Such a concession keeping with the Christian view of the body as a weak vessel for the transfer of the soul from this worldly prison, the Church's permission to study tacit interdiction against corresponding scientific investigation of mind and behavior. For in the eyes of the Church these had more to do with religion and the soul and hence properly remained its domain. This compact may be considered largely responsible and structural base upon which scientific Western medicine was to be built. For at the same time, the basic principle of the day, as enunciated by Galileo, Newton, and Descartes, was that entities to be investigated be resolved into causal chains or units, from which it was assumed they could be understood, both materially and conceptually, by reconstituting parts. With mind-body dualism firmly established in the mind of the Church, classical science readily fostered the view of the body as a machine, of disease as the disrepair of the machine, and of the doctor's task as repair of the machine. The scientific approach to disease began by focusing in on ways in which biological (stochastic) processes and interactions were psychosocial. This was so even though, at least until the beginning of the 20th century, regarded emotions as unimportant for the development and course of disease. Actually, contrary exclusion is an acceptable strategy in science when concepts and methods appropriate for the excluded areas are not available. But it becomes counterproductive when such exclusion becomes policy and the area originally put aside for practical purposes is permanently excluded, if not forgotten altogether. The greater the success of the narrow approach the more likely is the biomedical approach to disease has been successful, but at a cost. For in serving as guideline and justifying medical care policy, biomedicine has also contributed to a host of problems, which I shall consider later.

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We are now faced with the necessity and the challenge to broaden our approach to disease to include the psychosocial dimensions. The enormous advantages of the biomedical approach. On the importance

between the two in such a way as to help define the is-
 ing to the medical model, a human illness does not become a s-
 disease all at once and is not equivalent to it. The medical mo-
 an illness is a process that moves from
 of symptoms to the characterization of a specific dis-
 etiology and pathogenesis are known and treatment is r-
 cific." This taxonomy progresses from symptoms
 to syndromes, and finally to disease
 and pathology. This sequence accurately describes
 cation of the scientific method to the elucidation and the clas-
 into discrete entities of disease in its generic
 such an approach needs no argument. What do require scrutiny
 the distortions introduced by the reductionistic tendency
 specific diseases as adequately, if not beset,
 malleable component having causal implications
 the biochemical; or even more critical, is the contention that the des-
 nation disease "does not apply in the absence of p-
 biochemical level. Kety approaches this problem by comparin-
 tes mellitus and schizophrenia as paradigms of
 diseases, pointing out the appropriateness of the medical
 Both are symptom clusters or syndromes
 and biochemical abnormalities, the other by psychologi-
 cal. E-
 have many etiologies and show a range of intens-
 debilitating to latent or borderline. There is also evidence that genetic
 and environmental influences operate in the development of both." In
 this description, at least in reductionistic terms
 terization of diabetes is the more advanced in that it has prog-
 from the behavioral framework of symptoms to that of bioch-
 abnormalities. Ultimately, the reductionists as
 achieve a similar degree of resolution. In developing his pos-
 makes clear that he does not regard the genetic factors and bio-
 processes in schizophrenia as are now kn-
 covered in the future) as the only important influences in its
 He insists that equally important is elucidation of
 factors and their interactions with biological vulnerability make
 possible or prevent the development of schizophrenia." But whether s-
 a caveat will suffice to counteract basic reductionism is

To explore the requirements
 for the reality of diabetes

of a medical model that would account
 and schizophrenia as human exp-

well as diseases, let us
 the assumption that a specific biochemical abnormality cap
 ing influenced pharmacologically exists in schizophrenia a
 diabetes, certainly a plausible possibility. By
 of patients with diabetes, a somatic disease
 a mental disease, "in exactly the same terms, with
 how inclusion of somatic and psychosocial fac
 both; or more pointedly, how concentration on the biomedical and ex-
 clusion of the psychosocial disorders pers
 with patient care. 1) In the biomedical model, demon-
 stration of the
 specific biochemical deviation is generally regarded as a
 nosologic criterion for the disease. Yet in terms of the huma
 illness, laboratory documentation may only indicate dis
 not the actuality of the disease at the time. The abnormality
 present, yet the patient not be ill. Thus the presence of the b
 defect of diabetes or schizophrenia at best defines a n
 a sufficient condition for the occurrence of the human experience of
 the disease, the illness. More accurately, the bioche
 tutes but one factor among many, the complex interaction of w
 hich ultimately may culminate in active disease. Nor can
 the biochemical defect be made to account for all of the illness
 for full
 understanding requires additional concepts and frames
 Thus, while the diagnosis of diabetes is fir
 clinical manifestations, for example, polyuria, polydips
 and weight loss, and is then confirmed by laboratory
 of relative insulin deficiency, how these are experienced and how
 are reported by any one individual, and how they affect him, all require
 consideration of psychological, social, and cultural factors
 tion other concurrent or complicating biological factors. Variability in
 the clinical expression of diabetes as well as
 the individual experience and expression of these illnesses
 as much these other elements as it does quant
 specific biochemical defect. 2) Establishing a relations
 h
 ticular biochemical processes and the clinical data of illness
 a scientifically rational approach to behavioral and psychosocial
 for these are the terms in which most clinical phenomena a
 by patients. Without such, the reliability of observations
 ity of correlations will be flawed. It serves little to
 biochemical defect in schizophrenia if one does not know how to
 this to particular psychological and behavioral expres
 s
 der. The biomedical model gives insufficient heed to this require
 ment. Instead it encourages by passing the patients
 greater reliance on technical procedures and laboratory measurements

In actuality the task is appreciably more complex than the biomedical model encourages one to believe. An examination of the correlations between clinical and laboratory data requires not only reliable methods of clinical data collection, specifically high-level interviewing skills, also a basic understanding of the psychological, social, and cultural determinants of how patients communicate symptoms. For example, many verbal expressions derive from bodily experiences in life, resulting in a significant degree of ambiguity in the language patients use to report symptoms. Hence the social context of expressions is a primary psychological as well as a cultural factor which may coexist and overlap in complex ways. Thus, the presence of certain reactions to psychological stressors is considered characteristic of schizophrenia. The clinical skills of the physician involve the ability to elicit accurate and analyze correctly the patient's verbal account of his illness. The biomedical model ignores both the rigor required to achieve reliability in the interviewing process and the necessity of understanding the patient's report in psychological, social, and cultural contexts. Schizophrenia has in common the fact that conditions of life and living constitute significant variables influencing the time of onset of the manifestation of disease as well as in both conditions this results from the fact that psychological susceptibility and thereby influence the time of onset, the course of a disease. Experimental studies in animal models demonstrate the role of early, previous, and current life experience in altering psychological susceptibility to a wide variety of diseases. Genetic predisposition (11). Cases demonstrate illness among populations exposed to incongruity between the demands of the social system in which they live and the culture they bring with them provides another illustration among humans of the role of psychosocial variables in disease.

4) Psychological and social factors are also crucial



Rational treatment (Kety's term) directed only at the biochemical abnormality does not necessarily restore the patient to the face of documented correction or major alleviation of the abnormality. This is no less true for diabetes than it is for other biochemical defects established. Other factors may be responsible for patienthood even in the face of biochemical recovery. Considerable

the illness and restore and maintain health. The boundaries between health and disease, between well and sick, are far from well defined, for they are diffused by cultural, social, and personal considerations. The traditional biomedical view, that biological indicators are the ultimate criteria defining disease, leads to the presence that some people with positive laboratory findings are in need of treatment when in fact they are feeling quite well, while others feeling sick are assured that they are well diseased" (5, 6). A biopsychosocial model which would encompass both tasks is to account for the dysphoria and the distress individuals seek medical help, adopt the sick role, and accept the status of patienthood. He must weigh the relative contributions of psychological as well as of biological factors to dysphoria and dysfunction as well as not accept patienthood and with it the responsibility to cooperate in own health care. By evaluating all the factors contributing to both illness and patienthood, rather than giving primacy to biological factors alone, a biopsychosocial model would make it possible for some individuals experience as illness "conditions regarded merely as problems of living," be they emotional reactions to circumstances or somatic symptoms. For of view his decision between whether he has a problem is "sick" has basically to do with whether role and seeks entry into the health care system is responsible for his distress to come reality of illness by dismissing it which may in actuality be indicative of a serious organic problem the doctors, not the patients, responsibility to establish the problem and to decide whether or not it is best handled in a medical framework. Clearly the dichotomy between disease and "a problem of living" is by no means a sharp one, either for patient or for

To enhance our understanding of how it is that problems which are experienced as illness by some and not by others is helpful to consider grief as a paradigm of such a borderline condition. For while grief has never been considered in a medical framework a significant number of grieving people do consult doctors because of disturbing symptoms, which they do not necessarily address. I addressed this question

a dis-ease? A challenge for medical research" (13). Its title might have been, "When is grief a disease?", just as when schizophrenia or when diabetes is a disease some obvious analogies between grief and disease. But these very contradictions help to psychosocial dimensions of the biopsychology exemplify a situation in which psychosocial factors no preexisting chemical or physiological defects or agents invoked. Yet as with classical diseases, we create syndrome with a relatively predictable symptomatology, incidentally, both bodily and psychosocial displays the autonomy typical of diseases despite the sufferer's efforts or wish to bring etiologic factor can be identified, namely, a significant loss. In hand, neither the sufferer nor society has ever dealt with it as an illness even though such expressions indicate some connection in people's minds. And while we make provisions for the mourner, these have generally more as the responsiveness of religion than of medicine. On the arguments against including grief in a medical model would seem to be the more persuasive. In the 1961 paper I countered these by comparing grief to a wound. Both are natural responses to environmental trauma, one psychosocial, the other physical. But even at the time a vague uneasiness that this analogy did not quite mesh 15 years later a better grasp of the cultural origins of disease and medical care systems clarifies the apparent intellectual factor underlying man's need to develop folk models of disease to develop social adaptations to deal with the individual and group disruptions brought about by disease, has always a presence of what is responsible for his destiny (5, 6). Neither grief nor a wound fits fully into that category. In both, the reasons for the pain, suffering, and disability are either fractures incurred in battle or by accident by and large were treated or minimized with folk remedies or by individuals acquired certain technical skills in such matters. Surgery of the need for treatment of wounds and injuries and has different roots than medicine, which was always associated and religion. Only later in Western history did surgery merge as healing arts. But even from earliest times there were those who behaved as though grief-stricken, yet seemed not to have any loss; and others who developed what for all their wounds or fractures, yet had not been subjected to any

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And there were people who suffered losses which were not what the culture had come to accept as the normal course; and others whose wounds failed to heal came ill even though the wound had apparently healed. Then, as now two elements were crucial in defining the role of patient and physician and hence in determining what should be regarded as disease. For the patient it has been his not knowing why he felt or functioned what to do about it, coupled with the belief or knowledge that the healer or physician did know and could provide relief. For the physician in turn it has been his commitment to his profession. From these have evolved sets of expectations which are characteristic of the culture, though these are not necessarily the same for the physician. A biosocial model would take account. It would acknowledge the fundamental fact that the patient comes to the physician because either he does not know what to do, or, if he does, he feels incapable of helping himself. The psychological unity of man requires that the physician accept the responsibility to evaluate whatever problems the patient presents and recommend a course of action, including referral to other helping professions. The physician's basic professional knowledge is social, psychological, and biological, for his decisions are

blems of patients and their families. Medical institutions and impersonal; the more prestigious they are as a result of research, the more common such complaints are (14). Medicine itself derives from a growing awareness among a contradiction between the excellence of their biomedical background on the one hand and the weakness of their qualifications in attributes essential for good patient care on the other (7). Many recognize that these cannot be improved by working within the biomedical model alone. The presentupsurge of interest in primary care family medicine clearly reflects disenchantment among us with an approach to disease that neglects the patient. The more ready for a medical model which would take psychology into account. Even from within academic circles are coming some challenges to biomedical dogmatism (8, 15). Thus Holman ascribes directly to biomedical reductionism and to the professional dominance of its adherents over the health care system unnecessary hospitalization, overuse of drugs and inappropriate utilization of diagnostic tests. He writes "reductionism is a powerful tool for understanding, it also is a misunderstanding when unwisely applied. Reductively harmful when it neglects the impact of nonbiological circumstances upon biologic processes." And, "Some inadequate not because appropriate technical interventions are lacking but because our conceptual thinking is inadequate"(15). How ironic it would be were psychology psychiatry to insist on such which some leaders in medicine already are beginning to question. Psychiatry, unconsciously committed to the biomedical model, is entering the warring camps of reductionists and exclusivists preoccupied with their own professional identity and loyalty to medicine that many are failing to appreciate that psychology psychiatry is not the only clinical discipline within medicine concerned primarily with the study of man and the human condition. While the behavioral sciences have made some limited incursions into medical programs, it is mainly upon psychology psychiatrists and psychologists, that the responsibility of understanding of health and disease and patient care not readily comprehended within the more narrow framework and with the specialized techniques of traditional biomedicine. Indeed, the fact is that the major formulations of more integrated and holistic concepts of disease and disease proposed in the past 30 years are from biomedical establishments but from physicians who have concepts and methods which originated within psychology. The psychodynamic approach of Sigmund Freud and psychology choices

the reaction-to-life-situational approach of Adolf Meyer and psychoanalysis (16). Actually, one of the more lasting contributions of both Freud and Meyer has been to provide frames of reference within which psychological processes could be included in a concept of disease. The term itself a vestige of dualism became the medium whereby the gap between the two parallel but independent ideologies of medicine, the biological and the psychosocial, was bridged. Progress has been slow and halting, not only because of the complexities intrinsic to the field itself, but also because pressures, from within as well as from outside, have been methodologically basic mechanistic and reductionist and inappropriate for many of the problems under study. Nonetheless, by now a sizeable body of knowledge, based on clinical studies of man and animals has accumulated. Most remains unknown to the general medical public and to the biomedical community and is largely ignored in the education of physicians. A recent solemn pronouncement by an eminent biomedical leader (2) that "the emotional content of organic medicine [has been] exaggerated" and psychosomatic medicine is "on the way out" can be attributed to the blinding effects of dogmatism. The fact is that medical schools have constituted unreceptive if not hostile environments for those interested in psychosomatic research and teaching, and have all too often followed a double standard in accepting papers dealing with psychosomatic relationships (17). Further, the lack of documenting experimentally in animals the significance of life circumstances or change in altering susceptibility to disease, and the experimental psychologists' resistance and appears in psychiatry read by physicians or basic biomedical scientists.

The struggle to reconcile the psychosocial and the biological in medicine has had its parallel in biology, also dominated by the reductionist approach of molecular biology. Among biologists, too, have emerged advocates of the need to develop holistic as well as mechanistic explanations of life processes, to answer the question "not only what, but also how?" (18, 19). Von Bertalanffy, arguing the need for a more fundamental reorientation in scientific perspectives in order to open the way to holistic approaches more amenable to scientific inquiry and conceptualization, developed general systems theory. This approach, by treating systems of related events and processes as manifesting functions and properties on the specific level

has made possible recognition of isomorphies in organization, as molecules, cells, organs, the organism, the family, the society, or the biosphere. From such is developed fundamental laws and principles that operate commonly at levels of organization, as compared to those which are unique. Since systems theory holds that all levels are interrelated, a change in one affects the others, its adoption as a scientific approach much to mitigate the holistic-reductionist dichotomy and improve communication across scientific disciplines. For medicine provides a conceptual approach suitable not only for the proposed biopsychosocial concept of disease but also for medical care as interrelated processes (10). If and how a general systems approach becomes part of the basic education of future physicians and medical scientists to encompass a biopsychosocial approach is anticipated.

As a result, the following questions are raised:

In the meantime, what is being and can be done to neutralize the dogmatism of biomedicine and all the undesirable social and consequences that flow therefrom? How can a proper balance be established between the fractional-analytic and the natural holistic approaches, both so integral for the work of the physician-scientist (22)? How can the clinician be helped to understand to which his scientific approach to patients represents

laboratory tests are conducted per hospital admission systems by the availability and promise of technology, the application and effectiveness of which are often used as the criteria by which care is made as to what constitutes illness and care. The frustration of those who find what they believe to be legitimate health needs inadequately met by too technologically oriented physicians is generally misinterpreted by the public as indicating unrealistic expectations "on the part of the public rather than being recognized as reflecting a genuine discrepancy between needs as actually experienced by the patient and as in the biomedical mode (26). The professionalization of biomedicine constitutes still another formidable barrier (8, 15). Professionalism has engendered a caste system among health care workers concerning what constitute appropriate areas for medical concern and care, with the most ostentatious disorders at the forefront. Professional dominance has perpetuated prevailing practices and criticisms, and insulated the profession from alternative relations that would illuminate and improve health care" (15, p. 21). Holman argues, not unconvincingly, that the Medical Establishment is not primarily engaged in the disinterested pursuit of the translation of that knowledge into medical practice; rather in significant part it is engaged in special interest advocacy, pursuing serving social power" (15, p. 11). Under such conditions it is difficult to see how reforms can be brought about. Certainly contributing to the critical assessment is hardly likely to bring about any change. The problem is hardly new, for the first efforts to introduce a holistic approach into the undergraduate medical curriculum actually date back to Adolph Meyer's program at Johns Hopkins, initiated before 1920 (27). At Rochester, a program directed to medical students and to physicians during and after their training and designed to inculcate psychosocial knowledge and prepare for their future work as clinicians or teachers, has been in operation for 30 years (28). While difficult to measure outcome objectively for its impact, as indicated by a questionnaire on how students rates view the issues involved in illness, the results have been appreciable (29). In other schools, especially in the post-World War II period, similar efforts were launched, with some flourished briefly, most soon faded away and were replaced by more glamorous and acceptable biomedical careers. Today, with

conformity to the prevailing biomedical structure. Yet today, interest among students and young physicians is portunities exist that they quickly overwhelm the available meager resources. It would appear that given the opportunity, the younger generation is very ready to accept the importance of learning more about the psychosocial dimensions of illness and health care education to be soundly based on scientific principles to such an approach, most do not recognize how ephemeral and insubstantial are appeals to humanism and compassion when no scientific principles are involved. They reject as simplistic the notion that doctors understand their patients better, a myth that has centuries. Clearly, the gap to be closed is between teacher and student eager to learn. But nothing will change unless until those who control resources have the wisdom to have beaten path of exclusive reliance on biomedicine as the only approach to health care. The proposed psychosocial model provides a blueprint for research, a framework for teaching, and a design for action in the real world of health care. Whether it is useful or not remains to be seen. But the answer will not be forthcoming if conditions are not provided to do so. In a free society, outcome will depend upon who have the courage to try new paths and the wisdom to meet necessary support.

The dominant model of disease today is biomedical, and room within its framework for the social, psychological dimensions of illness. A psychosocial model provides a blueprint for research, a framework for teaching, and a design for action in the real world of health care.

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31. This article was adapted from material presented as the Loren Stephens Memorial Lecture, University of Southern California Medical Center, 1976; the Griffith McKerracher Memorial Lecture at the University of Saskatchewan, 1976; the Annual Hutchings Society Lecture, State University of New York-Upstate Medical Center, Syracuse, 1976. Also presented during 1975 to 1976 at the University of Maryland School of Medicine, University of California San Diego School of Medicine, University of California-Los Angeles School of Medicine, Massachusetts Mental Health Center, and the 21st annual meeting of Midwest Professors of Psychiatry, Philadelphia. The

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