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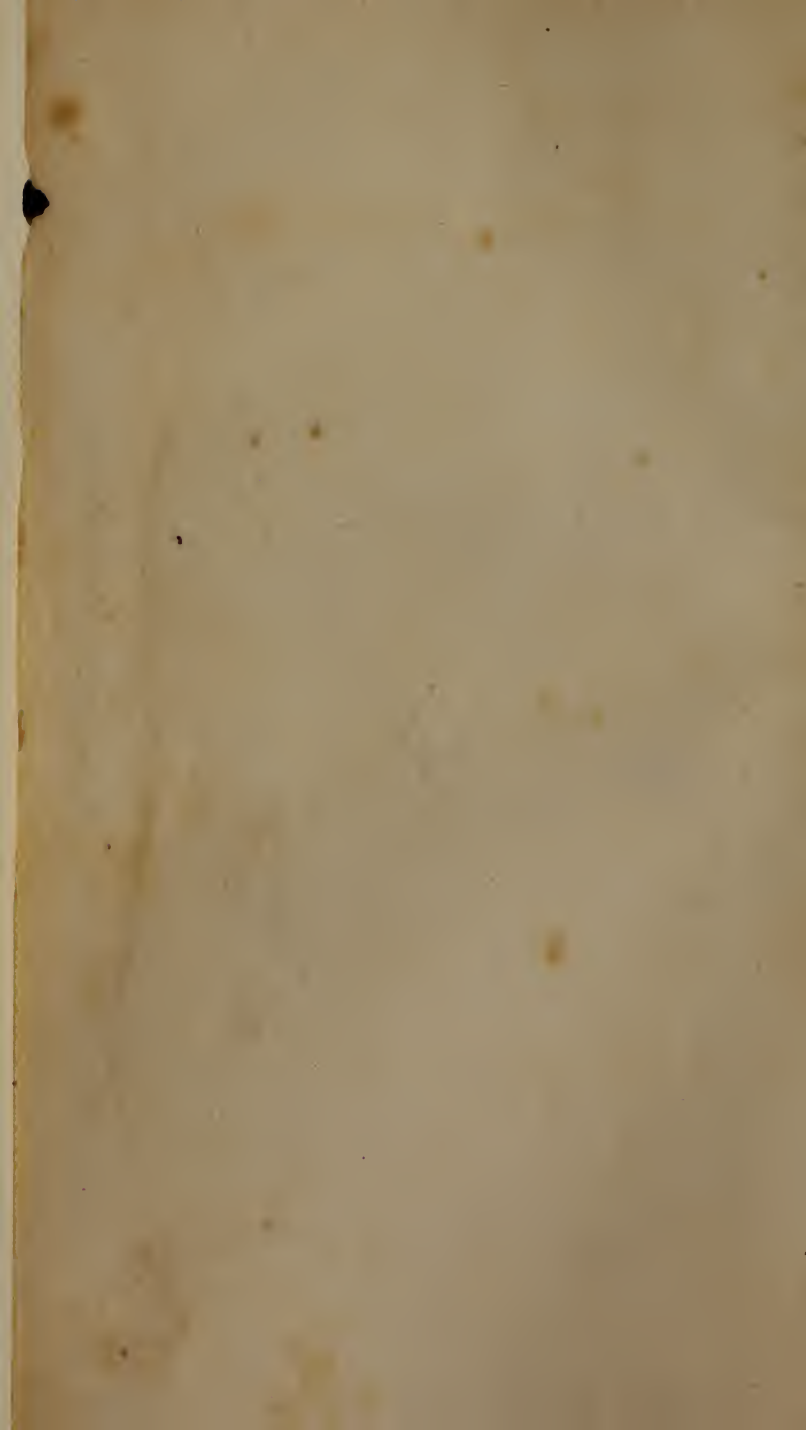






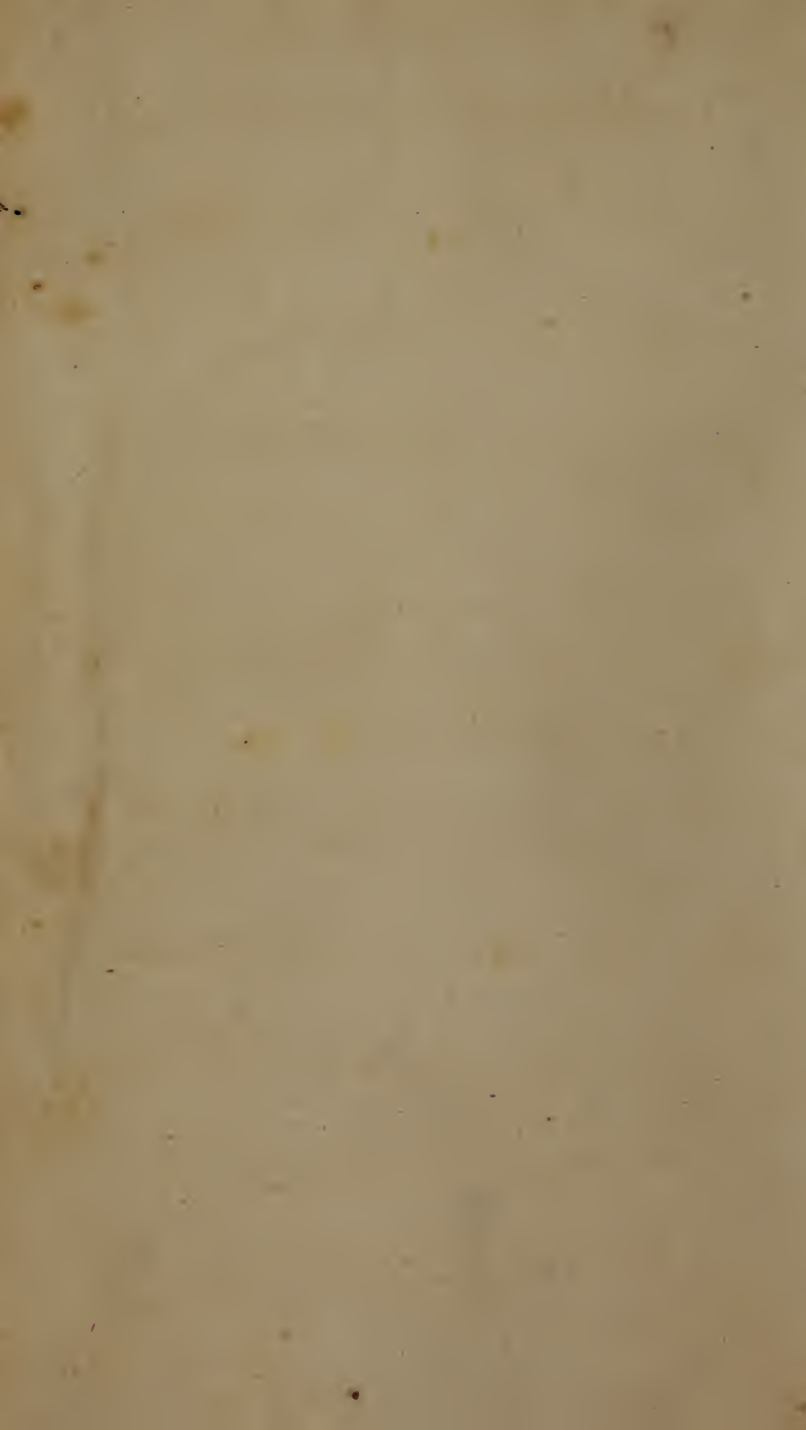












THE

*Ben<sup>o</sup> M<sup>o</sup>h*

1802

MEDICAL REPOSITORY,

AND

REVIEW OF AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS

ON

MEDICINE, SURGERY,

AND THE

AUXILIARY BRANCHES OF PHILOSOPHY.

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CONDUCTED BY

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Professor of Chemistry, Natural History and Agriculture in Columbia College, Representative in Congress for the City of New-York, one of the Physicians of the General Hospital, &c.

AND

EDWARD MILLER, M. D.

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*Molli paullatim flavescet campus arista,  
Incultisque rubens pendebit sentibus uvâ,  
Et duræ quercus sudabunt roscida mella.*

VIRGIL.

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# MEDICAL REPOSITORY.

VOL. IV.—No. I.

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## ARTICLE I.

*An ACCOUNT of a MALIGNANT DISEASE which appeared on board of the UNITED STATES FRIGATE GENERAL GREENE: In a Letter from Dr. L. KOLLOCK, of Savannah, in Georgia, to Dr. MILLER.*

My DEAR SIR,

**T**HOUGH I had very cheerfully undertaken to collect the materials for a short history of the fatal disease which occurred on board the United States Frigate General Greene, during her first and disastrous cruise, so unsuccessful were my inquiries, that I doubted whether the result would be sufficiently important to make up a communication.

It seemed a very favourable opportunity for ascertaining unquestionably, in one instance at least, the origin of a fever which, in its complexion and consequences, bore a strong resemblance to the terrible epidemics which have so severely scourged many of our cities and towns for several years past.

Unfortunately, however, no medical register or other journal was kept, from which a very accurate or particular account of the disease could be collected; and for the following sketch of a history I have been indebted to the cursory recollection of the officers, and the little I saw of the sick after the arrival of the vessel in port. Defective as it really is, I have determined to submit it to your inspection. Should you believe it so far calculated to aid the researches of others as to make it worth publication, or to afford the least gratification to yourself, I shall feel amply rewarded for the communication.

I am, dear Sir,

With great respect and esteem,

Your much obliged friend,

And humble servant,

L. KOLLOCK.

*Savannah, Feb. 20, 1800.*

*Vol. IV. No. 1.*

A

THE United States Frigate General Greene, under the command of Capt. Perry, sailed from Newport, Rhode-Island, on the 3d of June, 1799, for the Havannah. She had on board two hundred and fourteen men, all apparently in good health. The ship being new, we may suppose she was in a cleanly condition. She was also leaky. Having been caulked in winter, her seams opened as the warm weather advanced.

Her ballast consisted partly of iron and partly of earth, taken from a clay shore. This was intermixed with soft slate-stone, shells, and marine vegetables. Her provisions consisted of beef, pork, salt fish, rice, Indian meal, flour, and a small quantity of poultry. The liquors were water and rum, with a small quantity of brandy and wine, as hospital stores.

The ship was furnished with one ventilator, and wind sails; and, in this condition, put to sea, at the period above-mentioned.

After being six days out, they were overtaken by a severe gale of wind, which continued for several days. Her leakage was greatly increased by this incident, part of her provisions damaged, and even her magazine affected.

This storm was succeeded by very hot weather, and the extreme putrefaction of the salt fish. The air in the hold of the vessel was so contaminated as to extinguish lights immediately; and candles in the cock-pit were almost useless from the same cause. The fish was thrown overboard, the decks washed and scoured, the ventilator and wind sails put in operation, and every measure of purification adopted that their situation allowed.

Notwithstanding these precautions, disease invaded them.—On the 18th of the month, the first man was seized with the symptoms of highly inflammatory bilious fever—such as violent pains in the head and bones, suffusion of face and eyes, hardness and velocity of pulse, prostration of strength, great thirst, vomiting, and costiveness.

These symptoms yielded readily to bleeding and the usual evacuations, and the patient recovered in the course of eight or ten days. He was a midshipman, whose duty obliged him to frequent the hold. Four other cases occurred shortly after the first, in men similarly situated, with like symptoms, but more urgent—yielding, however, to similar management, and terminating favourably in a few days.

On the 4th of July they arrived off the Havannah, when the second lieutenant was attacked with the same kind of fever, but with symptoms much more serious and alarming than any

of the preceding cases. He became, at once, delirious, and vomited incessantly a darker coloured fluid. This case appeared so formidable, that they were induced to call in additional advice. Dr. Halliday (an eminent medical gentleman at the Havannah) visited him. It was the concurrent opinion of this gentleman, the surgeon and mate, that this was a strongly marked case of *yellow fever*. The liberal use of mercury, in addition to the remedies exhibited in the former cases, recovered this patient in a few days also. Until this period, no suspicions had been excited, or apprehensions entertained, of the formidable nature of the disease; nor had they deemed it other than the necessary consequence of so sudden a change of climate as they had experienced.

The origin and cause of so serious a calamity as was now foreseen and dreaded, became the subject of immediate inquiry. They had had no communication with any vessel at sea; nor had they touched at any place in their passage, or even had intercourse with the town, or vessels in the harbour, till this period. Other vessels in port were no more than usually sickly, and the inhabitants of the island were remarkably healthy.

The principle of disease seemed to have been generated on board, and to have gradually acquired virulence and activity as they approached the place of their destination.

After this period, three, four, and five new cases occurred daily; and the violence of symptoms seemed to increase with the multiplication of cases, during the six days they lay in port.

No death had as yet occurred; and the vessel was now ordered to convoy a fleet of merchantmen to the United States; for which purpose they set sail on the 10th, with many sick, and the disease increasing.

On the 12th, the second day from sailing, the first man died, with vomiting and delirium to the last. He was attacked the 5th of the month (the next day after their arrival), and died on the seventh day of the disease. From this period, the uncontrollable nature of the disease, and the frequency of deaths, excited such consternation and distress as to produce almost total neglect of dates, or particular circumstances of a disease, which raged, with unabated violence, till they arrived in the latitude of Virginia.

The surgeon and purser were the last who fell victims to this terrible disease. The latter died on the 22d. They were sick but two or three days, and, like the others, died with excessive delirium and black vomit.

After passing the Capes of Virginia, there was an obvious mitigation of symptoms, and the disease gradually became milder as they approached the port of Rhode-Island, which they reached on the 27th of July, after a passage of seventeen days; during which time they had experienced all the terror and despair which a situation hopeless as theirs seemed, is capable of inspiring.

They were unceasing in their exertions to purify the ship. Washing, scouring with vinegar, burning powder and vinegar, old junk and brimstone, added to constant ventilation, proved unequal even to the amelioration of their calamities, while they were in the latitude of great heat.

According to their computation, the whole number of the sick, from the time of their leaving port till their return, was forty—of which number twenty died, and all in the space of ten days. Most of the deaths happened in twenty-four hours from seizure, and all within five days, excepting two; one on the fifth, and the other so late as the seventh from the attack.

Those who frequented the hold, and were stationed in the neighbourhood of the pumps, suffered more especially during the continuance of the disease, as they had been the first attacked with it.

From the surgeon's mate I obtained the following sketch of the medical management of the sick.

In most instances they had recourse to bleeding and blistering, in the earliest stage of the disease, but without any perceptible benefit: it produced no mitigation of symptoms. The vesications dried immediately, and turned gangrenous. The blood was of a loose, dissolved texture. Every other remedy used seemed totally unavailing, excepting mercury. Large doses of calomel seemed to controul every symptom: and, where ptyalism could be produced, not a single patient died.

Shortly after the vessel came into port, the invalids of every description (say about forty) were landed at the hospital on Coaster's Harbour. Being requested by the Town Council of Newport to accompany the late much respected Dr. Senter in attending the hospital, we visited them as soon as they were landed.

We found but four or five cases of recent disease. The others were convalescents from fever and salivation. There was an uncommon number of ill-conditioned ulcerated legs, and some with venereal complaints.

The new cases of fever appeared of the bilious inflamma-



tory type, but had nothing formidable in aspect; nor was there but a single case where the symptoms were urgent. There was nothing uncontrollable by the most ordinary remedies, or any thing singular in the management or progress of disease, but the ease with which it was controuled, and the rapidity of recovery, in this pure air, and under new regimen. Even the fore legs almost immediately assumed a more healthy aspect.

After the removal of the sick, the ship was disburthened of her stores, ballast, &c. cleansed and white-washed throughout. Still new cases occurred on board for nearly two months. Some days two, three or four, were sent off to the hospital, which would seem to indicate the retention of some portion of this noxious principle, which was lodged beyond the reach of the cleansing process. Not one out of about a hundred who were sent to the hospital died.

From the apprehensions of the inhabitants that the disease was communicable, intercourse between the vessel and the hospital was as much barred as possible: still communication was not to be altogether avoided, and nurses, &c. were, from necessity, constantly with the sick. Clothing, &c. was carried from the ship to the hospital; and, in short, had it been contagious, the intercourse was sufficient, in all probability, to communicate it to some one; yet no one felt its influence.

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## ARTICLE II.

*A BRIEF ACCOUNT of the SITUATION and DISEASES of CAMPEACHY-TOWN, on the ISTHMUS of DARIEN; shewing the Efficacy of Calcareous Earth (Carbonate of Lime), in overcoming the Exciting Cause of Fevers: From a Communication of Mr. RICHARD V. W. THORNE to Dr. MITCHILL, dated Campeachy, Jan. 16, 1799.*

**C**AMPEACHY, a sea-port town of the Province of Yucatan, in New-Spain, North-America, is situated on the western coast of the bay of the same name, somewhere about 19 deg. 45 min. north lat. and 16 deg. 11 min. east long. from Philadelphia. It is a port of considerable trade, more especially in logwood, of which article immense quantities are shipped from it.

Lime-stone abounds here, and in the country round; and large quantities of lime are exported from this place for the market of La Vera Cruz.—The soil, in the neighbourhood of the city, is chiefly of a sandy loam, appearing to be fertile, and well adapted for cultivation. The city, however, is itself built on a bed or rock of lime-stone, excepting a small portion of the south part. It extends from south-west to north-east, being in circumference about two miles; and is surrounded by a stone wall (the greater part of which is lime-stone), in height upwards of ten feet. Owing to this, as well as to the city's lying behind a considerable mountain, the atmosphere undergoes but little change from ventilation; and its inhabitants, who are estimated to be about ten thousand or upwards, suffer all the inconveniences of a sultry and confined air. The trade-winds, also, passing over the parched Province of Yucatan, lose, at least, all the salubrity and refreshing qualities on the way, if they do not imbibe others of a poisonous nature: for in the inner parts of the province are large plains of water, which they pass over, and which are, no doubt, stored with putrefying materials enough to engender no small portion of the pestilence that renders New-Spain unhealthy. The harbour of Campeachy is extensive, but shallow. The flats that run off, to the north and to the south, do not, at the distance of above twenty miles, exceed in depth two or three fathoms; and the tides here, rising and falling about two or three feet, necessarily leave bare an extensive tract of mud, fronting the city, exposed to the influence of a vertical sun.

The houses are large and airy, built principally of stone, a considerable part of which is of a calcareous nature. White-washing is used instead of paint.—The streets are wide and clean, and are paved by the rock on which the city stands, except the back part of it, where the rock does not extend. There the streets are very muddy and filthy, owing to the immense quantities of rain that fall not being able to run off, and forming stagnant ponds and mud-holes: but that part of the city under which lime-stone extends is clean, and the air smells sweet.

Fronting the large gates, which are opposite to the centre of the city, is a dock (or, as it is called, a mole), which runs from these gates into the water about one hundred yards. The vessels that come to this dock are about from ten to fifteen or twenty tons burthen. Great quantities of filth of every kind

are thrown off this dock. Large quantities of fish, also, that are brought here to market in small boats, and often spoil, add to the collection; so that, when the tide falls, it frequently leaves the mole nearly dry. This filth, then, with a considerable space of mud, is left exposed to the rays of the sun. After the sun has had its influence on the mud for some time, the stench that is emitted is intolerable, so much so, that a person who has not been used to it can with difficulty bear it.

Notwithstanding the large quantities of putrid matter that are exposed in the front of the city, and filth that collects in certain parts of the town, the inhabitants are very healthy; so much so, that it is an uncommon thing to hear of their being affected with the most trivial complaints. There is only one physician of note in this place, and his practice is so inconsiderable that he devotes much of his time to other business: he is even concerned in the French privateers which cruize from that port, which I take to be a lucrative connection.

The question naturally suggests itself, Why does not the yellow fever (as it is generally termed) rage here? La Vera Cruz, which is nearly in the same latitude, and but a few hundred miles from Campeachy, is forely afflicted with endemic diseases. As to the disagreeable situations of the two places, they are nearly the same. The city of La Vera Cruz abounds in filth—Campeachy, on a general scale, does not. The manner of living, among the inhabitants of the two places, is pretty much the same; dissipation being wanting on neither side. How, then, happens it that La Vera Cruz is so afflicted with diseases, whilst Campeachy is healthy? Campeachy abounds in lime-stone—La Vera Cruz has none, except the small quantities that are procured out of the keys, and that brought from other places. May it not, then, be owing to the powerful antiseptic quality which this lime possesses, neutralizing the acid of contagion whenever they come in contact; and, by this mean, rendering Campeachy healthy? The town of New-Providence, in the Bahamas, furnishes another striking proof of the good effects of lime-stone underlying a city. I am warranted in saying, that this place is principally built on lime-stone; and, notwithstanding the filthiness of the place, the inhabitants enjoy good health.

From the information I have been able to collect, I find that lime-stone prevails more generally in these latitudes than almost any other stone; and, I believe, in greater quantities than in colder latitudes; from which it appears, that Provi-

dence has intended something more by them than the mere ordinary use of building, &c. and, at the same time that they are used for these purposes, they still shall possess that property of rendering the air that surrounds them sweet, and fit for respiration.

### ARTICLE III.

OBSERVATIONS *on the* YELLOW FEVER. *By* Dr. FELIX PASCALIS, *of Philadelphia.*

*To the Editors of the Medical Repository.*

*Philadelphia, Feb. 1, 1800.*

GENTLEMEN,

**I**N two former letters, directed to Professor Mitchill, I had included observations, for the Medical Repository, on various topics relative to the yellow fever. I promised, likewise, to complete, in a subsequent letter, my yearly tribute to your publication. This I am now happy to present to you, with new arguments on what I call the *sedative* power of those septic or deleterious gases which breed malignant and pestilential fevers. I subjoin, also, a little controversy on the method of salivating patients in that disease, and on the nature of the contagious power which may be attributed to it.

*Sect. 1.* When I *first* suspected that no specific poison was received in the body, to produce the yellow or any other malignant fever, and that the only *negative* effect, but the most terrible, of septic gases, was that of destroying animal *irritability*, I ought to have explained what is meant by that *sedative* power, in opposition to those modern systems which entirely explode the very meaning of any sedative operation in animal life. I should also have pointed out, by analogy, that there are cases of diseases, in which similar symptoms to those of pestilential fevers are induced by gases internally formed.— Lastly, if any serious objection against the truth of such doctrine could be apprehended, it must be immediately discussed and answered.

1. If medical science had not been distracted by too many systems, it would not be necessary incessantly to explain the words we are obliged to make use of, in any progressive view of the phenomena of life. In more than one instance, indeed, truth remains involved in doubts, or must be absolutely rejected, by the sole effect on the mind of *unexplained* words, which become the signals of party systems.—“There is no such thing as a sedative in nature,” say the Brunonians; because, when excitability is diminished, in inverse ratio excitement is accumulated; and if either excitement or excitability were ever conceived to cease, death would be the necessary consequence: therefore, a *sedative* operation on the living body implies contradiction; for if it diminishes excitability, it increases excitement—or, if it destroys it, it causes death!

We smile at such reasonings, because they appear, in medical sciences, like the *modes* and abstracts of entities (*chymæræ bombilantes in vacuo*) which constitute the philosophy of the Peripatetics.—We can conceive what are the exciting powers and excitement of the Brunonians, although they imply a confused compound of causes and effects; but we do not know what is meant by their *excitability*. Dr. Brown himself declares, “*that such slippery questions must be carefully avoided, as being incomprehensible, and as having proved a venomous snake to philosophy:*” § xvii. ch 3. yet it is on such a ground that an immense theory of human diseases has been laid; and it is from such doctrine that institutes of medicine are held, taught, and adopted, as modern improvements!!!

But let us admit the theory in its *genuine* meaning; then *excitability* must be said to be a certain energy or faculty, through which the whole *organized* system is to be affected by *exciting powers*: it is, therefore, a certain quality or attribute of living matter; and, in other words, excitability must be the result of *organization*.\*

Let us go farther.—What is meant by *excitement*? This is the operation of all the *exciting powers* on life, on senses,

\* As the functions, in every instance, depend on the mechanism or structure of the organs (for they are invariably affected by every cause that affects this), it is a necessary consequence, that life is not a principle super-added to organization, but the effect of it: therefore we may safely regard the terms life, vitality, vital principle, living principle, excitability, as synonymous, and expressing a condition of the organs only.

[John Aitkin's Principles of Anat. and Physiol. vol. ii. p. 119.

The same doctrine has been recently more fully explained, in the book of Dr. Ontyd, on the Different Causes of Death.

and on each organ; so that *life* begins with an exciting power which produces it—*senses* continue to be acted upon by various exciting powers for the support of life—and *organs* are various mechanical results of the phenomenon of life, produced and supported by exciting powers. In few words, consequently, we must conclude, that *exciting powers*, or excitement, constitute *organization*, and that *excitability* is the attribute of *organization*.

We begin now to understand, that between excitement and excitability there is an intermediate state, which is the effect of one and the cause of the other; and we may safely suspect that there cannot be such immediate correspondence between excitement and excitability, that the rise of the one should necessarily constitute the fall of the other, and *vice versa*.

Indeed, although exciting powers produce and support life, they may have an innumerable series of degrees in their action, to constitute good or bad *organization*; and when bodies exist with their strength and *organical* perfection, or with their weakness and malconformations, it remains impossible further to lay down any rule of proportion between the excitement and *organized* life. While we might, in fact, describe the former within certain accurate bounds, the latter (that is to say, organization) remains various, *ad infinitum*, even among healthy people, who enjoy different sorts of constitution, and whose faculties, either of the body or of the mind, are never of the same degree of perfection: yet every one of them has his own excitability, or *irritability*, which is the necessary attribute of organization; but instead of being in exact correspondence with excitement, or exciting powers, that excitability will more certainly receive its vigour or weakness from the animated matter, or from organization, of which it is a mere quality. Now, the latter, in its perfect or in its disturbed state, offers to us another most strange phenomenon, which further removes the possibility of reducing the knowledge of excitability into tables and degrees: it is, that when it appears shattered and almost destroyed, excitability is often the more accumulated, and *vice versa*.

The theory which explains life and diseases by the action of *exciting powers*, in certain and due proportion, and of the excitability in its accumulated or impaired state, is therefore false in its foundation. Organization is intermediate between excitement and excitability, which prevents them from being in direct correspondence; and it cannot be said that the loss or accumulation of the one has any effect on

the other, unless organization has been affected; and the alteration of this is as much surprizing and incalculable, in the terrible effect of a luxation of the head on the vertebral column, as it seems unalterable in cases of the greatest perturbations, loss of substances and lesions of viscera.

I have been led, gentlemen, to this explanation, to prove how gratuitous is the assertion of the Brunonians, and others who explode the idea of any *sedative operation* in human life, because it was for them necessary, on the ground of consistency, to reject it, on account of the mechanical correspondence they have established between excitement and excitability, so that the rise of the one is always the depression and abatement of the other, and *vice versa*.

This *excitability*, which, by analogy with the most ancient and approved doctrines, I will designate by the name of *irritability*, is the very attribute of organized matter, which experience demonstrates to be liable to a kind of depression, or sedative operation. What constitutes that irritability? Is it a heat which may be absorbed? an insensible motion which has been diminished? a porosity that could be contracted? Is it a situation or arrangement of parts exposed to be inverted? Is it a collection of inhalent organs incessantly to be kept in activity? These *hypotheses* I do not pretend to fix and determine; but the probability of the existence of any of them shews that irritability may be increased by external and internal causes, as well as it may be fatally depressed and destroyed; and this result has been proved by philosophical experiments, as I mentioned in my last letter. Certain gases are now thought, by all chemists, to be destructive of life, and deleterious to all living bodies. That they are so, by destroying animal irritability, I will never take much trouble to prove *a priori*,\* since the learned are in possession of

\* The doctrine of the French chemists, on the operation of deleterious gases on animated matter, is known; and, by their experiments, Fourcroy and Spallanzani leave some authority for the belief of their sedative effects. Dr. Ontyd, whom I have already mentioned, takes some trouble to prove that they operate by their *stimulating powers*; but to me his arguments appear very inconclusive. Among the modern medical theorists it is pretty much customary to term *stimulus*, or *stimulating power*, any kind of operation or impression received by living bodies. They tell us, it is true, that various and many *stimuli* differ only in degrees. Dr. Brown had first introduced that mode of reasoning, when he said that cold was nothing but an inferior degree of heat, as *caloric* could never be perfectly exhausted; and so he went on to class heat and cold among his *stimulating powers*!! When questions of this kind rest merely on the ingenuity of their supporters, it is better to refrain from discussion, and continue to believe that opposite causes

so many striking proofs of such phenomena. I only add, that when the great attribute of living matter is no more, or when it is much impaired, fluids will no more circulate, and will be instantly subject to putrid fermentation, which constitutes all malignant and pestilential fevers.—I will now prove the same result, by analogy with diseases produced by a similar loss of animal irritability.

2. To point out some of the sedative effects of deleterious gases on animal irritability, I need but to mention intermitting fevers, which, in all their various shapes, uniformly present the following facts:—1. They are endemic in low and marshy grounds, at any time of the year, in warm climates—and, at least, during the fall in others; that is to say, when and where the soil is thickly covered with vegetable substances reduced to putrefaction. 2. In those fevers no specific poison or contagious matter has ever appeared to constitute their cause, nor to be the means of their prevalence. 3. In their periodical paroxysms no other diagnosis can be formed, but that of the periodical return of a certain degree of debility, which is equal to an exhausted animal irritability. 4. Making due exceptions of such cases of intermitting fever in which the constitution has been impaired, and chronic affections formed, by their repeated exacerbations, we see that they generally yield to the removal from the place where they prevail, to the succession of seasons, or to the internal use of powerful tonics and active stimulants.—If, now, we resume all these true and well ascertained characters, uniformly belonging to all the endemic intermitting fevers, do we not clearly perceive in them all the proofs of the formation of deleterious effluvia—of their action on the system by inducing debility, or operating sedatively, until irritability can be restored to its proper standard, by natural or by artificial means? It would be here very interesting to discuss, how animated fibrous matter, and all the organized fabric of living bodies, is *convulsed*, as soon as irritability is impaired, and, no doubt, we would easily prove that a febrile exacerbation is nothing but the re-action produced on blood-vessels by the convulsive

should always produce opposite effects; such are heat and cold, light and darkness, motion and rest, &c. We, therefore, can safely conclude, that as there are certain principles or substances necessary or favourable to the action of life, there are others unfit, inimical and contrary to it. Their sudden and fatal operation is a proof, that, instead of stimulating, they are absolute *destroyers* of all the powers of life, and these we call *sedatives*.



state of the fibrous matter:\* therefore, remedies which, by a stimulating power, may restore animal irritability, will, of course, put an end to the convulsive action, and prove the cure of intermitting fevers. This explains those surprising, and often unexpected cures of such diseases, obtained by strange applications, while they baffled medical skill. The variety of constitutions authorizes us to believe, that every one is not equally acted upon by the same known remedies, and that, among these, there are but few to be depended on as true restorers of animal irritability.

The tribe of malignant fevers offers none that cannot be traced to the action of deleterious gases. Thus we class those fevers under the names of camp, jail, hospital, and ship fevers, besides those which are particularly described as pestilential. Each of them, in fact, is known to originate from corrupt and dangerous effluvia, unfit for respiration and life, and destructive of animal irritability. Such effects, which we are obliged to ascribe to *external* causes, must consequently be attended to, when they are produced by *internal* ones: for let us admit that a sufficient quantity of putrescible matter is caused to ferment in the body, and it will, of course, emit deleterious gases, destroy animal irritability, and constitute a malignant or pestilential fever. This assertion I may prove, gentlemen, by comparing with the yellow fever the child-bed fever, that astonishing disease, which, without any specific contagion, has been observed to rage like an epidemic in the two principal towns of Europe.

The child-bed fever, called by the French *prima mensis*, had been anciently known, but variously understood. Its epidemic prevalence, in the Westminster Lying-in Hospital, in the year 1769, and in the Hotel-Dieu of Paris, at different periods, but chiefly in the year 1774, called all the attention of eminent physicians, of the French and English faculties, to ascertain the nature and the treatment of that formidable scourge. It will be proper to recollect here some of the observations written on that subject by Dr. Leak, physician to the Westminster Lying-in Hospital, and contained in the report

\* Convulsion or contraction of muscular fibres is nearly the same; and when they take place, it is evident that *irritability* is lost or impaired. Living fibres contract as soon as they are divided or *disorganized*. In convulsive paroxysms there is consequently a struggle between parts contracted and parts violently re-acting by these unnatural actions: fluids are immediately deprived of a free and easy circulation; they are carried tumultuously in some vessels, *in inverse ratio* of the contraction of other parts. This disordered state, I believe, constitutes fever.

ordered by and read before the faculty of medicine of Paris, sitting in the Louvre, 6th September, 1782. It appears that, in the first outset of the disease, the symptoms are absolutely like those of the yellow fever—such as a violent inflammatory diathesis of the blood, prodigious vomitings of bile, great pains in the loins and limbs, and stupefaction of mental faculties. Soon after a prostration takes place—the tongue becomes thickly crusted, and of a black, brown, or yellow colour—and the pulse sinks in a great depression. It is, however, more peculiar to the child-bed fever, that its last stage is marked by a foetid, black, and colliquative diarrhoea, which terminates it fatally; whilst, in the yellow fever, this symptom, which is frequently observed, is oftener replaced by the black vomiting. Dr. Leak mentions several cases of jaundice; and we must be satisfied, that in this disease, as well as in the yellow fever, the skin is covered, in many instances, with purple and black spots. In point of malignancy, and the ravages of gangrene in the alimentary canal, dissection has offered the greatest similarity between this and yellow fever. The only difference in the former is, that a considerable effusion of corrupted milk, resembling whey, is effected in the pelvis, and that the omentum is mostly suppurated: but the uterus, in the child-bed fever, is universally found in a sound state. From this circumstance it has been justly inferred, in London as well as in Paris, that in no case whatever could this disorder be ascribed to parturition. When it prevailed, no other description of people but women, four, five, and eight days after delivery, were subject to this, nor to any kind of fever. Thus it was impossible to trace the child-bed fever to any specific contagion, or to any external source of deleterious gases. Its violence in the Hotel Dieu of Paris, where so many unfortunate or abandoned women are obliged to resort, had so long baffled the humane and vigilant assistance of eminent physicians, that any effectual mode of cure was entirely despaired of, when Dr. Doulcet, of the faculty of Paris, happily found out, that a dose of fifteen grains of ipecacuanha, administered every day, proved a real and powerful specific remedy: all patients recovered. Dr. Leak himself tried and approved the remedy. It was consequently evident, that a stimulating operation being kept up in the alimentary viscera, an *artificial* irritability, as it were, was happily effected, to counteract any sedative impression whatever which might destroy it. But, it may be asked, was there any particular focus of putrefaction in the intestines, in the uterus, or in the lacteal

vessels? If so, what did determine it? for such a disorder very seldom occurs in private practice. For my part, gentlemen, I conceive, that a very obvious cause in lying-in hospitals will induce debility, and, with it, expose to putrefaction all fluids in the maternal bowels. This is a moral cause: it is the painful situation of young mothers, who have the disgrace of being in a lying-in hospital, objects of medical observation to some, of contempt to others, of charity to all. However profligate they have been, or strangers to the delicacy of their sex, can they remain unfeeling creatures in the bed of sorrow, where they become mothers, and are to lose immediately all the sweets of that state, even the knowledge and possession of their innocent and unfortunate offspring? I ask the philosopher and physiologist, whether they can conceive a more powerful moral cause acting as a sedative on animal irritability, and diffusing in the system the deadly torpor which constitutes a malignant fever? It amounts to the same deplorable effects, whether animal irritability is overcome, in one disease, by the sorrowful state of the mind, or by floating deleterious gases, in others, as in the yellow fever.

3. There is, I believe but one objection to this hypothesis which requires to be discussed: this is, that nobody would be exposed to the dangerous effects of septic gases, unless they were actually immersed in, or exposed to, a contaminated atmosphere; and that, consequently, no case of yellow fever should occur among persons who remove themselves from the seat of the epidemic, after a certain period of time. Yet many such cases have occurred. They have been so remarkable, that they have caused many physicians to adopt the opinion of a specific contagion being possibly retained after a certain space of time. Here we must previously observe, that if a few sporadic cases, in any part of the country, were to be traced to a specific contagion, we might as well ask why there are so few of those cases, and why all the fugitives who had been immersed in the contaminated atmosphere are not infected with it? for it is a well known fact, that the inhabitants successively desert the place, after the epidemic has proved its prevalence by a great number of victims: therefore they were all once exposed to that floating contagion which is thought to be so powerful as to remain unaltered during a long space of time. It cannot be conceived that few only would receive it. The greater number, on the contrary, who were witnesses of so many deaths within our city, although fugitives, would carry with them

the fatal and indelible poison. This is not the case. We are happy to know that there is at least safety in desertion. We do not see, therefore, any conclusive argument in the alleged facts of a few people being taken with the yellow fever, sometimes shortly after their removal from the seat of the epidemic. From these we only derive new proofs, that, during the heat of the summer, there may be local sources of putrefaction in many parts of the country, emitting and diffusing streams of deleterious gases, which, eventually, may be fatal to one or a few individuals. It is also more than probable, that, in the general revolution of the atmosphere, currents of septic gases may flow, without mixture or alteration, from one space into a distant one.

Admitting, however, what is probably true, that an attack of yellow fever may take place in a few or many days after having been exposed to the deleterious atmosphere, it would by no means destroy the truth of the aforesaid theory of the sedative effects of those gases on animal irritability. That attribute of living matter, we have sufficiently shewn, is the direct result of organization; and, however impaired it may be, it must take some time before the ultimate results of its alteration produce convulsion or fever, corruption of fluids, or malignant fever. When irritability is lost by the effect of a paralytic stroke in a limb, or in other parts, we see that it requires some time before it is restored, even after the cause of palsy is removed; for irritability is progressive as well as organization, which is its immediate cause. For the same reason, when a sedative power destroys irritability, there must be a certain period of time before its alteration has materially injured the laws of animal life. We do not know what can be that necessary period of time. It probably runs according to the intensity of the impure gases, and of the constitution of individuals. Some facts, however, seem to prove, at least, that there must be a certain interval of time between the action of the air and the breaking out of the yellow fever. During the late epidemic, we observed, that the greater the heat was after rain, the greater was the number of the sick, but progressively, during ten or fifteen days. We observed, likewise, that some days previous to an attack of the fever, many people will complain of head-ach and disordered bowels; others will have convulsions, &c. Finally, we know, that at the close of the season, and even one or two months after frost has begun to appear, when very little effluvium can be exhaled, a number of genuine cases of yel-

how fever will occur; and these have been ascertained, in December, 1798, and in January, 1800, in the city of Philadelphia. These collected facts, gentlemen, give the best presumptive proof, that a period of time must somehow precede the attack of a malignant fever, after the impresson received from septic gases; and this must be the reason why few of our exiled fellow citizens have been its victims, after they had removed from the seat of the epidemic.

*(To be continued.)*

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### Erratum.

In Dr. Pascalis' former essay on yellow fever, vol. iii. p. 349, line 38, for "rapid circulation," read *depressed circulation*.

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## ARTICLE IV.

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### EXPERIMENTS *on the* PRODUCTION *of* AIR *by the* FREEZING *of* WATER.

By JOSEPH PRIESTLEY, LL. D. F. R. S. &c. &c.

IN 1793, when I was in England, I published a course of experiments on the *generation of air from water*; and, after my arrival in this country, I resumed the experiments, and published a *sequel* to them. The result of the whole was, that, after all air had been extracted from any quantity of water, either by heating, or by taking off the pressure of the atmosphere, whenever any portion of it was converted into vapour, a bubble of permanent air was formed, and this was always phlogisticated. The process with the Torricellian vacuum I continued some years, and found the production of air equable to the last. The necessary inference from this experiment is, either that water is convertible into phlogisticated air, or that it contains more of this air intimately combined with it than can be extracted by these processes in any reasonable time.

Finding that no air is contained in *ice* that is free from visible bubbles, I thought to ascertain the truth of one or other of these hypotheses, by exposing to frost a quantity of water,

from which I had, by repeated processes with the Torricellian vacuum, expelled all the air that I possibly could, thinking that, if it really contained no air, it would appear by the ice being perfectly solid; so that, when it was melted, no air could be got from it. This experiment I repeated several times, but always found that the outside of this ice was perfectly transparent, and free from air. The central parts were opaque; and though there were no distinct air-bubbles in it, yet, when it was melted, a great number of bubbles issued from it. The whole quantity, however, was not greater than might have been procured from the same water, in the other processes, in a reasonable time: wherever ice was thawed the production of air had no limit.

Disappointed in my expectations of getting, by this means, ice perfectly free from air (which, when a large quantity of water freezes very slowly, it is easy to do, the air contained in it retiring from that which is frozen to that which remains fluid), I dissolved ice that was perfectly transparent, and, therefore, free from air, in vessels containing mercury, and exposed it to frost a second time: but I always found, that when the whole of it was frozen, though the extreme parts were transparent, and, therefore, free from air, the central parts were opaque, and, when dissolved, yielded air. And though I repeated this process ten or a dozen times with the same water, always letting out the air that was procured by freezing presently after it was extricated, and before it could have been re-absorbed, I never failed to get more air; and the harder the frost was, the more air I procured.

As there is an evaporation from ice, no less than from water, the interstices formed by the crystallization of the water, when it is converted into ice, will soon be filled with *vapour*; and this vapour, like that which is formed by heat, becomes, I suppose, the basis of a quantity of air. Since, however, ice that is the most transparent swims in water, this also must have interstices; but they contain no air, being such as always exist in the most solid bodies, in which (gold itself not excepted) the component particles are not in perfect contact; since they are reduced into less dimensions by cold.

As the vessels I made use of in these experiments were either cylindrical jars or conical wine-glasses, and, consequently, the bubbles of air produced by freezing were exposed to a considerable surface of water, and would, in time (though I found not in the course of a day) have been absorbed by the water, now free from air, I procured glass vessels of a conical form,

terminating in narrow tubes, into which the air dislodged from the ice might ascend, and not be subject to be absorbed. I was so fortunate as to have several of such vessels, and they completely answered my purpose for five or six processes. These vessels were first filled with mercury, and then I introduced into them a quantity of water freed from air by previous freezing; and when, after exposure to frost, the ice was melted, the air dislodged from the ice ascended into the narrow tubes, and remained, without any sensible diminution of bulk, several days; and every time that the water was exposed to frost, an addition was made to it. At length, however, though the vessels were very strong, and contained much mercury, which, by its tendency to descend, would give the water room to expand with the less danger of breaking the vessel, none of them served for more than the number of processes above-mentioned.

After the breaking of my glass vessels, I got other cylindrical ones made of iron, seven or eight inches in height, and near three inches wide at the bottom, the upper orifice closed with a cork and cement, in the centre of which was a glass tube, the diameter of which was about a fifth of an inch. And, as the glass tube was in the greatest danger of breaking by the freezing of the water, and this had happened several times before, notwithstanding all my care to guard it from the frost, I now made use of snow and salt, to freeze the water in the iron vessel only, placed in a vessel of mercury, having been previously filled as the glass vessels had been.

The water on which I now operated was about three ounces, and it had been made as free as possible from air by previous freezing. With this apparatus I repeated the process of freezing nine times, without changing the water, and the last portion of air that I procured in this manner was as great as in any of the preceding; so that there remained no reasonable doubt, but that air might be produced from the same water, in this manner, *ad libitum*; and having got near two inches of air in the glass tube, I put an end to the experiment; and, examining the air, found it to be wholly phlogisticated, not being affected by nitrous air, and having nothing inflammable in it.

During the process of freezing, the air in the tube was generally compressed into about one fifth of its usual bulk; but when I began to thaw the ice, which I did by means of hot water in the place of the freezing mixture, it soon expanded to its former dimensions, and no sensible portion of it was absorbed

during the whole process, which was about a week. Sometimes the violence of the pressure, occasioned by the expansion of the water in freezing, would force a little water out of the vessel, between the cork and the glass tube, or the iron vessel, which presently became ice. This I always carefully removed, and applied fresh cement to the place, to prevent the introduction of any air from without, before I began to melt the ice. And that no external air had entered was evident, both from the manner in which the air was produced as the water recovered its fluidity, and from the quality of it, when examined, after the process.

In the course of the experiments with the glass vessels, a phenomenon occurred that was wholly unexpected by me, and which was very amusing. Having left the vessels filled, partly with water and partly with mercury, in the evening, I generally found them, in the morning, seemingly quite full of mercury, every part of the ice within the vessel being covered with it. This must have been occasioned by a vacuum having been formed between the glass and the ice, and into this the mercury had been drawn up on the principle of the capillary tube. When this was not the case, the interstices of the ice, towards the centre, were filled with thin laminæ of mercury, which also exhibited a curious appearance.

Sometimes, when there was no mercury between the glass and the ice, an interstice was made between them when they were placed within the influence of the fire. In these circumstances I have seen the mercury drawn up to the height of several inches. As this space was enlarged by the increase of the heat, the laminæ of mercury were contracted, till, coming into the form of balls, too heavy to be supported, they fell down to the mass of mercury in the basin.

The most natural inference from these experiments is, that *water*, when reduced, by any means, to the state of *vapour*, is, in part, converted into phlogisticated air; and that this is one of the methods, provided by nature, for keeping up the equilibrium of this constituent part of the atmosphere, as the influence of *light on growing vegetables* is the means of recruiting the other part of it; and both of them are subject to absorption and diminution in several natural processes. Inflammable air I have also shown to be convertible into phlogisticated air; and this is another means of supplying the atmosphere with this ingredient in its composition.

That water contains phlogiston I have shown to be probable, from several considerations, especially that of its re-



sembling metals in their property of being conductors of electricity; for these substances certainly contain phlogiston, if there be any such thing. Mercury also becomes super-phlogisticated by agitation in water, and this without limit, and without changing either the water or the mercury; and the remaining water contains no more oxygen than before; for the air expelled from it is not more pure, and it is perfectly free from acidity.

I will further observe, that those experiments, which prove the conversion of water into phlogisticated air, are inconsistent with the modern antiphlogistic theory, which makes water resolvable into dephlogisticated and inflammable air; but that they are highly favourable to the hypothesis of water being the basis of every kind of air, the difference between them depending upon the addition of some principles which we are not able to ascertain by weight.

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## ARTICLE V.

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*An ACCOUNT of a HEBREW MANUSCRIPT COPY of the JEWISH SCRIPTURES, now in New-York: In a Letter from Mr. SOLOMON SIMSON, the Proprietor, to Dr. MITCHILL, dated March 26, 1800.*

SIR,

THE old Manuscript Bible in my possession, of which you have desired some information, was brought from Turkey to England, by a gentleman who left his library to a relation of his in this country, and from the latter my aged father purchased it, with some other books. It is written in a character something resembling Roshā, or rather, it is to be presumed that Roshā borrowed or copied his from it. It is very different from the square character we have in use, and is about the size of a large octavo, written in two columns, on parchment, or vellum, as fine as silk. The songs of Moses, Deborah, and David, are poetical, written with the greatest uniformity and neatness, with black, shining ink. It is also accompanied with marginal notes, written so fine and small that

it requires good eyes, or glasses, to distinguish them. The Psalms appear to be a most masterly performance, and the diversity of the measure seems pleasingly to strike the eye, even of those who are unacquainted with the language, and is supposed to be the original poetry in which they were written by David, &c. There appears a great play of words and letters—some of the Psalms beginning with the alphabet, and in order going through the same, with many variations. The 119th Psalm is written in two columns, of four lines each, each eight verses beginning with the *aleph*, the next eight with the *beth*, and proceeding through the alphabet in that order, which is probably the reason of its being marked, in our English Bible, with *aleph beth*, &c.

The two first chapters, and part of the last, in the book of Job, are written in prose, in two columns. The other part of the book is in short Hemistich verse, beautifully written, and the whole handsomely pointed. The accents appear to be the same as in our printed books, except the ten commandments, which are only with single accents.

In Joshua, chap. xxi. between the verses 35 and 36, two verses are inserted, with the names of four cities of refuge, of the tribe of Reuben, &c. which are not in our Hebrew or English Bibles: and Everardo Van der Hooght, in his edition, printed in Amsterdam, in 1705, mentions, in his preface, that these two verses are only to be found in three old, corrected manuscript books—but which he supposes to be an error.—The order of the books in the manuscript is as follows:

The Law, in five books.

Joshua, Judges, and Samuel, each in one.

Kings in one, without any division.

Isaiah, Jeremiah, Ezekiel, Hosea, Joel, Amos, Obadiah, Jonah, Micah, Nahum, Habakkuk, Zephaniah, Haggai, Zechariah, Malachi, Ruth, Psalms, Job, Proverbs, Ecclesiastes, Song of Songs, Lamentations, Daniel, Ezra, Nehemiah, Esther, and Chronicles, each in one.

The late Myles Cooper, LL. D. President of King's College, delivered my father, Joseph Simton, the following letter, with the book therein mentioned.

“ SIR,

“ I have been informed by Dr. Cooper, that you benevolently intend to lend me your curious Hebrew M. S. and when you have so done, I shall celebrate, in the most grateful man-

ner, your public spirit and generosity. I will take the utmost care of it, and it shall be returned, in twelve months, to the person in London you appoint to receive it; and for this I will give a note of hand, or (if you require it) a bond of obligation.—You will receive of Dr. Cooper the present of a book of mine, in which I have published your kind intention; and I hope you will accept that book as a mark of the gratitude of, Sir,

“Your highly obliged, and

“Very obedient servant,

“B. KENNICOTT.

“*Oxford, March 4, 1770.*”

In May following my father received the following note:

“Mr. Cooper’s compliments to Mr. Simson, returns him Dr. Kennicott’s letter, which he did not send for yesterday, but only for his own, and hopes that Mr. Simson’s determination on the point in question, viz. the transmission of the M. S. to England, is favourable to the grand scheme of collation, which the learned gentleman has now in hand.

“*King’s College, May 8, 1770.*”

The June following the manuscript was delivered to Dr. Cooper, with the following letter:

“SIR,

“In obedience to my father’s commands, which gives me particular pleasure, I now answer your esteemed letter, by the hands of Mr. President Cooper; and though the M. S. is highly valued, it is cheerfully lent to promote the great work you have undertaken. The President has engaged to return it safe in one year. Permit me to mention, that in the book you have favoured my father with, instead of his name (Joseph), mine has been inserted, which, no doubt, will be rectified. My good father commands his respects and best wishes with mine: that you may be blest with health to go through the arduous work you have in hand—that it may be completed with the strictest regard to truth, to your honour, and the good of mankind.

“I am, with all due respect,

“Reverend Sir,

“Your most obedient, humble servant,

“SAMPSON SIMSON.

“*Rev. B. KENNICOTT.*”

In 1772, Dr. Cooper returned the M. S. with the following letter:

“SIR,

“I beg you to accept of my best thanks for the use of your valuable Hebrew M. S. which I am very glad of returning to you so safely as by the hands of Dr. Cooper. I shall take care publicly to express my gratitude\* for this act of your kindness.

“And am, Sir,

“Your highly obliged, and

“Obedient servant,

“B. KENNICOTT.

“*Oxford, May 11, 1772.*”

There does not appear any certainty when this Hebrew M. S. was written. Gentlemen, learned in the Hebrew language, have differed greatly in their opinion—from 700 to 1700 years ago. Some have gone so far as to suppose it to have been written by Ezra the scribe: but all agree that it is a valuable as well as a very ancient manuscript.

I am, Sir,

With due respect,

Your most humble servant,

SOLOMON SIMSON.

\* Mr. Simson's manuscript is mentioned in the second volume of Kennicott's Bible in folio, of which there is a copy in the library of Columbia College. In the catalogue of the seven hundred which he consulted, this is the 144th, and is distinguished by the words, “AMERIC. NEO-EBOR.” It is conjectured, by him, to have been written between the years 1300 and 1400 of the christian era.

## ARTICLE VI.

*An ANSWER to Dr. JOSEPH PRIESTLEY'S ARGUMENTS against the ANTIPHLOGISTIC SYSTEM of CHEMISTRY, published in the Medical Repository, and a VINDICATION of the PRINCIPLES contained in the 72d Essay of the fourth Volume of the American Philosophical Transactions. By JAMES WOODHOUSE, M. D. Professor of Chemistry in the University of Pennsylvania, &c.*

## No. I.

*First.* OF THE REVIVAL OF A METALLIC CALX IN INFLAMMABLE AIR.

WHEN the focus of a burning lens is thrown upon a calx of mercury, confined in hydrogenous gas, according to the antiphlogistic theory of chemistry, the oxygen of the calx unites to the hydrogen, and forms water; but, according to Dr. Priestley, the hydrogen enters into the metal, while the oxygen is found mixed with that part of the hydrogenous gas which remains behind.

The Doctor declares, in support of this opinion, that, in several of his experiments, the pure air, expelled by the heat of the lens from the mercurial calx, was found mixed with the remainder of the inflammable air, as appeared by the test of nitrous air, and by some disagreeable explosions which happened in the process.

Having performed the experiment of the revival of red precipitate in hydrogenous gas, twenty times, without having met with an explosion, I concluded that Dr. Priestley's inflammable air must have been mixed with atmospheric air. I was of this opinion, because I never could detect any pure air mixed with the inflammable air, after the revival of a mercurial calx in it, by the test of nitrous air.

Since my answer to the Doctor's two pamphlets, I have frequently repeated these experiments, and with the same results as before.

The focus of a lens was thrown upon red precipitate, confined in sixty-two ounce measures of inflammable air, when fifty-two ounce measures of the air disappeared. One mea-

ture of the air which remained behind, tried by the test of nitrous air, produced no red appearance, and gave no absorption.

A quantity of the black oxyd of manganese was also exposed to the focus of the lens, in fifty-six ounce measures of inflammable air, when fifty-four ounce measures of the air disappeared: the remaining air was azotic, and contained no inflammable or pure air, as appeared by applying a lighted taper to it, and by the nitrous test.

Similar experiments were made in the presence of Dr. Seybert, Dr. Jacobs, and Mr. Lee, gentlemen who are perfectly acquainted with the subject in dispute, and who appeared satisfied, that pure air, expelled by heat from a mercurial calx confined in inflammable air, is not found in that portion of the air which remains behind.

I must, however, acknowledge, that I met with an explosion in attempting to revive red precipitate in hydrogenous gas, which I expected contained no pure air. The inflammable gas had been obtained by adding the filings of bar-iron to water which had been impregnated with sulphurated hydrogen gas. Upon throwing the focus of the lens upon one drachm of red precipitate, in eight ounce measures of this air, an explosion *instantly* took place. The pure air, in this case, could not have been given out by the precipitate, for the mercury was not revived; and, as oxygenated muriatic acid\* had been formed by the experiment, I cannot account for the explosion until we are better acquainted with the action of iron filings in water impregnated with sulphurated hydrogen gas, and the formation of the oxygenated muriatic acid which is found in the process.

A strong, and, in my opinion, a conclusive argument, in support of the opinion that the oxygen of the metallic calx unites to the hydrogen, and forms water, is, that the disappearance of the inflammable air is always in strict proportion to the pure air which the calces contain.

I have shown that iron absorbs twice as much oxygen as copper, and that the calx of iron makes twice as much inflammable air disappear when heated in it by the burning lens; and if a part of the pure air be driven off from the oxyd of manganese by heat, and the oxyd be then exposed to the action of the lens in hydrogenous gas, a very small quantity of the inflammable air will disappear. One drachm of the oxyd of

\* Vide Medical Repository, vol. iii. p. 214.

manganese will make twenty-two ounce measures of inflammable air vanish; but the same quantity of manganese, exposed a few hours to a red heat, will make very little of the inflammable air disappear.

In my first answer to Dr. Priestley, I said the manganese was not revived, because no inflammable air could be obtained from it by sulphuric acid and water. It, however, in some cases, appears to be revived, and is of a green colour, as the regulus of manganese is described by authors.

I have often heated a large proportion of red precipitate in inflammable air, confined by water, which would rise in the vessel which contained it until the inflammable air disappeared, when it would immediately begin to fall from the pure air yielded by the precipitate.

In one of these experiments, the whole of the inflammable air having vanished, and the pure air from the precipitate having nothing to unite with, was found, unmixed, over the water, and gave, by the test of nitrous air, an absorption of 160.

If the theory of Dr. Priestley was true, that the pure air of the precipitate was diffused among the inflammable air, an explosion would invariably happen, every time that a drachm, or any larger portion of precipitate, was revived in a considerable quantity of hydrogenous gas.

If one drachm of red precipitate was revived in sixty ounce measures of inflammable air, it would give out ten ounce measures of pure air, which would be mixed with forty-eight ounce measures of inflammable air, and which would never fail to cause an explosion.

*Secondly.* OF THE CALCINATION OF A METAL IN PURE AND ATMOSPHERICAL AIR.

According to Dr. Priestley, when a metal is reduced to a calx, in pure or atmospherical air, something which has been called phlogiston is emitted from the metal, which unites with part of the pure air, and converts it into azotic or phlogisticated air. He also says, that the phlogiston, in some cases, unites with a portion of the pure air, and forms fixed air, and that this fixed air is produced by calcining a metal which contains no charcoal.

In all my experiments upon the calcination of bar and cast-iron, and copper, in pure and atmospherical air, I could not find that the air which remained behind was injured. When the focus of the lens was thrown upon sixty grains of the

filings of copper, filed for the purpose, confined in sixteen ounce measures of oxygenous gas, twelve ounce measures of the air were absorbed by the metal, which was reduced to a calx. No fixed or phlogisticated air was produced, and the remaining air was perfectly pure.

Dr. Priestley replies to this experiment, that it is impossible to reduce sixteen ounce measures of pure air to four, by calcining a metal in it, and that the remaining four ounce measures should be perfectly pure—for to make dephlogisticated air perfectly pure is hardly possible.

The oxygenous gas which was used was obtained from lead and the sulphuric acid, and gave, by the eudiometer, an absorption of 195 by the nitrous test. Oxygenous gas, equally as pure as this, is seldom met with. It was said to be perfectly pure, because it was supposed the whole of it was devoured by the nitrous test, and that the remaining five hundred parts of a measure consisted of the impurity of the nitrous air, which, Dr. Priestley acknowledges, is very apt to vary in its quality, and very difficult to obtain pure.

Although the Doctor has said, in the *Medical Repository*, that it is hardly possible to obtain dephlogisticated air perfectly pure, yet, in his pamphlet entitled “*The Doctrine of Phlogiston established*,” speaking of dephlogisticated and nitrous air as the component parts of nitrous acid, he mentions, that when they form this acid, “they unite without any residuum, or so small as not to enter into any computation.”\* (Page 9). If, then, dephlogisticated air can be obtained to unite with nitrous air, without any residuum, the dephlogisticated air must be perfectly pure.

The oxygenous air which I have since used has been of various degrees of purity, as 180, 178, 169, &c.

The focus of the lens was thrown upon the filings of bar-iron, filed for the purpose, confined in fifty-two ounce measures of oxygenous gas, which had been well washed in lime-water, and was of the purity of 175. Thirty-two ounce measures of the air were absorbed by the metal, which was reduced to a calx. One measure of the remaining air, tried in an eudiometer tube over lime-water, gave an absorption of five hundred parts of fixed air. Another measure of the remaining air, first washed in lime-water, gave, by the nitrous test, 170.

\* In the *Transactions of the Royal Society of London*, for 1791, p. 215, Dr. Priestley also speaks of dephlogisticated air so pure as to contain no sensible quantity of phlogisticated air.



Repeating this experiment, by melting the filings of bar-iron in thirteen ounce measures of oxygenous gas, of the purity of 140, seven ounce measures of the air were absorbed by the metal. The remaining air, after being washed in lime-water, was of the purity of 110.

The focus of the lens was thrown upon the filings of copper, in forty-four ounce measures of atmospheric air, of the purity of 93. Six ounce measures of the pure part of the air were absorbed by the metal. One measure of the remaining air, tried in an eudiometer tube over lime-water, gave no absorption, and, consequently, contained no fixed air. With an equal measure of nitrous air, it gave an absorption of 15.

In these experiments no phlogisticated air was generated. The fixed air, formed by melting the iron in pure air, was formed by the coal, which all iron of commerce contains, uniting with part of the pure air. The air which remained behind was more impure than at first, because a portion of the purest part had been absorbed from it by the metals.

### *Thirdly.* OF CARBONIC ACID, OR FIXED AIR.

Dr. Priestley, in order to prove that fixed air is produced without charcoal, mentions that this air is procured by heating charcoal of copper in dephlogisticated air. To this I have replied, that charcoal of copper consists principally of pure charcoal. It is made by passing the steam of alcohol, which consists of hydrogen and carbon, over red-hot copper: the coal is deposited on the copper, while the hydrogen is set at liberty, in the form of hydrogen gas.

The Doctor says, the French chemists have given a much better explanation of this experiment than I have done—but our explanation is exactly the same. The fixed air is formed by the carbon of the charcoal of copper uniting with the dephlogisticated air. My opponent has misunderstood my meaning in explaining the experiment.

Another argument used by Dr. Priestley, to prove that fixed air may be made without coal, is, that large quantities of this kind of air may be obtained from heating a mixture of iron filings and red precipitate. He declares the experiment has never failed with him, and I say it has never succeeded with me.

If large quantities of fixed air can be formed, by heating the filings of pure bar-iron and red precipitate together, then I will pronounce, that fixed air may be made without coal; but I am confident this cannot be done.

From the process which the Doctor has published, to purify iron filings,\* it is evident that those he used could not have been very pure, or they would not require to be first heated, then washed in water, and heated again.

Dr. Priestley never mentions whether he used the filings of bar or cast-iron, which is essentially necessary. The filings of pure bar-iron, filed for the purpose, on a clean sheet of paper, exposed to heat with red precipitate, will not yield any kind of air; but cast-iron alone, or mixed with precipitate, will yield both inflammable and fixed air.

One ounce of the borings of cannon, and half an ounce of red precipitate, gave thirty-two ounce measures of air, eleven of which were fixed, and twenty-one inflammable. The fixed air proceeded from the pure air of the precipitate uniting with the charcoal of the cast-iron.

The borings, by analysis, yielded eighteen grains of charcoal to the ounce.

In my opinion, the proofs that fixed air is composed of oxygen and carbon, are as strong as that Glauber's salt is composed of sulphuric acid and soda; for we are not only able to compose this gas at pleasure, but to separate it into its elementary parts.

Mr. Tennant, Dr. Black, and other chemists, have decomposed the carbonic acid, by heating phosphorus and powdered lime-stone. I have performed the same experiment with success. Forty grains of phosphorus, cut into very small pieces, were mixed with powdered lime-stone, and introduced into a glass tube, coated with dung and clay. Upon exposing the tube half an hour to a red heat, and breaking it when cold, the coal was found mixed with phosphate of lime. The phosphorus united with the oxygen of the carbonic acid of the lime-stone, and formed phosphoric acid, which joined with the lime, and made phosphate of lime. The coal of the carbonic acid was deposited among the phosphate of lime.

If fixed air is composed of inflammable and dephlogisticated air,† why is it not obtained by exploding pure air, and the inflammable air from malleable iron?

Speaking on this subject, Dr. Priestley says, "when the inflammable air was from the turnings of cast-iron, there was a considerable quantity of fixed air produced; whereas there

\* Medical Repository, vol. ii. p. 267, first edition.

† "We say that fixed air consists of inflammable and dephlogisticated air." Vide Doctrine of Phlogiston established, p. 61.

was either no fixed air at all, or the slightest appearance of it imaginable, when I made use of inflammable air from malleable iron.”\*

The reason that the inflammable air, from the turnings of cast-iron, yields fixed air, when fired with dephlogisticated air, is, that it holds coal in solution, which unites with the pure air to form the fixed air, and no fixed air is obtained from the inflammable air from malleable iron, because it contains but a very minute portion of coal. If fixed air can be formed by exploding only one kind of inflammable air with pure air, there must be some foreign substance in the inflammable air; and what can this be if it is not coal? for bar and cast-iron differ from each other only in the quantity of coal they contain—an ounce of bar-iron yielding but half a grain of coal, and the same quantity of cast-iron, as I have said before, eighteen grains.

The Doctor says, when any substance, known to contain oxygen, is heated in inflammable air, fixed air is found. (Considerations on the Doctrine of Phlogiston, part first, p. 25.) In the second part of the same pamphlet (p. 24), he informs us, he sometimes gets fixed air. In the Medical Repository, vol. ii. p. 164, first edit. he mentions that no sensible quantity of fixed air is procured in this process. If red precipitate is heated in inflammable air, from malleable iron, the result will be uniform; no fixed air will be generated, but it will be invariably made, if the mercurial calx is revived in carbonated inflammable air, from the pure air of the precipitate uniting with the carbon held in solution in this gas. If fixed air was composed of pure and inflammable air, it ought always to be obtained in this process.

When the focus of a burning lens is thrown upon two drachms of red precipitate, in thirty-two ounce measures of inflammable air, from malleable iron, twenty-two ounce measures of the air will disappear; but when three drachms of the same precipitate are heated in thirty-six ounce measures of carbonated inflammable air, from the flowers of zinc and coal, which has been well washed in lime-water, but two ounces of the air will vanish. In the first case no fixed air will be obtained, but in the second there will be a great production of this gas.

#### *Fourthly. OF FINERY CINDER, or the SCALES of IRON.*

Large quantities of carbonated inflammable air, mixed with a portion of fixed air, are produced by heating finery cinder

\* Transactions of the Royal Society of London for 1791, p. 221.

and charcoal together, though both may have been previously exposed to ever so high a degree of heat. In considering what takes place in this process, we must call to our aid the decomposition of water, the clue which leads us through all the labyrinths of the antiphlogistic system of chemistry. The carbonated inflammable air is formed by the hydrogen of the water, which is supplied by the finery cinder dissolving part of the coal, while the oxygen of the water and finery cinder, uniting with another part of the coal, make the fixed air.

We are under a necessity of admitting the presence of water in the finery cinder. It cannot be in the coal, where Berthollet, Fourcroy, and other chemists find it; for, in my experiments, the coal had ceased to yield air, and, consequently, could not contain water.

In my first reply to Dr. Priestley, I said the iron was not revived. I find, however, after the finery cinder is exposed to heat with charcoal, it will yield inflammable air when mixed with sulphuric acid and water. The iron, then, must be in a revived state. I was deceived, by supposing that a calx of iron could not be revived in a degree of heat less than that at which it fuses. Cast-iron melts at 130 deg. and my finery cinder was exposed to but 24 deg. of Wedgwood's thermometer.

I consider the arguments of the Doctor, relating to finery cinder and charcoal, as a complete refutation of the doctrine of the French chemists, relating to this subject, though I do not think the new theory is essentially affected by any thing which he has advanced. Part of the weight of the scales of iron is certainly owing to water. The advocates of the antiphlogistic system have overlooked the agency of this fluid in the finery cinder.

If, in future, I find that no more fixed air is obtained from the scales of iron and charcoal than from coal and water, I will agree with my opponent, that they contain but a very small quantity of oxygen, or none at all.

#### *Fifthly.* OF THE PRECIPITATION OF ONE METAL BY ANOTHER.

Inflammable air is produced, when zinc is used to precipitate lead from a solution of sugar of lead, or iron from its solution in the muriatic acid. The French chemists appear to be unacquainted with this circumstance, as well as with many other important discoveries made by my illustrious opponent.

Mrs. Fulhame, who has written on the precipitation of metals, was ignorant of the fact.

I have obtained inflammable air,

1st, From the filings of zinc, and a solution of the sulphates of iron and copper.

2dly, From the filings of bar and cast-iron, and the sulphate of copper.

3dly, From copper, precipitated from blue vitriol by zinc, which was washed in water until the water would not precipitate muriated barytes, mixed with the filings of zinc. And,

4thly, From the oxyd of copper, precipitated from blue vitriol by caustic pot-ash, and the filings of zinc and iron.

One scruple of the filings of zinc, and eight ounces of a saturated solution of blue vitriol, in eleven hours yielded no air: a second scruple being added, in the same space of time no air was obtained: upon adding the third scruple, in forty-eight hours one fourth of an ounce measure of inflammable air was produced. The precipitated copper weighed forty-five grains. It was not until after the eighth scruple was used that the air was obtained in any quantity:

Half an ounce of the filings of zinc, and eight ounces of a saturated solution of green vitriol, gave, in nineteen days; forty ounce measures of inflammable air.

One ounce of the filings of zinc, and eight ounces of a saturated solution of blue vitriol, gave, in ten days, sixty-four ounce measures of inflammable air.

The filings of iron afford but a small quantity of inflammable air, compared to zinc, when mixed with the sulphate of copper. One ounce of the borings of cannon, and eight ounces of a solution of blue vitriol, in four days produced but six ounce measures of inflammable air. A considerable degree of heat is generated in this process.

In these experiments, when the precipitant is added in small portions, the operation which takes place is its solution without any production of air. The oxygen of the dissolved metal unites with the precipitant, forming an oxyd, which is immediately dissolved by the acid. The precipitated metal is in a revived state, from the loss of its oxygen. When the precipitant has robbed the dissolved metal of the whole of its oxygen, it decomposes the water by means of part of the acid to which the dissolved metal was united. The oxygen of the water, united to the precipitant, converts it into a calx, which is dissolved by the acid, while the hydrogen of the water is set at liberty.

When inflammable air is obtained from copper, precipitated by iron, mixed with the filings of zinc, the zinc robs the precipitated copper of its oxygen; but as there is not a sufficiency of oxygen in the copper to oxyde the zinc completely, it begins to decompose the water. When a solution of the sulphate of copper is precipitated by zinc, the whole of the precipitated metal is not in a revived state—part of it is calcined.

Upon throwing the focus of a burning lens upon some of this precipitated copper in inflammable air, it made four ounce measures of the air disappear.

*Sixthly. Of the AIR CONTAINED in the PORES of CHARCOAL, WHICH HAS BEEN EXPOSED to a RED HEAT.*

Dr. Priestley says, that charcoal contains azotic gas, but I have always found it to be atmospherical air. One measure of the air obtained from coal, by means of water, gave, with the nitrous test, an absorption of 90.

## ARTICLE VII.

### ON THE PHENOMENA, CAUSES, AND TREATMENT OF SEA-SICKNESS.

*By EDWARD MILLER, M. D.*

**T**HIS disease affects most persons on their first going to sea. It is of various degree and duration in different instances; frequently slight and transient; sometimes severe, protracted and excruciating. In general, it continues only for the first day or two of a voyage, produces little trouble or confinement, and is attended with no danger. In a few cases it begins at the first moment of embarkation, harrasses the patient with incessant tortures for weeks and months, or, at least, recurs with violence at every return of bad weather, and only releases him from his sufferings at the end of the voyage. It has likewise happened, on some occasions, that the symptoms of sea-sickness have not disappeared even on the arrival of the vessel in port, and the patient's going ashore. And examples

have not been wanting of such derangement of the system, by the violence and obstinacy of this disease, as gradually to induce fever of the worst kind, attended with loss of all retentive power of the stomach, and terminating in death.

Sea-sickness is more apt to occur in the open sea, where the waves have an extensive and uninterrupted course of motion, than in gulphs, bays, channels and rivers. It is chiefly troublesome when the sea is much agitated by wind. The vibrating motion of a vessel, from stem to stern, and from stern to stem, which is called *pitching*, or that from one side to another, called *rolling*, produces the severest degrees of giddiness and sickness. These motions are observed when the vessel is going directly before the wind, or when a calm suddenly succeeds a storm, and not when the wind blows obliquely, or on the *quarter*, for then the succussion which the ship undergoes is much diminished.

In small vessels, on which the slightest movement of the waves makes an impression, this disorder is more likely to take place than in very large ones, such as ships of war, or merchantmen of great burden, deeply laden, which, comparatively, undergo little disturbance. It has been also observed, that where habit produces accommodation to the motions of one vessel, removal to another, whether from a larger to a smaller, or from a smaller to a larger, will sometimes again awaken the disease.

Aged persons are seldom affected with the disease, in comparison of those at the younger and middle periods of life. Those of a dark complexion, in general, suffer less than such as are fair: and infants are commonly altogether exempted.

As a description and an example of the sufferings sometimes endured from this disease, the following account is given, by a medical gentleman, of his own case, in the voyage of the embassy from the King of Great-Britain to the Emperor of China. "He felt," he said, "at first, a sickness in his stomach, followed by a retching, when he threw up whatever he had taken into it; then green, and afterwards yellow bile; to which succeeded a thick, mucilaginous, insipid fluid, which he considered to be the gastric juice; and, lastly, grumous blood. Before he vomited the last, he felt a sensation as if his stomach were twisting together, and which motion, he supposed, produced the hæmorrhage. Had the blood proceeded from the lungs, he judged it would have been spumous, or mixed with air-bubbles (and florid). He felt constantly a nausea in his mouth; his salivary glands swelled, and the sa-

liva became thickened and vitiated. His mind grew indifferent to all things, either past or future, and even to his existence. Regret and hope were equally extinct within his breast. His head felt light and sore, and as if its futures were separated from each other. It likewise ached; and he had alternate sensations of violent heat and chilling cold. He thought he felt the inversion of the peristaltic motion, and its actual tendency upwards from the intestines to the mouth. Whatever he swallowed he returned, with no alteration of it in the stomach. The bare mention of food, solid or liquid, was loathsome to him.”\*

#### CAUSES OF SEA-SICKNESS.

Sea-sickness† begins with giddiness and vertigo, which not only demand attention in describing the order of the symptoms, but likewise afford a clue to trace the nature and causes of the disease. This species of vertigo originates from disordered action of the organ of vision, produced by the instability and unaccustomed movements of all objects upon the water. That such is the cause of it, is proved from its being excited in some people, though in a less degree, by gazing on the fluctuations of a river (provided no fixed objects appear within the sphere of distinct vision), or by the sight of a large revolving wheel, while the vertiginous persons themselves are perfectly at rest, and, by shutting their eyes, can instantly arrest this troublesome sensation. Another proof that vertigo may arise from the effects of the instability and indistinctness of visible objects on the eyes, is derived from our dependence upon the steadiness of such objects in walking and in balancing the body. We constantly determine the distances of the objects which we approach by our eyes, and, by observing their perpendicularity, regulate our own: hence no one who is hood-winked can walk in a straight line for an hundred steps together. And when children are learning to walk, it is easy to observe the efforts they make to adjust their perpendicularity by surrounding objects, and how instantaneously they fall, when either their attention is unexpectedly called off from this adjustment, or when an object which had caught their eyes, and had been

\* Staunton's Account of Lord Macartney's Embassy to China, vol. i. p. 145 and 146.

† In this inquiry into the causes of sea-sickness, I have adopted the theory of Dr. Darwin. I have also made use of several of his facts and illustrations, as they are the most familiar and apposite of any which are now within my reach.

[See *Zoonomia*, vol. i. sect. 20.



hitherto stationary, is made to undulate. This power of balancing the body by the view of surrounding objects is acquired with difficulty, maintained solely by habit, and may be readily impaired or destroyed by disuse; for persons who have been long confined to bed are found to reel and stagger in their first attempts to walk, and only by patient endeavours recover their former steadiness. The principle of our dependence upon vision in balancing the body by external objects, and of the tendency to vertigo whenever that sense is impaired by disturbance or disease, is still further illustrated by the vertiginous sensations which often affect elderly persons when they begin to suffer dimness of sight, and which are frequently relieved by the use of spectacles, or, at length, by acquiring the habit of adjusting perpendicularity by objects less distinctly seen.

That distinctness of visible objects which is requisite to the balancing of the body with steadiness, and to the prevention of vertigo, may be diminished or destroyed in various ways, all of which seem to throw light upon this subject. Objects may become indistinct, 1st, by reason of their *smallness* and *similarity* to one another. Many persons become dizzy in a room hung with paper coloured with small and similar figures, where the eyes do not readily find a resting place, nor distinguish their movements in continually passing from one figure to another. But by affixing to the wall a sheet of white paper, or by drawing figures of a larger or more diversified size, the giddiness becomes no longer perceptible. It is for the same reason that vertigo is produced, in some, by passing over a plain covered with snow, without trees or other eminent objects.

2. Objects become indistinct, and the beholder vertiginous, on account of their *distance*, and the *direction* in which they are seen. It is for this reason that many become giddy in ascending lofty heights, or in looking down a deep precipice. Objects, placed at such a distance, are beyond the sphere of distinct vision, and, therefore, unsuitable to regulate our perpendicularity. The debilitating impression of fear must likewise be admitted, in this case, to produce a share of the effect.

3. The distinctness of objects is lost, and giddiness produced, by their *unusual* and *excessive motions*. Instances of this sort are very numerous, such as the view of a great cataract, of a large revolving wheel, &c. the first attempts to ride on horseback, to mount a camel, an elephant, &c. riding backwards in a coach, swinging, riding in a sleigh, skating, turning swiftly round on one foot, and more especially in the disease now under consideration.

The effect of these motions upon the organ of sight is also much increased by the *ocular spectra* of objects remaining some time upon the retina, which exceedingly augment the disturbance of the eyes, and thereby add to the confusion of the vertiginous person. When any one turns rapidly round till he becomes giddy, and falls upon the ground, the spectra of circumambient objects continue to present themselves in rotation, and he seems to behold such objects still in motion. These spectra appear to be a continuation of the motions of the optic nerve, which had been excited by the objects which they severally represent. They are apt to remain, to recur, or to be prolonged, in proportion to the degree of debility induced; hence they must greatly aggravate the more violent cases of sea-sickness, and produce an infinite number of deceptions of the sight and of imagination. Their effects are well known in fevers of debility, by producing the symptom called *muscæ volitantes*, &c.

Besides the vertigo of disordered vision, it is probable sea-sickness is generally produced, in part, by another species—that of disordered touch or feeling—and which has been called *tangible vertigo*. When a blind person turns round, or when one who is not blind revolves in the dark, a vertigo is produced belonging to the sense of touch: for his feet now touch the floor in manners or directions different from those they have been accustomed to; and, in consequence, he becomes bewildered as to the situation of his body in relation to the floor, loses his perpendicularity, and is rendered giddy. This combination of visual and tangible vertigo, in producing the phenomena of sea-sickness, seems to have escaped the attention of those who have treated of this disease. Sailors remark, that such persons as can soonest accommodate themselves to the ship's motion, and acquire the habit of standing and walking uprightly, without reeling to and fro, are least distressed by sea-sickness, and most speedily recover. The instability of visible objects, and the reeling induced in the beholder, reciprocally increase one another.

Having thus mentioned some of the various modes in which vertigo may be produced by a disordered and excessive action of the organ of vision and of touch, particularly such as arise from the rotation, undulation, or other irregular and unusual motions of external objects, as well as of the beholders, I am, in the next place, to show in what manner vertigo produces the nausea and vomiting which quickly ensue.

It does not appear, at first view, how nausea and vomiting

proceed from a disturbance of the action of the visual organ. But when it is recollected that violent giddiness, the immediate result of such disturbances, precedes and occasions these perversions of the alimentary canal, the difficulty vanishes. Vertigo, and disorders of the alimentary canal, reciprocally produce each other. Professor Gregory, of Edinburgh, asserts this in the following words: "*Vertiginem nausea solet comitari, alteraque alteram inducere.*"\* It is not the present object to inquire into all the species and varieties of vertigo which may be found enumerated in systems of nosology; but whether accompanying the attack of apoplexy, palsy, epilepsy, hysteria, or syncope; whether induced by injuries of the head from external violence, by excessive evacuations, or at the accession of fevers, it is generally attended with sickness of stomach. And, on the other hand, when the alimentary canal is primarily disordered, as in cases of indigestion, taking emetics, drunkenness, swallowing of poisons, gastritis, enteritis, &c. vertigo is generally found to take place. Sea-sickness is, therefore, a consequence of certain sympathies, or associations of motions of different parts of the animal system. And there is ground to conclude, that the vomiting caused by a stone in the bile-duct or in the ureter, as well as that arising from inflammation of the intestines, or at the accession of fevers, is produced in a similar manner.

If it be admitted that certain organs, or parts of the body, become associated in their actions (and the proofs of such an association continually recur in observing the functions of the animal system), it will follow, that, in a state of health, each organ, or part, in this associated series or circle, has its appropriate share of nervous or vital power. But if one of these organs or parts be subjected to violent or irregular action, as such action consists in the employment and expenditure of nervous power, the balance of the distribution of this power must be disturbed, and while one part expends too much, the others will possess too little. This is obviously illustrated by the appearances of drunkenness. While the stomach is stimulated to excess by fermented or distilled liquors, the muscles of voluntary motion, the optic nerves, &c. are deprived of their share of nervous influence; and hence the inebriate becomes vertiginous, and his limbs refuse their accustomed office. Just so it is with persons unaccustomed to the motions of the water, when they go on shipboard. The excessive,

\* *Conspectus Medicinæ Theoreticæ*, vol. i. p. 145.

irregular and unusual actions of the organ of sight, expend a disproportionate share of nervous power, and, of consequence, the parts connected with it by association must soon suffer by a deprivation of their proper quantity. The stomach, which possesses more extensive and intimate relations with the rest of the system than any other viscus, will be the first to feel, and afterwards to propagate this morbid impression to other parts of the body.

Attention to the following circumstances will go far to explain the seeming disproportion between cause and effect, in this mode of accounting for the violence of sea-sickness in persons unaccustomed to the instability of that element. 1. The motion is not only unusual, irregular and complicated, but excessive. The movements of the waves, forming a vast expanse of surface, agitated and rolling in a thousand shapes—the diversified movements of the ship, with all its variety of parts and appurtenances—and the movements of the voyager himself reeling and staggering in every direction: all these form an aggregate of agitation sufficient to distract the steadiest head. The contrast between this scene and such as are found on the land, where a great majority of objects are either at rest, or moving with steadiness and regularity, must be apparent to all. 2. The excessive action of the organ of sight, produced by this aggregate of unusual motion, will not appear strange if the quantity of nervous power expended on the eyes be duly considered. No part of the system, in proportion to bulk, is so plentifully supplied with nerves as the eyes. Each optic nerve is as large as a crow-quill at its entrance into the eye. Besides these, the third, fourth, and sixth pairs of nerves, as well as part of the fifth pair, belong to this organ. The incessant employment and activity of vision, during the day, considered in connection with the size and number of the nerves devoted to this sense, will evince that the consumption of nervous power in the eyes is fully as great, if not greater, than that bestowed upon the whole of the upper extremities. 3. The intimate sympathy between the brain and the stomach is also to be considered; whereby the disordered actions of the organ of vision, which possesses so large a branch of the nervous system, make an immediate and powerful impression on the stomach, invert its motions, cause profuse discharges of bile, &c. and produce all the train of distressing sensations which belong to sea-sickness.

It is surprizing to observe what slight causes will, in some constitutions, produce vertigo. An unusual posture, an in-

considerable elevation from the ground, and even a momentary view of objects moving so as to attract the gaze of beholders, will sometimes excite this sensation. Small modifications of motion will also serve to relieve, as well as to produce it. A lady informed me, that, after constantly suffering nausea for some time, from riding in a sleigh, she was relieved, in the latter part of the journey, by a more harsh and rugged motion, in consequence of the snow suddenly dissolving, and leaving the earth bare. In this case, it is probable that the smooth and almost imperceptible progress of the sleigh, while gliding over the snow, prevented the lady's distinguishing the apparent motions of objects which were absolutely at rest, from the real motions of them; and this confusion seems to have been, at least in part, the cause of her giddiness and nausea. The course of the sleigh over sand, gravel, &c. was a nearer approach to ordinary habits of motion.

It is fortunate for such as are destined to a sea-faring life, and to other employments which are apt to produce similar giddiness and nausea, that these affections are commonly of short duration. The dominion of habit, in these cases, is extremely favourable. The Dervises of Turkey, who practise the motion of turning themselves swiftly round as a ceremony of religion, soon learn to perform it without giddiness. A similar habit is acquired among the *Shakers*, a fanatical sect of religionists in the State of New-York. My colleague, Dr. Mitchill, informs me, that he saw a female of that sect turning herself round about sixty times in a minute, for the space of five minutes, without interruption; and this was done without any appearance of her becoming vertiginous.

A question naturally arises on this subject, why some persons are more liable than others to vertigo and nausea, in consequence of unaccustomed motions. This is the result of a greater promptitude, in some constitutions, to run into sympathetic or associate actions. It is not easy to assign the reason why movements of the animal system, which have once occurred in succession or combination, should afterwards acquire a tendency habitually to succeed or accompany each other. It is a property of animated nature, and distinguishes this department of being from others. There seems to be a peculiar temperament, consisting in the too great facility with which fibrous motions acquire habits of association, and in the strength with which these associations are maintained. In constitutions of this sort, sympathy acts with more certainty and energy, and to much greater extent, than in others.

And it is probable that such persons are much more liable than common to all the class of sympathetic diseases. For example, it might be expected that such would be peculiarly disposed to the attack of intermittent fevers; that the periodical return of paroxysms, in these cases, would be more difficult to arrest; and that they would be liable to recur, from slight causes, for many weeks after they had appeared to be cured. The force of memory seems also to depend upon the possession of this temperament; for memory is understood to mean facility and strength in forming and retaining associations. It would be matter of curiosity to ascertain, whether persons of retentive memory are more liable to fevers, to sea-sickness, and to all the various diseases of association, than others.

#### TREATMENT OF SEA-SICKNESS.

Having thus endeavoured to describe the appearance of sea-sickness, and to assign the more probable causes, I proceed, in the next place, to the treatment of the disease.

Much may certainly be done towards the prevention of this disorder. It has been proposed, that persons intending to go to sea should, for some time previously, accustom themselves to swinging, or to some other unusual motions adapted to induce giddiness. The exercise of turning round upon one foot would probably answer this purpose as well; and it may be acquired, after some practice, so as to be performed entirely without vertigo.

Sea-sickness, like many other diseases of association, is greatly under the dominion of emotions and passions of the mind. By forcibly directing the attention to a particular object, the nausea may be relieved, at least for a short time. By joyful or alarming news, by the terrors of a storm or of shipwreck, by the prospect of battle, and by violent pain, such as the anguish of a broken or dislocated bone, the disease may be instantly arrested. But as such degrees of emotion and pain cannot safely be excited on many occasions, and are not susceptible of measure or regulation, they are obviously unfit for practical purposes.

It has been asserted, that keeping the eyes shut or covered, if begun immediately upon embarkation, will prevent sea-sickness. According to the principles maintained in this paper, such an expedient cannot be without use. In a short passage particularly, lying horizontally, sitting or standing, so as to be firmly and steadily supported in one position, with

the eyes, for the most part, shut, is by no means impracticable, and deserves to be strongly recommended. I am informed, by a gentleman of observation, that, while at sea, he enjoyed almost total exemption from this complaint during the darkness of the night, and while he lay horizontally, with his eyes closed, but always experienced a return of it the next morning, as soon as he arose, and began to look at surrounding objects. All agree that it is proper to avoid watching or gazing at the waves, especially when they are strongly agitated by tempest.

The proper management of diet will do much both in the prevention and cure of this disease. It is advised to eat moderately and frequently, to avoid every thing calculated to produce indigestion, and to select such articles as the stomach can digest with the greatest ease, expedition and certainty. For this purpose mariners recommend bread and fresh meat to be eaten cold with pepper; but the occasional use of salted meats will not be found hurtful, and sometimes they undoubtedly deserve a preference. Some contend, that keeping the stomach constantly full, by eating biscuit, &c. is one of the best preventives; and it is not improbable that the stimulus of nutritious and well-adapted food, combined with the stimulus of distention, may be so adjusted as greatly to fortify the powers of the stomach. For drink, it is recommended to use liquids impregnated with the vegetable or carbonic acids—such as lemonade, seltzer-water, sound malt liquors, cyder, champaign, &c.

The sea-sick are advised to keep much upon deck, even in all varieties of the weather. It is also enjoined upon them to take brisk exercise, such as assisting at the pumps, or any other active employment, with as little intermission as the nature of the case will allow: for it has been generally remarked, that indolent and slothful passengers are most apt to suffer from this complaint. Governor *Winthrop*, in his *Journal*, mentions the efficacy of exercise, on a voyage, as a remedy for sea-sickness, in the following terms: "Our children and others that were sick, and lay groaning in the cabbins, were fetched out; and, having stretched a rope from the steerage to the mainmast, we made them stand, some of one side and some of the other, and swing it up and down till they were weary, and by this means they soon grew well and merry."\*

As sea-sickness is undoubtedly a disease of association, and,

\* *Winthrop's Journal of the Transactions and Occurrences in the Settlement of Massachusetts, &c. page 6.*

in that respect, akin to the nature of fevers, it is probable that the stimulant and invigorating remedies employed to repel the attack, as well as to prevent the recurrence of the paroxysms of intermittent fevers, might also be successful in guarding the stomach against the invasion of this complaint. The Peruvian bark and other bitters would be likely to answer this purpose. And after the actual attack of the disease, if great prostration of strength and exhaustion ensue, these remedies, combined with wine and opium, as in fevers of debility, should be assiduously used.

Preserving regularity of the intestinal discharges, and occasionally exciting some degree of artificial diarrhoea, will form an important part of the treatment. The aloetic preparations are among the most suitable of the cathartic class. If acidity be troublesome, as often happens to the feeble and dyspeptic, magnesia will become necessary. Injections of sea-water and soap are always convenient, and deserve to be very frequently employed. It is probable the injection of cold water, or iced water, which, according to Mons. Pomme, so instantaneously relieves the inverted motions of the alimentary canal in hysteria, would likewise prove an efficacious remedy in this case. (See *Pomme Des Affections Vaporeuses*, p. 25.)

As the stomach and skin are very strongly associated, the former may be often excited into action, and supported, through the medium of the latter. For this purpose the sea-sick may use the warm bath alone, or alternated with cold bath, friction of the skin with oil and camphor, or dry, with powder of mustard: to the epigastric region they may apply plasters, epithems or cataplasms charged with aromatics and opium, and, in severe cases, sinapisms or blisters.

Compression of the abdomen, by means of a bandage or handkerchief, is recommended by seamen, and, there is reason to suppose, on good grounds. The savages of North-America, when restricted to scanty food, and pressed by hunger, fasten a belt round their bodies: by this they give support to the empty and enfeebled stomach, and thereby provide a substitute for the stimulus and distention of food. When the stomach has been long harassed with the retchings of sea-sickness, this mechanical aid will assist in sustaining the system until it becomes habituated to its new situation.

It will seldom be requisite to combine many of these remedies in the treatment of a single case. For the most part, relief is easily and speedily obtained, and the common method may be delivered in a few words: When nausea comes



on, and cannot be subdued by mental exertion, the patient should place himself in a horizontal position, shut his eyes, and lie perfectly still. If vomiting succeed, he should take some draughts of an infusion of chamomile, peppermint or ginger, or something similar. Sea-water is commonly recommended by mariners. When the stomach has been thoroughly emptied by the assistance of such drinks, it becomes necessary to use some grateful stimulant. I am informed, that on board of the packet-boats plying between the British ports and those of the adjacent continent, for the conveyance of passengers, that spiced wine is the common remedy. Where this fails, recourse may be had to small doses of sulphuric (vitriolic) ether, frequently repeated, till it compose the stomach. Small doses of opiates should also be tried. The effervescent mixture of Riverius, seltzer-water, lemonade and warm punch, will succeed in some cases. But if the disease, notwithstanding, should obstinately continue, the stomach be harassed with incessant retchings, and exhaustion and debility take place to an alarming degree, it will be requisite to adopt the treatment usually pursued in low fevers of debility. Preparations of Peruvian bark, or rather of columbo or quassia, with wine and opiates, or ether, employed in rotation, and periodically repeated, so as to sustain a moderate and equable excitement of the stomach, will especially claim attention. And, in such extreme degrees of the disease, the other remedies above-mentioned may likewise be selected or combined in such manner as to suit the exigencies of the particular case.

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It is often necessary to attempt the cure of one disease by exciting another. With this view phthical patients and others often are sent to sea. Instead of inquiring into all the circumstances of a sea-voyage which may prove beneficial in such diseases, it will be sufficient for the present purpose to consider the affection of the stomach as one of the chief means of relief. The instances of the efficacy of this remedy are too numerous and remarkable to admit of a doubt. But it has happened, in many cases, from some peculiarities of the stomach or constitution generally, that the usual nausea and vomiting have not occurred, or have been so slight and transient as to disappoint every hope of advantage from the voyage. If the efficacy of this remedy really depend upon the excitement of nausea and vomiting, it is much to be regretted that such a disappointment should take place; as it seems always

to be in the power of the voyager to increase the force and duration of the nausea, by artificial means, to any desirable extent. Swinging, in one form or another, may conveniently be employed in aid of the marine vertigo. If the oscillating or pendulum-like swing should not prove sufficient to create the requisite degree of vertigo, the patient might be whirled in a chair suspended from aloft by two parallel cords hanging near to each other, which, after being circularly revolved fifty or one hundred times in one direction, would return with great velocity in the other. Or, if the debility of the patient should not allow this kind of motion, a small bed, affording room to lie in an easy position, might be suspended to a simple machine adapted to whirl it with any proper degree of gentleness or velocity. By some of these means, varied in such manner as to suit the circumstances of each particular case, there can be no doubt that vertigo might be increased and regulated at pleasure.

In other cases, likewise, besides phthisis pulmonalis, the marine nausea might be usefully augmented by additional unaccustomed motions. The noted example of its efficacy, mentioned by Mr. John Hunter, in causing the matter of a large bubo to be unexpectedly absorbed, is a proof of great power in promoting the action of the lymphatic vessels. The use of emetics, in chronic diseases, might, perhaps, be entirely superseded by sea-sickness, properly assisted and regulated by some of the other means of exciting vertigo.



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## R E V I E W.

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ART. I. *A Memoir concerning the Disease of Goitre, as it prevails in the different Parts of North-America.* By Benjamin Smith Barton, M. D. Professor of *Materia Medica, Natural History and Botany, in the University of Pennsylvania, and one of the Physicians of the Pennsylvania Hospital.* Philadelphia. Way and Groff. 8vo. pp. 94. 1800.

NOT only are the inhabitants of the western continent afflicted with the more *common* distempers of Europe and the other quarters of the globe, but the rarer and more singular complaints to which the human constitution is there liable, are manifesting themselves in North-America. In a widely extended country, reaching from the confines of Acadia to the limits of Florida, there exists a great variety of climate. And in the range from the ocean to the stream of the Mississippi, the diversity, occasioned by alteration of latitude, is exceedingly increased by intervening and local circumstances, which checquer the scenes and the seasons in a remarkable manner. From the low plains in the vicinity of the Atlantic, through the gradual risings, to the summit of the Blue, the Allegheny, and Apalachian Mountains, and the descent thence to the water-level on their further side, the earth presents a surface changing almost perpetually. The high peak, the gentle declivity, the abrupt precipice, and the deep ravine, exhibit their respective peculiarities. From the lofty and ventilated mountain-exposure, and the dry land agreeably alternated with hills and dales, the transition is gradual to the pent-up valley scarcely reached by the breezes, and the dead level where water stagnates, and fogs and exhalations overhang the watery marshes, the dismal swamps, and the tracts in their neighbourhood. In some districts the great strata of the earth consist chiefly of granite, and of the separate bodies which constitute that mineral compound; in others the predominant layers are of arenaceous matter, compacted and hardened into stone. Now the eye of the traveller, day after day, as he journeys along, beholds *slate*; and the different species of

shistic fossils lie thick beneath his feet; and then again he proceeds, for an equal distance, over beds of calcareous earths, exhibiting the forms of lime-stone and marble. Here the eye surveys a wide and barren extent of land; there it dwells upon a tract rendered fertile by the overflowing of rivers, and the gradual deposition of decaying animal and vegetable substances for ages. To these differences of situation are to be added the great changes to which the weather is liable, from moist to dry, from tempest to calm, and from excessive cold to almost intolerable heat, in a region influenced by Ontario, Erie, Huron, and the other lakes, on the one side of the interjacent mountains; and by the ocean, and the gulphs of Mexico and St. Lawrence, on the other.

In such a country, it may be expected that the human constitution will suffer many and variegated diseases. As far as there is a coincidence or similarity of morbid causes, in this as in the other hemisphere, distempers of a like kind can hardly fail to break out. And this disposition of the physical powers to debilitate or disfigure the body in America, may be facilitated by the predisposition to a given distemper, or the actual existence of it, in an emigrant from any part of Europe in which scrophula, phthisis, or goitre prevails.

To the investigation of the latter of these distempers, as it occurs in North-America, the author of the present tract has turned his attention. This is the work which was announced, as our readers will recollect, in our vol. i. p. 386, first edition.

Dr. Barton found the goitrous swelling of the neck among the Oneida and the Brother-Town Indians, and describes it as occurring on the German Flats, at Fort-Dayton, and at Henderson-Town, among the white inhabitants, in the neighbourhood of the Mohawk River.

“Some of the most remarkable cases of the disease are in a Dutch family which lives upon the north side of the Mohawk River, immediately opposite to Old Fort-Schuyler. This family consists of a father, a mother, and four or five children. Every one of them is afflicted with the goitre. The swellings occasion some of them to look hideous. This family removed from the river below this, to the place where they now dwell, about fifteen years ago, at which time they had nothing of the disease among them.”

He found it to be frequent, also, in the military tract, especially in the town of Manlius, in the Onondago-hollow, and the neighbourhood of the Salt-Springs, affecting both

Indians and whites. Though infants at the breast are not exempted from it (such cases being rare), yet it is much more common among adults. Persons who have removed into the country where it prevails, have become subject to it at a very advanced age. Females are more liable to it than males; they are especially its victims. It is said, also, to affect brute animals, especially sheep and young calves, in the above-mentioned town of Manlius, in New-York. Within this State, the author thinks its existence limited between the Little Falls of the Mohawk, eastward, and the settlement of the Tuscaroras, near the extreme westernmost boundary, in the vicinity of the Great Cataract of Niagara. Its northern and southern extent he has not been able to define; though he observes it has occurred in Lower-Canada, between St. John's and Montreal—on the Connecticut-River in New-Hampshire—in the county of Bennington, in Vermont—in the Cohos Country in Connecticut. Within the territory of Pennsylvania, it is stated as occurring at Pittsburgh, on the waters of the Allegheny and French Creeks, at Sandusky, on the Monongahela, and among the Indians on Big-Beaver-Creek: also on the River Muskingum, among the aborigines; and here, as at the last-mentioned places, principally affecting the women and girls. There have been several cases, too, among the Canadians of Detroit, and among the settlers at St. Vincennes, on the River Wabash.

In the part of the author's inquiry which respects the cause of goitre, he examines the opinion of DE LUC, that it proceeds from water impregnated with earthy substances, prone to form tophous concretions; of COXE, that it is caused by *tuf*, or calcareous earth, held in solution by the water which the goitrous inhabitants of the Alps constantly drink; and, *of the inhabitants of the State of New-York*, that it is owing to the quality of the water of the country, which is highly charged with lime-stone. These, which form what may be called the CALCAREOUS HYPOTHESIS, Dr. B. with great candour and impartiality, examines and rejects. He even doubts whether the water drank by the people of a region or district, in any manner, occasions this complaint, and quotes the great Haller of Berne, as possessing a similar scepticism.

He then considers the notion of the goitre being produced by *snow-water*, or the water of melted snow, and shows its impossibility very strikingly; the opinion of GAUTIERE, that it arises principally from exposure to cold, and the drinking of very cold water; and that of G. FORSTER, that it is caused

by drinking of water deprived, by freezing, of its *fixed air*; to both which he offers decisive objections. He also examines and rejects the ideas of this disease being induced by the drinking of water supplied by springs *near beds of fossil coal*, or of the same fluid impregnated *by certain vegetables*; as also the notion of its being produced by *insects infesting the water*, or the ANIMALCULAR HYPOTHESIS; and that of its origin from *coarse and unwholesome food*, except as such diet may operate as a predisposing cause, with several other speculations.

The learned author next discusses the theory of Mr. DE SAUSSURE, according to which goitre is caused *by a heated and stagnated air*, owing to the confined situation of the valleys in which the disease frequently appears in Switzerland. This, however, he does not adopt, because, in America, the goitre is not confined to valleys, but prevails in some of the high and level plains of the country—and in some of the more deep and narrow valleys it is altogether unknown.

Lastly, Professor Barton, with great caution and modesty, offers his own opinion on the exciting cause of goitre, which is, that it is a miasin of the same species as that *which produces intermittent and remittent fevers, dysenteries, and similar complaints*. The author expresses himself thus:

“Do intermittents and remittents prevail in those parts of the countries of North-America in which the goitre is most commonly met with? I have already said that they do. Many facts, however, must be collected before this question can be answered as extensively as it ought to be. Meanwhile I shall mention some of those districts in which both these fevers and the disease of which I am treating are very common.

“I have already observed, that the Onondago-Valley, where goitres are frequent, is unwholesome. Intermittents and remittents, and these sometimes of a very malignant kind, are frequent here. These complaints are frequent in Manlius, Pompey, and other parts of the military tract. They are frequent along the Mohawk and Connecticut Rivers; between St. John's and Montreal; about Detroit; on the Muskingum; and in almost all those parts of our country in which the goitre is found. It has, indeed, been said, that intermittents are unknown at Pittsburgh. This is not strictly true. On the contrary, these complaints are known to exist in that place, and have evidently increased within a few years.

“In the present state of our information, it will be difficult

to prove that the goitre does actually owe its origin to the same causes which induce intermittent fevers. We are certainly not yet prepared to decide upon this subject (as philosophers should decide upon every subject which they undertake to investigate) with caution. I may add, that many difficulties oppose themselves to the conjecture which I have thrown out. In particular, it is not easy to conceive how a general cause, stimulating the system, and inducing the cold and hot stages, and other phenomena of fevers, should concentrate its action so completely upon the thyroid and neighbouring glands of the head and neck, and give rise to the disease of goitre. Perhaps, however, an extensive view of facts relative to the production of diseases by the *miasmata* of marshes, would serve to show the immense variety of ways in which these miasmata affect us, and the multifarious diseases which they induce in man and other animals. There is something very capricious in the operation of these agents. And I do not know that it is more inconceivable, that the effluvia of which I am speaking should especially affect the thyroid gland, and induce goitre, than that they should especially affect the parotid glands, producing mumps, or the liver, producing hepatitis.

“ It may, perhaps, give some additional weight to the theory which I have proposed, to observe, that the marsh miasmata of some parts of our country exert a particular action upon the glands of the neck and throat. Kalm has given some account of a disease, called by the Swedes the ‘stitches and burning,’ which, at different times, has committed great havoc at Penn’s Neck, in Jersey. ‘It was (says our author) a true pleurisy; but it had a peculiarity with it, for it commonly began with a great swelling under the throat and in the neck, and with a difficulty of swallowing.’\*

“ The complexion of many goitrous persons, especially those in whom the disease has arisen to a considerable height, is an additional circumstance in favour of the opinion which I have advanced. ‘Their complexion (says De Saussure, speaking of the crétins) is a yellow approaching to brown, from which, probably, they obtained the name of *marons*,† which is given to them in the valley of Aoste.’‡

“ I was informed that, in the State of New-York, those

\* “ Travels into North-America, &c. vol. i. p. 376, 377, &c. Warrington, 1770. English translation.

† “ The maron is a large kind of chestnut.

‡ “ Voyages, &c. tom. ii. p. 481.

persons who are affected with goitre are commonly exempt from intermittents, though in the midst of persons labouring under these latter complaints. If this be a fact, it would rather serve to show, that the goitre and the intermittent are owing to the same cause.

“ I am far from imagining that the preceding facts completely establish the origin of goitre from the miasmata of marshes. I have offered this opinion merely as a conjecture or hypothesis. I cannot, however, help suspecting that future and more extensive inquiries will establish the fact, that there is a very intimate connection between the disease in question and the exhalations from marshy grounds. Persuaded I am, that there is a necessary connection between the disease and a moist atmosphere.\*

“ Mr. Foderè is of opinion, that a warm and moist atmosphere is the cause of the goitre. This writer, whom I have so often quoted, made his observations in Maurienne, where the disease is extremely common, perhaps more so than in any other part of the world. It is remarkable that the goitre prevails to the greatest degree in the western parts of North-America, where many observations have conspired to show, that there is a greater quantity of moisture in the atmosphere than in the countries between the Atlantic and the Allegheny Mountains. ‘ From a variety of observations (says Mr. Andrew Ellicott), I am convinced, that the atmosphere in the western country, and particularly in the vicinity of the lakes, contains a greater quantity of moisture than in the middle Atlantic States. The wooden works which contained my instruments were always uncommonly swelled, and frequently very much injured in that country, though constantly defended from the rain, and occasionally exposed to the sun. The ivory and wood of my sectors, with brass joints, always expanded above the metal. This expansion was not sudden, but effected by slow degrees.’ †

“ My own observations, which will be detailed at length in another work, ‡ coincide with those of the ingenious gentleman

\* “ I do not now speak of insulated or detached cases of the complaint, for they occur every where; but of the disease where it is a common complaint. Even those aerial tumours which arise in women after parturition, seem only to arise in those situations where the complaint, from marsh miasmata, or from moisture, is endemial.

† “ Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, vol. iv. No. xxv. p. 225 and 226. Philadelphia. 1799.

‡ “ Travels through part of Pennsylvania, Virginia, New-York, &c. &c.



just quoted. The greater degree of moisture, in the neighbourhood of the lakes, is, perhaps, the best explanation of the fact which I have already mentioned, that, in general, the goitre 'prevails to the greatest degree in the neighbourhood of the lakes of the country, or about the first sources of the rivers which arise near these lakes.'

"Mr. Ellicott has likewise observed, that 'fogs are very common, and of remarkable density,' on the Ohio and Allegheny, and their branches. This accords with my own observations. I cannot, however, agree with Mr. Ellicott, that these fogs do not contain 'any portion of those noxious miasmata which are so frequently combined with the fogs on the eastern side of the mountains.' On the contrary, I am persuaded, that the fogs of the western, as well as of the Atlantic country, are often very insalubrious. I know, at least, that many parts of the country along the Ohio, and other western waters, are very unhealthy. I do not doubt that the dense fogs are one great cause of this unhealthiness; and, I believe, that such fogs are insalubrious, chiefly by reason of the miasmata which they contain. This is not the place to examine the contrary opinion, which has been adopted by Mr. Ramel."

The work is concluded by a short chapter on the medical treatment of the disease; and blood-letting, purging, quicksilver, burnt sponge, sulphure of pot-ash, and several other remedies are mentioned. An appendix of sixteen pages contains a variety of learned and instructive matter.

As, in the course of this work, Dr. B. has several times referred to the *Essay on Goitre and Cretinage* of Mr. Foderè, published in 8vo. pp. 290, at Turin, in 1792, we shall lay before our readers an account of this publication, with the intent, as far as we are able, of aiding the researches of those who are striving to detect the cause, and thereby the prevention and cure, of a disease which always disfigures the body, and is frequently connected with idiotism, stupidity, or deplorable imbecility of mind.

*(To be continued.)*

ART. II. *A Treatise on the Plague and Yellow Fever, &c.*  
By James Tytler.

[Continued from vol. iii. p. 379, and concluded.]

HAVING offered the fruit of his researches concerning the *plague*, as a disease specifically distinct from every other, in the first part of his treatise, Mr. Tytler proceeds, in the second great division of his work, to exhibit the product of his labours on the subject of *yellow fever*.

This distemper, he inclines to think, was not originally a native of the western world, but was imported into Martinique from Siam, in 1685, and spread thence, by contagion, to St. Domingo, Barbadoes, and the neighbouring islands, till, at length, its baleful presence afflicted the continent of America. He does not give us any account of its history among the Siamese, nor even state the proof of its existence in that country; nor does he mention whether this malady was a scourge in the hand of Providence to chastise the East-Indians for their sins—nor, if so, what the kind and enormity of their offences were. We are left to conjecture the cause, and, by the similarity of the cases, to suppose it was some misdemeanor not unlike that for which the Jews were punished with the plague. This latter story seems to us full as philosophical and worthy of credit as the former. Mr. T. also leans towards the possibility of the Indians of the more northern latitudes having received the seeds of malignant diseases from the fleet of Sebastian Cabot, who coasted along the continent in the reign of Henry VII. as, in the army of that prince, not many years before, the sweating sickness, he says, had been introduced into England. The *possibility* of this we shall not deny; but we can see no more likelihood or *probability* in *this* than in the *two* other examples of origin and derivation this gentleman has favoured us with. This is his first chapter, which abounds with quotations from Mosely, Hillary, Hughes, Webster and Sauvages.

In his second, which runs to the length of one hundred and twenty-four pages, Mr. T. states, at some length, the descriptions of yellow fever by a number of the more distinguished writers on that disease, such as Mosely, Lining, Lind, Hillary, Jackson, Chisholm, Rush, and other practitioners and dissectors. From an examination of all which he gravely concludes, not only that the plague is *essentially* different from the distempers described by these authors, but that the *yellow fever*,

the fever of Boullam, and that of Philadelphia, in 1793, "though nearly allied," "can none of them, with any kind of propriety, be called higher and lower degrees of the rest," (p. 433). He then proceeds to an inquiry, whether or not they are *contagious*? And, after reviewing the controversy about the disorder, as it appeared in Grenada, New-York, Philadelphia, Norfolk and New-Haven, determines the question in the affirmative, and that the contagion is, in all cases, *specific* and *immutable* (p. 465); yet allows, afterwards (p. 479), the possibility "that diseases may change their nature"—and that the pestilential poison, when transported "to the western continent (from Europe or Asia), may assume a different, and, in many respects, an opposite nature; the two diseases, being thus like the opposite poles of a magnet, scarce agreeing in any thing but the common work of destruction." It is admitted that the aborigines of North-America were afflicted by pestilential diseases before their country was possessed by the whites. Mr. T. explains this, by supposing that two Indians, who, in the time of Sir Ferdinando Gorges, had been to England, brought the *contagion of plague* with them, which, in the American climate, turned to yellow fever, or something like it. What a pity that the bodies and clothes of these men, as well as Dr. Brattle's and Mr. Anthony's *wigs*, had not been smoked! (p. 466). In our judgment, the contagion contended for, which we never considered as proved before, has not acquired any additional evidence: for we must own that Mr. T. with all his learning, industry and conjectures, instead of convincing our understandings, has only shown, more glaringly than we have observed on any former occasion, to what desperate shifts the supporters of the contagious hypothesis are driven.

Mr. T. in his third section, mentions various preventative modes and cautions, and, among others, abstinence from animal food, tea, coffee and chocolate, with somewhat a sentiment of disapprobation. He then recites some of the means of prevention recommended by Rush and Chisholm.

After this the writer gives an account of the fumigation of rooms and ships which contain infection, by the vapours of the *acid of nitre*. He relies on this as a destroyer of putrid contagion, and as an agent whose sovereign efficacy is determined by facts which cannot be overthrown. The decision of Mr. T. on this point, we consider by far too positive and peremptory. It becomes him, and the gentlemen, many of them of the most respectable character in England, who

think as he does, to re-consider these boasted experiments on nitrous fumigation. We deliver it as our firm and solemn conviction, that these trials have been egregiously misunderstood and misinterpreted. They do not militate against the theory of Dr. Mitchill, as Mr. T. supposes, but, on the contrary, are capable of entire reconciliation with it. We shall not, however, go into the discussion in this place; but, instead thereof, refer our readers to vol. ii. p. 229 & seq.—to vol. iii. p. 200 & seq.—and to Mr. Carendeffez's experiments on the constitution of nitrous and nitric acids, in vol. iii. p. 418, of the Medical Repository, where they will, we trust, find enough to satisfy them that this very fumigation with acid of nitre ought to be considered as a mistake or delusion in science.

On the cure of yellow fever, he enumerates, under different titles, quick-silver, venesection, emetics, cathartics, stimulants, alkalies and refrigerants, with some remarks from practical writers on each. Next follows the fourth and last section, which is filled with remarkable cases, to the amount of ten; of which, the one on the *spontaneous combustion* of the human body does not seem to us to have any particular connection either with plague or yellow fever.

The appendix to the volume contains several papers relative to pestilential distempers, some of which are quotations, and others abstracts, from different books. Of the former are, a description of the sickness of Athens during the Peloponnesian war, from Smith's translation of Thucydides—a remarkable case of a remitting fever at Bassorah, in 1780—and the queries furnished by Aikin and Jebb to Howard, and put, by him, to several physicians in the countries he visited, concerning the plague. Of the latter are, the account of the great plague in the time of Justinian, from Procopius—of the plague in London, in 1665, from Hodges and others—of the plague at Marseilles, in 1720, from the periodical publications of the time—and of the plague in Syria, Cyprus, and other parts of the east, from P. Ruffel's Treatise. We are willing to believe these abstracts are correct, though we have not compared them with the originals.

ART. III. *Transactions of the Society, instituted in the State of New-York, for the Promotion of Agriculture, Arts and Manufactures, Part iv. Published by order of the Society.*

[Continued from vol. iii. p. 389, and concluded.]

ANOTHER gentleman, whose pieces make a distinguished appearance in this volume, is Simeon De Witt, surveyor-general of the State of New-York. A sensible and well-composed address is prefixed to the other communications, which he delivered before the society in the assembly-chamber, in Albany, on the 20th February, 1799. From this piece we offer our readers Mr. D.'s remarks on the establishment of an agricultural garden for experiments (p. 15):

“Notwithstanding all the persuasives that can be employed to excite gentlemen, dispersed through the State, to bend their endeavours to the improvement of agriculture; notwithstanding the confessed importance of the subject, and the general consent that our wealth and greatness as a people must hence be derived; notwithstanding it be acknowledged that here is a field without bounds for the display of talents and taste, and that incentives from the most amiable passions of the heart urge us to it; I fear that we will not find the design of this institution fully executed, if we wholly rely on the efforts of its scattered members. We have, indeed, no reason to doubt that their contributions to the fund of experiments will be large and spirited; but they will be too heterogeneous, and not always such as will serve completely to demonstrate the facts most necessary to be proved. The only way by which we can systematically and effectually do our business, is by establishing an *experimental agricultural garden*. This, to us, will be the same thing that a laboratory is to the chemist. He, with his apparatus in his room, has dissected earth, air and water—chased nature through all her intricate flights, and formerly deemed inscrutable mazes—penetrated to her secret hiding places—explored her dark recesses—unlocked her cabinets—rifled them of her richest jewels—and filled the treasury of science. What would he, or could he have done, if his dependence for information had been altogether or chiefly on the labours of others? It is to be presumed that a cloud of darkness would yet enshroud that most useful and delightful of sciences. In the same manner an agricultural garden, properly conducted, might be made a little representative, &

miniature of the world, and furnish, in a short space of time, more facts relative to the history, nature, disposition, constitution, laws, government, and general economy of the republic of vegetables, than could, by any practicable means, be obtained from all America in a large portion of a century. Here exotics might be collected and naturalized—our wild, indigenous plants tamed, and their useful qualities investigated—every mode of culture tried, and the best accurately ascertained—experiments made of whatever promises fair in theory, or may lead to future discoveries and proofs of all those exhibited to the eye, so that no one should have occasion to risk any thing by venturing on doubtful projects.

“This State, it must be confessed, does not unfold to the philosophic world a much admired feature in the portrait of America. By what institutions for the furtherance of useful knowledge, or by what extraordinary efforts of our citizens to advance the arts of peace, truly patriotic, have we distinguished ourselves? A university, colleges and academies, we have, it is true. They serve to save us from the shame of not following the fashion of nations. Nothing extraordinary can be placed to our credit on their account. What more have we to boast of? How few of our learned characters step aside, for a moment, from their professional employments, to show themselves interested in diffusing a taste for useful philosophy and works of ingenuity!”

A second communication, by the same hand, is on the methods of introducing heat into rooms and preventing its escape. This is the piece which is inserted at large in our vol. iii. p. 229; and to this we refer.

A third contributor of materials for this volume is Ezra L' Hommedieu, the Vice-President of the society. His essays are on the following subjects: 1. Observations on the smut of wheat, and the means of preventing it. This is principally an extract from Young's Annals, vol. x. p. 231; where it is stated, that arsenic, alkaline ley of wood-ashes, and lime-water, were the best preventatives of that disease. 2. On preserving mildewed wheat from injury—from Marshall's Gloucestershire, vol. ii. p. 54; where it is recommended to cut the crop as soon as it is struck by mildew, upon the principle that the sap or nutriment which is in the stalks of the wheat that is cut unripe, circulates to the ear, and fills the grain in the same manner it would have done had the stems remained upon their roots. 3. The method of curing diseases of fruit-trees, &c. This is merely a description of the receipt of Mr.

Forlyth, of Kensington; consisting of one bushel of fresh cow-dung, half a bushel of lime-rubbish of old buildings, half a bushel of wood-ashes, and one sixteenth of a bushel of pit or river sand, mixed together, and applied as a plaster.

4. Observations on the growth and nourishment of plants, by Mr. L'H. himself; wherein he adopts the opinion that *air* and *water* constitute the nutritive ingredients of plants.

5. On improving the breed of horned cattle, sheep and hogs. Mr. L'H. thinks the changing and crossing the breed of these animals a matter of great importance in husbandry, to prevent dwindling and degeneracy of the stock; and illustrates his doctrine by the experiments of Mr. Eaton and Mr. Clift, in New-York, and by extracts from the published sales by English farmers.

6. Method of distilling ardent spirit from potatoes, with observations—from the fourth volume of the Bath papers. The object is to show that seventy-two pounds of potatoes will afford five quarts of brandy, and, of course, that one hundred pounds, which Mr. L'H. supposes will amount to about two bushels, will make seven quarts, and be worth seven shillings. Whence he is led to ask, “Whether it would not be much for the interest of our *new* country to make brandy from potatoes rather than from wheat or rye, which are so much wanted by the new settlers, and will bear transportation to market, to enable the farmer to preserve the necessaries he wants? and whether it would not be better for our *old* settled country to make their spirits from potatoes rather than from apples, which would afford cyder, which is more wholesome and palatable than the spirits made from that fruit?”

We likewise observe several papers under the signature of Samuel L. Mitchill. They are as follow: viz. 1. Observations on canker-worms, a species of phalæna exceedingly injurious to orchards of apple-trees. The object of the writer is to show that the male only of this species of insect has wings, but that the female is apterous, and can only creep; that she ascends the trunk of the tree from the ground, as early in the spring as the 25th of March, and deposits her eggs upon the nascent leaves; and that the way to prevent their ravages would be to impede their progress as they crawl up to the branches.

2. On the providential or white-knobbed clover. This is a note, accompanying some clover seeds, received from England under that name, said to be a new species of trefoil. The trials made with it have not, that we have learned, shown that any advantage arises from the cultivation of it.

3. A sketch of the mineralogy of the State of

New-York. This is an abstract of the report which the Commissioner presented to the Society, after having made a tour, pursuant to their appointment, in 1796. The particulars of this may be much more completely and correctly seen in our vol. i. p. 293 and p. 445 first edit. and vol. iii. p. 325.

There are several other papers in this volume: as, 1. An account of some of the natural productions of the western parts of the State, by John W. Watkins. 2. On the effects of ever-green trees in augmenting the coldness of climates, by Noah Webster, jun. 3. On the cultivation of the poppy-plant for opium, and of *palma christi* for castor-oil, by Shadrach Ricketson. 4. On the effects of nitre and salt-petre in promoting the growth of corn and wheat, by Robert Johnson. This writer's directions are thus expressed:

“Take three ounces of salt-petre, bruise it fine, and dissolve it in as much soft or brook water as will immerse one half bushel of corn, to which add one pint of strong ley; steep the corn in this liquor, before planting, twenty hours, then spread it on a dry floor about five or six hours, when it will be fit to plant. I make no doubt but this treatment would be useful to feed wheat or other grain, and shall here relate an experiment I made about two years past. Late in the fall, a neighbour of mine being at my house, was lamenting that he had met with some embarrassment that had prevented him from sowing part of his crop of wheat in proper time: I told him, if he would follow my directions, I would engage the wheat he would now sow would be as forward in growth as what he had sown a fortnight past. He promised to follow whatever I would prescribe; and I gave him as much salt-petre as was sufficient for what wheat he had to sow, enjoining him, at the same time, to give me an accurate account of the success of his crop. About the time his wheat was fit to reap, he came and told me the wheat he had sown by my directions was on the same kind of ground his other wheat was sowed on—that it was sooner ripe—that it grew four inches longer than what he had sown early, and was at least 25 per cent. better.”

5. Observations on marle, by the same. He informs the society, that in Essex and Suffex counties, in New-Jersey, there are good beds of marle, and that he is confident it may be found, in great abundance, in New-York. 6. An experimental essay on the properties of the *gallium tinctorum*, and its use in the art of dying, by Professor Woodhouse. 7. Description of a new-invented fire-place, by John Stevens



The book also contains the report of a committee appointed to report a plan for the preservation and propagation of trees; as wood for timber and fuel are becoming so alarmingly scarce; and a part of the representation made to the Legislature, on the best mode of salting and preparing beef for exportation, being the ground-work of the act relative to this subject, passed during the session of 1799.

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ART. IV. *A Treatise on the Nature, Origin and Progress of the Yellow Fever, with Observations on its Treatment; comprizing an Account of the Disease in several of the Capitals of the United States; but more particularly as it has prevailed in Boston.* By Samuel Brown, M. B. Boston. Manning and Loring. 8vo. pp. 112. 1800.

ON perusing this Treatise, we find it is a prize-dissertation, the subject of which was proposed by the Humane Society of Boston, and which we announced in our vol. iii. p. 413. That town, in common with all the other principal sea-ports of the United States, has been severely visited, of late, by pestilential diseases; and it gratifies us to observe, that its public-spirited inhabitants have not been idle spectators and sufferers of this calamity. The medical gentlemen of Boston have ably co-operated with their brethren in other parts of our country, in the investigation of this subject. In that town we are happy to recognize several distinguished physicians, who have not only meritoriously exerted themselves in this inquiry, but whose whole character does honour to their country and to their profession.

To the author of this Treatise, already favourably known to our readers by his attention to this subject (see our vol. ii. p. 390, first edit.), was adjudged, after careful deliberation, the premium of the Humane Society. The first part of the performance is chiefly devoted to the history of the disease, as it prevailed in Boston in the summer and autumn of 1798. The leading facts on this point were stated in the paper just referred to, and do not materially differ from such as have occurred in other places.

In tracing the causes of pestilential diseases, our author reviews many of the more prominent facts concerning the ope-

ration of marsh exhalations and human effluvia. For this purpose he states instances of the occurrence of such diseases in some of the most baneful climates in the world, where the relations of cause and effect are so evident and pointed as to preclude all doubt on the score of origin and locality. As to the constitution of this pestilential principle, he sets forth, and is inclined to adopt, the opinion of Dr. Mitchill, that it is formed by the different modifications of septic (azotic) and oxygenous matters evolved and chemically combined in the putrefaction of animal and vegetable substances. Conformably to this doctrine of the noxiousness of the acid of putrefaction, he mentions the salubrious properties of alkaline and calcareous substances, and of all the neutral salts whose alkaline bases may be seized by this stronger acid.

The treatment of this disease in Boston did not materially differ from that adopted in most other places. It is thus described, in general terms, by our author:

“The method of cure generally advised and pursued by the physicians here, was concisely this:—On the commencement of the disease, or in the first paroxysm, when there is great heat and convulsed motion of the heart and vessels, evacuate thoroughly and universally, by mercurial cathartics, by diaphoresis, and by blood-letting: all these, with poultices, fomentations, pediluvium, bathing (cold and warm), blistering, enemata, &c. in such extent, variety, and continuance of application, as circumstances require. After one or two effectual cathartic evacuations, give mercurial pills, of one, two, or three grains, every one, two, or three hours, as symptoms shall indicate. Move the bowels with something cathartic, every, or every other day. *Drinks*—subacid, diluent, emollient. Continue thus till arterial commotion and heat subside, secretions and excretions are in some measure restored, and the signs of returning health appear: then use restoratives, viz. wine, bark, &c. *Food*—light and easy to the stomach, but generous and gently stimulating; in small quantities, and often.”

Among preventative means, the author enumerates most of those regulations of police which have been so often urged, and so commonly neglected, or inadequately executed, in American cities. These suggestions are of great importance, and deserve to be reiterated on every proper occasion. But it is to be feared that a much longer lapse of time, and more accumulated experience of the ravages of such diseases, will be neces-

fary to induce our countrymen to adopt efficacious means of combating the effects arising from the infelicities of our climate, and from those peculiar local circumstances in which we especially differ from the regions of northern and western Europe. This is one of the many points in which the citizens of the United States are unwilling to detach themselves from transatlantic habits and prepossessions, and to conform to that system of duty and interest which nature and reason combine to impose.—The other directions which are given by our author concerning diet, and particularly the moderate use of animal food, as well as of distilled and fermented liquors, concerning personal cleanliness, dress, the regulations of exercise and labour, government of the passions, the avoiding of exposure to cold, night air, &c. &c. and likewise the preserving regularity of the intestinal discharges, are all so judicious and proper that we are confident they will be adopted by every reader.

Dr. Brown denies that yellow fever is originated or propagated by any specific contagion. After exhibiting many strong examples and authorities in support of this opinion, he proceeds thus:

“ The facts and considerations already adduced, separate from what might be further observed, show, sufficiently clearly, that those only are rightly denominated contagious diseases which invade the constitution only once; which act, with almost equal effect, upon every variety of constitution, and temperament of body; which always bear the same type, and are invariable in their characteristic symptoms; and which are not changed, in these respects, by climate, or by any variety of atmosphere: but those diseases which are either sporadic or epidemic, according to the quantity and degree of heat, cold and moisture, or which vary with the states and conditions of the atmospheric elements; which are confined to particular complexions, constitutions and climates; which are capable of every degree of variation in type and symptom, from the mildest form up to the highest degree of malignancy; which invade the constitution an indefinite number of times, and with the greater malignity the oftener it has been attacked, are not specifically contagious; they may be called infectious, if by infection we understand the effluvia of putrescent substances, elevated by heat, and then denominated the gaseous oxyd of azote; or, combined with oxygen, forming septic acid gases. Inasmuch as these materials, thus produced, and diffused in the atmosphere, thereby destroy its salubrity, and occasion

such a depravity as to give rise to putrid diseases, either sporadic or epidemic; according to the locality or more general extent of the pestilential atmosphere, it is accurate to say that such diseases depend upon certain states or certain vicissitudes of the atmosphere, together with such other causes as produce debility in the constitution.

“The beneficial consequences which would result from a full and an implicit adoption of the doctrine above advanced, are numerous and important. In general, we should no longer find men wasting their time and ingenuity in insisting upon an ideal being, a *something* and a *nothing*, as the source of epidemic disease, and in tracing it from city to city, from continent to continent; which, when traced to where they *choose* to find it, will not allow it to be any thing obvious to the senses—cannot be known by any chemical test—is ‘imperceptible,’ &c. &c. On the contrary, we should see that the source of mischief might be among ourselves, and is the offspring, however monstrous, of our own vices; by these it is nurtured; the parentage and filiation is [*are*] wholly ours. We should be convinced, that there is not a city or town, in any climate, sea-port or inland, house or habitation in either, wherein malignant diseases may not originate. The regulations necessary to cleanliness, in doors and out, would be unremittingly attended to; and any thing that might tend to destroy the healthy temperament of the atmosphere, either generally or locally, would be immediately proscribed, by those vested with adequate authority.”

We cannot conclude without expressing approbation of the disposal of the patronage and premium of the Humane Society of Boston, on this occasion, as worthy of an enlightened and patriotic association; and we recommend the perusal of the pamphlet to all who are desirous to see a brief and compact exhibition of some of the more important facts and authorities concerning this subject. The author displays the features of an inquisitive and discriminating mind. We hope he will continue to employ his researches in a course where so many interesting things are still to be learned, and where so many incentives are found to urge the pursuit.

ART. V. *Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, held at Philadelphia, for promoting useful Knowledge. Vol. iv. Philadelphia. Dobson. 4to. pp. 531. 1799.*

THIS volume presents to the public a continuation of the labours of the oldest association for promoting science in the new world. Founded principally by the enterprise, exertions and influence of Dr. Franklin, this Society has preserved, from the period of institution to the present moment, much of that zeal for the advancement of practical and substantial inquiries, as well as of sound learning in general, which distinguished the character of that illustrious citizen. The efforts since made, in some of the other States, to promote the same objects, may, perhaps, in part, be justly ascribed to the excitement and emulation originally inspired by the reputation and success which have invariably attended the career of the Philosophical Society at Philadelphia.

This ample volume contains seventy-six communications on a great variety of subjects. Though we have not confined our work to objects merely medical, nor even always to discussions usually supposed to bear relation to medical objects, we design, in the review of this volume, as its contents are so numerous as well as multifarious, to pursue a more restricted course, and to examine such papers only as claim the notice of professional readers.

The first paper consists of *experiments and observations relating to the analysis of atmospherical air, by the Rev. Dr. Priestley*. Two positions are attempted to be experimentally established in this paper: first, that, in what he calls the *phlogistication* of atmospherical air, there is not merely an absorption of one portion of it, to wit, the oxygenous portion, but that the phlogisticating material emits a somewhat which may be properly called phlogiston, or the principle of inflammability: and, secondly, that the basis of phlogisticated air, or azote, is composed of phlogiston and dephlogisticated air, and is not a simple substance, as the antiphlogistians contend to be the case in the present state of chemical knowledge.

In order to support the former of these positions, Dr. P. adduces the experiment of phlogisticating air by a mixture of iron filings and sulphur with a little water. Here hydrogen

gas, or sulphurated hydrogen gas, will be extricated. There is no doubt that iron, in the state in which it is commonly presented to us, contains hydrogen; it contains carbon also, more especially cast-iron, in which the quantity of carbon is considerable: of consequence, the antiphlogistians, in maintaining that iron and zinc are simple substances, undoubtedly run into error.—Dr. P. made another set of experiments with *calcined black bones*, by heating them in air confined over water, by means of a burning lens, till they became white. These bones gained no addition of weight; the air was diminished, and the remainder of it was completely phlogisticated. But it is surely not difficult to explain this on antiphlogistic principles. The pure air, by combining with the carbonic matter of the black bones, formed fixed air, which was absorbed by the water; while the whitened bones, by the absorption of water, and, perhaps, of some portion of the pure air, received a compensation for the weight lost by parting with their carbon. This seems to be proved by Dr. P.'s own acknowledgment, that “when these bones are heated over lime-water, there is a copious precipitation of the lime.” The Dr. also admits, that “in these experiments with bones there is sometimes a small loss of weight.” Similar results were observed from experiments made with small polished *steel needles*: for when they were heated so as only to become blue, and were not melted, they gained little, if any, weight, and diminished the air nearly in the same proportion as the black bones, leaving the remainder almost completely phlogisticated. The only way in which we can account for these experiments, is by supposing the steel to have been only slightly oxydated, and the remainder of the pure air, with the hydrogen of the steel, to have formed water.

To establish his second position, that phlogisticated air, or azote, is not a simple substance, but consists of phlogiston and dephlogisticated air, Dr. P. brings forward several experiments. He mentions a fact related by M. Metherie, that after a mixture of dephlogisticated and inflammable airs had been kept a long time, the mixture was found to contain a considerable portion of phlogisticated air. Dr. P. found, himself, that these two kinds of air unite completely by being confined some time together in a moist bladder. But the inference of union, in this case, seems not to be absolutely legitimate, when we recollect the experiment, made a long time ago by our author, to prove that dephlogisticated air may readily

pervade the coats of a moist bladder. Another argument in favour of the union of dephlogisticated and inflammable airs, in forming phlogisticated air, is drawn by Dr. P. from the experiment of producing the latter by exposing inflammable air to a surface of rusted iron, which is known to become so by imbibing pure air. In the course of this experiment, the iron, from being red, became of a very dark colour. It seems to us to be a more probable supposition, that the base of inflammable air, which we admit to enter into the ordinary constitution of iron, was, in this case, gradually absorbed by the iron, and that the remaining phlogisticated air was the result of azotic matter which had been entangled in the rust, or of the same matter introduced by the accidental and almost unavoidable impurity of the inflammable air.

The second paper, which also comes from the pen of the Rev. Dr. Priestley, is entitled, *Farther experiments relating to the generation of air from water.*

Having, in a former publication, delivered an account of some experiments made to prove that air may be produced from the same water, by means of heat and the Torricellian vacuum, without any perceivable limit, the learned author, in this communication, states the result of farther experiments, to throw light on the subject. He had not obtained from water, in the former set of experiments, any other kind of air than such as was, in a greater or less degree, purer than that of the atmosphere; and, therefore, he supposed that this might have been the source of all atmospheric air. But he has "since found, that though the first quantity of air that is expelled from water is much purer than that of the atmosphere, the next is less pure, and, at last, is wholly phlogisticated." It may be inferred from this fact, according to the opinion of our author, "either that the air produced from water is not that which had been imbibed from the atmosphere; or that, though it imbibes most readily that which is purest, it retains, with the greatest obstinacy, that which is least pure, which is analogous to other chemical affinities." With the view of carrying the experiments on this subject as far as possible, Dr. P. endeavoured to convert the whole of a small quantity of water into air, but without effect.

After the experiments thus made with water, our author proceeded to make similar ones with spirit of wine; and found that inflammable air is produced, without any limitation, as far as he could discover, from repetition of the process.

Dr. P. concludes his account of these experiments with the following observations: "The only objection that, after giving much attention to the subject, I think, can be made to the conclusion that I first drew from these experiments, viz. that air is actually produced from water, is the very small quantity that is produced in proportion to the bulk of the water, after the air naturally contained in it is wholly expelled. But if it shall appear, after a long course of time, that this small production of air, from the same water, is constant and equable, I do not see how the conclusion, extraordinary as it may be thought, can be disputed. This air being wholly *phlogisticated*, is a sufficient proof that the air so produced is not absorbed from the atmosphere in the course of the process: for then it would have been dephlogisticated, or, at least, purer than that of the atmosphere, which water always seizes upon in preference to that which is impure."

Dr. P's distinguished accuracy in conducting experiments scarcely allows the supposition of any material error from that source. And if we take his facts for granted, we cannot satisfactorily reconcile them to the constitution of water assigned by the antiphlogistic theory.

*(To be continued.)*





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## Medical and Philosophical News.

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### DOMESTIC.

#### WATER-WORKS IN THE CITY OF NEW-YORK.

THE Manhattan Company, incorporated by an act of the Legislature, passed April 2, 1799, for the purpose of supplying the city of New-York with pure and wholesome water, have already made great progress in that excellent work. The water, which is of a good quality, is raised, by means of forcing-pumps and the strength of horses, from a well on the side-hill in the rear of the debtor's prison. From the reservoir in its neighbourhood, which is on a high and commanding piece of ground, the water is conducted through bored pine logs to the different parts of the town. Already the principal streets are furnished with these aqueducts, which are laid about three feet below the pavement. Private houses are supplied with the water by a small leaden pipe, reaching from the main conduit to their cellar or kitchen; and the expense, both of this and of the supply of water by the year, is very moderate.—In passing from the reservoir to its places of consumption, it loses that extreme coldness which renders water fresh drawn from deep wells dangerous to be drunk in hot weather, and frequently destructive of life. We have not heard of an instance of any person killed, or even incommoded, in this way, by the Manhattan water. Besides the WATER, this company takes the lead in introducing CALCAREOUS MATERIALS, in the form of *lime-stone* and *marble*, for some of their works; and has already shown, that stone of this quality, from Hudson's River, can be obtained as cheap as the silicious *sand-stone* and *granite* heretofore generally in use.

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#### CALCAREOUS STRATA IN THE NEIGHBOURHOOD OF NEW-YORK.

Dr. J. Browne, the superintendent of the water-works, has happily ascertained, that there is, in the county of Westchester, near the margin of the East-River or Sound, a considerable stratum of calcareous stone, well adapted for building and

flagging. It extends from Morrisiana many miles to the eastward, and is very accessible from a number of the principal landings. Some of the samples of the stone he has exhibited to the Manhattan Company, are of a white and granulated or crystallized structure, and susceptible of a handsome polish. It is estimated it may be brought to New-York, by a water-carriage not much further than Hell-Gate, upon very moderate terms. Among the means of guarding against pestilence in our cities, the introduction of calcareous stone is an object of great concern.

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CHEAP METHOD OF MANUFACTURING SULPHATE OF SODA (*Glauber's Salt*).

By calcining sulphate of lime (gypsum) and muriate of soda (common salt) together, in a brisk heat, with the addition of clay, M. Carendeffez has found that a double decomposition takes place in the dry way. The sulphuric acid joins the soda to form a Glauber's salt, while the muriatic acid connects itself with the basis of gypsum into a muriate of lime. The cheapness of *plaster of Paris* and of *sea-salt* seems to render this process economical, as from them both sulphuric acid and soda are very conveniently procured. And the clay employed to aid the decomposition adds very little to the expense.

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BLEACHING OF MYRTLE-WAX.

Travellers in Africa give us particular accounts of the *tallow-tree* of that continent (*croton sebiferum*). The American soil produces a shrub (*myrica cerifera*) whence *wax* can be derived in considerable quantity, without the collecting and elaborating powers of the bee. Dr. Joseph Browne, of the city of New-York, has discovered a method of destroying the *green* colour of this substance, and of whitening it, without the aid of the oxygenated muriatic acid. The process is cheap and easy, and the candles made of it burn as well as those of spermaceti. The American woods afford great numbers of these wax-bearing shrubs, and the wax, when brought to market, sells for sixteen cents per pound, little more than the sum which tallow sells for. The lowness of its price prevents the exertions of the people of the country to collect the berries and extract their wax; in consequence of which many tons of this valuable natural production are annually lost. Should the ingenious inventor of this new process establish a manufactory for bleaching myrtle-wax, there would be a great

saving to the country, and the article, when purified and refined, would be as fit for plasters and ointments as for candles.

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FOSSIL COAL ON THE RIVER LEHIGH.

A mine, affording coal of an excellent quality, has been opened, latterly, on the waters of the river Lehigh, in Pennsylvania. The place is said to be a little north of the gap in the Blue Mountains. This is a fortunate discovery, and it is to be hoped that future researches will detect that invaluable inflammable substance not only in Pennsylvania, but on the upper branches of the Susquehanna, in New-York.

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LOCUSTS.

The following observations on locusts, made, in the year 1715, by the Rev. Andrew Sandel,\* then rector of the Swedish church in Philadelphia, are left on the records of the said church, in the Swedish language, being, in exact translation, these:—"In the month of May a peculiar kind of grasshoppers or flies, called by the English *locusts*, issued from the earth. They came up every where, even on the hard roads. They were enabled to pierce the earth by means of a shell that covered the whole body, even the mouth and feet. Having issued from the earth, they crept out of their shells, flew about, placed themselves every where on the trees, and made a peculiar noise. As they were in great numbers over the whole country, their noise was so loud that the people could hardly hear the bells in the woods. They ripped the bark of the trees, and put worms therein. Many expected that the trees would be dried by this; but we found, next year, that it did not happen. Swine and fowls fed on these insects. The Indians did also eat them, especially on the first arrival, after a previous slight roasting: from this it is probable that they are of the same kind with those eaten by John the Baptist. They were of short continuance, dying in June."

*Remarks.* The worms mentioned were, no doubt, those white worm-like eggs which the present locusts deposit in the bark. All the other circumstances correspond with those that now take place.

That the locusts were not destructive, appears by the account given by the same author, on the extraordinary fertility of that year, in wheat, rye, Indian corn, oats, and apples.

\* This is the man whom Linnæus quotes (*1 Amænitat. Academ.*) in his hypothesis of fever, as affirming the co-existence of *intermitting fevers* and *argillaceous soils* in Pennsylvania.

That year was also remarkably healthy among the Swedes, as appears from the small number of deaths on the funeral records, which included a district at least fifteen miles north, west, and south from Philadelphia.

A great part of the little which is recorded on the natural history, seasons, diseases, &c. in the earlier times of Pennsylvania, New-Jersey, and the now Delaware State, we owe to the Swedish missionaries.

The Swedish congregation in Pennsylvania, owe also the principal part of their estate to the zeal and wisdom of the said Mr. Sandel.

NICHOLAS COLLIN,  
*Rector of the Swedish Churches,  
Pennsylvania.*

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#### HISTORY OF THE TEA-PLANT.

We have received from Dr. Lettsom, of London, his *Natural History of the Tea-Tree*. It is a thin quarto, embellished with four most elegant representations of the *green* and *bohea* tea-plants; and of the *olea fragrans* and *camellia sasanqua*, which are sometimes employed to scent the teas; all coloured from nature.—The same liberal encourager and promoter of natural knowledge has likewise sent us the third edition of his *Naturalist's and Traveller's Companion*, a moderate octavo volume, full of excellent practical directions to the young inquirer.

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#### AMERICAN GEOGRAPHY.

C. D. Ebeling, Professor of History, and Keeper of the Public Library in Hamburg, whose fourth volume of *American Geography*, in the German tongue, we mentioned in *Med. Rep.* vol. ii. p. 439, has published a fifth. It is a large octavo of more than eight hundred pages, and comprehends his account of the States of Delaware and Maryland. We cannot discover any diminution of the industry and talents displayed in the former parts of this laborious and interesting work. Convinced of the utility of communicating to European writers a true state of things as they exist in America, we again express our hope, that the gentlemen of the United States who have leisure and opportunities, will aid Mr. Ebeling in his laudable undertaking, so that the accounts printed in the eastern hemisphere, concerning the present condition of the western, may be correct and authentic.

## CHURCHMAN'S MAGNETIC ATLAS.

We understand that a third edition of *The Magnetic Atlas*, with important improvements, is now preparing for the press, and proposed soon to be published.

It seems this new work is much simplified, and intended to show, by inspection, at a single view, the magnetic variation, on the different parts of the globe, for the commencement of the new century, so necessary to be known and allowed for by every navigator and land-surveyor, demonstrated on the same projection as the former edition, with the addition of curve lines drawn through the different places where the variation is equal, thereby avoiding the trouble and difficulty of measuring angles. To render it as perfect as possible, Mr. Churchman, the author, has been engaged in making observations of the magnetic variation at different places on our coast, in order that the same may be applied to the purpose of ascertaining the longitude at sea; and the recent experiments prove the possibility of making observations with more accuracy than was apprehended, even by some eminent navigators.

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## FATAL EFFECTS OF PUTRID EFFLUVIA.

A gentleman from the western parts of the State of New-York, informs that a fever appeared in the township of Franklin, near the Pennsylvania line, in the month of March last year, which carried off thirty-eight persons, many of whom, Dr. Brett, who is one of the judges of the common pleas court of Delaware county, in the State of New-York, and was the physician who attended them, says, died with hæmorrhages and the black vomiting. He says the other symptoms of this fever agreed with the descriptions which have been given of the autumnal malignant fever of our sea-ports. The same gentleman informs us, that a similar fever appeared in Luzerne county, in the family of John Hawley, in June last, and that five of that family died with it. After the death of those persons a quantity of putrid potatoes were discovered in the cellar of Mr. Hawley, and to the effluvia emitted by them the fever was ascribed. During the existence of this fever, a fatal disease prevailed among the wild pigeons and swine in Luzerne county. Upon examining the bodies of the pigeons after death, a swelling was discovered in their throats, so great as to obstruct their swallowing. In the gullets of some of them beech nuts were found sticking between the stomach and the mouth.

## YELLOW FEVER IN THE WESTERN COUNTRY.

*The following Extract from Mr. Andrew Ellicott's Voyage down the River Ohio, in the Month of November, 1796, is calculated to throw much Light upon the Origin of the Yellow Fever.*

“ November 15th.

“ Arrived at Gallipolis about 11 o'clock in the morning. — This village is a few miles below the mouth of the Great Kanhaway, on the west side of the Ohio river, and situated on a high bank; it is inhabited by a number of miserable French families. Many of the inhabitants, this season, fell victims to the yellow fever. The mortal cases were generally attended with the black vomiting. This disorder certainly originated in the town, and, in all probability, from the filthiness of the inhabitants, added to an unusual quantity of animal and vegetable putrefaction in a number of small ponds and marshes within the village.

“ The fever could not have been taken there from the Atlantic States, as my boat was the first that descended the river after the fall of the waters in the spring: neither could it have been taken from New-Orleans, as there is no communication, at that season of the year, up the river, from the latter to the former of those places: moreover, the distance is so great, that a boat would not have time to ascend the river, after the disorder appeared that year in New-Orleans, before the winter would set in.”

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*The following Fact is communicated by Dr. Watkins, from his personal Knowledge.*

There is a village called New-Design, about fifteen miles from the Mississippi, and twenty miles from St. Louis, containing about forty houses and two hundred souls. It is on high ground, but surrounded by ponds. In 1797 the yellow fever carried off fifty-seven of the inhabitants, or more than a fourth. No person had arrived at that village from any part of the country where this fever had prevailed, for more than twelve months preceding. Our informant resided in the village at the time; and, having seen the disease in Philadelphia, he declares it to be the same that prevailed at New-Design. He also mentions an Indian village depopulated by the same disease two or three years before.

*Fever, with black vomiting, in the Middle Part of Pennsylvania, west of the Susquehannah. From a Communication of Dr. W. Harris to Dr. Mitchell.*

“ June 23, 1800.

“ The fever which prevailed, in the autumn and winter of 1799, in Nittany and Bald-Eagle Valley, in Mifflin county, Pennsylvania, proved, in a number of cases, mortal. Bald-Eagle Valley, situated about 200 miles N. N. W. of Philadelphia, is low, abounding with much stagnated water in ponds, which, from the dryness of the season, became very putrid and offensive to the smell. Near to these waters the fever prevailed with great malignity. It was ushered in by chills, with pains in the back, limbs and head, which, in 48 or 60 hours, carried off the patients. They discharged vast quantities of filth from the stomach, of the consistence and appearance of coffee-grounds, so offensive in smell as to produce nausea, and even vomiting, in the attendants. The fæces also had the same appearance. In many the disease terminated by profuse discharges of blood from the anus and vagina. Bleeding, in these cases, appeared to afford no relief. The bark and tonics, with the liberal use of alkalies, were of the utmost service.”

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CHEMICAL EXPERIMENTS ON THE MATTER OF BLACK VOMIT.

A memoir on the analysis of black vomit, by Dr. Cathrall, was read before the American Philosophical Society at Philadelphia, on June 20th, 1800. This is a very interesting and instructive paper. The experienced and intrepid author has given a description of the black vomit, has analyzed the fluids ejected a few hours before the commencement of black vomiting, and exhibited a set of experiments on the matter of black vomit itself: to which he has added, experiments to ascertain the effects of black vomit on the living system of man and other animals, and a synopsis of the opinions of authors concerning its formation and qualities. The experiments show that this singular morbid excretion contains an *acid*, which is neither *carbonic*, *phosphoric*, nor *sulphuric*; and, what our readers will hardly expect, that the black vomit may be *smelled*, *tasted*, and *swallowed*, without inducing yellow fever, or even any sickness at all—so little infection or contagion does it seem

to contain! He concludes it to be an altered secretion from the liver. Of these memorable experiments, which do great honour to Dr. Cathrall, we shall give a particular account in our next number.

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*A Case of Tetanus cured by the Cold Bath: In a Letter to Dr. R. H. Archer, of Baltimore, by Dr. William Harris, of Pennsylvania.*

SIR,

In the autumn of 1799, I visited a labourer, about thirty years of age, of a slender make, but healthy, who was suddenly seized, whilst in bed, with spasms in his lower extremities, which shortly after affected his whole system, but particularly his stomach, which was drawn in a hard lump, and protruded to a considerable distance. His pains were excruciating. He had a violent vomiting and purging, which came on an hour after seizure, and continued about two hours. At one time he had emprosthotonos, at another opisthotonos, to the greatest degree, and sometimes complete tetanus. The muscles of his face were drawn in every direction, and deglutition entirely impeded. His pulse varied much, but was generally feeble. He could assign no cause for the attack. I bled him, put him in the warm bath, and used all the remedies laid down by medical writers, but without any mitigation of his pains, or relief to his spasms.

At this time, which was twenty hours after the attack, when the cold sweat of death appeared to be upon him, his tongue had refused its office, his eyes sunk, having a glassy appearance, and his exit was every moment expected, it occurred to me that the cold bath might have a good effect; and, after consulting his friends, who readily acquiesced, I had him, in this state, carried in a blanket to a forge dam which was at hand, and plunged in. He was then insensible. His spasms immediately abated, and, in twenty minutes, totally ceased. The debility induced by muscular exertion was such that it required several days before he could be removed; after which he rapidly recovered, and is at this time perfectly well.

This was a complete tetanus; and, I think, tetanus from wounds, &c. would yield to the same mode of treatment.

*Belle-Font, June 12, 1800.*



## CASE OF HYDROPHOBIA.

Died at Scarborough, on the 20th of June, of canine madness, a son of Mr. Enoch Berry, aged ten years. This boy was bitten in April last by a cat, which, at the time, was supposed to be affected with canine madness, and was immediately killed on that account.—The wound was perfectly healed in a few days, and the boy was apparently well till last Tuesday, when he complained of the wounded hand's paining him. The symptoms of madness soon after began. He refused all food except apples, which he bit at and ate without touching them with his hands. Water was then offered him, and the physician ordered it poured out before him; but he turned from it with disgust, and was greatly agitated when he saw it. He tried to bite every thing which came in his way, and once fastened his teeth on his father's arm, took out a piece of the sleeve of his coat and shirt, but fortunately did not touch the flesh. He had his senses perfectly at intervals, knew his friends, but was all the time in the greatest agonies. There were no great variations in the symptoms, excepting that they grew stronger, and his horror became more extreme until Friday evening, when he expired in the most excruciating tortures.

## TREATMENT OF LOCKED-JAW BY ELECTRICITY.

Dr. Samuel Perry, of New-Bedford, has communicated to the public the successful result of two experiments, in curing the locked-jaw by means of electricity. Previous to the application of the electrical fluid, recourse had been had to bleeding, cathartics, antispasmodics, the warm bath, and opium applied internally and externally, without the least effect in either case. But a small receiver being filled, and discharged through the jaws of the persons affected, they flew open instantaneously. In one case the complaint was entirely removed by three shocks, in the other by an occasional shock for a few days. Both the patients were strong and healthy persons, the one a man and the other a woman, and the mode of treating them had been similar.

## INFORMATION FOR AMERICAN BOTANISTS.

Professor Wildenow, of Berlin, in a letter to Dr. Mitchill, of March 1, 1800, offers to exchange the *seeds* and *dried plants* of Europe for those of America. To the botanists of the United States, an overture of this kind, from a person of so much reputation and experience, promises numerous ad-

vantages. This learned gentleman is now engaged in editing a new edition of Linnè's *Species Plantarum*, to include the newly-discovered plants.

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MINERALOGICAL SOCIETY OF JENA.

The Mineralogical Society of Jena, in Saxony, have lately elected an inhabitant of New-York, Mr. Charles Lofs, a member of their association. Its president is the Count Von Seck, and its director Professor Lenz. The number of members, in its catalogue, is two hundred and seventy-five.

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MEDICAL COMMENCEMENT IN PHILADELPHIA.

At the medical commencement, held in the city of Philadelphia, on the 31st of May, 1800, the University of Pennsylvania conferred the degree of Doctor of Medicine on ten candidates. Their names, with the titles of their inaugural dissertations, were as follow: to wit,

Joseph Trent, of Richmond, in Virginia—An Inquiry into the Effects of Light in Respiration.

Robert Berkeley, of Virginia—An Inquiry into the Modus Operandi of that Class of Medicines called Sedatives.

Edward Darrell Smith, of Charleston, South-Carolina—An Attempt to prove that certain Substances are conveyed, unchanged, into the Circulation; or, if changed, that they are recomposed, and regain their active Properties.

James Agnew, of Princeton, New-Jersey—On Perspiration.

John Parker Gough, of Charleston, South-Carolina—Essay on Cantharides.

Alexander May, of Pennsylvania—On the Unity of Disease, as opposed to Nosology.

John Baptiste Clement Rousseau, of Hispaniola—On Absorption.

Joseph Glover, of Charleston, South-Carolina—An Attempt to prove that Digestion in Man depends on the united Causes of Solution and Fermentation.

John Moore, of Pennsylvania—On Digitalis Purpurea, or Fox-Glove.

Frederick Seip, of Philadelphia—On Cataract.

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MEDICAL LECTURES IN COLUMBIA COLLEGE.

The annual courses of medical lectures in Columbia College, and in the New-York Hospital, will commence, as usual, on the second Monday of November.

## COW-POX.

Dr. Pearson, of London, has obligingly transmitted, in a letter to Dr. Miller, another thread impregnated with the matter of the vaccine pock, for the purpose of making trial of this substitute for the small-pox in the United States. Dr. Pearson also communicates the following articles of intelligence:

1. Mr. Carlisle's discovery of the singular arterial structure of the tardigradus animals, or sloth.

2. Herschel's beautiful experiments on the distinction between solar light and solar heat, and terrestrial heat and terrestrial light.

3. Mr. Howard's fulminating mercury.

4. The use of plaster of Paris three parts, and one part of starch or flour, made into paste, to be used in calico-printing, book-binding, &c. instead of common starch.

5. The use of muriate of lime with ice, by the confectioners, to produce much firmer and colder frozen cream than with common salt and ice.

6. Citric acid is now manufactured, in a concrete state, by Coxwell, and is as cheap as acid of tartar.

7. Carbonate of vegetable alkali is now manufactured in a crystallized state, and it is permanent in the air because it is alkali saturated with carbonic acid.

8. Volta's galvanic battery, by which shocks can be given, and even water be decomposed.

In a letter to Dr. Hofack, communicated to Dr. Miller, Dr. Pearson more particularly describes this discovery of Signor Volta as follows:

“Volta has demonstrated the galvanic influence by the following experiment:—Take a number of plates of zinc and silver of the same figure—say crown pieces—place them alternately on one another, with wetted paste-board between each, so as to form a column. Then touch the bottom with a piece of iron or other metal well wetted, and the hand wetted—and the top of the column must be touched at the same time in like manner, by which you will feel a shock of electricity. Another proof is beautiful. Place on the side of the column a tube half an inch wide, filled with water, and stopt at each end with a cork—thrust a wire through the upper cork to the middle of the tube, and another wire, in like manner, through the under cork, within half an inch of the point of the upper wire—and place the tube of water so armed on the side of the column of metal plates, to communicate by wire with the top and bottom. Thus you will see presently

a stream of air-bubbles rising from the ends of the wire in the water, and ascending to the top, which will be found to be hydrogen gas, if iron be used, and which will be oxydated at the point from which the gas rises—but if gold, or platina, or silver be used for wire, the gas will be a mixture of hydrogen and oxygen gas, the water being decomposed. "This you will understand from the nature of the metals used."

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BURNS AND SCALDS.

We find some difference of opinion now exists among British surgeons, concerning the best mode of treating burns and scalds. Mr. Earle, of London, has just published an essay upon this subject, in which he recommends the immediate application of cold water, or water made colder by ice, which is to be renewed as often as it becomes warm. The cuticle of the burnt or scalded part is not to be removed, and all stimulant and oily applications are to be avoided. By these means, he asserts, the cure will be accomplished, without leaving scars or lameness of the part. The sooner the ice is applied, after the accident has happened, the better.—Mr. Earle's eminent character will, doubtless, operate powerfully, with many, in favour of his plan of treatment.

On the other hand, Mr. Kentish, of New-Castle upon Tyne, strongly advises the application of spirit of turpentine to burns and scalds as soon as possible; which he thinks the best adapted to promote a rapid suppuration, and to prevent the irregular marks and seams commonly following other modes of treatment. Many respectable surgeons adopt this remedy.—A case of severe scald is stated by Mr. Bell, of the British navy, in which the affected parts were copiously bathed with *ol. terebinth.* previously warmed by putting the phial into hot water; afterwards slips of linen, spread with *ungt. ceræ*, were applied. The pain was removed very speedily, and the patient fell asleep. The dressings of *ungt. ceræ* were only continued for a short time: the affected parts were then dusted with hair-powder, which formed a scab that fell off in the course of a few days, leaving the skin underneath perfectly sound.

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DIGITALIS PURPUREA.

It appears, by the late medical publications in Great-Britain, that the inquiries concerning the powers and effects of digitalis in pulmonary consumption, and in many other diseases, continue to be prosecuted with great zeal in that island. Though unanimity is far from prevailing, almost all practitioners al-

low that it is one of the most active of medicinal agents, and that the cautious use of it may be safely adopted. So many instances of its complete efficacy in the early stages of consumption are adduced, and such proof, likewise, of its alleviating, for a time, the distressful symptoms incident to the last and fatal stage, that we should hold ourselves culpable in neglecting the notice of them. It must be confessed, also, that examples of the deleterious qualities of digitalis are not wanting; especially where it is exhibited at first in too large doses, where they are advanced too rapidly, and where the use of it is continued after the appearance of violent effects. Much disquisition has arisen concerning the best mode of preparing this substance for use. A general preference of the recent herb seems to prevail; and the tincture, decoction and infusion, particularly the first, are chosen rather than the powder. The nauseating effects of it, instead of being sought after as the source of benefit, are avoided, by many of the experienced employers of it, as the harbingers of ill. The retardation of the pulse is not always considered as essential to its efficacy; but the change from hard, weak and small, to soft, firm and full, is constantly conducive to recovery. Together with the use of digitalis, it is commonly enjoined to abstain, as far as possible, from liquids, and to take small quantities of solid animal food, at short intervals. It is asserted that portions of beef, mutton or pork, not exceeding one ounce at a time, rather under dressed, well masticated, and repeated about every two hours until six o'clock in the evening, then discontinuing the course, and resuming it at about eight the following morning, will prove, in every stage of pulmonary consumption, more strengthening and salutary than the modes of nourishment commonly prescribed. It has been also plausibly proposed to confine consumptive patients to a diet of *animal food* and *cream* exclusively.

It appears, also, that the use of digitalis has been successfully extended to the treatment of insanity, strangulated hernia, hydrocephalus internus, &c.

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IMMUNITY OF HOLLAND FROM THE PLAGUE.

The learned Dr. Blane, in a letter addressed to Sir John Hippisley, member of the committee of quarantine of the Turkey Company, and in answer to certain queries propounded by the Turkey Company, informs us that the Dutch, the most commercial and cleanly nation in Europe, for a long time past, have been singularly careless of the means of excluding

pestilential diseases; and yet they have been exempt from the plague for upwards of an hundred and thirty years. They were accustomed to import from the Levant, for the British market and their own, cargoes of unpurified raw materials, particularly cotton; and all this was done without contagion. They have no kind of lazarettoes: they make little, if any, distinction, between clean and foul bills: and their pretensions of quarantine are mere empty forms, nugatory and insufficient to destroy contagion, if contagion had adhered to their merchandize.

See Blanc's Observations on the Diseases of Seamen, 3d edit. p. 616 and 621. See also the remarks upon the means of cleansing ships, and thereby preventing the generation of pestilential poison, in the answer of the general committee of the citizens of New-York to the citizens of Philadelphia, in our vol. ii. p. 360 and 361, first edit.

#### FRENCH INSTITUTE AT CAIRO.

A translation of the memoirs relative to Egypt, written in that country, during the campaigns of Gen. Bonaparte, in the years 1798 and 1799, by the learned and scientific men who accompanied the French expedition, has been published in London by Mr. Phillips, in an octavo of more than four hundred and fifty pages, and just received in this city. The pieces are miscellaneous. Among others we remark, in Gen. Andreoffi's report upon the salt-petre and gun-powder of the country, that the septite of pot-ash is *found ready formed in the earth*, on the road from New to Old Cairo; while in France they are usually obliged to obtain the nitre with an earthy basis, by means of a ley, which is afterwards converted into salt-petre by means of pot-ash, imported from foreign countries, and bought at a high price (p. 39).—Bruant, physician in ordinary to the army, mentions, as Prosper Alpinus had done before, the fore *ophthalmia* of Egypt (p. 111), and ascribes it to a concurrence of external and internal causes: among the former is the scorching *nitrous dust*, which the winds are constantly raising in clouds into the atmosphere; among the latter, as Desgenettes, the Physician-General observes (p. 62) it is symptomatic of diarrhœas and dysenteries.—Berthollet, who visited the six lakes of natron or soda to the westward of the Nile, is convinced that the mineral alkali found in them is produced by a decomposition of the *muriate of soda, or common salt*, with which the waters are naturally impregnated: that this decomposition is effected by the *carbonate of lime, or common calcareous rock*, which forms the strata of subjacent soil in those places, in the moist way; and that, by a double elective at-

traction, the muriate of soda and carbonate of lime are changed to a muriate of lime and a carbonate of soda (p. 308).—Berthollet also, in a valuable paper on eudiometry (p. 317), delivers it as the result of his experiments, made both at Cairo and Paris, that the portion of oxygenous gas in the atmosphere is about the same at both places, and that this is somewhat less than *twenty-two* parts in the hundred, a considerably smaller proportion than most experimenters had hitherto calculated.—Regnault has made an analysis of the *slime of the Nile* (p. 388), which he finds to consist of eleven parts of water, nine of carbon, six of oxyd of iron, four of silex, four of carbonate of magnesia, eighteen of carbonate of lime, and forty-eight of alumine, in the hundred. It is an excellent manure.—There is a piece, too, by Defgenettes (p. 358), on the *use of oil in the plague*, confirming its salutary operation, and showing, contrary to the most current opinions *a priori*, that friction with it does not *obstruct*, but *open* the cutaneous pores, and thereby increases perspiration prodigiously. But for further information we must refer to the book itself.

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LETTERS FROM IRELAND.

Dr. William Patterfon, of Londonderry, in a letter to Dr. Miller, has been so obliging as to enclose a printed copy of two letters, one from Dr. William Drennan, of Dublin, the other from himself, addressed to Joseph Wilson, Esq. American Consul, on the subject of yellow fever. We are sorry our limits do not allow us to re-publish these letters in the present number. These estimable gentlemen certainly manifest the most benevolent wishes for the deliverance of America from pestilential diseases, and a warm and active spirit of philanthropy. But they do not seem to have taken the requisite pains to obtain information on a subject which calls forth all the fervour of their zeal, and all the tenderness of their commiseration.

The opinions of Dr. Drennan are evidently predicated on the *specific and permanent contagiousness*, and those of Dr. Patterfon on the *importation* of the yellow fever. These opinions reciprocally depend upon each other, and, of consequence, must stand or fall together. This is neither the proper time nor place to enter fully into such a discussion. If medical gentlemen are determined to consider a disease as specifically contagious, merely because it affects many people at the same time, they may find examples of such contagion in

the intermittents of a marsh, in the pneumonia and phthisis of winter, or in the gastritis of a convivial circle, whose viands are converted into poison by the admixture of arsenic. It gives us pain to see such respectable physicians precipitately rushing into conclusions altogether unwarranted by the premises. If they read the latest and best performances of British physicians on the diseases of the West-Indies, they will find that the yellow fever is not a contagious distemper. Every merchant and planter in those islands knows this fact. We assert that it is as little contagious in the United States. It only prevails within certain local ranges of air contaminated by the effluvia of animal and vegetable putrefaction; and, beyond these limits, is incapable of propagation.\* Multitudes take the disease in our cities who never approach the sick, the suspected vessels, or any fomites supposed to be imbued with contagion. The only possible mode of accounting for these cases, is to ascribe the illness to the patient's immersion in an atmosphere greatly vitiated throughout certain definite portions. Our present number affords several authentic instances of the same pestilential distemper in the interior of our country, where importation was impossible, and where local circumstances completely solve the difficulty. Dr. Drennan's plan of extinguishing the disease by high artificial heat would not succeed unless applied to a whole city, which he will grant to be impracticable; and Dr. Patterson's doctrine of importation is insufficient to explain the ravages of yellow fever at Gallipolis, and at Bald-Eagle Valley, in Pennsylvania, and at many other places.

These gentlemen seem to be surprised that so little has been attempted by public authority, and so little accomplished by the medical profession in the United States. But to infer imbecility in the government, or incapacity among physicians, because the havock of yellow fever has not been arrested, is, in our judgment, to take a narrow view of the subject. The devastation of pestilence forms a mournful page in the his-

\* In asserting that the yellow fever is not contagious, let us be explicitly understood. We do not deny that the excretions of the sick, in this disease, where cleanliness is not duly observed, may assist, like any other kind of animal putridity, in the formation of pestilential matter. But we contend that this is not more likely to happen from the effluvia of a patient in yellow fever, than from the effluvia of one labouring under any other fever, or from the putrid vapours emitted by a gangrenous ulcer, or by a heap of dead and putrefying animal and vegetable substances, under similar conditions of a hot, moist, and otherwise insalubrious atmosphere. How far this differs from the constitution of specific contagion, such as that of small-pox and measles, every reader will be able to judge.



tory of every age and nation. It is to be lamented that American skill should be in any degree baffled; but surely it is not without accumulated precedents. The energies of government, aided by all the wisdom of the illustrious Sydenham and Morton, were insufficient to stay the destruction of the plague in London in 1665. All the learning, diligence and zeal of the physicians of his Britannic Majesty's forces in the West-Indies, have not prevented those islands from continuing to be the grave of Europeans. And, if we are not misinformed, the mortality of scarlatina anginosa, in some parts of England, has lately extended to nearly one-fourth of those who were attacked, notwithstanding all the splendid improvements of medical science in Great-Britain.

While we thus freely animadvert upon the opinions of these gentlemen, we cannot forbear to repeat our high respect for their talents, as well as their motives on this occasion; and we shall be extremely happy to receive their further communications on the subject.

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## FOREIGN.

### USE OF POT-ASH IN PUERPERAL FEVERS.

CITIZEN GUINOT, in a memoir inserted in the xxxvii. number of the "Recueil Periodique de la Societ  de Medecine de Paris," recommends, in strong terms, from his own experience, as well as that of others, the use of the carbonate of pot-ash (fixed vegetable alkali) in puerperal fevers. This medicine is employed as a preservative against the invasion of these fevers, as well as in the treatment of them, from ten to thirty-six grains in the course of a day. He also recommends the prudent use of ammonia for the purification of the air.

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### USE OF POT-ASH IN FISTULA LACHRYMALIS.

Citizen Pajot des Charmes read an essay on the effect of alkaline substances employed in the treatment of *fistulæ lachrymales*. He was induced to report his experiments on this subject, in consequence of his having observed, that the use of a piece of linen, newly washed, and thus saturated with an alkaline ley, after several applications, effectually relieved

the symptoms of that disease. This simple method, according to his experience, uniformly and perfectly removed the complaint.

*See Medical and Physical Journal.*

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NITROUS, NITRIC, AND OTHER ACIDS, IN SYPHILIS.

Mr. Blair, surgeon of the Lock-Hospital and Asylum, &c. in a late work, entitled "Essays on the Venereal Disease and its Concomitant Affections," &c. second part, delivers the following opinions concerning the powers of the acid remedies in that disease.

His general inference is, that the new remedies cannot be relied upon for the *radical* cure of the *secondary* symptoms of syphilis; but that the nitrous or nitric acid, given in conjunction, or alternately with mercury, may be highly useful in promoting the cure. He closes his work with the following conclusions:

1. Dyspeptic and debilitated venereal patients, if they be not hectic, almost certainly receive benefit from the daily use of the acids, in conjunction, or given alternately with mercury. They not only have their general strength and appetite improved, but are also enabled to bear the proper quantity of mercury much better than when it is administered alone.

2. In erysipelatous, phagedenic, languid, fistulous, and irritable ulcers, where no venereal infection exists, and where mercury would probably do harm, the diluted acids are sometimes astonishingly efficacious, employed externally as well as internally.

3. Old chronic pains and tumors in the bones, ligaments, and membranous parts, have been alleviated by the internal use of the new remedies; especially when these symptoms arose from the mal-administration of mercury.

4. The nitric lotion is often serviceable in cases of excoriated glans or prepuce, &c. accompanied with a puriform discharge, where the degree of swelling, pain, and inflammation is inconsiderable; but the common saturnine wash appears to be equally beneficial, and has the advantage of never increasing the inflammatory symptoms.

5. Gonorrhœa and leucorrhœa may now and then be removed by the acids, employed internally, or by injection; but they often will produce a troublesome dysuria, and are not so certain in arresting those discharges as the common means of cure.

6. Buboës tending to suppuration, and indurated lymphatic glands, have sometimes been dispersed by these medicines; but in this respect likewise they are inferior to other modes of treatment.

7. Although the result of my own experience has not encouraged me to persist in the use of M. Alyon's "oxygenated lard," several practitioners in London have composed an ointment (impregnated with nitrous acid) which is highly serviceable in herpetic, impetiginous, and itchy eruptions. In such cases I have repeatedly seen good effects from the nitric mixture and lotion.

8. Most of the local inconveniences which arise from an incautious use of mercury, such as ulcerated cheeks, swelled tongue, spongy gums, loose teeth, foetid breath and profuse salivation, however paradoxical it may seem, have been more speedily and effectually relieved by the internal exhibition of the acids, than by any other medical treatment hitherto employed; so that, for these purposes, I now trust to them confidently, and almost exclusively.

9. Under no circumstances of disease, or peculiarity of constitution, has the oxygenated muriate of pot-ash appeared to me preferable to the acids: but, on the contrary, the latter have proved much more beneficial, and less injurious to the system, than the former. This remark, perhaps, will hold equally true of the oxygen gas; respecting which, however, the evidence is at present too defective to ground any solid conclusions upon. I think, also, that very little reliance can be placed on the nitric acid bath, except for some cutaneous affections.

10. I have never derived any manifest advantage from increasing the daily quantity of the acids to more than two drachms; and, in common, I find *one measured drachm* sufficient—either diluted in plain water, or qualified with syrup, opium, or ardent spirits. For a lotion or injection, I mix from twenty to sixty drops of the concentrated acid with a pint of pure water.

11. Of all the different acids, I have seen most benefit from the nitrous or nitric. The latter is more palatable, though not more efficacious, than the former: but, in certain constitutions, none of the acids will agree; and, in some cases, especially where considerable inflammation exists, it is highly improper to exhibit them. When they did not speedily improve the appetite, and afford an increase of vigour, I have

feldom seen any future benefit to the general health from their continued exhibition.

12. Where the "saline anti-syphilitics," as they are called, have disagreed, some of the following unpleasant consequences ensued: viz. violent nausea, vomiting, flatulency, cardialgia, eroding pains in the stomach, diarrhœa, dysentery, obstinate constipation, heat in the bowels, constant itching of the skin, miliary eruptions, universal tremor, frequent cold shivering, extreme giddiness, throbbing in the head, disordered intellect, erethismus, irregular palpitation of the heart, intermitting and quick pulse, dyspnœa, ardor urinæ, forcing pain of the uterus, diminished or suppressed secretion of bile, spitting of blood, hæmorrhage from the nose, ophthalmia, and phlogistic diathesis; to which may be added (in some few examples) an injurious effect on the enamel of the teeth, inflamed lips, swelled cheeks, deep ulcers of the tongue, and copious ptyalism.

13. I regard the chemical explanation which has generally been given of the *modus operandi* of the new remedies, and of mercury in the venereal disease, as entirely hypothetical. But whatever be their respective mode of action, their sensible effects are not strictly analogous to each other: for the salivation now and then arising from the free use of the acids, is very different from a mercurial ptyalism, being unaccompanied with looseness of the teeth, spongy gums, or fœtid breath: and their constitutional effects, in many particulars, seem of an opposite nature from those which are experienced by a long continued course of mercury.

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#### INOCULATION OF THE VACCINE POCK.

The progress of the vaccine disease in Great-Britain, for some time past, has been such as to afford ground for the expectation of its universal adoption. An institution for the inoculation of it was founded in London, on the 2d December, 1799. It does not appear that the vaccine pock can be propagated, like the small-pox, by effluvia from persons labouring under it, nor indirectly from diseased persons, by adhering to clothes, furniture, bedding, letters, &c. Persons who have undergone the vaccine disease are found to be thereafter unsusceptible of the same disorder; and such as have already gone through the small-pox are not susceptible of the vaccine disorder, as was believed some time ago. The slightness and safety of the vaccine pock are now ascertained from the reports of many practitioners; and, as it does not

appear that more than one out of 6000 has died under the new practice, it seems not unreasonable to infer, that the chance of life is, perhaps, greater during the inoculation than under the ordinary circumstances to which human beings are exposed.

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CURE OF OPHTHALMIA BY SPIRITS OF TURPENTINE.

Dr. Matthew Guthrie, of St. Petersburg, in Russia, in a letter to Dr. Duncan, mentions the remarkable efficacy of the effluvia of spirits of turpentine in the cure of an old and obstinate case of ophthalmia, which had resisted all the common remedies. It was discovered by accident. The patient, an eminent artist, whose disease had arisen from a too assiduous employment of his eyes on minute objects, in the pursuit of his business, aggravated likewise by the painful assistance of glasses, first obtained relief of the inflammation of his eyes by the effluvia of this substance alone; and afterwards, of the remaining affection of the eye-lids, by the application of the spirit itself. The pain and inflammation following this application were extremely severe, but soon terminated in his complete cure.

*Duncan's Annals of Medicine for 1799, p. 474.*

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HYDROPHOBIA.

Dr. A. Fothergill has lately published an essay on "*The Nature of the Disease occasioned by the Bite of a Mad Dog*," in which there is much good sense and consolatory information.—This is one of the most terrific and afflicting maladies to which human nature is subject: but inquiries of this nature will serve, we hope, to make it better understood, and may lead to the application of an effectual remedy. Dr. F.'s examination is truly philosophic; and the maxim which he takes for his motto, *Principiis obsta, sero medicina paratur*, should be well considered in the prevention of the malady attendant on the bite of a mad dog. Many curious facts are contained in this paper, which our limits prevent us from noticing: but the ingenious author has clearly shown why the boasted medicines hitherto employed have proved ineffectual, and he has suggested a more probable method of prevention and cure. He considers "hydrophobia as a species of spasmodic *angina*, produced by a specific contagion, which exerts its influence first on the injured part, and afterward on the organ of deglutition." The indications of cure he states to be, 1st, to dissolve the fatal connection between the injured part and the organ of deglutition; 2dly, to calm the violent spasms,

and soothe the nervous system; and, 3dly, to support the strength and invigorate the whole frame."

Dr. F. recommends that the part bitten should be sucked; which method is as safe as it is simple. If the poison be supposed to have taken any effect, he advises (in agreement with most other medical men) that the part affected should be cut out, and the wound cauterized, to prevent the irritation being propagated to the throat; applying also a sharp blister to the throat, from ear to ear. In the second place, he would dissolve, in a pint of olive oil, half an ounce of camphor, and have the whole body diligently rubbed with it before a gentle fire: or he would plunge the patient in an entire bath of warm olive oil, if it could be procured, as a means of exciting a copious perspiration: after this, in the third place, he would give the patient the most nutritious aliment.

*Monthly Review, April, 1800.*



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## APPENDIX.

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### ARTICLE I.

#### PLANS FOR EXTINGUISHING PESTILENTIAL FLUIDS.

##### No. I.

*Excellence of Calcareous Materials for building and paving Cities, particularly as respects their Power to overcome the exciting Cause of Fevers. In a Letter to the Hon. RICHARD VARICK, Esq. Mayor of the City of New-York.*

*East-Rutger's-street, June 18, 1800.*

SIR,

**I** CRAVE the indulgence of the Chief Magistrate of the city in which I reside, while, in a few sentences, I state some facts which seem to me capable of conducing to the good of the community. They refer to the *quality* of the materials which ought to be selected for the construction of houses, and for pavements of streets, in cities. It will, I doubt not, become evident to you, that of all the incombustible substances of which houses and pavements have been formed, calcareous earth, in the forms of *lime-stone* and *marble*, is the best.

The wholesome operation of *lime* is so well established, that nobody pretends to doubt it. In buildings it answers *two* purposes; the first as a *cement*, enabling the architect to make his pieces of solid materials stick together; and the second as a *neutralizer of the noxious fluids* commonly produced where human beings dwell thick together. For the former of these purposes it is necessary that *crude lime-stone* should be calcined; for, by that operation its carbonic acid is driven off, and the remaining earth rendered fit to be slacked, and turned to plaster and mortar; but for the latter intention, this exposure to fire in a kiln is not necessary, since the acid of pestilence, by virtue of its strong and corrosive qualities, is attracted by the earthy basis, and overcome by it completely, without that process.

A *marble* differs from a lime-stone not in its internal characters, but only in its external qualities, particularly as they affect the sight. Strictly speaking, all *marbles* are *lime-stones*, and so, indeed, are *chalks*. And lime-stones are dignified with the appellation of marbles when they receive a high polish, and possess a lustre and colours agreeable to the eye. In all their forms, lime-stones and marbles consist chiefly of lime united to "carbonic acid," called also "fixed air." And these two substances commonly form rocks and stones of great compactness and durability. Lime-stone, then, though it will not answer the purposes of BEAUTY so well as marble, is quite as good for the uses of architecture and of HEALTH. When intended to constitute the chief and solid material of a building, it must be used in its *crude* state; when wanted as a cement, it must be *burned*.

*Crude* lime-stone and marble being thus capable of attracting and destroying infectious fluids, it became a serious matter of inquiry with me, more than a twelve-month ago, whether large tracts of country, underlaid by strata of these substances, were in any degree exempted from febrile distempers? The immunity of such regions from intermittents, remittents, dysenteries, and the more malignant forms of fever, is most remarkable in many parts of the earth.

Struck with the comfortable result of this part of the inquiry, it immediately occurred to me, that if a city was built of these materials, it ought to be very healthful, as respected the causes and existence of *fevers* at least. I had not ruminated on the subject long, before Mr. Da Costa, an intelligent Portuguese gentleman, gave me a description, in writing, of the city of LISBON, built of these very materials, and at once one of the most *nasty* and most *healthy* places in Europe.

Finding thus a great city ready built to our hands, my speculations no more appeared in the light of a project. The experiment had long been made, and their truth was manifest. I then recollected to have admired very much the chalky soil of Oxfordshire, in England, when I was there, surrounding, to great extent, the city and university of OXFORD. Chalk is but a softer kind of lime-stone; and this celebrated seat of learning is remarkably healthful.

Immediately it came to my remembrance, that the handsome structures with which I had been pleased so much at BATH, upon the Avon, were composed of lime-stone too. Here was another coincidence between great healthfulness and calcareous materials for buildings.



In the collection of mineralogy I had made for Columbia College, I knew there was a piece of the rock which constitutes the SOMERS ISLANDS, and of which the houses at St. George's, in BERMUDAS, are composed. By experiments made on this specimen I became convinced of its calcareous nature. And this place is proverbial for its salubrity.

Soon afterwards Major Imrie's description of the mountain of GIBRALTAR fell into my hands. That discerning officer calls this famous promontory "a mountain of marble." I procured a piece of this rock, and am satisfied, by experiment, of its calcareous composition. Gibraltar also is famed for its friendship to the health of man.

In short, having been lately on a journey to Pennsylvania, I observed that EASTON, NAZARETH, and BETHLEHEM, in the county of Northampton, were built of lime-stone. These, and particularly THE LATTER of these villages, after more than fifty years experience of the Moravian brethren, has a remarkable correspondence with the places already mentioned in point of health. Febrile distempers are very rare.

It now appears to me, the efficacy of *lime-stone*, *marble* and *chalk*, in their ordinary, natural, or crude forms, to prevent febrile diseases by absorbing and destroying their exciting causes, is thus most amply verified. What have the citizens of such places as New-York and Philadelphia to do but to introduce it into use? Fortunately for our city, the Hudson runs through a lime-stone country for miles between Poughkeepsie and Newburgh; and, even on this side of the Highlands, it is found at the base of the Donderberg, and is plentiful at Verplanck's Point. It is submitted to your consideration, whether, as it may be so easily procured by water-carriage, it would not be wisest and best to require the inhabitants, by public authority, to have their buildings made of it? And whether it would not be worth the while to introduce it, as soon as possible, for paving side-walks and streets, as well as for flagging cellars, alleys and yards?

Providence has furnished calcareous earth with a liberality equal to its extensive utility. And, under the conviction of the great benefits to be derived to society from a plentiful and proper use of it, I have ventured to suggest these few considerations to you, with the hope, that if they should seem to you worthy of that honour, they may be laid before the Common Council of the city, as matter for reflection.

With sentiments of high respect,

I remain sincerely yours,

SAMUEL L. MITCHILL.

*City of New-York, fs.*

AT a Common Council held on Monday, the twenty-third day of June, 1800, Mr. Mayor laid before the board a letter he had received from Samuel Latham Mitchill, Professor of Natural History, Chemistry and Agriculture in Columbia College, in which he recommends the use of lime-stone in the erection of buildings and paving streets in this city, to promote the health thereof; which was read and considered by the Board; and thereupon it was

*Resolved,* That the said letter be published for the information of the public; and that Mr. Mayor be requested, on behalf of this Board, to thank Dr. Mitchill for his zeal and attention evidenced in the communications contained in his said letter; and that they will be happy to receive such further communications as he shall think proper to offer on the subject of the health of this city.

Extract from the minutes,

ROBERT BENSON, *Clk.*

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## ARTICLE II.

### No. II.

*Methods of counteracting the Mischief occasionally arising from the Interment of the Dead in Cities, by BARILLA and CHALK. In a Letter from SAMUEL L. MITCHILL to JACOB DE LA MONTAGNIE, Esq. Alderman and Justice of the Police for the City of New-York; dated July 16, 1800.*

DEAR SIR,

THE printed copy of your report to the Common Council, concerning an improved plan of PROVIDING FOR THE POOR, I return to you, with the few remarks which occurred to me since yesterday, written on the margin. Now we are on the subject of reforms, I shall, in reply to your letter of the 15th, communicate to you a few observations on what I believe to be a desirable method of DISPOSING OF THE DEAD.

The evils experienced from long-continued and frequent interment of human bodies within the precincts of cities, have been so well foreseen by the Common Council, that the dis-

posal of the dead is conducted already in a much better manner than it used to be.

In strictness of conduct, the bodies of those who are dead ought to be carried quite out of town, and not be suffered to putrefy near the habitations of the living. There are, however, *two* objections, in the present state of society and manners among us, to the execution of this in its full extent.

The *first* is, the diminution of the revenue of some of the religious associations among us, by prohibiting interments near the places of public worship. It is stated, that if the practice should be totally and suddenly prevented, before other sources of income are opened, considerable inconvenience would be experienced in consequence of it.

The *second* objection arises from the habits of thinking and acting, in regard to funereal matters, indulged by many professors of christianity, that it is better to be buried in consecrated land, or—within, or, at all events, near a house of public worship, than any where else; and also that there is a sort of society in death, influencing families to wish to lie together, and inclining the wife to be inhumed near her husband, children near their parents, and, generally, relations in the same vicinity. It is conceived, the feelings of many persons would be deeply affected by a regulation peremptorily forbidding their remains to be laid in the church-yard or family vault.

Reforms of these kinds are commonly best brought about by degrees; and, until the one contemplated in this case can be thoroughly effected, it will be our duty to prevent the mischief resulting from the corruption of those human bodies which are committed to the earth in the central parts of populous places. The horrible effects of the vapours issuing from these masses of putrefaction, in many parts of Christendom, are fully detailed in an instructive little volume, published some years ago in Paris, by Mr. VICQ. D'AZYR.

This prevention can be effected by surrounding the body with ALKALINE SUBSTANCES. Those which are entitled to a preference for the present purpose are BARILLA and CHALK.

Barilla, or the SODA of modern commerce, is the substance used anciently in Egypt to prepare human bodies for embalming. Herodotus, the Greek historian, has mentioned it as being employed for that purpose. And the elder Pliny has written of its power to preserve dead bodies. There can be no doubt, by a sound expositor of the fiftieth chapter of Gene-

sis, that the bodies, both of JACOB and his eminent son JOSEPH, were kept sweet and harmless by the barilla, which, according to the rites of the Egyptians, the physicians or embalmers applied plentifully to every part. Thus the corpse of the aged patriarch was rendered capable of being transported to the cave of Machpelah.—The ruler of Egypt, under Pharaoh, being about to die, took an oath of the by-standers, his countrymen, that they should carry up his bones from thence. His death happened in the year 1635 before the Christian Æra, and he was not, *at that time*, carried into the land of Canaan, to be deposited with his father; but, one hundred and forty-four years after, Moses, on departing with the Israelites, took the bones of Joseph with him. And this affords a tolerable proof of the antiseptic power of the barilla; for, without such a preservative, they would, probably, in a much shorter time, have crumbled to dust. It is well worth the while to examine the learned and instructive commentary of CALMET\* on these subjects.

This salt is produced *naturally* in Egypt, and dug out of the earth. But it is produced *artificially* in Sicily and Spain, from the ashes of certain plants. There is great consumption of it in the manufactories of soap and glass, for which purposes it is preferable to pot-ash. Barilla, or soda, is better than pot-ash to preserve bodies from decay, and, at the same time, to render them innocuous. *Pot-ash* attracts moisture from the air, and runs to a liquid; *soda* parts with its water very readily, and turns to a powder. The *former* is highly corrolive; the *latter* very feebly caustic. Hence the superior excellence of soda; for while it resists the humidity of the atmosphere, it attracts the acid of putrefaction, and thus guards

\* On le met (le corps) dans le sel (le nitre des anciens au la soude) pendant environ quarante jours, &c.—*they put the body in natron, or soda, for about forty days, after which they wrap it in bandages with myrrb, gum, &c.*—Ceux qui n'ont pas le moyen de faire cette dépense se contentent de seringuer dans les intestins du mort, par le fondement, une liqueur tirée du cedre, et l'y laissant, enferment les corps dans le sel du nitre. Ce sel a la vertu de desseicher les chairs solides, et de les exempter de la pourriture, &c.—If the persons are too poor to go to any considerable expense, the embalmers cleanse the intestines by syringing, and put the body afterwards in soda, for seventy days, to dry it; and this is the substitute for the more costly mode of embalming. CALMET, *Commentaire Litteral sur la Genèse*, ch. L. p. 839.—Why have not physicians and philosophers discerned that soda, which is so wonderfully preventative of putrefaction and its consequences in the cases related, could answer just as good a purpose in preventing the bad effects of corrupted beef, mutton, pork and fish, in barrels, in the holds of ships, and in the stomach and intestines of men?

the body from speedy decay, while it keeps it from degenerating to stench and poison. At the same time it discharges its carbonic acid or fixed air.

On account of the plenty of pot-ash and pearl-ash in the American market, barilla is rarely brought to New-York. It, at present, has no place in the price-current. In London, barilla from Carthagena sells for about one-fifth less than pearl-ash from America; and that from Sicily for about one-third less. There would be no difficulty in procuring it if wanted. It might be imported as ballast, or *even manufactured at home*. The method of using it would simply be to surround the dead body with this neat and white salt, by filling up the coffin with it.

Or, if soda could not be procured, or if prejudices were entertained against it, POWDERED CHALK would fully answer the purpose. *Chalk* is a sort of lime-stone; for, in many places where it naturally abounds, it is burned to a calx, and used for mortar.—A notion has prevailed, that *quick-lime* is necessary to overcome the dangerous effluvia of bodies. This is not the fact. *Quick-lime*, indeed, by its corroding quality, will disorganize, to a certain extent, the body to which it is applied. For this reason, I suppose it is, that it has not been more generally used; as most persons have felt a degree of reluctance to subject the bodies of their lately deceased friends and relatives *immediately* to the action of that fierce and violent destroyer. There is no need of applying lime in its *quick* or *caustic* state. *Mild* powdered lime-stone will do just as well. PULVERIZED CHALK is powdered *lime-stone*, and in a condition exactly fit for the purpose. And if it is wanted in a still nicer form, *whiting*, well dried in an oven, will be found to possess the requisite anti-pestilential qualities. To surround a dead body, then, with *powdered chalk* or *whiting*, is a safe, economical, and, as far I can judge, an unexceptionable practice. And if there is any thing consoling in the reflection, the survivors may be assured that CHALK, as well as SODA, while it provides against their noxious effects, will operate in preserving the mortal remains of their friends the longer from complete disorganization. And I refer those who desire proofs of this, to the innumerable relicks of animals, in beds of chalk and other forms of calcareous earth, all over the world.

With sentiments of friendship and much regard,  
I remain cordially yours,

SAMUEL L. MITCHILL.

## ARTICLE III.

*Extracts from an Address delivered before the Medical Society of South-Carolina, on the 24th December, 1799.*

By DAVID RAMSAY, M. D.

GENTLEMEN,

IN reviewing the medical history of the year now drawing to a close, we observe an unusual phenomenon. On the 11th of April, about three o'clock A. M. a shock of an earthquake was observed throughout Charleston. Several of the inhabitants were alarmed by the rattling of windows and furniture, and were sensible of a tremulous motion in every part of their houses. It continued from six to ten seconds. It was also felt in Beaufort, Christ-Church Parish, Georgetown, Statesburgh, and Camden, at or about the same time. It was more violent in the two last places, and was said to have lasted more than a minute.

Some of our old citizens recollect, that on the 19th of May, 1754, a similar convulsion of the earth was observed in Charleston. With the exception of these two instances, neither history nor tradition inform us of any event of this kind, either before or since the Europeans settled in this place.

The late earthquake probably originated far to the westward, and was only communicated to the sea-coast by convulsion. Such events are more natural to hilly, mountainous regions, abounding with minerals, and are not much to be dreaded in our low, humid soil. The last summer has been moderate. There were no more than three days in the whole of it, in which the mercury rose above 88. The 19th of July was the hottest day, when the mercury rose to 91. It reached to 89 only on two other days, viz. June 14th and July 15th. The coldest day in the present year was January 7th, when the mercury fell to 23; but in those months which followed the summer, it has not been lower than 30, which was its station on the 30th of November.

The earliest frost in Charleston was on the 13th of November. In the year 1798 there were not more than four months between the latest and earliest frosts; but in the present there have been more than six. Dr. Rittenhouse has observed frost in Pennsylvania every month of the year, except

July. The circumstance of our long exemption from this enemy of vegetation, gives us great advantages in the cultivation of such articles as are of slow growth, and incapable of bearing cold. This is remarkably the case in our new staple, cotton.

There have fallen, in the course of this year, rather more than 75 inches of rain. The last months of it have been uncommonly wet. In one day (the 25th of September) there fell upwards of eight inches of rain. In the months of August, September and October, there fell upwards of 35 inches. This is but little short of what was observed by Bruce, in the countries near the source of the Nile, which furnish the means of the annual inundation of that celebrated river. The long continuance of this damp weather has produced an uncommon number of rheumatic cases, and has materially injured the cotton crops. The small-pox was, early in the year, introduced in the natural way, and spread very generally by inoculation. It was remarkably mild. This disease has been, for some years past, much less formidable than it was thirty or forty years ago. It is a matter of consolation, that while we are invaded by new diseases, some of the old ones have moderated.

Till the month of August, the year has been healthy to all descriptions of people. The old permanent inhabitants have not suffered more, perhaps I might say not so much, even in the most sickly season, as had been usual.

One solitary case occurred, in the month of May, of a person, thirty days from the Havannah, who died in this port of the yellow fever. In the month of June, some sailors from a Spanish vessel, and in the month of July, some other sea-faring persons, were seized with the same disorder: about the middle of August it became epidemic, and continued till about the middle of October. Six or seven persons fell victims to it in the month of October and the first half of November; since which it has disappeared. The mortality from this disease, though considerable, was much short of what common fame stated it to be. From the accurate inquiry made by your committee, it appears that the number of white persons interred in the different burial grounds of this city, between the first of August and the first of December, was 362, and of that number 239 were strangers. From the report of Mr. Brown, city-marshal, made to the intendant, it appears that the whole number of persons (inclusive of both white and black) interred in the different burial grounds

of this city, in the months of July, August, September and October, was 544, and of these 123 were negroes. If we add twelve for the probable amount of the number of persons who died in the city, and were carried into the country for interment, we have the extent of the mortality in Charleston in the four most sickly months of the year 1799, which comprehended the period in which the yellow fever was epidemic, and some time before and after.

Persons coming from the higher northern latitudes of Europe and America, were most subject to this disease, and most rarely survived it. The inhabitants of the country parts of South-Carolina had little better chance of escaping it altogether, or of recovering when attacked. Some instances occurred of persons being seized with it, who had resided one or two years in Charleston; but of these several recovered. In general, the danger seemed to diminish with the length of time they had resided, and their greater assimilation to the constitution of the inhabitants. Five or six children, from two to seven years of age, who had been born and usually resided in Charleston, were carried off with this disease. There were few, or rather no instances clearly marked, of its attacking and proving fatal to adults who had been long used to the air of the city, though some of its symptoms usually attended common fevers.

We have no reason to believe that the yellow fever was either imported among us, or communicated by contagion. It raged most in the north end of King-street, where the greatest number of persons from the country resided, and in those streets where sea-faring persons usually fixed themselves.

No physician nor nurse took the disease. Strangers who left the city, and afterwards sickened and died in the country, were not the occasion of death, or even of disease, to those who attended them in their last illness.

Our knowledge of this fever is very limited. It appears that there is a certain something in the air of Charleston, that is comparatively harmless to the inhabitant, but the source of disease and death to the stranger. What is that something? Whosoever shall satisfactorily answer this question, "*erit mihi magnus Apollo.*" Whatever it is, it is not necessarily destroyed by rain, for the disease prevailed most in August and September, which were the wettest months in the whole year. In the former it rained seventeen days, in the latter ten; in the two together there fell upwards of twenty-five inches of rain.

The yellow fever is eminently the disease of cities. Is it



not, therefore, reasonable to infer, that the more we assimilate our city to the country, the greater will be the probability of escaping it, or diminishing its violence? Would it not be wise in us, in addition to an unremitting attention to cleanliness, to plant such trees as maintain their verdure throughout the sickly season, in our streets, church-yards, and other open places? to cover our gardens, yards, and every vacant spot, with vegetables of large size and quick growth?

I need not mention before this learned society, that we would thereby create an antidote to that deleterious quality of the air which is generated by passing through the lungs of animals, and from the accumulation of filth. In cities, where multitudes are crowded together, the dissolution and putrefaction of every animal that dies, and the breath of every animal that lives, tend to contaminate the air; but the growing vegetables inhale, and are nourished by this poison; and, in lieu thereof, emit and impregnate the atmosphere with what is pure and wholesome. By habit we may accustom ourselves to take poison in small doses, without any deleterious effects. From the same principle, the inhabitants of a city may, without particular injury, inhale a tainted atmosphere, that would, in certain seasons, be fatal to a stranger used to the purer air of the sea or country, especially of a colder latitude.

To this society the police look up for advice respecting the means of preventing diseases. Let us, therefore, co-operate with the city-council, in keeping the city as clean as possible. Much has been done, but more remains to do. Our streets and our drains should be constructed on new principles, and the low grounds filled up with dry and wholesome materials. I need not recapitulate our former recommendations to the intendant and the governor; but I beg leave to point out a few instances, in which they have not been carried into execution. It is several years since we advised, that cellars in which rain water usually settled, should be filled up, so as to secure their constant dryness. This has not been done; and the inhabitants, during the late sickly season, have suffered in consequence thereof. It is true, orders were issued to empty the cellars, after they were filled with water. That is, when the nuisance became intolerable to the inhabitant, he was directed to disperse it among his neighbours.

This society also recommended, that health committees should be appointed to visit, weekly, every family, to inculcate cleanliness, and to report the names of defaulters. This duty has been so carelessly performed as not to answer the end. The

time is past, when men used to work for the public without fee or reward. This business, though of the first consequence to the health of the city, will never be performed as it ought to be, till one or more responsible officers are appointed, with suitable salaries, and adequate powers, to compel house-keepers, in a summary way, to keep their cellars, their stables, their privies, and their yards, wholesome and clean.

This society also recommended, that in future streets should be laid out 100 feet wide. The first settlers, in planning Charleston, had no idea of its future growth. Little did they think that in one century it would be the metropolis of an independent state, extending from the Atlantic 300 miles to the westward. Little did they think, that before the end of the year 1800, such would be the increase of population and wealth in South-Carolina, that one hundred and seven of its citizens would complete a canal that opened a water communication between Charleston and the Allegheny mountains, at an expence five times greater than the sum the whole province sold for about 80 years before. The original plan of Charleston was, therefore, more suited for a country village, than for the capital of such a State as South-Carolina soon will be, or even now is. It was wise in this society, to recommend a more enlarged plan in the extension of the city into the country.

I had anticipated, in imagination, that, at no very distant day, a new Charleston would have been erected to the westward of Boundary-street, in which we, or, at farthest, our children, enjoying a free, pure, and wholesome air, would forget the narrow streets, the confined lanes, and the dirty alleys of the present city. Sorry I am to add, that in the course of the last week, there have been advertised lands for lease, on a plan that contemplates the laying off 137 acres, very little more than a mile from the State-House, in small lots, and with narrow streets. I call upon you, gentlemen, in your intercourse with the citizens, to discourage the present rage for making the most of land, by subdividing lots and crowding houses so close together, as to prevent a free ventilation. To the narrow confined streets of the present city, we must submit: but let all plans for its enlargement be most pointedly discouraged, that are not suited to our extended prospects, and calculated for the health and comfort of our growing numbers. The citizens should be warned, that by a contrary policy, they are sowing the seeds of a yearly visitation from the yellow and other fevers. Let us carefully avoid entailing these evils on posterity.

The events of the last summer should rouse all our activity. That fever which before was confined to strangers, has, within the last three months, attacked a few of our children. One grade more of malignity in the exciting cause, and the distinction in favour of inhabitants which has heretofore prevailed, will probably be done away. Let the months that precede the next summer, be faithfully employed in opening and cleaning the present drains, and increasing their number—in removing every accumulation of filth. I wish not to alarm, but to excite industry, while I declare it to be my opinion, that unless an active, energetic police pervades every part of our city, the inhabitants as well as strangers have reason to fear the summer and autumn of the year 1800.

DAVID RAMSAY.

Charleston, Dec. 24, 1799.

## CORRESPONDENCE.

*To the Editors of the Medical Repository.*

I THINK myself obliged to the writer of your review of books for his candour and impartiality with respect to my late tract on phlogiston; but I hope I may be allowed to observe, that he has mistated my opinion, when he says (p. 385) that I make inflammable air, phlogisticated air, and fixed air, to be only different modifications of phlogiston: whereas, I uniformly suppose that phlogiston is only a constituent part of them all, as he himself acknowledges (p. 383). And where is the difficulty of conceiving that the same principle may be an ingredient in these different substances?

At the same time I have no objection to saying, with this writer, that phlogiston may be defined to be *the base of inflammable air*, provided that the same thing be allowed to be a necessary part of all the metals, and also of sulphur, phosphorus, &c. That phlogiston cannot be exhibited alone is nothing extraordinary. Indeed, few things in nature can be so exhibited. Certainly not the principle of *acidity* or *alkalinity*. These are always found combined with some other substance. But do we, therefore, say that such principles do not exist, or that their existence cannot be demonstrated?

I am, with much respect, Gentlemen,

Yours sincerely,

Northumberland, July 6, 1800.

J. PRIESTLEY.

## ON THE DECORTICATION OF APPLE-TREES.

*To the Editors of the Medical Repository.*

THE manner in which you have related the experiments upon apple-trees (Med. Rep. vol. iii. p. 420), has induced a conjecture that you consider it as a novel discovery, that removing the bark from their trunks does not destroy their existence. The following article, copied from the *Miscellanea Berolinensia*, will, therefore, probably be new to you: and as it contains some useful observations upon the subject, it is presumed it will not be altogether unacceptable.

Yours, &c.

July 12, 1800.

CANTABRIGIENSIS.

*De Cortice Arborum circumcirca sine Damno de toto stipite detracto et renascente.* J. L. FRISCH.

VIR generosiss. de Huneken, Dominus de Carpzw Decus Nobilium Marchizæ, et fautor omnis generis utilium studiorum, monstravit mihi modum renovandi corticem arborum fructiferarum, quarum magnam copiam Carpzovii in egregio pomerario prope sedem suam habet. Siquam pomorum aut pirorum videt cortice asperiore, aut cerasum resinam exudantem et tuberibus deformem, vel alia quacunque ratione suspectam, qua fecunditas arboris propter corticis defectus impeditur, aut sequentibus annis impediri, vel stipitis pulchritudo maculari possit, non vulgari modo de sanitate harum sollicitus est; non abradit asperiora; non partem aliquam exterioris corticis solvit et auferit; non rescindit nodulos et emplastris vulnus curat; non venas secat; sed, quod mireris, totius stipitis corticem a primo sive inferiori ramo, vel a corona primorum ramorum, quam inferiores scienter culturarum arborum rami formant, usque ad terram detrahit. Et quidem non tantum exteriorem et duriorum, sed et interiorem et subtiliorem librum, ita ut album lignum, ablati etiam tenuissimis et viridioribus fibris, ubique æque appareat. Cum hanc methodum curandi arbores primum audirem et magnæ auctoritatis vir mihi affirmaret eam innocentem esse, non potui dubia mea occultare, quia contra communem experientiam est. Moriuntur enim arbores in quibus vel in linea sit, quod hic toti stipiti fieri posse dicebant. Sed postquam singulari Dom. de Huneken favore occasio mihi data fuit videndi complures arbores hac ratione recenter nudatas, et alias novo cortice tectas, experientia nunc edoctus fateor me id vidiſſe, quod nunquam vidi, et quod forsan nemo apud nos scivit, aut, si scivit non ausus est tam egregias et fecunditate sua utilissimas arbores omni cortice in stipite privare. Ad incrementum igitur studii phyci, et imprimis *Δενδρολογίας*, historiæ naturalis egregiæ partis, pauca illa, quæ de hac methodo annotavi, bona cum venia generosiss. Dom. de Huneken, experimenti hujus apud nos Auctoris Lectori B. communicare volui.

1. *Tempus solstitii æstivi observetur.*

Quo tempore succus arboris liquidior & copiosior fluit; habita simul ratione situs horti vel loci arborum, quia in versus meridiem situs citius fluere incipit succus alibi tardius.

2. *Cortex omnis in stipite detrahatur.*

Inæqualitas enim manentis & renascentis partis arborem valde deformem redderet.

3. *Succus exsudans penna anserina æquetur, ubicunque stagnat, & ad spatia nondum tecta trahatur.*

4. *Ne solis æstus hæc succi effluvia impediatur, umbra stipiti nudato fiat.*

Potissimum in parte meridionali, expansis linteis vel connexis et erectis arundinibus vel quocunque alio modo pro loci commoditate. Eodem modo etiam ventorum impetus arceatur, ne pulvere vel arena noceant.

5. *Absint denique omnia quæ tactu quocunque novum et adhuc mollem corticem maculare possint. cujus teneritas tanta est, ut vel minima fricitione lædatur.*

Artibus, quæ arborum corticibus atuntur, et possessoribus talium arborum hoc experimentum imprimis utile esse potest.

*Miscellanea Berolinenſia, tom. 3. p. 26, 27, 28. Edit. Berolin. 4to. 1727.*

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# MEDICAL REPOSITORY.

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VOL. IV.—No. II.

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## ARTICLE I.

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FACTS *relative to the* BLACK-VOMIT, DYSENTERY, &c. *as they occurred in* Mifflin County, Pennsylvania, *during the hot Weather of* 1797, 1798, and 1799, *and to the Efficacy of* Strata of Calcareous Earth (Carbonate of Lime) *in counteracting the exciting Causes of those Distempers. From a Letter of* Dr. WILLIAM HARRIS *to* Dr. MITCHILL, *dated* June 24, 1800.

FIRST, I presume, a brief description of this country may be necessary. It lies to the north-west of Philadelphia nearly 200 miles: the soil is very fertile, and the country, in general, abounds in lime-stone, particularly the valleys. It is very mountainous. From within half or three-fourths of a mile from the foot of each mountain, the soil is chiefly underlaid with lime-stone, which, in many places, appears to be a solid rock. The valleys, viz. Nittany and Penn's Valley, are from four to six miles in breadth, within the lime-stone tracts. Bald-Eagle Valley lies to the north of these, in which is but very little lime-stone, if any. The valley is low, and generally flat. Near to the Bald-Eagle Creek, which runs through the valley from west to east, are many ponds of stagnant water, filled with trees, rubbish, and putrid substances; which, in the months of August and September, become so offensive, in many places, that the smell can scarcely be supported. This stench has only been so great since the clearing of the land.

It is now 25 or 30 years since the first settling of the country. Notwithstanding the ponds of water which, during the whole summer, have been kept full, the inhabitants have enjoyed good health till within these three years. The

water is now exposed to the rays of the sun, and becomes nearly dried up towards the latter end of summer. It is, in many places, covered over with a greenish scum, from whence arises a very unpleasent smell. The consequence is dysentery, intermittents, and highly malignant febrile complaints, which, in some instances, prove mortal in 48 hours, and three days, having every symptom, as described by medical writers, of the pestilential disease, or "yellow fever," of New-York and Philadelphia. In the year 1797, it was as fatal in Milesborough, which lies upon the Bald-Eagle Creek, according to the number of inhabitants, as it was in Philadelphia in 1793.—A large pond of water stood within the neighbourhood of the town. The season being very dry and warm, the water, which before was shaded by trees, was now exposed to the sun, and was, in a great measure, dried up. The pond abounded with putrefying vegetables, the stench of which proved very disagreeable. Few in the town escaped sickness of the most malignant kind, which continued through the months of August and September. The pond has since been drained off, and the inhabitants are as healthy as usual.

The disease was ushered in by chills, pain in the head, back and limbs, often with vomiting. In some the complexion was very florid. Many discharged from the stomach a dark substance, first resembling tar, and afterwards coffee-grounds. The disease, in several instances, was lengthened out to four and five weeks, which, in some, at that period, terminated favourably by profuse hæmorrhages from the anus, and, in two instances, from the vagina. They were destitute, in a great measure, of medical aid, relying chiefly upon domestic prescriptions.—The above sketch of the disease I had from the most respectable inhabitants of the town.

In the year 1798 I removed to this country, when the same disease prevailed. The symptoms were, first, chills, pains in different parts of the body, particularly the head and back, succeeded by febrile commotions; the pulse sometimes tense, hard and full, often weak and frequent, always varying; the tongue, in most instances, was, from the commencement of febrile action, covered over with a thick brown or blackish fur. After the first 24 hours the sick seldom ever complained of pain. They were often in a state of stupor, with great inclination to sleep. Delirium attended in almost every instance. Strangury was no unfrequent symptom. Singultus and hiccup were most commonly the fore-runners of dissolution. Many, when asked how they were, would say they felt no pain nor sickness,

and would converse freely, even a few minutes before death. Many vomited a dark, filthy, brown substance, and sometimes nearly as dark as ink, which was so offensive as to cause nausea, and even vomiting, in the attendants. The fæces were, in some instances, of a very dark colour, and as offensive to the smell. The nervous system was much agitated. The limbs of some were in motion, as if performing feats of gesture; so violent was the subsultus tendinum. The skin was often very yellow. The linen was frequently stained with an orange tinge. In this year, emetics of tartarized antimony, cathartics of jalap and calomel, had a good effect. Bleeding was also very essential. The bark answered a good purpose; but, above all, alkalies were more congenial and serviceable.

The year 1799 was very dry, and the complaint more mortal, in general, than the two preceding seasons. Within the neighbourhood of the same water, the inhabitants were visited with the same disease, in its highest degree of malignancy. Dysentery and intermittents also prevailed; but, as far as I recollect, none were affected with them except those who lived in the neighbourhood of, or near to, the source of the miasma. Several who visited the sick inhaled the poison; and, after returning home, sickened and died. It was in no one instance contagious. The mercury in the thermometer stood often as high as 95 deg. and, indeed, one day, in the shade, at 99 deg. The degree of heat was very variable.—This season the symptoms were much the same as the preceding, only more violent. The black-vomiting was characteristic.

One circumstance I think worthy of attention, which plainly evinces the unhealthiness of putrid vegetables, &c. when exposed to the sun.—A large spring issued from the bottom of a sand-stone hill, sufficiently large to turn a saw-mill, which had always, from the first tillage of the country, been a constant and uniform stream, until the present autumn, when, after a very dry summer, it stopt running. A house was built close upon the bank of the spring, which contained several families, who always, heretofore, had been very healthy. The stream from it was full of filthy rubbish, which, when dried up, had a very disagreeable smell. The families which lived in the house were taken sick with a disease resembling that of 1797, of which, after a few days sickness, three died: the remainder continued sickly and confined till the water returned: they then recovered. Several of their friends, who came 20 and 30 miles to visit them, took sick, and died upon their return, without spreading the complaint.

Several, this season, had dysentery and intermittents at the same time: the one always yielding to its superior in the course of a few days.

*In the lime-stone tract, I do not know of an instance of the disease occurring, but what could be traced to some unhealthy part, near to the foot of the mountains.* In Nittany Valley, between the borders of the lime-stone and that of the mountain, cynanche trachealis and dysentery were frequent, and some intermittents. It puzzled me to know the reason of the remainder of the valley being so healthy, and those narrow confines so unhealthy, though it is true there is more moisture in the latter. Rheumatisms and pneumonic affections are the most prevailing complaints in the middle of this valley. Emetics, succeeded by alkaline substances, I found to do better than the lancet, and other usual remedies. Cathartics of calomel were very beneficial, and bark answered also this season a good end. The lancet, though my usual friend in fever, was, in this instance, undoubtedly a foe to health. I laid it aside, and depended chiefly upon the above for destroying the poison of the prevailing disease. When timely administered, it succeeded.

I am, with sentiments of respect,  
Yours, &c.

WILLIAM HARRIS.

## ARTICLE II.

*On the EFFICACY of the DIGITALIS PURPUREA in ALLAYING EXCESSIVE ACTION of the SANGUIFEROUS SYSTEM: Communicated to Dr. MITCHILL by JAMES S. STRINGHAM, M. D. of New-York.*

**T**HE latter end of the month of April last I was called upon to visit a gentleman in this city, who was labouring under a severe attack of pneumonia. When I saw him (which was on the third day of the disease), his face was highly flushed, the tunica albuginea extremely turgid. About two hours before I came he had been seized with delirium; complained of great pain, particularly on the right side, shooting from thence to the scapula; his skin was hot and dry; pulse about 120; respiration laborious, attended with a short dry



cough. The usual remedies had been applied by the physician who first attended him; but they had contributed little to his relief. The obstinacy and violence of the fever made me determine, if possible, to administer some remedy which might, by its first and immediate operation, diminish the action of the arterial system. Of those contained in the materia medica, I formed the most favourable expectations from the digitalis, as I thought that in one case, where it had been taken by mistake to the quantity of three grains, it had, in this way, greatly assisted in the cure of an incipient enteritis, though I, at that time, attributed its good effects not to any action peculiar to the digitalis, but to the great nausea and vomiting it occasioned, which terminated in a profuse sweat. I, consequently, thought that it might properly be administered with a twofold view. First, I hoped that by giving it in small doses, and at short intervals, my patient might be able to retain a sufficient quantity of it on his stomach to act quickly and generally on the system. If I was disappointed here, and should nausea or vomiting be produced, I hoped that these might be succeeded by that evacuation which had proved so salutary in the case just alluded to. Accordingly, at ten o'clock on the same morning in which I was first called, I began by ordering him to take half a grain every three hours, unless he found his stomach or head affected by it. At seven in the evening I visited him again, and found the quickness of pulse greatly diminished; and his nurse remarked to me, that he had voided more urine that day than on any other during his illness. He had had no delirium during the last six hours; nor was that turgidity of the countenance by any means so remarkable as in the morning.

He had now taken two grains of the digitalis. Encouraged by a change so flattering (as the man was of a strong and robust constitution), I determined, by pushing my medicine, to give it a fair trial. I therefore ordered a continuance of it, with the same proviso as formerly. Feeling some anxiety as to the event of my experiment, and not placing the greatest confidence in the attention and punctuality of the nurse, I visited him again at nine. He had had another profuse discharge of urine since I saw him last; and every appearance was so much changed for the better, that I did not hesitate to pronounce him out of danger. His pulse now did not exceed ninety strokes in a minute. I was present at his taking the fifth dose, which, shortly after it was received into the stomach, produced what he termed an insupportable nausea. This was succeeded by

vomiting, which not being very severe, I encouraged by diluents. After this the medicine operated briskly as a cathartic. I continued with him for some time; and, after ordering a discontinuance of the digitalis, I left him composed, and with an incipient moisture upon the skin. The next morning I found that he still continued convalescent. On inquiring whether he had since felt any disagreeable effects from his medicine during the night, he assured me that he had not, except an uncomfortable degree of sweating. On the third day of my visiting him, I observed that with his cough he had some expectoration. I now gave him the oxymel scilliticum, at the same time paying attention to the state of his bowels. Upon this plan of treatment, in a short time, he so far recovered as to render my further attendance unnecessary.

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Shortly after the above trial, a school-master in this city consulted me about a fixed and obstinate pain in his breast, which he had experienced at intervals during several years, first occasioned, as he supposed, by a too intense application to writing. It may be proper to remark, by the way, that in this case there was no cough. After taking some blood from him, and opening his bowels, I applied blisters successively to the painful part. To these was also added the use of diaphoretics, and an antiphlogistic regimen, but all without any evidently good effect. I determined, in this case also, to try the virtues of the digitalis. He began with half a grain night and morning, which, after a few days, was increased to a grain. He continued persevering in this plan about a fortnight, when he assured me that he found himself greatly better, and wished to know whether it was necessary to continue the medicine. This I strongly recommended; notwithstanding which, his neglect of remedies (as commonly happens) increasing in proportion as his complaint diminished, the pain again returned with its former severity. I again put him on the same plan, with the same success—as he now assures me that it does not prevent him from prosecuting the duties of his station with ease and satisfaction.

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I have often thought, that a medicine which would diminish the action of the vascular system, without previously occasioning an increased excitement, was a great desideratum amongst physicians. The cases just now related induce me to hope that this want may be, at least in some degree, supplied by the digitalis, as its first effect (so far as I could observe)

after its exhibition, was that of rendering the pulse slower. With this circumstance, I also apprehend, are intimately connected that increase in the quantity of urine and subsequent perspiration, which seemed, in so short a time, to place my first patient entirely out of danger. I have ever considered a too rapid circulation of the fluids equally unfavourable to perspiration and secretion with that which is too tardy and languid. When the blood is thus precipitately hurried away, a sufficient time is not given for the separation of its thinner parts, destined to enter either the small and delicate excretories which open on the surface, or those still more minute ramifications which constitute the glands.

I have been particular in remarking the diuretic effects of the digitalis on my first patient, and that the first favourable change in his disease was preceded by an increased flow of urine. In febrile complaints, the state of the urinary secretions is, in my opinion, at present, too little regarded by practitioners. If (as is generally taught) fevers are produced and continued by an obstruction or spasmodic contraction of the extreme vessels, by which fluids are pent up in the body, which prove noxious both by their quantity and acrimony, does it not appear rational to suppose, that a discharge of such fluid from the system, by means of any other organ, must greatly aid in the cure of the disease—*Cessante causa cessat effectus*. Urine, and the matter of perspiration, as to their properties, appear to have considerable similitude; and we all know how much the state of the one is affected by that of the other. Thus, in winter, to prevent the bad effects of diminished perspiration, the urine becomes more copious and aqueous. In summer, again, when the first is increased in quantity, the latter is more sparingly discharged. Those who use much exercise, by increasing perspiration, pass much less urine than the sedentary; whereas, diminished perspiration always produces a greater secretion from the urinary organs: hence the bladders of old men are much more frequently distended than those of youth. From these, and many more instances that might be adduced, we perceive that there is an intimate connection between these two excretions, and that nature prevents the bad consequences that might arise from a diminution of the one, by an augmentation of the other. Ought not she, in this respect, to be imitated by physicians? I must confess, for my own part, that I am willing to attribute much of the good effects produced by the digitalis, in the cure of my patient, to its diuretic properties; and this opinion is corrob-

rated by what has been just observed as to natural processes for the same purpose. Hence I am induced to hope, that in this way also the digitalis may prove a valuable remedy in the cure of fevers. It may, at first sight, appear somewhat singular, that one of these patients should be able, in the course of a day, to take two and a half grains of this medicine, without suffering from its effects. But those who are accustomed to the exhibition of powerful remedies in violent diseases, well know that the constitution will then bear, without inconvenience, medicines which, in a natural and healthy state, would produce the most pernicious consequences. Mania and fevers, in particular, afford numerous proofs of the truth of this remark. This, perhaps, may be owing to that determination of fluids towards the cerebrum, by which the nerves become, in some degree, compressed at their origin: hence a diminished sensibility of the system.

I have ventured to propose to your consideration the foregoing remarks, with a view to excite the attention of others on a subject which I deem highly interesting. I regret that (being but a young practitioner) my opportunities for observation have been too contracted to form any decisive opinion; I shall, however, make use of every mean for a further investigation of the subject; and the result of these inquiries I shall candidly transmit to you.

*New-York, July 11, 1800.*

### ARTICLE III.

OBSERVATIONS *on* CERTAIN OBJECTIONS *of* Dr. JOSEPH PRIESTLEY *to the* ANTIPHLOGISTIC SYSTEM *of* CHEMISTRY. *By* JAMES WOODHOUSE, *M. D. Professor of Chemistry in the University of Pennsylvania.*

No. II.

*To the Editors of the Medical Repository.*

GENTLEMEN,

**I**N my defence of the antiphlogistic theory of chemistry, published in the Medical Repository, vol. iv. p. 25, I decidedly pronounced, that the scales which the blacksmiths strike off from red-hot iron, called by Dr. Priestley finery cinder, were

composed partly of water, which is contrary to the belief of the French chemists, who consider them as a combination of iron and oxygen, though I have attempted to reconcile my opinion with their theory.

Having lately performed a variety of interesting experiments, I have obtained results which are as much, or rather more, in favour of Dr. Priestley than his opponents.

In investigating a subject which requires the attention to be kept constantly awake, it is not improbable but that some mistakes may be committed. Should any be made by myself, I shall always acknowledge them, for nothing is more desirable than truth in science. Following the laudable example of Dr. Priestley, I shall endeavour to imitate his well-known candour, and strict adherence to matter of fact—

“ Non ita certandi cupidus, quam propter amorem  
 “ Quod eum imitari aveo.” LUCRET.

FIRST. *Of the Calces of Metals and Coal exposed to a red Heat, &c.*

The substance produced by transmitting the steam of water over red-hot iron, appears to consist of the same principles as the scales of iron; for, when mixed with coal which has ceased to give air, it yields large quantities of carbonated inflammable and fixed air. The celebrated Lavoisier, the founder of the new system of chemistry, who is erroneously supposed to have experimented with more accuracy than any other person, was of opinion, that the oxygen of the water united to the iron, and that the increased weight of the metal was owing purely to oxygen, and to no other cause. In this he has been followed by all who have embraced the new doctrine, and the quantity of oxygen contained in water has been deduced from the increased weight of the iron.

Now, if it can be proved that part of the weight of finery cinder is owing to water, it will follow, that the calculation of the quantity of oxygen in water, from the increased weight of the iron, must have been grossly erroneous.

The proofs that finery cinder contains water are two.

1st. If it was composed merely of oxygen and iron, it would yield nothing but fixed air when subjected to heat with pure coal, as red precipitate does, which is not the case.

2dly. When added to coal which has ceased to yield air,

it affords inflammable and fixed air in the same manner as if the steam of water was passed over hot coal, or if it was united to water, or any substance containing water.

Light ounces of the scales of iron, and half an ounce of coal, yielded six hundred and two ounce measures of carbonated inflammable and fixed air. The iron was completely revived; and, by sulphuric acid and water, gave common inflammable and hepatic gas. The last air consists of sulphur dissolved in inflammable air, and sulphur is probably a compound body, for it appears to have been formed during the experiment. The air changed the water of my hydropneumatic tub to a brown colour, turned silver black, and produced this colour on the shelf of the tub, which was painted white.

Having established the proofs that finery cinder contains water, I shall endeavour to show that oxygen is one of its component parts, which Dr. Priestley will not allow.

If there was nothing but water in the scales of iron, as much fixed air could be produced by coal mixed with water, or by passing steam over red-hot coal, or by adding water to some other substance not containing oxygen, and mixing it with coal, as from finery cinder and coal.

I have never been able to obtain more than thirty parts in the hundred of fixed air, from passing steam over hot coal, or by mixing it with water, and exposing it to heat in an earthen retort; but with finery cinder and coal I have obtained fifty parts in the hundred of fixed air. I have passed from two to twenty ounce measures of water, in the form of steam, over half an ounce, and an ounce of red-hot coal, in moderate pieces, in a copper tube, and though I have three times examined the air, for two hours at a time, I never could find more than thirty parts in the hundred of fixed air.

The method of determining the quantity of fixed air in one hundred parts of inflammable and fixed air, is by receiving the airs over water, in the measure of an eudiometer, and immediately throwing them up over lime-water. The fixed air unites to the lime, an absorption of the water takes place, and the proportion is determined by a scale accurately graduated.

By relating the experiments, at length, on coal alone, and mixed with finery cinder, the difference in the quantity of inflammable and fixed air will be made manifest.

Four ounces of coal, taken promiscuously from a heap, yielded six hundred and twenty-two ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air.

The 1st 10 ounce measures was the air of the vessel.

2d	4	contained 30	fixed air and 70 inflam,
3d	4	20	80
4th	4	15	85
5th	360	10	90
6th	70	2	98
7th	170	0	100
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	622		

The same coal, taken from the retort, wetted with water, and committed to it again, gave eighty-one ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air.

The 1st 10 ounce measures was the air of the vessel.

2d	12	contained 30	fixed air and 70 inflam,
3d	40	25	75
4th	6	20	80
5th	13	0	100
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	81		

The same coal, wetted a third time with water, yielded one hundred and eighty-one ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air.

The 1st 14 ounce measures was the air of the vessel.

2d	4	contained 30	fixed air and 70 inflam.
3d	44	26	74
4th	37	25	75
5th	62	20	80
6th	12	8	92
7th	4	1	99
8th	4	0	100
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I continued to add water to this coal, and exposed it to heat, until it was consumed: the proportion of fixed air always gradually diminished—the first portions being 30, and the last 5, or purely carbonated inflammable air.

When the scales of iron were added to the coal, the proportion of fixed air was much greater.

Eight ounces of the scales of iron, and half an ounce of coal, which had ceased to yield air, exposed to heat in an earthen retort, in five hours gave six hundred and two ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air.

The 1st	14	ounce measures of atmos-		
		pheric, inflammable, and	30	fixed air.
2d	30		contained	50
				50 inflam.
3d	8		46	54
4th	8		45	55
5th	20		40	60
6th	18		36	64
7th	18		30	70
8th	84		25	75
9th	128		22	78
10th	96		22	78
11th	178		20	80

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When two ounces of the scales of iron, and one drachm of coal, were used, the first portions of air were 40 in 100 fixed air: when half an ounce was tried, the fixed air was 30 per cent. and when two drachms of that made by throwing steam over red-hot iron wire was mixed with one drachm of coal, sixty ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air were procured—the first portions of which were 20 per cent. fixed air, and the last 25.

The first thing which strikes us, in these experiments, is the large quantity of pure carbonated inflammable air afforded by coal, taken promiscuously from a heap, as it comes to us from the dealers in that article, compared to the quantity yielded by the same coal, wetted with water, and repeatedly exposed to heat. Four ounces of this kind of coal gave 170 ounce measures of inflammable air, entirely free of fixed air; but when first wetted with water, the inflammable air was thirteen ounce measures, and the second time four ounce measures.—One hundred and forty-three ounce measures of inflammable air was afforded by two ounces of another specimen of coal; and, when wetted with water, the inflammable air was diminished to two ounce measures.

I can only account for the fact by supposing, that common coal is imperfectly charred, and that the volatile principles of the wood are dissipated, and consist chiefly of inflammable air.

The gases which are procured from coal and water, have been ascribed to the decomposition of water. It is said that the oxygen of the water unites to part of the coal, and forms the fixed air; while its hydrogen dissolves another part of the coal, and forms carbonated inflammable air. But this theory will not account for the gradual increase of the inflammable,



and diminution of the fixed air, when coal is exposed to heat. As water, according to the French chemists, is composed of eighty-five parts, by weight, of oxygen, and fifteen of hydrogen, the eighty-five parts of oxygen ought constantly to unite with the coal, and form fixed air, and the proportion of inflammable and fixed air should invariably be the same; or where two parts, in bulk, of the inflammable air are found, there ought to be one part of oxygen united to the coal, which is not the case; for when the airs are obtained from coal, the first portions are generally 70 inflammable, and 30 fixed air; and the last are either all inflammable, or 95 inflammable, and 5 fixed air.

The same continued increase of inflammable air, and diminution of fixed air, takes place upon mixing the oxyds of zinc, iron, copper, lead, manganese, tin and bismuth, with coal, as will be shown by the following experiments.

Half an ounce of zinc, precipitated from a solution of white vitriol by caustic pot-ash, was washed in water until it would not give a milky colour to muriated barytes, and was exposed to a red heat half an hour, and then mixed with two drachms of coal, which had ceased to yield air, in an earthen retort, when it gave eighty-six ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air.

The 1st	10 ounce	measures	was the air of the vessel.
2d	4		contained 75 fixed air and 25 inflam.
3d	4		40                    60
4th	4		15                    85
5th	4		10                    90
6th	4		2                     98
7th	56		0                    100
	—		
	86		

The same result happened from using the flowers of zinc and coal. The metal is completely revived, and is found adhering to the neck of the retort, which must be broken to obtain it. In three experiments, however, fifty, forty, and twenty-four ounce measures of pure carbonated inflammable air were procured without any perceptible quantity of fixed air.

One ounce of the red oxyd of iron, colcothar of vitriol, made by exposing green vitriol to an intense heat, and one drachm of coal, gave seventy ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air; the first portions being wholly fixed air, then 80, 60, 50, and never less than 40 parts in the hundred.

Two drachms of the calx of iron, from a solution of green

vitriol by caustic pot-ash, which had been half an hour exposed to a red heat, and one drachm of coal, gave two hundred and sixty-nine ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air.

The 1st	4 ounce measures was the air of the vessel.		
2d	4	contained 65 fixed air and	35 inflam.
3d	4	60	40
4th	4	42	58
5th	4	30	70
6th	5	25	75
7th	200	20	80
8th	44	15	85
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	269		

Half an ounce of the oxyd of copper, from blue vitriol by caustic pot-ash, which was exposed half an hour to a red heat, and one drachm of coal, yielded one hundred and six ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air.

The 1st	4 ounce measures was the air of the vessel.		
2d	36	contained 100 fixed air and	0 inflam,
3d	10	74	26
4th	10	20	80
5th	8	12	88
6th	20	10	90
7th	18	5	95
	<hr/>		
	106		

Half an ounce of red lead, and one drachm of coal, gave twenty-six ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air.

The 1st	4 ounce measures was the air of the vessel.		
2d	10	contained 100 fixed air,	
3d	8	45	
4th	4	15	
	<hr/>		
	26		

Half an ounce of white lead, and one drachm of coal, afforded fifty-three ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air.

The 1st	4 ounce measures was the air of the vessel.		
2d	4	contained 80 fixed air and	20 inflam,
3d	18	95	5
4th	4	85	15
5th	9	70	30
6th	8	20	80
7th	6	10	90
	<hr/>		

Half an ounce of black oxyd of manganese, and one drachm of coal, gave fifty-five ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air.

The 1st	4	ounce measures was the air of the vessel.	
2d	4	contained 80 fixed air and 20 inflam.	
3d	26	95	5
4th	8	85	15
5th	10	30	70
6th	3	25	75

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55

Half an ounce of the white oxyd of tin, and one drachm of coal, gave seventy-four ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air.

The 1st	4	ounce measures was the air of the vessel.	
2d	12	contained 50 fixed air and 50 inflam.	
3d	10	45	55
4th	26	20	80
5th	22	15	85

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Half an ounce of the white oxyd of bismuth, precipitated from a solution of bismuth in the nitric acid by water, and one drachm of coal, gave thirty-eight ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air.

The 1st	4	ounce measures was the air of the vessel.	
2d	10	contained 30 fixed air and 70 inflam.	
3d	9	15	85
4th	10	8	92
5th	5	5	95

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All these calces, except bismuth and zinc, afford more fixed air than can be procured from coal and water, which seems to be a proof that they contain oxygen. Water appears to be a principal agent in producing part of the inflammable and fixed air, for these airs are procured in proportion to the quantity of this fluid in the metallic calces. That water is one of the agents, may be inferred from the difference in the quantity of the gases yielded by the same weight of metallic calx and coal. If oxygen was the sole agent, no inflammable air could be obtained, and the fixed air would be greatest from those oxyds which contain the most oxygen, which is not the truth. Thus half an ounce of red lead, which is said to con-

tain twelve per cent. oxygen, with one drachm of coal, gave but twenty-six ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air; while the same quantity of coal and white lead, which is said to contain five per cent. oxygen, yielded fifty-three ounce measures of inflammable and fixed air, and the proportion of this last gas is three times as great as from the red lead. The oxyd of bismuth too, which is said to contain sixteen per cent. oxygen, gave no more fixed air than could be obtained from coal and water.

The flowers of zinc, yielding no fixed air when subjected to heat with coal, or the fixed air which is sometimes obtained being in proportion to the water which is united to the calx, is agreeable to the theory of Dr. Priestley, and cannot be accounted for by the new doctrine; and if the Doctor can prove, that as much fixed air can be procured from coal and water as from this substance and the metallic calces, a part of the antiphlogistic system will be completely overturned: but to effect this, it will be necessary to show, that from fifty to one hundred parts of fixed air may be made from coal and water, which has not yet been done.

#### SECONDLY. *Of a Solution of Copper in Volatile Alkali.*

Dr. Priestley says, a solution of copper in volatile alkali gave phlogisticated air, and it will not be very easy to say where this azote existed before the process.\*

Copper was precipitated from a solution of blue vitriol by caustic pot-ash, washed well with distilled water, and ammoniac added to it: heat being applied, a part of it was dissolved. The muriatic acid was then boiled upon it fifteen minutes, and no air except that of the vessel was obtained.

One ounce measure of marine acid was also added to two ounce measures of a saturated solution of cuprum ammoniacum, and boiled with it one quarter of an hour, when nothing but the air of the vessel was procured.

If Dr. Priestley obtained phlogisticated air, it must have come from the volatile alkali, as it is one of its component parts.

\* Medical Repository, vol. ii. p. 386, first edition.

## ARTICLE IV.

OBSERVATIONS on the YELLOW FEVER. By Dr. FELIX PASCALIS, of Philadelphia.

[Continued from page 17, and concluded.]

## Section II.

**I** NOW come, Gentlemen, to the controversy on salivation as a mode of treatment for the yellow fever.

Ptyalism, salivation, inflammation and suppuration of the parotid glands, with all the like, constitute various degrees of the same affection, which has often afforded to practitioners many physiological discussions, both for crises and cure of diseases: yet it never was well ascertained what is the real proximate cause of that affection. It has appeared, indeed, that remedies as well as diseases might excite a salivation. Its seat may be in all, or in many glands of the mouth, of the fauces, and in the salivary glands. These are always affected, and sometimes also the small labial, and the glandulous body of the palate, with the salival miliary. All these glands becoming swelled, the membranes which cover them are inflamed, and frequently ulcerated. The progress of inflammation, in some of those parts, is sometimes so great as to check entirely the power of deglutition, and to cause the tongue to protrude and hang out of the mouth. The gums likewise participate of the affection: they are soon ulcerated and corroded, to the detriment of the teeth, which are frequently shaken out of their sockets, or irreparably decayed. It is obvious that so great ravages, extended over various organs, and many delicate parts, make it very difficult to stop their progress by effectual remedies. Hence it happens that fatal effects often attend a salivation—such as a mutilating gangrene of some part of the face, or of the internal membranes of the mouth, and even of the muscles of the lower jaw: likewise a sudden revulsion of the inflammation and fluids may take place from these glands into other viscera, and cause a certain death.

In the various periods of this astonishing affection, whether produced by disease or promoted by medicines, we observe the same effects as in any local inflammation. There is a considerable influx of fluids, and a great heat; a resolution afterwards is to be expected (unless induration or mortification

terminates the history of the case), which is ferous or purulent. The first is frequently attended with hæmorrhage, and, consequently, is very dangerous. The latter is desirable; but it is remarkably offensive, and seldom terminates without some considerable erosions.—These may utterly destroy the motions of the lower jaw.

It appears that the confluent small-pox and malignant fevers are often attended with salivation. I have seen it myself in a case of tuberculous pulmonic consumption.

Of all the medicines, mercury is the most powerful to promote salivation. It has been also ascertained, that nitric acid, and other chemical preparations and acid substances, may excite a ptyalism with slight inflammation. It is obvious that these substances operate as stimulants immediately, applied to certain parts; but mercury excites salivation by being applied to any external part, or taken internally. Physiologists formerly thought, that a metastasis of *morbific matter* was produced by mercury applied to the salivary glands, from which it was evacuated. This error was soon rejected, when it was found that, without any pre-existing disease or morbid matter, salivation might be completely effected; or that, after profuse salivation, disease and morbid matter could exist the same. None of the modern theorists have been, I believe, very successful in explaining the proximate causes of salivation. Whatever they think, it is now useless to repeat: I only observe, that, with opposite systems, many physicians have, in America, introduced the salivating method in almost every acute disease, and chiefly in the yellow fever. There must be some general reasons why the same practical means are resorted to, although with different theories; and of these motives I will hereafter mention those which appear to be the principal and most plausible.

All the arguments which have been held out by practitioners of different descriptions, in favour of the salivating method in the yellow fever, may be reduced, I believe, to three principal ones, resorting to all kinds of theories. The first is, that it evacuates the poisonous and specific contagion of the yellow fever: the second, that it overcomes the excitement, or destroys the *morbid action* of the blood-vessels, produced by the presence of the contagion: and the last, that it is justified by success and observation in practice. We will now controvert these arguments, one after the other.

I do not suppose that there is any *specific contagion* in the yellow fever to be evacuated by any extraordinary means;

yet, admitting this to be the case, I say that this contagious or specific poison cannot be more easily subdued by salivation than that of the lues venerea; and it has been minutely ascertained that the latter is not at all removed by the means of salivation. The opinion of the famous John Hunter on this subject is known, and I might mention also many celebrated French physiologists. These have carried so far their opinion of the inefficacy of salivation, that they have highly recommended the mercurial treatment, called *par extinction*; in which the least affection of the mouth is successfully counteracted and avoided. Indeed, it is a doctrine generally allowed by all French practitioners, that the syphilis equally yields to mercury with or without salivation. In it they see nothing but a peculiar operation of the specific on the system, to which we should not attend but to avoid its ravages. Fabre and Petit have satisfactorily proved, that if any evacuation is promoted by mercury, it must be either insensibly through the skin, or by the bowels. We adhere to the fact, that a regular mercurial treatment causes, before twenty days, a discharge from the bowels, which seems critical, and is generally attended with an effectual cure: and these medical conjectures still more invalidate the utility of a salivating method. The same effects are observed in other diseases of specific contagion, and of obstructed viscera. We exhibit mercury with success, if salivation has not taken place. This affection, therefore, cannot be called an effectual means for evacuating the poisonous miasmata that excite the yellow fever.

As for subduing the excitement or the morbid action of the blood-vessels by salivation, this effect, if admitted, would prove the truth of what I have already stated of the loss of animal irritability, caused by the presence of deleterious gases: for the excessive increase of *excitement* supposes at least a proportionate exhaustion of *excitability* or irritability. Is it not a delusion to think that a greater excitement pervades the system, because we see an excess of agitation in it, which has taken the place of the calm functions of a healthy state? No, no—a perturbation of animal functions cannot be an increase of excitement. In the very meaning of our modern theories, excitement does not imply any thing inimical to the action of life, but what is favourable to it.

I know that they distinguish another sort of excitement, which they call a *morbid action*, produced in blood-vessels by hurtful powers. Good God! what is then that morbid action? Could it not be defined by some intelligible and physiological

words, in order that we could understand how it can be subdued by another hurtful power and morbid action in the mouth and salivary glands? Notwithstanding we see but one natural effect in salivation, which is a new excitement added to excitement or morbid action: such would be that of inflaming, by friction, the skin of a man intoxicated or highly excited by ardent spirits: therefore salivation has no excitement to subdue; or, if there is any, it will and must increase it, and give to it a still greater character of morbid action.

But our theorists say, that as soon as salivation begins to operate, a favourable change of the malignant symptoms takes place. Indeed, the pulse expands itself, and becomes more natural; the secretions recover their regularity; heat is equally diffused through the body; the *mador* of the skin promises a relief, and marks a happy and certain cure: to conclude, such result is a proof that all the morbid action or excitement of blood-vessels is abstracted or subdued by salivation. We have seen some of those effects, and we will examine hereafter with what result they can be compared to contrary effects. But this alteration of malignant symptoms, when it is effectually beneficial, does not more satisfactorily prove the abstraction of excitement or morbid action, than it would prove, with other theorists, the transport or metastasis, in the salivary glands, of the *morbific matter*—that is to say, of the specific contagion or poison of the fever received into the blood. Even this latter supposition would be more rational, because it means an immediate operation on the cause of the disease, whilst the other relates only to its effect. It rests with us, therefore, to point out what is to be thought of that alteration of symptoms produced by salivation, and how delusive it is in many instances.

If I would contend further for the truth of my opinions respecting the loss of animal irritability, which constitutes the yellow fever, and of the necessity of exciting it by artificial and stimulating means, I could, with as much consistency as possible, exhibit the operation of salivation concurring effectually to that purpose, whether it is in itself a continued stimulating operation, or a peculiar operation of mercurial medicines, which indicates that the remedy has at last restored to the system as much irritability as it formerly possessed. But in this controversy let us renounce every kind of systematic theory, and reason only on facts universally observed.—Whatever may be the cause of fevers, and of malignant fevers too, there are none that cannot be cured by a local affection, or



by an evacuation. This is the origin of the doctrine of the crises, which, since the days of Hippocrates, has been held out as the great subject of inquiries, for the safety of prognostics, and of clinical precepts. The science of medicine has divided, as it seems, with nature, the task, or the *grand-oeuvre*, of producing those curative *crises* of local affections, and of evacuations.—The most ancient practice among the Chinese and Japanese, was that of puncturing and burning the skin.\* They still adhere to it.—The Arabians and Egyptians are known to be the inventors of the *Moxa*. It is known, also, how much the celebrated Pouteau, of France, prevailed, in his time, to bring into credit the application of fire. The Dutch and the Germans still continue the practice of cupping and scarifying. We are more improved in modern researches. We cannot do without cantharides, purges and emetics, because local affections, by fire or by caustics, and evacuations, are necessary. It would involve me in too long a discussion, if I should prove, besides, what kind of local affections and spontaneous evacuations belong to every kind of fever; but it is a fact that they have their crises, either by eruption, or local affection, or evacuation; and if one is unsuccessful the patient must die.†

Among those crises, spontaneous salivation has been observed in some acute diseases, in the confluent small-pox, and in malignant fevers. It is true, that if conducted with regularity, it is the means of cure. Those spontaneous salivations in malignant fevers, particularly in the yellow fever, have been observed and mentioned by eminent physicians: they have been accurately described by two French authors.‡ But we repeat it, that in order to prove beneficial, a salivation must be as spontaneous and laudable as an exanthematous eruption, or an abscess. Nature alone must direct its relieving operations. If these are artificially promoted, they become perilous or abortive in proportion as they are considerable, and attended with too many circumstances of inflammation, &c. As for the apparent number of those patients who seem efficaciously and easily relieved of their symptoms by a moderate salivation,

\* Very interesting and curious essays on these operations, as used among many ancient and oriental nations, may be found in the French Encyclopædia methodized, tom. i. art. Medicine, words *acupuncture* and *adustion*.

† Si cui ex febre ardente venit parotis quæ purulenta non fiat, haud facile superstes evadit. Hipp. Coac. 138.

‡ Vide *Maladies de St. Domingue, sur la Fievre de Siam*, by Pouppe Desportes; and *Maladies des Negres, sur la Fievre de Siam*, by Dazille.

it may be proved, that the slightness of their case accounts for that success, which simpler remedies would have effected: for there are patients in whom no degree of salivary affection can be produced, and they invariably die. Again, there are patients who, with a profuse salivation, do not curtail even the usual periods of the disease, and a great number of those will die. The proportion of victims is as great among salivating physicians as among those who do not prescribe it. During four seasons of the prevalence of the epidemic, when I carefully avoided an artificial salivation, although I administered mercury as a discutient, and as a drastic medicine, I never perceived that I was less fortunate with my method than other physicians. If I must say it, the only difference which struck my observation was, that many more patients, on one side, recovered within a short period of time, and without tedious convalescence, compared to those who, by the long and painful effects of a salivation, are longer kept under the action of disease, and sometimes linger under more serious effects.

Finally, if the method of salivation would be productive of a small advantage, its application should still be made liable to a great many exceptions of cases in which the remedy becomes worse than the disease. The irritability or sensibility of women and children renders them unfit for its violent operation. In such subjects, it soon overcomes their natural powers, produces convulsive effects, aggravates all symptoms, and most surely removes the opportunity of administering more safe remedies. People advanced in years, whose teeth and gums are in a perishing condition, cannot bear such morbid affection without a great addition to their sufferings and dangers. Scorbutic patients, and those previously affected with indurations of salivary glands, or any other scrophulous affections, should, without exception, be forbidden a salivating course; because, in such subjects, pre-existing diseases would be aggravated to an alarming degree. The proportion of all those different descriptions of people leaves but a small number to whom this remedy may prove perfectly indifferent; and, with respect to these, we are led to doubt, whether mercury, administered internally, as a discutient or as a purging remedy, would not more readily contribute to their recovery; and, if so, let the method of salivation be expunged from our list of remedies for the yellow fever. It will be objected, that even without promoting the affection of the mouth by sufficient doses of calomel, the least quantity of mercury, administered as a purge, may, in many instances,

excite a complete salivation. I answer, that, provided a small mercurial mixture be made with nitre and jalap, and sometimes with opium and certain oxyds of antimony—provided also those doses be not repeated unless the preceding has operated through the alimentary canal, salivation will seldom, if ever, take place. If it does, when the promoting cause is very inordinate, it will then be judged as a spontaneous crisis, and, for that reason, much more to be depended on as useful and beneficial.

### *Section III.*

Another important question has greatly divided the American faculty, while it was considered, by all parties, as closely connected with the safety of the inhabitants and neighbours of the places where the epidemic has been known to rage. I must confess, however, that I never heard nor read that such question had been treated in its true meaning, viz. If the yellow fever is imported, will it, or not, pervade a whole population, and a whole country, by its contagious power?

It is obvious that the believers in the domestic origin are not required to answer this question; but the others are, and they have said nothing yet that is perfectly consistent with facts and doctrine. It has, however, been said, that the disease was contagious, and that, if aided by local circumstances of climate and exhalations, it must pervade inhabited places. This mode of reasoning has been *officially* transmitted to legislative bodies! and while it has been made the leading principle of legislative measures, the believers of the domestic origin have seen, with pleasure, that the occurrence of some domestic cases was acknowledged; and they have remained somewhat indifferent as to the question of the contagious power of the yellow fever. Dr. Rush has lately pronounced, *that it is rarely and feebly so*. Others deny that, in any manner, it can be so. One thing, therefore, remains absolutely undecided among the learned, which is, whether the yellow fever is or is not contagious: and as, in the affirmative of the question, it is not understood that, by its contagious power, the epidemic could pervade a whole population; and, in the negative, no arguments are exhibited against striking facts of contagion, we may fairly conclude that we do not understand each other, and that some other grounds of the theory of contagious sickness must be found, to be applied to this subject, and to conciliate parties.

I confess, Gentlemen, that as I have been myself an active witness of the epidemic, during many years of its prevalence, I was long perplexed in my mind to conciliate facts with some consistent theories—and in that I never was satisfied until lately. Without regard to any system, or to contested doctrines, it has appeared to me, as well as to many practitioners, that a considerable number of the cases could not be traced but to a *contagious power* of the fever itself. Such were the cases of whole families, who seemed preserved as long as they had no patient in their house, and who all perished or were sick, without exception, as soon as they admitted among them somebody affected with the disease. This deplorable effect has been seen in the most wholesome parts of the town, and at any period of the season; so that, in many instances, when the disease seemed most universal, by care, precaution and desertion, people were preserved; while, in the country, they fell victims to their unreserved intercourse with patients, when the epidemic was fast decreasing in every part of the town. On the other side, to attentive observers a quite opposite result has been ascertained, beyond any kind of doubt. Not one experiment has favoured even the probability of a specific contagion being, in the yellow fever, communicable by inoculation.

We do not know any symptom, *sui generis*, by which, in the yellow fever, as in any *poisonous disease*, the absorbed virus is thought to lay in certain parts, or be diffused in the whole system.

Such are a few grounds, among many others, for contradictory doctrine: and to the honour of medical science, I think it right to say, that, without a new theory, we do not know any thing of the contagious power of the yellow fever.

Behold, Gentlemen, and please to compare with so many opposite facts the views which I humbly propose to the American faculty on that ever interesting subject, for the preservation of their fellow-citizens, and they will be reconciled—they will all appear conclusive and necessary. Admit that the remote cause of our epidemic is a floating gas in the atmosphere, disengaged from putrefiable and fermented substances—admit that these gases are a *negative contagion*; that is to say, operating by depriving animated matter of its *irritability*, and it will be evident that they affect bodies by throwing them into a putrefiable state; and the yellow fever appears to be a disease in which putrefaction begins before death. Thence we may de-

give a still more necessary result, that of ammoniacal\* and deleterious effluvia arising from sick persons, even when they are not in a state of perspiration; which, in its sedative operation on those who receive it, will be expanded and envenomed by heat, as the exhalations arising from the ground: and this incontrovertible law will explain the phenomena of contagion, which we are acquainted with, but which we cannot comprehend and define in any other manner than that of *negative contagion*; yet such noxious power will be understood, and limited within certain bounds: thus it will not be sufficient to pervade a whole population, and will be still less fatal than that of the general impurity of the atmosphere, which we know may be varied by so many rapid causes.—Finally, let us admit these facts, and we will be satisfied that those who attend the sick, in open, airy and clean places, like our hospitals, will seldom be affected with the prevailing epidemic; but in confined and unclean places the danger will be greater, as we have already experienced: therefore there cannot be any *specific* poison, or *contagious* virus, affixed to persons, nor to their clothes, nor swimming in their fluids, nor impregnating their flesh. The sick mother may, to the last, suckle her innocent babe, who shall not have been infected with the fatal gas, and all attempts in dissecting, mangling, and inculcating, will prove, that in the yellow fever there is no *specific contagion*.

Those who attend patients in confined places are in danger of being affected with the same malignant fever, by the hepatic or deleterious gas arising from their body. This negative contagion may be effectually checked by all those means which have a tendency to purify or renew the air of the sick chambers. For this purpose, it may be recommended to keep constantly a burning fire on the hearth; to place a certain quantity of ice (which must be incessantly renewed when melted), in any vessel, near to the beds of the diseased; to have a few vases or pots with living vegetables; and, lastly, to keep,

\* This gas must be more dangerous than those formed and disengaged from other vegetable or animal matter, which are, in general, more simple in their principles, and very soon diluted or neutralized in the atmosphere. But the gas arising from living putrefaction, and saturated with caloric, when emitted in bed-rooms, is a compound of hydrogen, carbon, and phosphorus, and, with them, must form every species of deleterious *azurets*.

in proper vessels, metallic oxyds of mercury, lead, or manganese, in solution with concentrated sulphuric acid, which, as is known, will produce and diffuse a new oxygen.

I have the honour to be, respectfully,  
Gentlemen,

Your most obedient, humble servant,  
FELIX PASCALIS.

## ARTICLE V.

*A SKETCH of the HISTORY of the DISEASES of the STATE of DELAWARE: Communicated in a Letter from Dr. JOHN VAUGHAN, of Wilmington, to Dr. MILLER.*

### No. III.

DEAR SIR,

*Wilmington, June 10, 1800.*

HAVING concluded the list of autumnal fevers in No. II. we must enumerate their successors in the morbid catalogue.

The month of November is usually healthy, except it be from the remains of febrile diseases—as *œdematous* and *anasarcous* swellings, anorexia and muscular debility, with occasional feverish attacks, usually denominated *inward fevers*. Those affections being dependant on the same cause, are easily removed by the same process, *i. e.* a restorative regimen, exercise, tonics, friction, &c. But if *anasarca* be attended with schirrosities of the spleen and liver, they are frequently troublesome and fatal. If they are not neglected, a course of mercurial gummy alteratives, with friction, is generally successful; but if *ascites* be added to the list, and the patient's strength is much exhausted, a lingering death pretty certainly ensues.

If there be much wet weather attending the transition from heat to cold, as is not unfrequently the case, a series of troublesome affections is induced—as catarrhs, mucilaginous diarrhœas, erysipelas, &c. the particular treatment of which cannot be detailed in the limits of an essay of this kind. Flannel shirts are the most effectual preservatives, and the common resort of valetudinarians.

December and January are also healthy, if the weather be dry and uniform; but if the weather prove variable, accompanied with rain or snow, without severe frost, pneumonic diseases and catarrhs become epidemic. February, however, is the *proverbially morbid* month of winter. The miasmata of autumn are effectually destroyed by frost—a respite has been obtained from the attacks of *ague*, and a sufficient quantity of oxygen inhaled to give rise to a new order of diseases, whose remote cause is sudden transitions in the temperature of the weather. Thus, unfortunately for the late subjects of the *ague*, &c. they are not sufficiently *oxygenated* to endure exposure to the vicissitudes of the elements. The impression of cold produces irregular excitement, or convulsive arterial action—the famous *vis medicatrix nature* is destroyed by a single north-western blast, or a wetting of the feet, and the trembling victim hurried to his irksome bed: or the mode of attack may be varied by incidental circumstances. The disease generally commences with the usual symptoms of febrile diseases. If the attacks be sudden and severe, the violence of the case is announced; but, in most cases, irregular feverish heats and chills, with the ordinary symptoms of catarrh, form an inauspicious prelude of three or four days duration. The affection of the breast now becomes insupportable—cough incessant, but attended with an expectoration of frothy mucus—great oppression at the præcordia, with a sense of soreness, but seldom acute pain. On the second or third day the cough becomes more violent—expectoration suppressed—the head attacked with pain and confusion—the tongue furred and parched—the skin dry and hot—the pulse frequent and soft. On the fourth or fifth day those symptoms are aggravated—the patient becomes irascible, with sudden startings from apparent sleep, and great anxiety; and, as his strength is exhausted, the pulse becomes more frequent and irregular—the delirium is a typhomania—the eyes assume a glassy appearance—the extremities gradually lose their heat—the respiration resembles uninterrupted sighing—and, from twenty-four to forty-eight hours, close the distressing scene. A jaundice frequently pervades the body, shortly before, or immediately after death, and often petechiæ. The bowels are either constipated or affected with diarrhœa.

In the more violent or active forms of this disease the symptoms are varied, approaching towards ordinary pneumonia—the pulse is full, but not tense—the expectoration copious, and streaked with blood on the third or fourth day—pain of the

breast more acute, and the oppression less: yet, in many cases, the scene is reversed, and the disease terminates in twenty-four or forty-eight hours.

The general character of this disease is a *peripneumonia notha*, which, doubtless, is just in a majority of cases; yet I am rather apprehensive that the denomination is delusive: for, in numerous instances, the general state of the system is disregarded—the local affection is the only object of concern, as the fever is often so irregular as to escape attention. It is not an uncommon thing to be informed by the patient, that his only complaint is an uneasiness in the breast, or an affection of the head, when the extremities are becoming cold, the tongue fissured, stupor gliding on, and Protean Death assuming his seat. I, however, hope not to be misunderstood. To say that those local affections do not merit regard, would be an absurdity indeed: to say that a congestion of the *lungs* or *brain* is an incident of no importance, would be equally novel and ridiculous: but to disregard the unfortunate diathesis of my patient, would be to ensure him a speedy death. I have witnessed a number of cases where the local affections only were considered—the disease termed pleurisy, or phrenitis, and depletion commenced *secundum artem*, in which none of the patients survived forty-eight hours: and I should, probably, have fallen into the same error, had not the state of the pulse—the frequent sighing in respiration—the tendency of the fever to assume a tertian type—the early appearance of the Hippocratic countenance, so called, with other symptoms more easily observed than described, convinced me that it belonged to the genus of autumnal fevers, varied by the casualties of the atmosphere. It may, perhaps, be said, that this position is rather too far strained; that frost destroys marsh miasmata as a tropical plant. Granted; when the ponds are covered with ice exhalation is overpowered. But if these effects suffer a common fate with their causes, why do intermittents exist, or occur, in winter? and winter quartans are the most obstinate of the whole tribe. Why do valetudinarians suffer relapses in the frosts of January and February? And why are persons, on a removal from a marshy to a high country, attacked with the endemial fevers of the *fens*, if the remote cause be not dormant in the system, and excited into action by a concurrence of predisposing causes? These facts, I presume, substantiate the position, that our winter diseases are but varied forms of the *autumnal* fever. Hence the propriety of the following denominations, agreeably to the system of



Dr. Rush, to whose pathological merits every impartial observer must bear testimony; *i. e.* if the head be the seat of topical action, it is a *phrenitic* state of fever—if the breast, it is a *pneumonic* state of fever—if the bowels, it is an *intestinal* state of fever, &c. &c.

On this arrangement I proceed to the method of treatment, which every reader must acknowledge to be ambiguous: and as it is difficult to evince the peculiarities of the disease in a general description, I shall narrate the following cases, to serve as a specimen of *its* nature.

P. C. a female, aged twenty-five years, of a florid complexion, and habituated to laborious exercise, was attacked, on the evening of the 3d of January, 1796, with a chilly fit, succeeded by fever, cough, oppression at the præcordia, &c. I was called at 10 o'clock A. M. of the 4th, when her pulse was imperceptible, respiration converted into sighing, the surface cold, and covered with purple spots. In a few minutes a great quantity of granulated blood burst from her mouth, nose and ears. I stood a passive spectator of her unceremonious fate!

S. H. an active robust man, aged 26 years, indisposed by a slight catarrh, was attacked with a chill at a fox-chase, on the 10th of March, 1797. During the chill he drank freely of cool water, and vomited incessantly. Fever succeeded; and about an hour from its commencement, I saw him. He had a frequent dry cough, oppression and pain in the breast, pain in the head, pulse full and rather tense; and, in fact, the symptomata of pneumonia complete. I opened a vein, and drew  $\zeta$  xij. of blood; gave an effervescent mixture to check the vomiting, and afterwards an antimonial febrifuge to promote perspiration. At nine o'clock P. M. he was much relieved, and inclined to sleep.

On the 11th, at 7 o'clock A. M. I visited him; and, to my great astonishment, found him quite exhausted. His pulse feeble—extremities cold, and of a leaden hue—his lips and tongue covered with a dark scurf, and fissured—his eyes of a glassy appearance, and the pupils somewhat dilated—with typhomania.

Blisters were applied, and cardiacs given; but to no purpose. He died comatose at 4 o'clock P. M. *eodem die.*

“A sudden rush from life's meridian joys!”

A variety of similar cases occurred this spring; but most of them were confined to the centre of the Welsh-Tract Swamps,

a few miles below me. A considerable portion of them were the *phrenitic* state of fever, and uniformly fatal. Whereas, the mortality of the ordinary grade of the *pneumonic* state of fever, on my register, is about one in ten. And it must be observed, that the subjects of this disease are generally the debilitated, persons advanced in years, and the disciples of anti-fogmatism.\*

A disease thus varied, subject to such sudden transitions, and anomalous in its nature, is not less difficult to cure, than to detail a system of its treatment to others. It is much like comparing the complaints of a patient with the diagnosis of nosology, and selecting a prescription from some good old book, whose author is grown hoary in forming recipes, or fled from earth an age before. It is so much varied by the habit of the patient, state of the weather, and other incidental circumstances, that it is almost impossible to describe a general method of treatment. However, I shall give such detail as the nature of the circumstances will admit.

If there were any fulness of the pulse, with considerable pain of the breast or side, and breathing difficult, without fighting, I bled more or less, *ex rei necessitate*, evacuated the bowels, and gave the usual antimonial diaphoretics, with calomel. If the pain of the breast were not relieved by the blood-letting, blisters were applied to the chest and ankles, and to the neck, if the head were disturbed. Cathartics were seldom repeated, and costiveness was obviated by injections. If there were any affections of the liver, a blister was applied to the hypochondrium. If typhous symptoms came on, and the expectoration partial, the blisters were renewed—opium, with camphor, or a solution of volatile alkali, was given—or the neutral mixture, with a decoction of snake-root.

Demulcents were given to allay the cough—as linseed-tea, liquorice, &c.

A favourable crisis mostly happened on the third, fifth, or seventh day—announced by a copious expectoration, streaked with blood—a diaphoresis, and subsequent relief of all the urgent symptoms.

In some cases, the inhalation of the vapour of linseed-tea, or warm water with honey, contributed much towards relieving the cough.

In fatal terminations, the skin remains dry and parched—expectoration partial—blisters to the extremities do not re-

\* In some of the middle and southern States drams are called antifogmatics.

store their heat—the tongue is furred and fissured—and sighing and coma close the catastrophe!

It will be readily observed, that this fever belongs to the synochoid genus, and that its transition to typhus is often uncommonly rapid; and, in fact, it was sometimes typhus in the commencement. The suddenness of the transitions made me extremely cautious in the use of the lancet, unless it was strongly indicated by the acuteness of the symptoms. The mixed nature of this disease—the apparent inflammation of the brain or lungs—with subsultus tendinum, frequent pulse, and great prostration of strength, have caused me many an anxious day's reflection on the use of the lancet: the patient apparently suffering from omission, and general debility portending death, even without its use.

Dr. Moore, in his Medical Sketches, mentions there being *grey diseases*, as well as *grey causes* in law; and we may, doubtless, annex *this genus* to his list.

This hasty sketch will conclude my proposed history of the diseases of Delaware, in an annual form; and, I hope, the design will serve as an apology for the defects it may contain. The object of such communications is a reciprocation of information respecting endemial diseases—their forms—periods of occurrence—influence of the sensible qualities of the atmosphere—and such articles in the treatment as depend on the local nature of the diseases.

These have been my objects; and how far I have succeeded you and the public must decide; and, at least, accept the will for the deed. If exceptions be made, my response is, "Come thou and do likewise!" With sincere esteem,

I am your friend and humble servant,  
JOHN VAUGHAN.

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## ARTICLE VI.

EXPERIMENTS *on HEATING MANGANESE in INFLAMMABLE AIR: In a Letter from the Rev. Dr. PRIESTLEY to Dr. MITCHILL.*

DEAR SIR,

I DID not intend to trouble you, or the public, with any more observations on the *new theory of chemistry*, after my former communications on the subject; but having lately

made some experiments on heating manganese in inflammable air, which, though they authorise the same general conclusion with those on heating red precipitate in that air, are considerably different from them, I think them deserving of attention.

Manganese and the red precipitate of mercury are substances of a similar nature, as they are both calces of metals, and both contain dephlogisticated air; and, like all other calces of metals, they imbibe the inflammable air in which they are heated. But, whereas the dephlogisticated air expelled from the precipitate, frequently at least, remains mixed with the remainder of the inflammable air, which is sometimes the cause of dangerous explosions, this has never happened to me in consequence of heating manganese in the same circumstances; so that it may be operated upon without any apprehension.

Though, in these experiments, the inflammable air disappears, and dephlogisticated air is expelled from both the substances, no *water* is formed by means of either of them, as the new theory absolutely requires, and which is pretended to be the case when finery cinder is heated in the same circumstances. But, since the same quantity of inflammable air disappears in all these cases alike, the same quantity of water, if inflammable air be really a constituent part of it, ought to be produced. It is evident, therefore, that the water procured by means of finery cinder was actually contained in that substance, and only expelled by the heat, to make room for the phlogiston, which then enters into it by the absorption of the inflammable air; while the precipitate and the manganese, containing no water, imbibe the inflammable air without any appearance of water, except the little that is the basis of the inflammable air, or that may be concealed in such powdery substances as manganese and the precipitate are.

The principal difference, however, in the result of these two similar processes, is, that after the experiment with the manganese a quantity of *phlogisticated air* appears to be generated, which is not the case with the precipitate. The particulars of the experiments were as follow:

Fifteen ounce measures of inflammable air were reduced to seven by heating in it twenty-four grains of manganese. In the residuum, which was not affected by nitrous air, there was no fixed air; but when a certain portion of it was fired together with a certain quantity of dephlogisticated air, the diminution was only to 0.95; whereas, when the same quantity of the original inflammable air was exploded in the same circumstances, the diminution was to 0.52. In another simi-

lar experiment, in which the inflammable air was confined by mercury, and in which seven ounce measures were reduced to one and a quarter, the diminution with the residuum was to 0.93, when that with the original inflammable air was to 0.33. The manganese I used in these experiments yielded dephlogisticated air only, without any mixture of fixed air.

I repeated this experiment with manganese, out of which air had been expelled by a strong heat, and the result was the same as with the fresh manganese, except that much more heat was necessary to make it imbibe the air; whereas the manganese, from which the dephlogisticated air has not been expelled, imbibes inflammable air very rapidly, and with a very moderate degree of heat. Twenty grains of it imbibed eight ounce measures of inflammable air, and then weighed nineteen grains. In both the kinds of manganese, the central part, on which the focus of the lens fell, was of a beautiful green colour; but the next day this had disappeared, and the whole of the substance that had been heated was brown.

As, no doubt, dephlogisticated air is expelled from the manganese in these experiments, and neither fixed air nor water is produced, the dephlogisticated air seems to enter into the phlogisticated air that is found in the residuum; and yet it appears, from several of my late experiments, an account of which I have sent to the Philosophical Society at Philadelphia, that phlogisticated air is sometimes formed without dephlogisticated air, which is a difficulty that I am not able to solve.

In order to make a more exact comparison between the experiments in which *manganese* and *finery cinder* were made to imbibe inflammable air, I repeated them both, in similar vessels, with equal quantities of inflammable air, confined by mercury; and I observed that, though some water appeared during the process with the manganese, it wholly disappeared the next morning; whereas the inside of the vessel in which the finery cinder had been revived was wholly covered with innumerable drops of water, contiguous to one another.

## ARTICLE VII.

*An ACCOUNT of a DISSECTION, with REMARKS thereon:  
By GEORGE LEE, A. M. addressed to Professor MITCHILL.*

**J**AMES TARNEY, a labourer, aged 65, was admitted into the Pennsylvania Hospital on the 2d of December, 1797, for a large tumour on the right side of the chest, which had made its appearance about fifteen months before. He could assign no cause for it, except that he had received, many years ago, a small wound upon the upper bone of the sternum.

The tumour being situated upon the right side of the thorax, extended from the second to the seventh rib, and from the cartilages of the ribs to within a small distance from their angles. The tumour was opened twice by Dr. Physick, and discharged, at both times, five pints of glare. He expectorated this glary matter, mixed with mucus, several days previous to his death; and could not lie in a horizontal position, during that time, on account of the matter rising up into the trachea in such quantity as to threaten strangulation.—He finally died in a very easy manner, and at an unexpected time.—After death, the following were the appearances upon dissection.

The integuments which covered the tumour being removed, we found the pectoralis major entire; and, upon making a crucial incision into it, the cavity of the tumour was brought into view, which discovered to us a beautiful net-work of cellular membrane, passing from one side to the other, with a small number of blood-vessels ramifying through it. These cells were undoubtedly the cavities which contained the glare discharged by the operation before death. But the matter we found in them was of the consistence of tallow, and of a white appearance. In the centre of the tumour a small quantity of bloody puriform matter was found, and some of the originating slips of the serratus magnus anticus muscle were considerably deranged. No ribs were found within the tumour, except at its circumference, where small remains of them were to be seen, apparently in a half corroded state. The ribs which suffered the greatest obliteration were the third, fourth and fifth. The sixth was partially destroyed.

The tumour was semi-spherical, resting on the pleura,

which, in this place, instead of being convex externally, as it naturally is, was concave. No direct communication could be discovered between the cavity of the tumour and that of the thorax; for the pleura appeared entire and natural, except being a little indurated and puriform on its external surface. But that there had been a communication was evident from three circumstances: 1st. He threw up from the lungs, before death, the same kind of matter which was discharged from the tumour by the puncture. 2d. The matter flowed more freely during sudden respiration than in any other act of breathing: and, 3d. The matter contained in the tumour, after death, very much resembled that found in the lungs, as will be mentioned presently.

The lungs seemed to be composed, as it were, of an immense number of tubercles, generally speaking, about three lines in diameter. They were white, or, perhaps more strictly, grey; firmer than tallow, and a little puriform in the middle. The left lung appeared as tuberculous as the right, and they both adhered very firmly to the pleura in every place (except to the pericardium), as much to the diaphragm and mediastinum as to the sides of the thorax. No trace from the wound he had received upon the sternum could be found.

Upon opening the abdomen, the first thing which attracted notice was the stomach. This viscus, which was very large, instead of being in its natural oblique situation, was found lying lengthwise on the left side, anterior to the spleen, and contiguous to the peritoneum, to which it adhered. The pylorus was curved up in consequence of its attachment to the duodenum, which intestine was in some measure displaced; probably by the weight of the stomach, when full, dragging it downwards. I once heard of the stomach being situated nearly in the same manner, but I believe such an appearance is seldom met with. A few remains only of the omentum were seen, which was to be expected from the emaciated state of the subject. The liver was much harder than it is found in a natural state, and appeared contracted. It adhered to the peritoneum. This is one, and the most common kind of liver, which persons who are intemperate in the use of ardent spirit often possess. I have seen many instances of it; and, in such cases, the liver is often whitish, and of a granulated texture. I once dissected an intemperate man, whose liver was granulated, or, to use a vulgar phrase, *knotty*, and so much contracted and hard that it was with difficulty an incision could be made into it; and the noise the scalpel made in passing through it

much resembled the cutting of dry foal-leather, the resistance only not being so great.\* The intestines were contracted, thickened, and tough—adhering very strongly to each other, and to the peritoneum, on each side of the spine, to the distance of at least four inches. The urinary bladder seemed tied in a preternatural manner to the pubes. This, as well as all the morbid adhesions we met with, were, no doubt, produced by inflammation. Some days after his death, I was informed, from good authority, that he had been very intemperate at different periods of life. No other diseased appearances were found worthy of notice; and I will now make a few remarks upon the case, as it has been stated.

The disappearance of ribs is a fact which constitutes the most interesting part of the history of the foregoing case; and is one which, I think, does not admit of an easy explanation. We can easily conceive how nature removes fluid substances from different parts of the body; but how she carries off the more solid materials of which we are composed, is a phenomenon which, whilst it excites astonishment, and calls forth our admiration, keeps aloof every conjecture concerning the manner in which it is effected. We are all ready to believe that the absorbents are capable, either by capillary attraction, or by a muscular power, of taking up effused fluids; but it is a difficulty, on the other hand, under which physiologists labour, to conceive how they absorb bone and other solids. It has been the prerogative of the ingenious, which right they have often exercised, to teach us that, before an absorption of the solids takes place, they are made fluid. But this is only creating one difficulty in order to solve another: for it is well known we have no proof on which to ground the assertion, however anxious we may be to make use of it. I do not mean, however, that the fact is not as some men would have it. So distant is my opinion from this, that I am disposed to admit something of that nature does take place. But until this doctrine is better supported by the evidence of truth, drawn from experience, few men of accuracy will give their assent to it. Yet, however averse we may be to reason on this interesting subject, on account of its abstruseness and difficulty, the fact still recurs to our view, and its presence commands that attention which is due to its importance. You will permit me to call your attention here to a few interesting facts, relative

\* It is curious that in this case the secretion of bile appeared to be unimpaired.



to the present subject. The disease called mollities ossium is owing to too great an absorption of calcareous earth from the bones. In proof of this, we have an interesting history, by Mr. Thomson,\* of a James Stevenson, “whose urine, during the two first years of his affliction with this disease, generally deposited a whitish sediment, which, upon evaporation, became like mortar.” In this case, it is probable, the earthy matter, after having been absorbed from the bones by the lymphatics, was carried out of the system, by the action of the kidneys, in the secretion of urine. Mr. John Bell† believes that mollities ossium is produced by an absorption of bone, and that, during the continuance of the disease, earthy matter is discharged *per urethram*. Messrs. Cruikshank‡ and Sheldon§ entertain the same idea of this disease. When a bone exfoliates, the decayed part is thrown off, by an absorption of a portion of the living, in contact with the dead. The alveolar processes of the jaws disappear in old people when the teeth fall out. Mr. Cruikshank|| mentions a case where the sides of the tibia were reduced to the thickness of a wafer; and I once attended a woman who fractured the bones of both legs, just above the ankles, by only stepping obliquely upon the edges of bricks. These cases, no doubt, arose from the absorption of the bones rendering them very weak. All the hollow cylindrical bones, and the cranium, during their growth, undergo an absorption as well as a renewal of their substance. Whilst the lymphatics are removing matter from their internal, the arteries are depositing new particles of bone upon their external surfaces. And, in this particular, the growth of a bone resembles that of wood, only that there is no absorption in the latter.

If there was no absorption during the growth of these bones, how could their cavities enlarge? and if new layers of bone were not formed on the external surfaces of them, how could they be extended? It is not only true that this is the course of nature during the growth of bones, but it seems very probable that it is continued during life. That this reciprocal action, between the arteries and absorbents, does exist in every part of a bone during life, is rendered somewhat evident by one fact: If an animal be fed upon madder, the whole sub-

\* Medical Observations and Inquiries, vol. v. No. 23.

† Anatomy of the Muscles, Bones, and Joints.

‡ Anatomy of the Absorbing Vessels, p. 111.

§ History of the Absorbent System, p. 31.

|| Anat. Absorb. Vessels, p. 104.

stances of its bones will be coloured red by it, which tinge, in process of time, will vanish. In old people, the bones have lost a considerable sum of their former weight;\* which proves that the absorbents are more active at this period of life than the arteries. The various changes which the under-jaw suffers during life, depend entirely upon the action of its lymphatics. A venereal node, which is owing to a swelling or increase of bone, will be absorbed by the lymphatics when stimulated by mercury. The surprising configuration of the bones of different nations has been derived from their peculiar customs. Thus, the use of a turban, according to Vesalius, produces in the Turk a conical skull; and the early employment of the chin-stay gives a flat head to the English. I some time since saw an Indian skull, found on the banks of the Mississippi, the top of which was raised in the form of a spine, running from before backwards, supposed to be produced by the application of two boards, during infancy, to each side of the head. Besides these facts, it is to be recollected, that all the bones of the body yield to, and are impressed by, the contraction of a muscle, the beating of an artery, &c.

Besides these facts relative to the absorption of bone, I could, were it necessary, multiply them, as well as adduce many in proof of the absorption of the soft solids, which appears to me equally important and difficult of explanation with the removal of bone by the lymphatics. If the absorbing vessels destroy glands and other soft solids, which they certainly do, there is little doubt in my mind, that they are completely adequate to the absorption of bone: for if it is necessary that bone should be previously dissolved by a secreted liquor, or any other, for that purpose, surely a muscle, &c. must undergo the same preparatory process. Yet, by the by, why are not the lymphatics as capable of removing or destroying bone as the arteries are of forming it? There is as much reason in the belief of the one as of the other; and, from the number, variety, and importance of the facts in our possession, every person must, in the end, admit both, although he may not understand either.

That bone is a secretion from the arteries, is inferred from a variety of circumstances. This opinion, I believe, is said to have originated from the late Mr. Hunter,† as well as the

\* *Monro on the Brain, the Eye, and the Ear*, p. 51. *Cruikshank*, p. 101.

† *Anatomy of the Absorbing Vessels*, by Mr. Cruikshank, p. 102.

absorption of bone; of which last, the present Dr. Monro has endeavoured to establish himself the author. But if you examine a Treatise on Human Osteogeny, by Dr. Nesbitt, you will find the first of these two opinions advocated in a very able manner. This ingenious man, who wrote and published, in the year 1736, what he had read in the anatomical theatre at London, in 1731, which was before the birth of Mr. Hunter, says he detected minute particles of bone in the extremities of the arteries, near the place of their destination. He supposes that small vessels, peculiarly appropriated for the purpose of ossification, pass off from arterial branches, and are continued on into the beginning of the vessels "prepared to receive reflux juices," as he expresses himself; by which vessels I suppose he means the returning veins. The "bony corpuscles," to use his own words, are formed in, and deposited by, these peculiar vessels, in parts which are intended to be bone. That bone is not derived from the condensation of cartilage, as is believed by some, is evident from the fact, that cartilage does not contain any calcareous earth. The origin of this opinion is probably from the circumstance of bone being oftener formed in cartilage than in other parts. But it is not peculiar to cartilage. I once dissected a man, in company with the late Dr. Cooper, one of whose testes was largely ossified. Dr. Donald Monro relates\* the dissection of a woman, in whom a number of the mesenteric glands were found ossified. A number of similar observations we find in Schenkus.† Mr. Watson discovered,‡ in dissection, that part of the heart which lies upon the diaphragm ossified; and says he has in his possession a preparation, in which osseous matter is scattered over both heart and pericardium. A more striking instance of the ossification of the heart is mentioned by Mr. Gueft.§ Instances of the ossification of the arterial system, in old people, are so familiar that it would be needless to mention one. The figure of a bone is described by Mr. Chefelden, which was taken from the falx of the dura mater of a man who died of head-ach.|| A small ossification was found on the inside of the dura mater, near the falciform process, in old Bayles, who was supposed to have been 130 years old,

\* Transact. Lond. College, vol. ii. No. 18.

† De Mesenterio, p. 445.

‡ Medical Communications, vol. i. No. 19.

§ Medical Museum, vol. iii. No. 22.

|| Jones' Abridg. of the Philos. Transact. vol. v. p. 202.

by Dr. Keil \* A similar case is mentioned by Mr. Paisley.† Even the brain itself has been found ossified; a case of which is mentioned by Duvernev. in *Memoires Acad. des Sciences* for 1703, as quoted by Whitt.‡ Mr. Henry has recorded§ the case of William Carey, part of whose muscular system took on a surprising process of ossification. The ossification commenced at his wrists and ankles, and continued up to his elbows and knees, so as to put on the appearance of compact masses of bone. He had no use of the parts.— So much disposed is the animal body to become ossified, that we find, in the *Philosophical Transactions*|| an account, by Dr. E. Tyson, of the tendons of a fowl, the external membrane of the liver of a human body, as well as the outside of the spleen and lungs, having been found in a state of ossification.

Many deviations of this kind, from the regular course of nature, in the formation of bone, might be adduced; but those I have mentioned are sufficient to show that cartilage is not the exclusive seat of ossification. The bones of the cranium are originally formed between membranes. Neither does bone depend upon the presence of periosteum for its formation, as Du Hamel maintained: for not to mention that all our bones almost are produced before the periosteum is, they will form a callus, and be renewed where their natural covering is abraded. The fact appears to me to be strictly this: When a part undergoes the ossific process, it only serves as a bed or matrix for the bony fibres to shoot in, and be supported.¶ It is very probable that the cartilage is better suited to this purpose than any other substance in the body. During the process of ossification, the parts in which it takes place disappear, in consequence of being absorbed as fast as the bone is formed, and is capable of supporting itself alone. This is proved by cutting an ossifying cartilage into pieces, and macerating them in water till the blood-vessels rot, and the portion of bone which has been formed will drop out spontaneously, leaving a vacuity in the cartilage, corresponding exactly to the size of the bone.

\* Jones' Abridg. of the *Philos. Transact.* vol. v. p. 345.

† *Med. Essays and Obs. of Edin. Soc.* vol. ii. No. 21. 12mo.

‡ *Essay on Vital and Invol. Motions.* 8vo. p. 8.

§ *Medical Museum*, vol. i. No. 3.

|| *Lowthrop's Abridg.* vol. iii. p. 15.

¶ As the coagulable lymph of the blood does for the elongation of the arteries.

Another proof that the arteries are the instruments of ossification is, that immediately before bone is formed in a part, that part uniformly becomes very vascular. This is very remarkable in the cartilage of the patella.—I am so much convinced of the truth of this doctrine, that I am disposed to extend it to the production of other parts as well as bone. Indeed, without the arteries are the agents by which all parts of the animal machine are generated, I am ignorant of the manner in which their origin is to be explained. Ever since the wonderful injections of the celebrated Ruysch were performed, respect for this doctrine has been increasing daily; and the arterial system is now considered the most eminent in its nature, and the most important in its function, of any other system in the body. The extreme vascularity of glands has induced physiologists to believe that the secretion of fluids is performed by vessels. The chyle does not possess the properties of blood until it has been acted upon by the blood-vessels, although it may have been partly animalized by the lacteals; and it is from the conveyance of this blood, when formed by the vessels which contain it, that every part of the body derives nourishment, regeneration, and an extension of life. There can be no doubt that the filling up of cavities by granulation depends solely upon an elongation of vessels: for, if an injection be thrown dexterously, and with some force, into an artery which passes to an ulcer, the injection will ooze out upon the surface of the granulations. In the same manner, I believe, it is that the renewal of every part of the body is effected—bone, integument, tendon, cartilage, &c. as well as the vessels themselves. But it is a circumstance worthy of remark, that the same vessels do, so wisely and discriminately as it were, secrete substances so totally different in their nature and use as these just mentioned, according to the calls of nature. But we find this is not always the case; for instances have been mentioned, where parts which were not intended to be bone, have become ossified.

The last proof I will mention of the secretion of bone by arteries, is connected with inflammation, which is a fruitful source of instruction to us on this subject. The proximate cause of inflammation consists in an increased action of the blood-vessels. This action is entirely confined to the arteries, and not to the veins; and, in whatever part of the body it may exist, it is the same disease. This inflammation, unless subdued by art, is always terminated by the effusion of some kind of matter, which effusion is thrown out from the extremities

of the arteries. The nature of the effused matter varies according to the nature of the part into which it is thrown. This is particularly evidenced by the regeneration of parts. If a tendon is divided, the ends of it are agglutinated together by the effusion of tendinous matter from the inflamed arteries. The knitting of broken bones depends upon the same principle. In the venereal, and other diseases, the bones are sometimes attacked with pain, heat, and other symptoms of inflammation, which, in the ordinary time, are terminated by the effusion of bony matter, which constitutes nodes and exostoses.

From a view of what has been said, it would seem that the arterial and lymphatic systems act in opposition to each other during life, and that, when one takes on action paramount to that of the other, disease is the consequence. It is from the irregular action of the arteries, most commonly, that disease arises, as it is but seldom the lymphatics absorb an undue quantity of matter. Of the two systems of vessels, the absorbents appear to be the most regular in their function. Thus, whilst we observe the arteries evolve the different parts of the body, in an abundant, and sometimes in an indiscriminate manner, the lymphatics mould, or give them their proper figures, by carrying off the superfluous and misplaced arterial productions: and it is to the absorbents alone that man (in whom elegance of structure is so prominent) is indebted for the form of his bones, and for the general configuration of his body.

Mr. Hunter supposes that the absorbents have a power similar to that of a caterpillar eating up the leaf of a tree; and believes that they elongate themselves, or shorten themselves, as their object recedes or approaches nearer. But this opinion is less satisfactory than some others: for who can conceive of a soft vessel, such as an absorbent, being able to tear away the hard substance of bones? No: such an opinion as this cannot last long; and although I cannot broach a more plausible and inviting doctrine, I must content myself, at present, with the following remark, which appears to be so well grounded, that I suspect it will outlive all the theories to be formed for an age to come: The actions of the absorbents are as much *forced* as those of any other parts of the animal body. The stimulants, which support and keep in action the powers of the absorbents, are numerous, and may be either of a mechanical or specific nature. Pressure is the most common mechanical stimulant to the absorbents.

hence we discover the traces of it upon the bones. The destruction of ribs, in the case of James Tarney, was probably owing, in the first instance, to the pressure of the tumour upon them. A case is mentioned by Dr. Donald Monro,\* in which the pressure from a tumour of the brain made a hole in the os frontis. Mercury, digitalis, squills, and even the contents of the absorbents, are all particular or specific stimuli to them: and, unless some of these stimulants influence the lymphatic system, it becomes inactive, which state will be uniformly indicated by disease.

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### ARTICLE VIII.

OBSERVATIONS on the HAIR-WORM (*Gordius Aquaticus* Lin.?) by Mr. GEORGE CHILTON, Teacher of Geography, Astronomy, &c. in New-York: In a Letter to Dr. MITCHILL, dated April 28, 1800.

**D**URING my residence in the country, towards the latter end of autumn last, I met, for the first time, with the water-worm, known among the country people by the name of hair-snake. Curiosity, together with the common notion of its being produced by the action of the sun upon a horse-hair steeped in water, induced me to examine it; for which purpose I confined it in a basin of water for the space of a week or more; during which time I was not a little gratified with the activity it discovered in swimming about, but could perceive no change respecting it, except that it grew languid, or less lively, which I supposed to be owing to a want of fresh water.

Shortly after this I procured another from a spring-bath, in a field, which I secured also for the purpose of examination, by putting it in a basin of water. After amusing myself with it a while, I left it. On my return, after being absent about half an hour, I was surprised with the sight of something in the act of proceeding from one of its ends, resembling a piece of very fine white thread. I immediately began to conjecture that it might be one of its young. It seemed in length about half an inch. In the course of an hour it made its way about half an inch further. I left it in this situation,

\* *Transact. Lond. Col.* vol. ii. p. 353.

and returned in about an hour, when I found it wholly expelled, lying coiled up at the bottom of the basin. Expecting to find some symptoms of life about it, I examined it with all the minuteness I was capable of, but was disappointed. On taking it out of the water, I found it exceedingly tender; but not having a microscope, could make nothing more of it. Putting it in the water again, I left them for the space of an hour, when, on my return, I found another one proceeding in the same manner as the former, which, in the space of an hour, was also wholly expelled.

In this gradual manner was the expulsion continued till the next day, when I found the number amounted to about twelve, which were seemingly of an equal length, viz. two and a half inches; for they were so twirled about each other, and so very tender, it was not easy to determine, with accuracy, either their number or their length.

They were suffered to remain in the basin about a week, during which there was no perceptible alteration.

Being at the bath shortly after this, I observed another of those creatures to swim from a projecting part of its edge. I endeavoured to take it; but the bath being wide, it sheltered itself among some weeds on the opposite side, and escaped. On examining the part from which I had observed it to swim, I was pleasingly surpris'd with a view of a bunch of these young ones (for such I took them to be) twisted around the root of a weed, which hung down into the water from a part that jutted over. On a close inspection, without disturbing either them or the water, I was able to discover life in two or three of them, which were a little larger than the rest. They were fastened at one end to the bunch, but with the other moved freely in the water. A small black spot was likewise observable on the moveable end; but, in other respects, they were similar to those I had in the basin. Leaving them in this situation, and returning the next morning, I was not a little astonish'd to find that the old one had returned, and was twined about the young ones in such a manner as seem'd to indicate the existence of a principle somewhat similar to natural affection.

On looking along the edge of the bath, I found another bunch of young, with the old one, twined about a root in the same manner. After visiting them occasionally for a few days, without observing any material alteration, they became torpid, in consequence of the increasing cold of the season, in which state I left them to take their winter's repose.



## ARTICLE IX.

ARRANGEMENT of FACTS CONCERNING ULCERS, SORES and TETTERS; *showing how agreeably these and similar Affections of the Skin are healed, in many Cases, by ALKALINE APPLICATIONS: In a Letter to THOMAS TROTTER, M. D. Physician to the British Fleet, &c. dated New-York, September 20, 1800.*

FROM the great benefit derived to mankind by alkalies and soaps, and particularly from the pleasant effects wrought by them upon the skin, it would seem that the whole of their operation, when thus applied, would have been understood ages ago. Yet the facts, plain and obvious as they are, have not, as far as has come to my knowledge, been duly noticed. The *caustic* effects of the simple alkalies have been duly observed. The corrosiveness of ley, made from ashes just taken from the heated hearth, or draining from a leach-tub partly filled with quick-lime, has been a long time familiar to washers and bleachers of linen and other cloths. They knew very well that the ley might be made strong and sharp enough to eat away the skin and flesh of their hands, and to destroy the firmness and cohesion of the goods. And from these accidents surgeons seem to have taken the hint of preparing ALKALINE CAUSTICS, which are generally little more than *naked pot-ash*, or the vegetable fixed alkali deprived of its carbonic acid by quick-lime.

Caustic pot-ash, thus, having been much employed in domestic economy, and sometimes in surgery, was generally looked upon as a fearful and formidable thing. As it was dangerous to be touched or tasted, there was good reason for popular uneasiness whenever it was brought in contact with the living body. In that form it was capable of doing great damage. Hence have proceeded, in all probability, the alarming stories about the corroding, acrimonious, attenuating, dissolving and putrescent qualities of alkalies, found in such writings as those of HUXHAM, and in various other popular books. They seem, in those ways, to have got a bad character, which they have never wholly retrieved.

Acids, when united with alkaline salts, diminish remarkably their keenness and pungency. These neutral compounds are, therefore, by a great difference, more mild and manage-

able than the naked alkalies. And thus it is that several of them possess, at the same time, the virtues of simple alkalies, without their inconveniences.

It is known among farmers and dealers in horses in America, that, when the skin of these animals is chafed by the collars, or galled by the saddles, a good application to the parts so injured is a weak alkaline lixivium, made by putting some common wood-ashes in water. The wash disposes the fore to heal quickly. This application is commonly a carbonate of pot-ash.

The white fine powder remaining after the combustion of *hickory-coals* (*juglans*) has been deemed more neat and efficacious than common ashes from other species of wood, and applied, they say, very advantageously to relieve horses injured as before described.

Tobacco-ashes have been recommended as very efficacious in removing that tetter or eruption called "the ring-worm." This too owes its activity to the alkaline salt with which it abounds.

Obstinate eruptions and sores about the mouths, lips, and chins of children, have been cured, in country places, by being sprinkled by their mothers with the nice and light ashes remaining after the consumption of hickory wood by fire.

Lime-water has long had a place in the *materia medica*; and, besides its internal use for urinary calculus, and disorders of the alimentary canal, has often been employed, with advantage, for ulcers on the legs and other parts of the body.

Indeed, the *aqua phagedænica*, made by dissolving corrosive sublimate in lime-water, is little else than a plain solution of alkaline or calcareous earth in water; for the lime immediately unites with a portion of the muriatic acid, into a muriate of lime, and the quick-silver, turned to a yellowish oxyd, falls to the bottom in the form of a powder. I consider the chief operative ingredient in this pharmaceutical preparation to be the lime-water.

Pliny mentions (*Hist. Nat. lib. xxiii. Procœm.*) the healing qualities of the *ashes of the vine* (pot-ash), in chaps, fissures, piles, excoriations and erysipelas; and relates that (*ibid. lib. xxiv. cap. 6.*) the ashes of pine and larch-tree bark are good for the places fretted and galled between the thighs, and for healing burns and scalds. The same author recommends the ashes of burnt sponge, which consist chiefly of soda with carbonic matter, for diseases of the eyes and eye-lids, and for several other complaints (*ibid. cap. 11.*); and he affirms (*ibid.*

lib. xxi. cap. 10.) that soda is good against the leprosy, and unseemly spots and freckles which blemish the skin, with other remarkable particulars to the same point.

I knew that for spongy and foetid gums, accompanied with bleedings, and with nastiness about the teeth, weak alkaline solutions were of sovereign efficacy to cleanse the mouth, to lessen the foetor of the breath, and to dispose the diseased parts to become sound and healthy. I have, for several years, been in the habit of prescribing them to remove the fordes accumulated there in syphilis, scurvy, fevers, and, in short, in all other cases where the mouth had collected filth, and stood in need of being cleaned out.

Taught by such facts, I began to think that the purulent secretion in sores, wounds and ulcers, underwent some other change than a mere thickening of its consistence, while exposed on their surface. There was the highest probability that a portion of oxygenous air underwent decomposition, and that its basis, attracted by the pus, imparted to it the qualities of an acid. And from the stimulating, corrosive, or other morbid operation of this acid upon the subjacent parts, many of the phenomena of ulceration might tolerably well be accounted for.—Chemistry did not here meddle with *living parts or functions*. Its principles were only applied to explain some of the phenomena of animal fluids, wherein *no vital energy of any sort was presumed to inhere*. Fluids, after secretion, have ever been deemed fair subjects of chemical analysis.—As I had, long before, been led to believe, that intermitting, remitting, and continued fevers, in all their modifications, were but the effects which oxygenated septon wrought upon the body, I was naturally led to a persuasion, that the fevers consequent upon deep and extensive ulceration, were ascribable to a similar cause. Thus the hectic paroxysms accompanying vomica of the lungs, consequent upon the admission of air into the purulent cavity of psoas abscess, and attendant on broad ulcerated and exposed surfaces of every sort, apparently arose from an absorption of septic acid, formed on the denuded spots, by a combination of a portion of atmospheric oxygen with the azotic material of the secreted humour. This, I thought, approached to somewhat of a rationale of *hectic* chills and heats, by referring them to the same general law of nature which governed the phenomena of *other* fevers. I have endeavoured to show, in other places (particularly in my piece on dysentery, soon to be published), that the *septic poison* which produces febrile action is often

formed in the alimentary canal, from the degenerated remains of food: it looked now almost as likely that *virus*, of nearly the same composition, was formed on the surface of ulcers, from the fluids effused there. I suspect some of the phenomena mentioned in your chapter on malignant ulcer, in the second volume of your *Medicina Nautica*, proceed from the septic acid converted to a gaseous form, and becoming infectious. And I intend this letter as a sequel to that chapter.

This conclusion was strengthened by considering the qualities of the pus in many cases of ulceration. It seemed to devour the contiguous parts, and sometimes to eat away all before it, constituting what you have described so well. The exhalations from this destructive liquid were oftentimes noxious as well as offensive; and wherever they were abundant enough, as in the wards of military hospitals, and on board of ships, they evidently acted as the exciting cause of "fevers" among those who were confined in the same apartments. Here the septic effluvium of putrid ulcers was productive of consequences resembling those ordinarily occurring from the operation of similar vapours from other sources of corruption.—It was, however, scarcely to be doubted, though this kind of acidity was the most common, that, occasionally, *some other than the septic acid* was the morbid product.

Under the conviction that ALKALINE REMEDIES were fully indicated as topical applications in the practice of surgery, I ventured to try them in a number of cases which fell under my care. The first instance was the venereal chancre removed by *carbonate of pot-ash*, which is related at large in *Med. Rep.* vol. ii. p. 217—218, first edition. Since which it has been in my power to see many other, and more serious syphilitic ulcers, of the primary kind, yield to the same alkaline treatment. Indeed, in incipient chancres, the deliquesced carbonate of pot-ash (*lixivium tartari*) is my steady prescription. I never knew bubo arise from its application, as frequently follows the use of septite of silver (*lunar caustic*). It does not, like that metallic salt, destroy life and organization, nor cause the part to mortify and slough away; but it preserves a degree of cleanliness unknown under any other dressing. Some cases, which afterwards occurred under Dr. Rodgers and myself, were extracted from the books of the New-York Hospital by Mr. Hayes, then the apothecary of that house, and published in the third volume of the *Med. Rep.* p. 302 & seq.

Emboldened by these instances of success, I directed *secondary* syphilitic ulcers to be treated with alkaline applications. When

in their very foul state, the fluid carbonate of pot-ash was applied by aid of a camel's-hair brush, and repeated from time to time, until the sore became more clean, which commonly happened in a few days. Afterwards, lint dipped in lime-water, and kept moist with the same, was the common dressing; the sore being touched, from time to time, with the carbonate of pot-ash, if deemed necessary.—In other cases, I ordered the ulcers, after having been duly alkalized, to be dressed with an ointment, made by rubbing together, upon a tile, carbonate of soda and the cerate of wax and oil. This was spread upon lint, and applied in the common manner. Sometimes a poultice was directed, and sometimes not.

In cases of ulcerated buboes, and of venereal blotches about the skin, I have caused dressings of the same kind to be made use of; and I approve of them, and those herein mentioned, upon the whole, more than any others with which I am acquainted.

In one instance I was agreeably surpris'd by a very unexpected occurrence. A girl, whose constitution had been considerably injured by syphilis, was affected, in addition to disease of the genital parts, with an ugly and scabby eruption over her face and neck, and with an enlargement and inflammation of the lachrymal sack of the right eye. Determining to defer the particular treatment of the *fistula lachrymalis* until the general and more urgent disease of her constitution should have abated, I prescribed, besides other things, a weak solution of carbonate of soda in water, as a lotion for her face. This had the usual effect of disposing the eruptions to dry away, and disappear in a few days: but, what I had not at all expected at the time, the *fistula lachrymalis* disappeared too, under the continuance of the alkaline wash, and returned no more.

I am of opinion that, in old syphilitic cases with ulceration, the sick actually suffer a twofold distemper; one part of which was brought on by the original virus, and the other proceeds from the oxygenated pus constantly absorbed from the surface of the sores. By alkaline applications, this latter source of mischief is lessened, and the acidity of the pus is overcome; the *local irritation* abates, and the *constitutional infection* by it ceases; and thus, as the ulcers heal, the febrile stimulus which used to be produced there is proportionally diminished; and when they become cicatrized, they furnish not a particle of it any longer.—Latterly I became so convinced of the disposition to heal induced by alkalies, that I

ordered several deep and sinuous ulcers to be dressed with lint dipped in the fluid carbonate of pot-ash: and the result here was no less agreeable than in the other cases.

Thus far I had proceeded, when, on reading the Medical and Physical Journal for December, 1799, I observed that a gentleman, distinguished for his poetical as well as professional talents, Dr. Drake, had quoted Brugman's Dissertation on Pus, proving it *to be an acid*. These experiments, which I had never seen nor had any knowledge of until then, I should be glad to peruse. The establishment of this one fact fixes a principle of great moment in pathology, and enables us to practise upon ulcers, and the fevers which accompany them, upon something like a consistent and rational plan; and, more than this, puts it in our power to compare the phenomena of fever from the absorbed acid of an ulcer, with fever from the imbibed acid of dysenteric intestines, and the fever from the inhaled acid arising from substances putrefying in the open air; and to refer them to a general law of the animal economy, whereby *oxygenated septon*, acting as a poison, and known sometimes under the names of contagion, infection and miasma, stirs up those varieties of commotion in the living frame.

It would be highly worthy of your official character, and wholly accordant to your various and benevolent plans for bettering the condition of seamen, to recommend alkaline dressings, among other things, for old and offensive ulcers, as the navy-surgeons would have great opportunities of trying them, and of witnessing their good effects.—Hoping and labouring earnestly for the improvement of medicine and surgery, I am assuredly, &c.

SAMUEL L. MITCHILL,



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## R E V I E W.

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ART. I. *Memoir concerning the Disease of Goitre.* By Benjamin Smith Barton, M. D. &c.

[Continued from page 53, and concluded.]

WE proceed, according to our promise, to give an account of FODERE'S publication on Goitre and Cretinage. FODERE'S work, the dedication of which has been accepted by the Royal Academy of Sciences of Turin, is divided into four sections. In the first, the author describes the Goitre, its seat, differences, causes, and the remedies which physic and surgery may use for its cure. In the second he speaks of the complete Cretinage, its differences, propagation, and particular causes. In the third he inquires into the general causes of the Goitre and Cretinage, and the reason why these diseases are endemic in his country (the province of Maurienne). The fourth section contains the physical and moral means by which Goitre and Cretinage may be extirpated from the subalpine valleys; and it is ended by some particular and philosophical considerations on the province of Maurienne.

The description of the thyroid gland, as the seat of the tumour commonly called *bronchocele*, comes, in the first place, under our consideration. That gland, says he, contains a humour of the same nature as those destined to lubricate all the parts of the body, the desiccation of which might undergo some alteration. The collection of that humour, in considerable quantity, in the gland, when choaked up by any cause, produces the Goitre. He gives a muscle *azygos* to that organ: he calls it constrictor; and, as it covers the gland, it exercises a pressure upon it; so that he considers the thyroid as a conglomerate gland, whose secretion moistens and lubricates the larynx and *trachea arteria*, continually exsiccated by the air necessary to respiration. His anatomical experiments are not carried so far as we should expect from so interesting and extensive a work. On that score he does not agree with many anatomists, who consider that gland only as a mucous one, quite deprived of any excretory duct, and immediately covered by the muscles called *sterno-hyoideus*, *sterno-thyroi-*

*dcus*, and *omoplato-hyoideus*, strongly connected together by a kind of aponeurotical expansion, without an *azygos* muscle.

The details he gives of the causes are delivered with great precision and accuracy. They are to be found neither in the drink of snow-waters, nor in selenitous nor metallic waters, nor in coarse, thickening and inspissating food, but in the warm dampness intimately diffused in the atmosphere of the deep valleys (which he calls *subalpine*), by which the inhabitants are constantly surrounded.

Living at St. Jean de Maurienne (a town situated on the plain, where the Goitres and Idiots are not so common), the author has been so careful as to go and explore that country, at repeated times, as far as was necessary: so that, besides his tables of comparison between the inhabitants of the valleys, those of the plain, and those living on the declivity of the mountains, his proofs on this head are reinforced and illustrated by various reasoning. It is known that that country exhibits more people with big throats than any other in the world, as all the causes act more powerfully, and are more concentrated and combined, in the deep valleys of Maurienne, Savoy, Valais, &c.

They whose habitations are encompassed with trees, furnished with large leaves, and especially fruit trees, or situated in the neighbourhood of rivers, torrents, lakes, ponds, swamps, and exposed to the currents of south and west winds, are more particularly affected with those infirmities and tumours. He has always observed the Goitre make its appearance in the spring, when the trees are adorned with leaves, and to diminish in the beginning of winter, when they cast them off. It diminishes more when the winter season is cold and dry, and *vice versa*.

He believes that there are no miasmata nor foreign particles disseminated in the air sufficient to give rise to the Goitre. "If there are any miasmata, if truly they are existing, they must be very light, and, of course, carried upwards with the columns of the air that we breathe, as the azotic gas is."

The number of big throats diminishes as you advance from the low grounds towards the high places, the level of mountains and open plains, and are entirely extinct, except among those who have emigrated, on high and naked places. A great many other illustrations are unavoidably passed without notice. Our author expatiates pretty lengthily on the relaxation of the soft parts, and its effects. From the permanent dampness of the atmosphere, the fibres of the bodies are relaxed by degrees,



the *vis tonica* diminished and weakened, the perspiration checked, an accumulation of mucous humour in the thyroid gland takes place, and, of course, the enlargement of that gland, and the formation of the Goitre.

The author acknowledges that the Goitre is often hereditary, and the *Cretins*, or idiots, are, at first, more commonly afflicted with a small Goitre. "Many writers have confounded the Goitre with scrophula. *Heister*, *Riolan*, and *Mittermeyerus*, have set the Goitre in the same chapter with it. Yet we should be much mistaken if we made no difference, although these diseases have some common symptoms—the principal of which are, a weak constitution, white, fine and delicate skin, blue eyes," &c. He gives a striking difference between the two diseases, which are sometimes found existing in the same individual. "The scrophula," says he, "seems to exist in all the solids weakened, and especially in the whole glandular system. The infant has a haggard eye, and the upper lip thicker than usual. It seldom makes its appearance before two years of age, and scarcely ever after ten or twelve. It disappears sometimes at the age of puberty, and on the approach of the menstrual flux. The Goitre, on the contrary, is a local disease of the throat, which often arises at the birth, or some time after. The most common epoch is at seven, eight, nine and ten years; but it may take place at any age; and, when it once comes out, puberty does not dissipate it.—Although nature has cured, now and then, a few persons affected with true scrophula, it does not appear that art has yet done it. Art, on the contrary, radically cures Goitre, which nature alone does not perfectly."—These passages, in our opinion, admitting no abridgement, we have thought proper to translate them entire.

Dr. Foderè proceeds, in the next place, to deliver an account of his method of cure. The remedies consist in an electuary, composed of sponge half calcined, with honey, and powder of cinnamon, to be taken three times a day, to the quantity of a hazel-nut, till the tumour subsides; or thirty grains of *hepar sulphuris* (sulphure of pot-ash), dissolved in one quart of water, which should be drunk every day.

Whichever may be the method of cure, he recommends a purgative previous to administering the above remedies, and a repetition of it every eight days, till the Goitre be cured. He observes, also, that the remedies should be retained awhile in the mouth, and the patient kept warm and covered. Hav-

ing confidence in the influence of the moon, he advises to give the remedies towards its decline.

If children refuse to swallow these medicines, frictions ought to be made on the tumours, either with a dry flannel aromatised, or with soap, or camphorated oil, as Underwood practised with success. He recommends, also, to wear an oval and elastic plate of steel, as large as the Goitre, which being constantly fixed on it, exercises a sufficient pressure, and diminishes its size.

The author seems to be at a loss to explain the effect of the remedies on the Goitre. When in the stomach, he asks whether they operate immediately upon its nerves, or penetrate the system of the circulation, and pervade the vessels of the thyroid gland? If it be the latter way, they must alkalize the blood, and the remedy is worse than the disease.—Would it not be much better to recommend, once for all, and without hesitation, in the treatment of every Goitre, not to swallow any, or very little, of the medicines known to be the most efficacious—but to keep them, as long as possible, in the mouth, or to rub its inner parts with a proper and harmless powder? This point will be examined afterwards.

The author proceeds thus: “When the Goitre is old, scirrhous, and very large, it is useless to make use of any medicines. The operation alone may succeed, provided it be formed of a single sac, detached and hanging on the middle of the fore part of the neck, and narrower at its basis than at the top. The skin must be divided by a crucial incision, and separated from the tumour, which must be separated and taken out. If there is an hæmorrhage, ligatures must be put on the vessels, &c. In certain other cases, a seton may be passed through the tumour, and is preferable to caustic, although the string should be anointed with some alkaline or mild caustic.” He confesses to have been only a witness of two cases in which the first operation was luckily and skilfully performed. Such is the whole method of cure that we have deemed necessary to detail.

In the second part of the work, Dr. Foderè gives an historical and philosophical description of those wretches, so common in the same valleys, called *Ideots* or *Cretins*, of whom Mr. *Còxe* and Mr. *De Saussure* have left us a striking and lively picture; and he delivers his doctrine as a perspicuous physician. He follows those poor creatures, of whom the greater part are deaf and dumb, from their birth to their

death—divides them into Cretins, *perfect* or complete, and *imperfect*—distinguishes the perfect into six different stages—and, after having premised his theory, and inquired into the anatomy and physiology of their bodies, to substantiate it, and explain the immediate causes, he examines, with great accuracy, the predisposing and remote causes of the *Cretinage*. These principal causes are,

1st. An atmosphere continually warm and damp, or cold and damp.

2d. A neglected and dirty, or too studied and too effeminate a physical education.

3d. A moral education grounded on ridiculous and extravagant prejudices, or too elaborate, and beyond the capacity of those subjected to it.

4th. The intercourse of ignorant and superstitious people.

5th. Imitation which countenances an aversion to constant and regular labour.

6th. Continual gluttony.

7th. The abuse of wine and spirituous liquors.

The topographical description of the valleys, the state of their atmosphere, the relative connection of their dampness with the Goitre and Cretinage, fill almost entirely the third part of the work. The opinion of the author seems to derive some support from chemical reasoning and hygrometrical experiments. Previous to examining how far climate influences the mind and character of the inhabitants of the subalpine valleys, he undertakes to prove how the toughness of the brain (which is harder in the idiots than in other men) may be induced by dampness; and he begins with the following general propositions:

1st. The Cretinage (a few cases excepted) is always hereditary; that is, a lesion of the brain (known to be the immediate cause) is already supposed in the father and mother. Thus an idiot child, or one who is to be so, is born with a beginning of preternatural hardness in the brain.

2d. It is probable that the Goitre has, at all times, preceded the Cretinage.

3d. The idiot's father and mother had a Goitre.

4th. A father, afflicted with a Goitre of a certain bigness, seldom begets children without some degree of Cretinage.

5th. A subject, affected with an extensive Goitre from his youth, commonly becomes, after a great while, an idiot in some degree (the perfect idiot excepted), as related in the second section. Thus, should the Goitre give rise to the Cretinage,

the humid air being the first cause of the Goitre, then it is likewise the first cause of the Cretinage.

The theory of the author is illustrated by an explanation of the formation of the hardness of the brain, from the effects of the atmosphere on the vessels, &c. He neglects nothing to search into the causes of the diminution of both diseases, in the valleys, for some years past; and, in order to proceed with more exactness, he has availed himself of the assistance of the curates of several parishes. "The travellers," says he, "who have passed through those valleys twenty years ago, and cross them again now, perceive a difference. Notwithstanding this change, which actually exists, the number of ideots and big throats is still considerable; since, in the Val-d'Aoste alone, the number of perfect *Cretins* amounts to 1740, in a population of 68022 souls."

Having taken a hasty survey of the three former parts, we shall now proceed to offer a cursory notice of the last. Many passages contain interesting reasonings, which we shall be, unwillingly, obliged to pass over. Among the means proposed to reduce and diminish the dampness of the atmosphere, we shall take notice of the following:

1st. As the trees furnished with large leaves collect and preserve dampness, the author recommends to cut down all the fruit-trees within the space of four hundred paces around the houses, inasmuch as the fruits are noxious to the inhabitants of those valleys, who ought also to remain unshaded by any trees. With regard to the power possessed by the trees, of diffusing dampness, he refers to BONNET's system and experiments.

2d. To remove standing waters, and drain the swamps annually filled up with the melted snows and overflowings of the rivers. Besides the dampness resulting from them, a prodigious quantity of insects are bred and die in those marshes during the hot season, and sundry vegetables are putrified: hence arise an infectious air, and a great many intermitting fevers.

3d. It seems to him very important to raise the roads, which are now too low; to preserve the greatest cleanliness in the streets of all the villages, and pave them; to erect houses at a distance from rocks or high grounds, so as to give a free circulation to the winds. The people should no longer inhabit their stables nor low rooms.

After having proposed some means to render the human body less susceptible, and abler to resist the atmospheric damp-

ness, Dr. Foderè relates how marriages ought to be regulated and determined by a committee, composed of the magistrate, the curate and the physician of the place, and what moral education it is requisite to give the children of the valleys. To this last purpose, as the cure of the *perfect* Cretinage is impossible, he proposes to proceed cautiously to the education of the *imperfect*, by the analytic method, which must be preferred to the synthetic—that is, from the most simple to the more complex. His means are wise, easy, and in conformity with his principles; and he quotes the authority of *Tacitus*, *Montesquieu*, *Locke*, the immortal Abbe de *Condillac*, and Mr. *De Pauw*. He laments and deprecates the unheard-of and inconceivable slothfulness prevailing among the inhabitants of the towns and hamlets, who, at the same time, are incessantly restless and discontented. “There is a virtue,” says he, “which ought to be early inculcated on the inhabitants of the valleys: it is the love of work. So true it is, that if governments wish the people to be happy and quiet, they ought to employ and keep them busy. The man who works is fond of peace, and respects his duties. If not overwhelmed, he calmly devotes his days to labour, without being acquainted with the metaphysics of government, and without disquieting himself by those vain distinctions which needlessly tease and weary so many men.”

Finally, the work is concluded by proposing sundry means of improvement for the province of Maurienne: such as a better administration concerning agriculture in general; the exploring of some mines of iron, copper and silver; the establishment of good manufactures; to pay more particular attention to sheep and wool, and to the tanner's art. He recommends the bark of fir-trees to make tan: as they grow in plenty in the mountains, and in the *high Maurienne*, they can get a great quantity of their bark. Those trees stand and live four or five years after their being stripped. Many other important parts of the book admit neither analysis nor abridgment: the philosophical and patriotic views of its author cannot fail to reflect much honour upon him, and gain the grateful affection of his fellow-citizens.

However, we cannot take leave of this important subject without casting a cursory view upon another and earlier work on Goitre, which was undoubtedly unknown to Dr. Foderè. The work we mean was sent to the Academy of Surgery of Paris in the year 1789, which rewarded the author with a gold medal. That author is Louis Valentin, Doctor of Phy-

fic in the University of Nancy, and lately chief physician of the French hospitals in Virginia. He seems to be the first who rejected the commonly-received opinion of attributing the Goitre to the use of melted snow, and selenitous or vitriolic waters; but he brings forward many proofs of the effects of cold and damp air, especially during the night, upon a certain class of people, and military men submitted to his care. We are told that Dr. Villars, of Grenoble, touched upon the subject of Goitre a little before Dr. Foderè; and he also acknowledges that snow-waters, and other causes to which the Goitre has been attributed, are unfounded. On that point, it is very satisfactory to find that Dr. Foderè agrees so well with the two other writers, without having been at all acquainted with their works. We understand that Dr. Valentin's memoir is not yet published.\* We know, however, that he gives an anatomical and physiological description of the thyroid gland, which he considers only as a mucous and lymphatic one, quite destitute of excretory ducts. His method of cure is very different from Dr. Foderè's. It is a *sweet and alkaline powder*, to be used at nights in bed, and sometimes in the morning. It should not be swallowed, but rubbed in the inside of the mouth, and kept underneath the tongue, to be absorbed by degrees, and conveyed by the lymphatics to the diseased thyroid gland. This is to be treated with warm and *alkaline* topics, such as *warm ashes, ammoniacal salts*, and washings with *brine, weak ley*, or a *solution of pot-ash, or hepar sulphuris, lime-water, &c.* Sometimes he allows some alterative means, according to the nature of the Goitre, of which he distinguishes *twelve* kinds. But before giving his powder he administers one or two emetics, and some doses of salts in the course of the treatment. He does not agree with Foderè concerning the influence of the moon, which he considers as quite ineffectual.

We have before us a Latin dissertation of Dr. Valentin, on the same subject, printed at Nancy, in the year 1789, bearing this title—*De Struma Bronchocele Dicta et de Hæmeralopia*. It is far less extensive than the memoir he gave two years after; for, in the former, he divides the Goitre into *ten* species, of which he gives a particular account. It is

\* We are apprised, by a correspondent, that the Medical Society of Paris, under the title of the *Society of Health*, intends soon to publish the sequel of works sent to it, and to the Academy of Surgery, both being now united into one.

remarkable, that in this piece too he disapproves the use of *strong* alkaline substances, *when swallowed*, on account of their bad effects, not only on the stomach, but also on the nervous system, and the ill consequences resulting from their abuse.

We conclude this article by expressing our hopes that Professor Barton may hereafter continue to investigate this subject with the same caution, wariness and candour, as well as with the same comprehensive and enlightened views, which so eminently distinguish his present Memoir.

ART. II. *Memoir on the Analysis of the Black-vomit, ejected in the last Stage of the Yellow Fever.* By Isaac Cathrall. Philadelphia. Folwell. 8vo. pp. 32. 1800.

**O**FTEN has it been our lot to remark, that there is no assignable proportion between the length or size of a publication and its merit or value. Readers of books have long lamented that a large amount of the time and toil they bestowed in examining the publications of their day, was expended without either instruction or entertainment. Doleful is the task of the reviewer who is to give an account of long and tedious works, and to glean, from an almost immeasurable surface of leaves and pages, the few particles of sense and beauty which are scattered over them. Amplification and prolixity are the common faults of writers: and it is a great pity, both for them and their readers, that these are so prevalent. Fortunately, however, it happens, that they who offer their compositions to the public, do not always fill a folio or a quarto with that which might be comprehended in a pamphlet of moderate size. In several departments of learning, there are short works which have secured extensive and lasting fame to their authors. The celebrated treatises of LONGINUS *on the Sublime*, of HORACE *on the Art of Poetry*, and of TACITUS *on the Manners of the Germans*, are none of them remarkable for their length. LITTLETON'S luminous tract *on Tenures*, the oracular book of English lawyers, runs but a little way in print. The admirable *Theory of Matter*, proposed by BOSCOVICH, is contained in a volume of small bulk. In short, two of the most valuable physiological essays; to wit, the one *on the Concoction of Food in the Sto-*

*mach*, by STEVENS; and the other *on the Respiration of Animals*, by GOODWYN, comprife their important experimental matter within a very moderate compafs.

To this class of concise, but pointed and sententious productions, belongs the memoir which now lies before us. Without any preface or circumlocution, Dr. Cathrall proceeds directly to his subject. To this he has attended patiently and perseveringly. That the piece may be rightly appreciated, it is proper to observe, that the author began his observations during the rage of the fatal sickness at Philadelphia, in 1793; and offered to the Philosophical Society of that city, in the month of June, 1800, this result of his seven years investigation: and that many of the experiments were witnessed by Drs. Samuel Duffield and Adam Seybert. The black-vomit is described thus: (p. 4—7).

“The black matter, or vomit, so called, appears to be of two kinds. One consisting of a number of black flaky particles, resembling the grounds of coffee; the other of a dark-coloured inspissated mucus. Of each of these I shall give a separate description.

“This flaky discharge was always preceded by violent sickness and vomiting; and, as a precursor to the ejection of this matter, in some cases, the patients vomited a fluid like whey or muddy water, or one consisting of a brown flaky substance, resembling chocolate or spoiled porter, mixed with brownish-coloured mucus.\* These substances were sometimes of a lighter colour, and were suspended in a glarey yellow-coloured fluid, which became nearly transparent when at rest, by the subsiding of a small number of brown particles. This coloured matter was generally vomited in small quantities, and with considerable difficulty; but when the black flaky discharge commenced, it was frequently ejected in large quantities, and with similar force to a fluid from the action of an emetic. As the disease advances, this matter assumes a darker colour, and its quantity sometimes becomes so much augmented, that I have known one gallon vomited in 48 hours, besides a considerable quantity, which was of a much thicker consistence, that was discharged by the bowels. This black-vomit, after standing some hours, deposits a black flaky substance, from a

\* “The chocolate, or coffee sickness, or the black sickness, says Dr. de Monchy, is not taken from the blackish hue or shade of the skin, but it is derived from the fœtid, blackish matter discharged from the first passages. See *Diseases in Voyages to the West-Indies*.”



glarey yellow-coloured fluid, similar, in appearance, to an infusion of green-tea. These depositions were sometimes in distinct particles, but frequently in a kind of dark powder. The above particles were various in size, and of a very irregular figure, not unfrequently mixed with pieces of the villous coat of the stomach. These may be distinguished by their being longer in subsiding to the bottom of the vessel than the flaky substance. There were some disproportions between the yellow-coloured fluid and the quantity of flaky substance, as in the other appearance of the vomit. The flaky matter was very readily re-incorporated with the yellow-coloured fluid, by the least agitation of the vessel; and when kept in a phial, corked for eight or ten days, assumed rather an agreeable, saccharine odour, and was extremely brisk, like fermenting beer. This last property is not peculiar to this fluid, but common to some other animal secretions. When the black-vomit was kept for two years in a state of rest, the flaky particles became perfectly separated. On agitating the vessel, the former was immediately incorporated with the latter; and, after remaining at rest six months, showed scarce any disposition to separate.

“The mucus matter which was sometimes vomited in the yellow fever, and particularly in that which appeared in 1797, was very ropy, and of a black colour. This matter floated on a fluid of a dark colour, which appeared to receive its tinge from the colouring matter of the mucus. When this matter was agitated in a phial, the mucus showed no disposition to mix with the fluid part of the vomit, and when it was repeatedly washed in clear water, became nearly of the colour of the mucus secreted in the alimentary canal. This black matter was discharged, in large quantities, in the cases which proved mortal in 1797, and was a very inactive fluid when applied to the most sensible parts of the healthy body, and was essentially different from the coffee-ground vomit.”

From various and repeated experiments, Dr. Cathrall concludes that the black-vomit, besides a considerable proportion of *water*, tinctured with *resinous* and *mucilaginous* substances, contains a *predominant acid*, which is neither the carbonic, phosphoric, nor sulphuric. This *acidity* he found to be present in the *yellow-coloured* fluid, taken from twenty different patients, during several seasons of the prevailing yellow fever, and also in the *black flaky* substance. With these were combined muriate of soda, iron, and an unctuous animal substance, somewhat resembling spermacei. The exact proportion of

the different substances he had not an opportunity of investigating, for want of a sufficient quantity of the black flaky matter to make a complete analysis. An *acid*, which he believes to be of the same quality, is contained in the fluids ejected from the stomach a few hours *before the commencement* of black vomiting. Of this acid the author has expressed himself in *negative* rather than *positive* terms, faintly hinting, however, that it may be the *muriatic* (p. 9).

On the effects which the matter of black-vomit produces on the living system, Dr. C.'s experiments are so original, and his conclusions so remarkable, that we shall insert the section at full length: (p. 19—23).

“ From the internal surface of the stomach and intestinal canal appearing, on dissection, inflamed and sphacelated, particularly in some patients who had vomited black, it has been believed that the black-vomit was corrosive, and had a power of acting on parts it came in contact with.\* This power has likewise been inferred from some patients complaining of a soreness in their throats, immediately after the ejection of this black matter.

“ To determine how far it was capable of acting on the healthy body, it was submitted to the following experiments:

“ 1st. In October, 1794, immediately after a quantity of black-vomit was taken out of the stomach, after death, I applied some of it to my tongue and lips: to the latter it gave, a short time after application, the sensation of a fluid perceptibly acrid. This experiment was, the next day, several times repeated, with the same result.

“ 2d. A friend of mine applied it to his lips, and it produced a similar sensation, but would not affect his tongue.

“ 3d. Finding the effects of this matter so different from what was expected, I began to believe that this discharge varied materially, in point of activity, in different patients; but on subjecting the black-vomit, procured from a number of persons, to the same test, it produced the same effect.

“ 4th. Two ounces of a fluid, resembling chocolate, was obtained, which was vomited a few hours before death. This was applied in the same manner; but there could not be perceived any difference in the result.

“ 5th. In the beginning of October, 1799, Mr. Joseph Parker, an active and intrepid member of the Board of Health, obligingly presented me with five ounces of black-vomit, ob-

\* “ See Desportes on Diseases of St. Domingo, p. 203, vol. i.”

tained from the physicians of the City Hospital. Some of this I applied to my tongue, in his presence, but could not perceive the least corrosive effect. When this fluid was applied to the skin, on different parts of the body, it produced no other effect than what water did of the same temperature. I have often immersed my hand in black-vomit, immediately after it was discharged from the stomach, and whilst it was warm, without exciting the least uneasy sensation in the skin.

“(a) October 4th, 1799, three cats were confined in a room, and fed with beef, which had a considerable quantity of the flaky substance of the vomit inserted into it. This manner of feeding was continued until they had ate one drachm and an half of the flaky substance, and had drank several ounces of the black-vomit. On the 5th, the excretions by the bowels were of a dark colour; yet there could not be discovered any difference in their health; but, from their being strangers to each other, they had a constant propensity to combat. This malicious spirit continued until the 20th, when they were dismissed in good health.

“(b) A large dog was confined in a room, and, by an assistant, his jaws were forced asunder, and he was compelled to swallow an half-pint of black-vomit. The following day the excretions by the bowels were fluid, and of a black colour; but there could not be observed the least alteration in his health, from the time of making the experiment until he was dismissed, which was about three weeks after.

“(c) Two full grown fowls were confined, and fed with bread, steeped in black-vomit, for twelve days. This, Mr. Parker, as well as myself, observed, they ate with great avidity; but it had no evident bad effect upon their health; for they continued as well after as they were before the experiment, and seemed to give the preference to that kind of food to every other which was presented to them, and they appeared to thrive equally as well as if they had been fed upon corn.

“(d) On the 3d of October, 1799, in a small yard, adjoining the house in which I live, several ounces of the black-vomit, recently obtained, was [were] evaporated over a moderate heat, in order to obtain the flaky substance. During this experiment, Mr. Parker held his head over the vessel for some minutes, so as to inhale the steam of black-vomit; after which we continued within two yards of the vessel, without experiencing any unpleasant effect.

“(e) The following day I caused the windows and doors of a room to be closed, and the same experiment was repeated

on a sand-bath, constructed in the middle of a room. The fluid was evaporated until the atmosphere was so impregnated with the effluvia of the vomit as to render the apartment extremely unpleasant, not only from the odour of the vomit, but the warmth of the room. In this atmosphere I remained one hour, during which I had a constant propensity to cough, and had, at times, nausea and inclination to vomit; but, after walking out in the air, these effects gradually subsided. I experienced, however, a sense of weariness at my chest for many hours after.

“ From the above experiments, it appears that the black-vomit, when applied to the most sensible parts of the body, produced little or no effect.

“ Secondly. It appears that large quantities of this fluid may pass through the stomach and bowels of quadrupeds and other animals, without apparently disturbing digestion, or affecting their health. This fact incontestibly proves the inactivity of this fluid, and renders it probable, that the speedy death which ensues, after this discharge in yellow fever, is not from the destructive effects of this matter on the stomach and bowels, but, most likely, from the great degree of direct or indirect debility which had been previously induced, on which the black-vomit is sometimes an attendant, and strongly expresses the great danger to be apprehended from the enervated state of the system.

“ Lastly. The experiments (*d* and *e*) tend, in some measure, to prove, that an atmosphere, highly impregnated with the odour of black-vomit, recently obtained, would not produce fever, apparently under the most favourable circumstances.”

Dr. C. next examines the opinions of authors concerning the black-vomit. These he classes under four heads. 1. That which considers it as consisting of putrid bile: 2. As composed of a mixture of blood and bile: 3. Of the villous coat of the stomach dissolved in the progress of inflammation, terminating in sphacelus: and, 4. Of bile mingled with the *nitric* (we suppose he means *septic*) acid contained in the alimentary canal. All these are considered and dismissed as inadequate or erroneous, and are succeeded by the author's own opinion, that black-vomit is *an altered secretion from the liver*. Dr. C. grounds this conviction on the following considerations: (p. 29—32).

“ The colouring matter of the vomit appears, from the authors already quoted, to be generally traced, after death,

to the gall-bladder. This position being incontrovertibly established by dissections, the power of the liver to secrete that substance will be admitted, of course, as it could not be secreted by the gall-bladder, or transmitted into that viscus through any other passage, but by the hepatic duct. If this view of the subject be, in any measure, just, it is a fact, ascertained beyond the shadow of a doubt, that the black flaky substance of the vomit is an altered secretion from the liver. This matter, being secreted by the liver, and deposited by the hepatic duct in the gall-bladder, in the last hours of this disease, is from thence forced, by the contractions of the gall-bladder and cystic duct, in conjunction with the violent action of vomiting, into the stomach. It there receives the addition of the yellow-coloured fluid, which is almost always ejected with the flaky substance. That this fluid is combined with the flaky matter in the stomach, and not in the gall-bladder, every inquiry into the appearances after death fully confirms. This circumstance renders the yellow-coloured fluid subject to some difference in its properties, according to the nature of the fluids received into the stomach a short time before vomiting; but all that I have had an opportunity of examining, have nearly the appearance we have already described. That the secretory economy of the liver may be so far arrested in its healthy action, by the progress of disease, as to assimilate a fluid having not the least analogy to bile, every work on morbid dissections certainly prove [*proves.*] Lieutaud mentions a case from Rivalerius, in consequence of a diseased liver, where the fluid in the gall-bladder resembled milk; and Storke relates a case of a dropsy succeeding an intermitting fever, where the fluid in the gall-bladder resembled the white of an egg. To these I may add one that came under my own observation, of a gentleman who died dropical, in consequence of an enlarged liver. The gall-bladder contained a fluid, of a dark colour, having not the least resemblance to bile. These, and many more cases, could be adduced to prove the power of the liver, under certain circumstances, to secrete a fluid dissimilar to bile; but it would be needless to recite them, as the instances already quoted are, no doubt, sufficient to establish the fact. This peculiar condition of the secretory vessels, in the yellow fever, is not confined solely to the liver; for we find that other secretory functions are sometimes affected in a similar manner, during the same disease, and nearly at the same period of time. In confirmation of these observations, I believe most physicians must

have remarked, that, in some cases, the kidneys, during the period of black-vomiting, secrete a fluid of a dark colour, which has a thick pellicle on its surface, and appears almost as different from urine as the black-vomit does from bile. This discharge is generally a precursor to a symptom which never fails to predict a speedy dissolution, viz. a paralysis of the secretory functions of the kidneys.

“The more I consider the material change produced in the different secreting vessels, during the last stage of this disease, the more this theory appears to be supported by reason and the plausibility of truth. But, though a morbid condition of the glandular economy of the liver may produce the coffee-ground coloured vomit, it does not seem probable that the black inspissated mucous matter which was ejected in the cases that proved mortal in 1797, is derived from the same source; for the liver, under no condition of diseased action that we are acquainted with, is capable of secreting mucus of such an appearance; therefore, we think it most reasonable to refer it to the surfaces, which are destined, in a state of health, to secrete mucus. Now, admitting the axiom, ‘that similar causes produce similar effects, under similar circumstances,’ why may not the glandular structure of the stomach be affected in a similar manner to that of the liver and kidneys, so as to enable it to secrete the mucous matter above-mentioned? This opinion, I think, may be affirmed by other analogies, not only in the sthenic, but in the asthenic condition of secreting surfaces, in which there are equally as great a deviation from healthy secretion as the one alluded to. This we have clearly exemplified in vessels destined to secrete mucus in a state of health; but, when labouring under inflammation, evidently secrete pus.”

The observations with which we shall conclude our review of this excellent piece will not be very long. First: It appears clearly that the black-vomit is not the *cause* of yellow fever, but merely a symptom, or rather an *effect*, of the poison originally applied. It is possible, that not a drop or particle of the septic virus itself, which induced the disease, is present in the *primæ viæ* when black-vomiting begins. It may have been wholly ejected by previous vomitive efforts, and the irritation of inflammation, caused by its presence, still remain to torture or to kill the sufferer. This may be understood by comparison with another poison; arsenic, for instance. If the oxyd of arsenic should be swallowed, it is possible for every atom of it to be expelled by vomiting; but, even then,

the injury done by it to the stomach would remain, and a dangerous gastritis, followed by black-vomiting, might destroy life. And neither in this case of *arsenical fever*, nor in the *septic* or *yellow fever*, would the matter vomited in the latter stages of the disease necessarily contain any oxyd of the metal, or acid of putrefaction. Secondly: The black-vomit, as has been shown by Dr. Miller, in his cursory observations on yellow fever, published in *Med. Rep.* vol. ii. p. 412, is by no means a *pathognomonic* sign of that disease. So far is it from being the case, that this awful symptom frequently follows the swallowing of the oxyd of arsenic, muriate of quicksilver, and the acetate of copper. It is also a frequent consequence of the fatal operation of vegetable poisons taken into the stomach. They, therefore, who have considered it as a *diagnostic* of the yellow fever, have judged erroneously, and drawn their conclusions from very partial and limited premises: for, instead of being confined to this distemper, it is now well known to attend or follow the severe and deadly operation of most poisons upon the organ of digestion. Thirdly: Though we are inclined to think, with the author, that former writers have given but conjectural and imperfect accounts of this dark-coloured fluid, and that he has reasoned ably on the subject, yet we shall offer a few ideas on the function of the liver in these cases. This conglomerate gland, during the time of health, prepares a *bitter* and *alkaline* liquid in considerable quantity. The use or operation of this, as far as we can interpret final causes, is to quell and neutralize acids of all kinds in the chyle or alimentary mass, as it passes through the intestinal canal. And a wise and happy provision it is of the Creator, that the animal economy is furnished with an ample store of such an antiseptic and antipestiferous liquid. But the secretory process of the liver, as well as of the other glands of the body, is sometimes impaired. Those *violent* poisons, which paralyze the lachrymal gland, dry up the tears, benumb the salivary glands, prevent the formation of spittle, torpify the kidneys and diminish the quantity of urine, and, affecting the cutaneous vessels with spasm, check the insensible perspiration, seem also to interrupt the bile-producing function. The supplies of wholesome fluid, which the liver was accustomed to prepare, are withheld, and the intestines, at length, contain the common *ingesta* and *excreta*, with all their proneness to become sour and to irritate, without the soothing and controuling influence of the gall. The predominant acidity, in Dr. C.'s experiments, may thus

be accounted for, and, at the same time, serve to render it yet doubtful whether the matter of black-vomit proceeds from the liver. We have no proof that the liver secretes an *acid* liquor. During the prevalence of that symptom, we are inclined to believe the sickly liver prepares too *little* bile for the wants of the constitution, and this *little* may be altered so in its quality as, on meeting with the acidity of the stomach and duodenum, to exhibit a dark colour, in a manner not materially different from that quoted (p. 24) as Professor Mitchell's.

ART. III. *Recherches sur la Medecine, ou l'Application de la Chimie a la Medecine.* Par François Blanchet. A New-York. Parifot. 8vo. pp. 246. 1800.

**W**ITHIN the last half century the empire of chemistry has been surprisngly enlarged. From a limited authority over *metals* and *medicines*, she has extended her sway to the various kinds of *earths* which enter into the composition of our planet, to the *waters* which flow on its surface, and the *gases* which constitute its atmosphere. Not contented with sublunary power, she claims a dominion as extensive as the solar influence, and gives law to *heat*, *light*, and *fire*, wheresoever they exist in the universe. This, one would think, was enough; but all this does not content her. With restless activity, she breaks down organic matter after death, resolves it into its pristine elements, or into new compounds, and, according to the temperature of the seasons and the quality of the materials, fertilizes the soil with manure, or contaminates the air with poison. And here her daring enterprise would stop; but some of the leaders most devoted to her service, have flattered her that she was mistress of the *animated* as well as of the *inanimate* world. "Life," they said, "was in her gift. By her direction, heterogeneous atoms could arrange themselves into filaments, and filaments bend to circles; and, as filament placed itself beside filament, and circle associated itself to circle, muscles and vessels, by an easy process, were constructed. To these, by a necessary consequence, *irritability*, or a *susceptibility of impression*, inhered. If, proceeding from this *simple* form, she chose to be a little more *complicated*, she could combine other atoms into brain and nerves, and impart to them *sensitive* and *voluntary* power: and, by modifying these again into *locomotive*, *digestive*, and



generative organs, creatures, of various degrees of vital energy, could be produced. For these it was only necessary to associate iron, carbon, and a few other things, to water, in order to form *blood*—and to connect phosphoric acid with lime, to produce *bone*—and suddenly their hearts would throb within their breasts, and their weights be supported on their limbs. Lastly, out of this combination of elements, *mind* would arise as one of their modifications, and intellect, memory and passion depend thereon for their existence.”

But these sentiments are too enthusiastic. The proper province of chemistry is the inorganic or lifeless part of creation; or, if it is applied to the explanation of vital phenomena, it seems to succeed best in those parts of the constitution which possess irritability and sensibility in the lowest degrees. That exquisite organization, on which pleasure and pain, hope and fear, calculation and invention depend, has hitherto defied the laws of chemistry, and refused submission to her power. There is, however, a medium between the two extremes, of those who ascribe *every thing*, and such as attribute *nothing*, in the vital economy, to chemical agency. DARWIN has endeavoured to pursue this course. In his *Zoonomia* he has employed chemical reasoning as far as it appears to him applicable and proper; and, beyond the reach of this species of philosophy, he has attempted an investigation of the *laws of organic life*. The extravagance of Girtanner, and some others, ought to be carefully avoided.

The author of the treatise now under consideration, ardent in the pursuit of science, and zealous to interpret the phenomena of animated nature, has undertaken to explore some of the darker recesses, with the torch of chemistry in his hand. In the course of his researches, which are comprehended in twelve chapters, he treats concerning the effects of oxygen and caloric on the animal body; of the insensible perspiration; of the constitution of acids; of the operation of poisons; of electricity; of the effects of cold; of the physical cause of menstruation; of sleep; of cathartics; of emetics; of the influence of comets and volcanos upon the atmosphere; and of light: to which is added, a letter, of nearly thirty pages, from Mr. Blanchet to one of his friends in Quebec, on the yellow fever. In a preliminary discourse are contained some observations on systems of medicine, and on chemical nomenclature.

But to descend a little into detail.—Mr. B. dwells very particularly on the effects of caloric and oxygen, the two agents which, in his opinion, produce most remarkable effects on

the living body, tending, by different modes of operation, both to promote its decay and to keep it alive. For the information of our readers we have translated the passages:

“ We conclude this section (p. 17) by affirming that our old age, and the death which terminates it, are occasioned by oxygen and caloric operating on us during a series of years; and, when this admirable fabric of our bodies crumbles down, from the unceasing effect of these two powerful principles, we return to the source whence our existence was derived. In vain should we strive to withdraw ourselves from the law which demands of us this tribute.”

“ We conclude this chapter (p. 27) by giving it as our opinion, that, though vital air tends to destroy the animal constitution incessantly, and without remorse, yet life is the effect of the operation of this air jointly with caloric, in an organized body; and although, in man and other animals, the brain is the part in which all the senses are concentrated, by means of the nerves, which seem to possess an energy of their own, still we believe they derive their influence from the common causes, vital air and caloric, as all the other organs of the body do. It is idle to suppose the nerves contain a peculiar fluid, which fills them, and gives them motion. It might be said the muscular fibres were quite as much in need of a fluid to enable them to act, contract, dilate and move.”

“ Every thing concurs to prove,” says Mr. B. (p. 15), “ that oxygen, aided by caloric, combines with the human body, and tends to destroy it every moment while it lasts.”—And then again, in p. 25, he expresses himself thus: “ To form the universe, Des Cartes asked for nothing more than matter and motion. To give life, I merely want an organized machine, oxygen and caloric.”

All these effects, he thinks, are brought about by the chemical combination of these two substances, into oxyds and acids, with the different bases which the animal constitution contains; forming sweat, urine, sperm, and other secreted fluids. The accumulation of caloric and oxygen in the system, in consequence of obstructed excretions, gives rise to both general and local inflammation.

Pursuant to these ideas, Mr. B. in his chapter on acids, contends that they are composed not merely of radicals united to oxygen, but contain a very large quantity of fixed caloric. This, our readers will recollect, is contrary to the common doctrine; oxygenous gas losing its caloric on combining with an acidifiable basis into an acid. Acids, he thinks, are active,

because they possess caloric and oxygen, and are violent in proportion to the quantity they contain, and the ease with which the two elements break loose or are separated. To illustrate the author's meaning, we shall take one of his own examples. Though Mr. B. expresses his perfect conviction that septic acid, or its gas, according to MITCHILL's doctrine, is the exciting cause of pestilential distempers (p. 75), yet he considers the azotic basis of this acid as having very little to do in the business. It is not so much the *tertium quid*, formed by septon and the principle of acidity, which causes the mischief, as the caloric and oxygen, extricated suddenly and copiously from that wonderful acid, on its decomposition in the animal constitution: and all other acids he considers active for a like reason. Notwithstanding the ingenuity of Mr. B. we still are of opinion, that *all* the ingredients of an acid, its *radical* as well as its caloric and oxygen, conspire to make it what it is, and are of great moment in its constitution.

This discussion leads Mr. B. to give a theory of poisons (p. 79); and from a review of the effects of cantharides, the venom of the viper and other serpents, opium, stramonium, cicuta, digitalis, arsenic, lime and strong liquors, he concludes that they owe their activity to the liberation of much imprisoned fire, condensed within them. He judges in the same manner of the virus of the rabid dog, of syphilis, and of the small-pox. We shall not deny that all these things may be so; but we own our conviction would have been stronger, if, in the sprightly and rapid career of the author, he could have stopped to state more pointedly his proofs.

Mr. B. ascribes death by lightning to an immediate evolution of caloric in the constitution, forming instantaneously, among other new compounds, *in articulo mortis*, a *portion of septic acid* (p. 116).—In p. 151 & seq. he comments upon the opinions of BROWN, DARWIN, and several other respectable writers; and here, as in the other parts of his work, he exercises his critical powers with boldness and freedom. The seventh chapter contains his sentiments on the menstrual flux, which, he says, “is undoubtedly caused by a superabundance of caloric and oxygen accumulated in the blood, and exerting their influence particularly on the womb.” (P. 156).

But in a work which treats of such a variety of important matter as the one before us, it is difficult, in a review, to do justice to *all* its parts. In the display we have given, our readers will have perceived numerous indications of a mind

vigorous and glowing, disengaging itself from the influence and authority of others, and resolutely determining to think for itself. It is the happiness of civilized America, that its inhabitants are less trammelled by ancient usage and prejudice than the people of any other part of the globe. Mr. B. has exercised the privilege of an American, and speculated on the *medicina chemica* in a manner which, in many respects, we think peculiar to himself. We hope the French language, in which he has written his book, will be no objection to its being read in the United States. In Canada, the author's native province, we suppose it will have an extensive circulation; and, wherever it is perused, give a specimen of the learning, taste and talents of the author. From his industry and ability, we preface a large share of useful exertion in the future part of his life.

ART. IV. *A Prospect of exterminating the Small-Pox: being the History of the Variolæ Vaccinæ, or Kine-Pox, commonly called the Cow-Pox, as it has appeared in England; with an Account of a Series of Inoculations performed for the Kine-Pox in Massachusetts.* By Benjamin Waterhouse, M. D. Fellow of the American Philosophical Society, Academy of Arts and Sciences, &c. &c. Cambridge. Hilliard. 8vo. pp. 40. 1800.

OUR readers will recollect, that in the second volume of the Medical Repository, p. 255, we gave them such an account of the causes and effects of the variolæ vaccinæ as we had received in that part of the year 1798. In our vol. iii. p. 70, we gave a further account of the proceedings with this singular poison in Great-Britain. In the same volume, p. 310, it was announced, that Dr. Miller had received some of the virus, very obligingly forwarded to him by Dr. George Pearson, of London. A summary of the experience by inoculating with it in Europe, was given in p. 315. And in our present volume, p. 88, we inserted further information on the advantages to be derived from the substitution of this new contagious disease in the place of the small-pox.

Since the spreading of the small-pox over the earth, by the increased intercourse among mankind, its violence has been severely felt by most civilized nations, and frequently by the

uncivilized people who have traded with them. Dreadful were its ravages in Europe, before the Asiatic method of lessening its fury by inoculation was introduced. And even since that time, and the adoption of this artificial and safe method of infecting the constitution with the venom, its benefits have been but partially experienced: for, in some communities, the introduction of it, even in the inoculated form, has been prohibited by laws; and, in others, where no such prohibition exists, the expense and trouble of undergoing the disease have debarred many from submitting to its operation.

It has seemed politic and proper to the governments of those parts of federated America, called the New-England States, to prevent, by various legislative provisions, the introduction and spread of this formidable distemper among their citizens, in the natural way, and, in some, by inoculation. Of these regulations, a good and instructive account has heretofore been drawn up by the learned author of the piece now before us. We know not of any similar laws in any other part of the United States. In consequence of such statutes, it has many years been customary for persons in New-England, who wished to have the small-pox, to come to New-York for the purpose of being inoculated, and, after their recovery, to return home. There was an inconvenience in this, but this was thought a trifle compared with the evil of its indiscriminate introduction. In sea-port towns, possessing a large share of foreign commerce, it has been found impossible to exclude this malady altogether. In spite of all possible precautions, the contagion would, at certain times, be secretly introduced. To relieve themselves, in some degree, from the perpetual anxiety of having the small-pox spread among them in the *natural* way, the inhabitants of the town of Boston, a few years ago, underwent a general inoculation, by common consent.

Notwithstanding the mitigation of the symptoms excited by the variolous poison, when introduced by art into a body duly prepared for its reception, benevolent men, in different countries, have formed projects for a total extinguishment of the casual kind. Some of these philanthropists had, in the warmth of their zeal, persuaded themselves that such a plan might be carried into effect, and shown how the multiplication of this terrible poison might be stopped. But while these friends of mankind, in various parts, were maturing their schemes, and labouring to bring them into practice, a discovery was made by an English physician, which is likely to supercede them all. This consists in the facts ascertained by Jenner, that a new

species of virus, called "vaccine matter," does, by insertion in a bleeding wound, so affect the human constitution as to render it uninfected of the action of "variolous matter;" and that, in working this desirable change, it scarcely puts either beauty or life in jeopardy. It does not spread from person to person through the medium of common air.

To a people so circumstanced as our fellow-citizens in New-England are, it would seem that such a discovery would be deemed peculiarly important. They will thereby be enabled to fortify their constitutions against the small-pox, by submitting to inoculation for a distemper by far more lenient, and which appears to be contagious *by contact alone*, and not by dispersion through the atmosphere. Information, however, must be gained of the discovery, history, progress and effects of this extraordinary contagion, before men will consent to be infected by it. To give the public such information, is an object of Dr. W. in the present piece.

We need not inform our readers that the author is the Professor of the Practice of Physic in one of the most respectable of the American universities. A publication of this kind comes with peculiar force from such a character; and, we doubt not, will attract a good deal of notice. Professor W.'s pamphlet is divided into three chapters; to which are added an appendix and a postscript. The first is chiefly employed in relating, that after receiving, in 1799, Jenner's, Pearson's and Woodville's publications on the cow-pox, he made known somewhat of their contents to the inhabitants of Boston, through the newspapers, in the months of March and November of that year, and mentioned the subject at a meeting of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, in one of the rooms of the university. In his second chapter, Dr. W. relates how, after several disappointments, he at length procured some of the vaccine matter from England, and, with it, inoculated all the younger part of his own family, and several other persons. The virus produced a disease similar to that described by the English physicians. He informs, in the third chapter, that some members of his family, who had suffered the vaccine malady, were afterwards inoculated at the small-pox hospital, in the neighbourhood of Boston, by Dr. Aspinwall, and that his son, who had been the subject of the first experiment, was found to be proof against the small-pox poison. The other five were under trial at the time of publication. We have since understood neither of them sickened with the variolous contagion. He concludes by stating various

good and solid reasons in favour of the vaccine inoculation, and in explanation and removal of objections brought against it.

We had read the contents of the *appendix*, before we saw it here, in the newspapers; and in the *postscript* we observe a valuable practical caution to the people, "left they conceive too lightly" of this disease, which, "mild and safe as it is, requires more of the physician than merely putting the matter into the arm."

It seems, at first glimpse, a little odd, to congratulate the inhabitants of the western hemisphere on the introduction of a new disease among them; yet when a mild disorder is substituted for one so wide-spreading and ferocious as the small-pox, it must be owned there are few things of a medical nature which afford a better subject for rejoicing. It must be borne in mind, that the disease introduced is to expel one already among us; and in this desirable work Professor W. is entitled to the merit of having exerted himself among the foremost.

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ART. V. *Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, &c. Vol. iv. &c.*

[Continued from page 68.]

*Experiments on Evaporation, by C. Wistar, M. D. &c.*

THE object of this paper is to prove that evaporation may be produced, without regarding the degree of absolute temperature, by merely creating a degree of temperature relatively lower than that of the evaporating substance, in the surrounding medium; or, in other words, that a slow distillation may be performed, with the common apparatus, by applying cold to the receiver or refrigeratory, without increasing the heat of the retort or substance to be distilled, as there will be a continual passage of heat from the body, to be evaporated or distilled, into the air of the receiver.

With these views, Dr. Wistar poured an ounce and a half of vitriolic (sulphuric) æther into a retort, and luted it to a receiver with a long neck, which was placed in a mixture of salt and snow, while the retort was surrounded by air of the temperature of 50° of Fahrenheit. The frigorific mixture, from the impurity of the salt, was seldom below 10°; so

that the difference between the æther in the retort, and the air in the receiver, did not exceed  $40^{\circ}$ . When the apparatus had been thirty hours in this situation, the frigorific mixture was removed, and one third of the æther was found distilled into the receiver. In order to be certain that the application of cold to the receiver really produced the distillation, Dr. Wistar prepared a similar distilling apparatus, in the same manner precisely, and placed the retort in contact with that of the other apparatus, while the receiver, instead of being chilled by the cold mixture, stood in air of the same temperature with the retorts, viz.  $50^{\circ}$ ; but no distillation took place during thirty hours. To vary the experiment, some camphor was placed in another apparatus prepared as above, and the receiver was fixed in the frigorific mixture, while the retort stood in air of the temperature of  $50^{\circ}$ ; at the expiration of thirty hours some of the camphor was found sublimed, and the sublimate had those arborefcient appearances which usually attend when produced by heat.

These experiments are ingeniously devised, and seem to have been conducted with wariness and accuracy. The result is not only interesting in a scientific point of view, but appears to open the way to practical improvements, and particularly to economy of fuel and time in managing the business of distillation.

Might not the use of iced water, or a stream of cold spring-water, running through the refrigeratory, upon this principle, facilitate the process of distillation? When this business is conducted during the winter of our climate, ice may be obtained without much trouble or expense; and, in many situations, a stream of cold spring-water, fully adequate to this purpose, is always at hand.

*A Memoir concerning the Fascinating Quality which has been ascribed to the Rattle-Snake, and other American Serpents, by Benjamin Smith Barton, M. D.*

For an account of this Memoir, see our volume i. p. 79, first edition.

*Some Account of an American Species of Dipus or Jerboa, by Benjamin Smith Barton, M. D.*

This is a brief and impressive description of one of the native quadrupeds of North-America. It is accompanied by a good plate. The lovers of zoology cannot fail to be gratified



as well by the description itself as by several general observations concerning that department of natural history, which are interspersed with the account of this animal.

*An Inquiry into the Causes of the Insalubrity of flat and marshy Situations; and Directions for preventing or correcting the Effects thereof, by William Currie.*

In this inquiry Dr. Currie attempts to deliver some account of the composition of the soil of marshes, which, besides different earthy matters, he states to consist of animal and vegetable substances broken down by putrefaction, of carbon and nitre, and that this mass, by distillation, affords oil, hydrogen and azote.

Finding that carbonic acid gas, hydrogen gas, and ammoniacal gas, are exhaled from the soil of marshes, Dr. C. inquires whether any of these gases, in a separate or combined state, can be supposed to constitute the miasmata said to issue from such low grounds. If carbonic acid gas, diluted with atmospheric air so as to become respirable, were to produce morbid effects, he thinks such effects would be more likely to appear in the form of paralytic or comatose diseases than in that of intermittent or remittent fevers. He rejects the opinion of the febrile influence of hydrogen gas itself, or of any combination of carbon and hydrogen in the form of gas; and forms, likewise, a similar conclusion concerning ammoniacal gas.

Having thus decided upon the morbid qualities of the above-mentioned gases, Dr. C. proceeds to deliver his own opinion concerning the cause of the insalubrity of flat and marshy situations as follows:

“ From the facts and observations which have now been stated, I think it may be fairly concluded, that the cause of the unwholesomeness of low and moist situations, in the summer and autumnal months, is not owing to any invisible miasmata or noxious effluvia, which issue from the soil and lurk in the air, but to a very different cause, viz. to a deficiency of the oxygenous portion of the atmosphere in such situations, in consequence of vegetable and animal putrefaction, in conjunction with the exhausting and debilitating heat of the days, and the sedative power of the cold and damp air of the nights.

“ For want of the refreshing and salutary stimulus of pure air, all the functions of the body are performed imperfectly and languidly. The nervous system in particular becomes preternaturally susceptible of impressions from every change

that occurs in the temperature of the surrounding atmosphere. The application of or exposure to a damper and colder state of the air than usual, renders the vessels on the surface of the body powerless and atonic, the brain and heart sympathize with the extreme nerves and vessels, the power of every function of the body declines, till the heart, roused by accumulating blood, re-acts with increasing velocity, and is relieved of the unusual burthen.

“ That the causes which I have now assigned are the true ones, is rendered next to certain from the frequent occurrence of those diseases (which have heretofore been supposed to depend upon the operation of specific miasmata), in situations remote from marshy ground, particularly in large and populous cities, where sedentary occupations, and want of exercise, render the inhabitants delicate and infirm. I have seen numerous instances of this kind, even in the winter season, when no effluvia from marshes could possibly exist, especially among those who had been previously debilitated by other disorders. Nor is it uncommon for persons who have recovered from intermittents in the autumn, to have frequent recurrences of the same disease in the winter, merely from sitting in a damp room, or other exposure to cold.”

The hypothesis which ascribes the prevalence of intermittent and remittent fevers, in marshy situations, chiefly to a deficiency of oxygen, is now so generally abandoned, that it may be deemed superfluous to undertake its refutation. With all the fallacy of eudiometrical experiments, made in the most careful manner, it appears that such trials of the air of marshes as have been most accurately performed with that instrument, are far from warranting such a conclusion. But even admitting that the air of marshes is deficient in oxygen, why should we apprehend more mischief from the abstraction of oxygen, by means of putrefaction on that kind of soil, than by means of combustion, fermentation, or the respiration of animals? If merely the sudden consumption of pure air be the object of dread, there is as much reason to avoid a brewery, a furnace or a glass-house, a crowded church or theatre, as a marsh or a swamp. The attack of intermittent or remittent fever, so often taking place in consequence of only a short immersion in noxious air, and the frequent postponement of the attack till one or two weeks after such immersion, while, in the mean time, the healthiest air had been breathed, are likewise unanswerable objections to Dr. C.'s hypothesis.

*(To be continued.)*

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## Medical and Philosophical News.

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### DOMESTIC.

#### PROGRESS OF PNEUMATIC MEDICINE.

**I**N our vol. i. p. 122, first edition, we announced the design of an establishment to cultivate pneumatic philosophy experimentally, and to discover its relations to medicine. In vol. iii. p. 305, of our Repository, we mentioned Mr. Watt's account of the breathing of dephlogisticated nitrous air; and, in p. 423 of the same volume, we inserted an abstract of the remarkable experiments made on that aëriform substance.

In addition to these, the philosophical world has now before it an octavo volume of nearly six hundred pages, published by the superintendant of the Medical Pneumatic Institution. This is Mr. Humphry Davy, a man of much originality and philosophical acumen, and possessed of as much, or more, intrepidity in scientific inquiries than Rosier himself. The title of the work is, "*Researches, Chemical and Philosophical, chiefly concerning Nitrous Oxyd, or Dephlogisticated Nitrous Air.*" It is replete with novel and interesting matter, which is not of a general or desultory kind, but is engaged in the details of experiments, and the minutiae of calculation.

To this investigation, Mr. Davy informs his readers, he was led by *Dr. Mitchill's attempt to explain the phenomena of contagion*; in which the Doctor originally conjectured, that some of the symptoms of endemic distempers were induced by this modification of azote exhaling from corrupting substances, and infecting the atmosphere. To this belief Dr. Mitchill had been led by the experiments of Dr. Priestley and Messrs. Troostwyck and Deimann, on the fatal effects of that species of air, when breathed by animals; and, connecting them with some appearances during the prevalence of the yellow fever in New-York in 1795, threw the whole, in the form of a little essay, before the learned world, for consideration, and for promoting inquiry. And if this early speculation on the subject had been followed by no other conse-

quence than such a train of investigation as Mr. Davy has made, Dr. Mitchill might feel highly gratified that he published it, and that Dr. Beddoes caused it to be reprinted in his Collection of Observations on the operation of factitious airs.

The essay which thus turned Mr. Davy's attention to these elegant and instructive experiments on dephlogisticated nitrous air, was, however, so little thought of by Dr. Mitchill himself, that though it has been much in request since the few copies originally printed were expended, he never consented to give a second edition of it.

This indifference to a republication arose from a conviction that the ground he had first taken was by far too narrow, and that the subject was of vastly greater extent than he had originally supposed. He became convinced that oxyd of azote was neither copious nor active enough to produce all the effects he witnessed in seasons of pestilence; but grew more and more suspicious, that a more highly oxygenated form of that ingredient in animal and vegetable matter called *azote*, might be the occasional agent in exciting many forms of febrile distempers.

Finding, about that time (1796), that the *nitrous acid*, and not merely *water*, was procured by Dr. Priestley (an authority high in all chemical investigations), by incorporating oxygenous and hydrogenous airs, he began to doubt whether there was any solid reliance to be placed upon the experiments pretending to explain the composition of water and of nitrous acid; and, in a letter to one of his correspondents, soon after, expressed this sentiment: "If, by adopting the French nomenclature, and by building upon facts which *have been said* to be firmly established, I have been led into any mistakes, either of language or science, they will, I trust, be found to interfere with some part of my *particular reasoning* only, but not to militate at all against my *general conclusion*." (See Med. Rep. vol. i. p. 266, first edition). Dr. Priestley adheres to the correctness of this experiment to this day, in his late tract on the refutation of the composition of water.

Considering it by no means certain what the precise chemical constitution of *nitrous acid* was, he left that point to be settled by the experimenters, who, notwithstanding all their skill in ascertaining by the balance the fractional parts of a grain in the gases they mingle, are still at variance with each other. Some of them, men of great consideration and experience, even believe *azote* itself to be a compound. To avoid all this controversy, and in conformity to what he had observed of a connection

between putrid effluvia and endemic distempers, in American summers and autumns, he altered the nomenclature, and adopted a set of terms to express his own ideas, leaving the former phraseology to the disputants, who appeared to him likely to continue disputing as long as they adhered to their ill-chosen manner of expression. And all that he intended to express, in this cast of language, was, that during the corruption of the *lean* and some other parts of animal and other organized matter, an acid was sometimes formed and extricated, which was often injurious to the health, and destructive of the life of human beings. This acid he called *septic*, because produced by putrefaction; and not *nitrous*, as it had never been, as yet, a constituent part of *nitre*. The influence of this acid in its *original form*, and *before* its connection with other acidifiable bases, or with alkalies, he was convinced, is a very powerful, frequent and extensive agent in nature. But if from this it is interpreted that Dr. Mitchill ever meant, or now means, the *artificial* products of the laboratories, called nitrous and nitric acids, nitrous gas, &c. they quite misunderstand him. He knew, from the beginning of his investigation, the qualities of these fluids, the greater part of which can only exist in *close vessels*, too well to suppose they were the modifications of azote which could possibly produce any lasting effects in *the open atmosphere*. Things known but in the laboratories, have but a small operation out of doors. And it is not a little curious to read Mr. Davy's avowal (though there was no need of making it) concerning the substance which is the principal subject of his book, that "there are no reasons for supposing nitrous oxyd is formed in any of the processes of nature." (P. 231).

Mr. Davy observes (p. 145, note), that *carbonic acid* and *ammoniac* are both products of animalization (he might have added *vegetalization* too); why could he not have said that *septic acid* was also? This septic acid, as understood by Dr. Mitchill, produces its deleterious effects quickly after its production, and *before* combination with pot-ash. Mr. Davy's experiments are made upon the *altered* acid and its modifications, *after* its separation from that alkali, when its native virulence is very much diminished. The almost endless modifications and mitigations of septic acid by nearly every thing that it comes in contact with, were, in 1797, pointed out by Dr. Mitchill, in his paper on manures. Mr. Davy's excellent and admirable book bears witness, throughout, of the diminution of its virulence after frequent mixtures and decompositions.

Mr. Davy has attempted to prove, that one hundred grains of nitrous oxyd consist of about 63 parts nitrogen (as he calls it), and 37 oxygen, existing, *perhaps*, in the most intimate union which those substances are capable of assuming; that nitrous gas is composed of about 44 nitrogen and 56 oxygen; that nitric acid (p. 329) consists of about 1 nitrogen and 2. 3 oxygen (is this in the ratio of 33 nitrogen and 67 oxygen to the 100, or what is it?) that nitrous acid is a mixture of 68. 06 nitrous gas, combined with 31. 94 oxygen, or of nearly 30 nitrogen and 70 oxygen (p. 19); and that atmospherical air, which is the least intimate of the combinations, is made up of 73 nitrogen and 27 oxygen.—In our present vol. p. 83, we stated the result of Berthollet's late experiments, that the atmosphere contained but 22 parts of oxygen in the 100: in our vol. iii. p. 382, we gave an account of Priestley's later experiments, that nitrous acid was made by synthesis, without a particle of nitrogen: in the same volume, p. 213, we inserted Professor Woodhouse's experiments, to show that nitrous gas can never be obtained of one and the same degree of strength: in Mr. Lee's experiments, *ibid.* p. 29, the difference between nitrous gas and a mere mixture of nitrogen gas and vital air are pointed out: and we now observe, that from the discordant relations of the best chemists there must be great uncertainty and much guess-work in these matters, notwithstanding the fair and specious show of decimals, which sum up so nicely.\* The whole mystery is very far from being unfolded yet. It seems, indeed, to rest about where it was. None of the uncertainty is removed by Mr. Davy's experiments.

Mr. Davy has made many experiments upon nitrous oxyd, and discovered a great number of new facts. He procures it

\* Mr. Davy is very free in pointing out the fallacies and mistakes of Humboldt, Vauquelin, the Dutch chemists, &c. they, in their turn, might possibly think there were some mistakes in the *Researches*, &c. not corrected in the column of errata. For example: In p. 19 it is asserted that 100 grains of *nitrous acid*, and this Mr. Davy's standard acid too, consist of 29. 9 parts nitrogen and 70. 1 oxygen; and in his *table of approximations*, p. 565, he states that *nitric acid* is composed of 29. 50 nitrogen and 70. 50 oxygen in the 100—A very trifling difference indeed, amounting to but a few decimal parts of an unit;—too trifling a difference, some have thought, to be true; especially since, in p. 329, he tells his readers, quite as gravely, that *nitric acid* is composed of about 1 nitrogen and 2. 3 oxygen; a ratio differing four or five WHOLE NUMBERS from what he states in the other place; that is, *nitric acid* differs from itself more, by several integral parts of an hundred, than it does from *nitrous acid*. But printers will commit blunders. The alteration of a few cyphers will remove this seeming contradiction in the second edition.

for common use from nitrate of ammoniac, slowly decomposed by the heat of a spirit lamp. Among other qualities, it readily unites with water, with alcohol, ether, and essential oils, and even with alkalies, into a *new* class of mixed salts. The researches are four in number, and the most valuable matter is contained in the *third* and *fourth*. They treat of its effects upon breathing animals, quadrupeds, birds, amphibia, fishes, insects, and upon human beings. These could generally live in it longer than when immersed in water or inflammable air; whence it appeared to act directly upon the constitution, imparting, for a time, somewhat capable of preventing the *immediate* extinction of life. But they died infinitely sooner than in common air or oxygenous gas. He shows that nitrous oxyd is absorbed and combined with venous blood in the lungs; and that, in common respiration, a considerable portion of nitrogen (contrary to the experiments of others) enters into the circulating system too. By breathing *nitrous oxyd*, after having made two inspirations and a complete expiration of hydrogen, Mr. Davy put his own life in jeopardy. He ran a greater risk in making three inspirations and expirations of *hydrocarbonate*; and, in an attempt to respire *nitrous gas*, would undoubtedly have been killed, had not the epiglottis spasmodically closed by its stimulus, and excluded it. On admitting common air into his mouth, after this bold trial, æriform nitrous acid was instantly formed, which burned his tongue and palate, injured his teeth, and produced an inflammation of the mucous membrane.

We gave some account of the effects produced by nitrous oxyd in our vol. iii. p. 423, to which we refer our readers, as they are an anticipation, in part, of the cases reported by Mr. Davy in the work before us. In its pure form it frequently produced increase of muscular strength, pleasurable feelings, high, exquisite, sublime and indescribable emotions; mounting from delicious tremors of the nerves, through all the gradations of thrilling sensation, up to ungovernable gestures, ecstacy and transe. In its pure form, so violent are its effects, that "the most robust are unable to respire it with safety for more than five minutes" (p. 553). Some were much incommoded by two or three inspirations (p. 498, 531). Involuntary laughter, vertigo, intoxication, fainting, tremors, delirium, suspension of the senses of seeing, hearing, feeling, and, ultimately, the power of volition itself (p. 504), are among the symptoms sometimes induced by the reception of it into the lungs. Dizziness, fulness of the head, luminous flashes in the

eyes, incapacity to speak, torpor and drowsiness, increase of irritability, dimness of sight, hysterical and nervous affections, privation of voluntary motion, renewal of old pains, sleepiness and light-headedness, were also induced, on some occasions, by this singular agent. *Three or four* respirations frequently produced some of these extravagant and distempered emotions.

Making all the deductions which a calm mind may think requisite from the highly coloured and glowing account given of these proceedings, they are still very curious in themselves, and present some grand and instructive analogies. Candid seekers after truth will rejoice in tracing a few of them.—The *dark purple colour* (Researches, p. 347 & seq.) of the venous blood of animals destroyed by Mr. Davy's gaseous oxyd of septon (nitrous oxyd), agree very well with the dark purplish complexion of blood drawn from the veins of persons under the influence of the poison from putrefying beef, fish, &c. forming the yellow fever described by Dr. Rand (Med. Rep. vol. ii. p. 473, first edition). The *extravasated blood, brown, red, and purple and dark spots* of the lungs mentioned by Mr. Davy, induced by the same agent, have a near resemblance to the condition of those organs in Drs. Warren and Rand's dissections of human bodies destroyed by the locally-produced pestilential exhalations in Boston (ibid. p. 251). The *dark colour of the muscular fibres* observed by Mr. Davy, with his gaseous oxyd, and *their diminished irritability*, correspond with several dissections, witnessed by Dr. Pascalis, of persons killed by exposure to septic gases, and with his observations on their effects during the rage of yellow fever in Philadelphia (ibid. p. 347, 348). The like seems to obtain as to the hue of the *brain*. And the agreeable sensations experienced by those who breathed this species of air, bring to mind the "unusual vivacity," which seemed, as Dr. Rush observed in 1793, to have been produced "by a less quantity of the contagion acting as a cordial upon the system;" and which that admirable writer records among the premonitory signs of yellow fever (Account of Yellow Fever, p. 36). This amounted, in some, to *preternatural excitement* and morbid strength. In some, death seemed to insinuate itself into the system with all the gentleness of natural sleep, and some expired with smiles on their countenances (ibid. p. 78).—Others have observed extraordinary exhilaration from the effects of pestilential poison.

It is matter of importance to find this powerful species of air, which so readily disturbs the functions and destroys the



lives of animals, like several other noxious gases of the same family, is capable of attraction by alkalies. Mr. Davy has enlarged our knowledge of the action of these bodies, by proving THAT NITROUS OXYD CAN BE COERCED BY POT-ASH AND SODA, AND, HE IS INCLINED TO THINK, BY AMMONIAC AND LIME (p. 262 & seq.). He proposes to call such a combination "nitroxis" of pot-ash, soda, &c.

The managers of the Pneumatic Institution are of opinion, that the excitement produced by nitrous oxyd is not followed by collapse or indirect debility; that its high stimulation has no weakness consequent upon it. This, we must own, is passing strange, when, on the face of their own narrative, it appears to be so violent a stimulus, and singularly to disorder the animal machine. Experiments are making on its medicinal powers. Considerable advantages are said to have been already derived, and much more benefit is anticipated. Their American brethren heartily with the enterprising and indefatigable gentlemen success in their labours. Such zealous and amicable co-operation between the votaries of science on both sides of the Atlantic promises abundance of good.

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POT-ASH FORMED DURING THE INCINERATION OF  
WOOD, FROM ITS ELEMENTS.

If the fixed vegetable alkali is an elementary material, it might be expected to show itself after the decomposition of plants by *putrefaction* as well as by *incineration*. Yet the American forests, where immense quantities of timber are rotting down, afford no evidence of this. On the contrary, the trunks of the largest trees, as they undergo gradual decay upon the ground, give no sign of pot-ash. Frequently, in the progress of decomposition, the annual circles are so detached from each other as to be easily peeled off, and the cohesion of the wood so much lessened, that the blade of a knife or of a sword can be thrust in toward the medullary part their whole length. Now, there is no saline efflorescence on this rotten timber in dry weather: nor is there any alkaline taste; nor any pot-ash to be obtained by macerating it in water: nor are vegetable blues or purples in the least rendered green by dipping in such water. Indeed, the manufacturers of the article, which is one of the great subjects of export from New-York, know, that in clearing the wilderness, *the trees, in order to afford pot-ash, must be burned; if they are suffered to rot, no alkali can be procured.* On the contrary, the rotten wood contains

an acid.—Did pot-ash pre-exist in the wood, why should it not be evolved by putrefaction? These considerations, and the analogy of ammoniac, lead to a persuasion, that this alkali and soda are compounds. Whether, as some have asserted, carbon and azote are the ingredients, or whether there are other constituent parts, are points not as yet settled.—From their compound nature, a consideration results worthy the attention of experimental chemists, in respect to their union with acids, and the constitution of neutral salts. The acid of putrefaction furnishes an example. This pernicious offspring of corruption very readily associates with most natural bodies, except silicious earth, or is decomposed by them; becoming, oftentimes, a complicated and strange production. Most of these endless modifications of the septic acid combine, more or less forcibly, with pot-ash. And it is well known, the acid procured by distilling and decomposing salt-petre possesses a number of qualities which it is not known to possess *before* its connection with pot-ash in the form of nitre. There is reason to believe, therefore, that this alkali itself undergoes some decomposition, and proportionally modifies or affects the *septic* acid, so as, on its disengagement, to exhibit itself in that modified and disguised appearance called the *nitrous*. Both manufacturers and consumers of pot-ash know how exceedingly it varies in quality. And our inspectors themselves, in New-York, acknowledge and lament the want of a just standard to determine its strength. They frequently find a difference in alkalescency, pungency and external appearance, which they know not how to explain; but the best explanation of which is, that the different samples or parcels vary in the proportions and combinations of their constituent elements.

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#### ANTISEPTIC POWER OF CALCAREOUS EARTH.

Naturalists have often remarked, that the bones of animals were preserved, in a tolerably entire condition, in the calcareous rock of Gibraltar. America furnishes two facts that are no less remarkable. The bones of the *Megalonyx*, or Great Claw, described by Mr. Jefferson, were found in one of the *lime-stone caverns* in Tennessee, covered with the septicite of lime, the acid of which was probably derived from its body, in part, as it putrefied, and other calcareous matter. And the other enormous bones of the *Megatherium*, of which Mr. S. Miller has given an account, exist, in great numbers, in Ulster county, within one hundred miles of the city of New-York, bedded in marle, and found when that calcareous

material is dug out for the purpose of manuring land. It is remarkable of these bones, that, after being removed from their calcareous graves, they soon begin to crumble by exposure to the atmosphere. The teeth particularly, which are whole and sound when taken out of the marl, soon turn black, crack, lose their enamel, and crumble slowly to pieces. Without such a preservative, it is presumable these animal remains would have been *decomposed ages ago*.

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#### HYDROGEN AN INGREDIENT IN NITROUS OXYD.

Nitrous oxyd can be obtained from nitrate of ammoniac. During its decomposition by moderate heat in a retort, that salt is almost resolved into a liquid and an æriform fluid. The gas is the nitrous oxyd, which is reported to consist of 37 parts oxygen and 63 nitrogen in the 100. It is formed by a decomposition, as is thought, both of the nitric acid and of the ammoniac; part of the oxygen of the nitric acid joining with the hydrogen of the ammoniac to form water, and the nitrogen of the ammoniac uniting with the residue of the nitric acid to make nitrous oxyd (Researches, p. 104). But this theory is evidently not correct: for Dr. Priestley's experiments show that phlogiston, or the base of inflammable air (Med. Rep. vol. iv. p. 103), is a constituent part of phlogisticated or azotic air. This conclusion seems to be countenanced by the appearances, related by Mr. Davy, on burning a candle in nitrous oxyd. "It burnt with a brilliant and crackling noise; and, before its extinction, *the whole inner flame became surrounded with an exterior blue one.*" This latter was evidently a portion of *hydrogen* extracted from the nitrous oxyd, and undergoing a new combination. And to the presence of this ingredient does the nitrous oxyd probably owe its maddening and intoxicating quality, as wine and alcohol do. It is even likely a portion of the *hydrogen of the ammoniac* unites with the nitrous oxyd.

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#### ABSTRACT OF DR. CURRIE'S WORK ON WATER AS A REMEDY.

A neat and judicious abridgement of the publication of Dr. James Currie, of Liverpool, on the medicinal use of water of different temperatures, has been made by Mr. Benjamin Vaughan, of Hallowell, in the Province of Maine. A sensible exhibition of the leading points of doctrine and

practical direction, in works like this, in a cheap and popular manner, is a very desirable object in a country where the original is rare and hard to be procured.

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EXPERIMENTS TENDING TO SHOW THAT AZOTE IS A  
COMPOUND OF HYDROGEN AND OXYGEN.

A memoir on the composition of azote has been published in the French Annals of Chemistry. The author is Dr. Girtanner. He is of opinion that azote is not an element, as has been generally understood since the publication of the table of the nomenclature, but a compound; and that it consists of the same ingredients that water does, varying only in their proportions; thus—water consisting of 85.66 oxygen and 14.34 hydrogen, and azote 79 oxygen and 21 hydrogen.

The proofs on which this idea is founded are stated in the London Monthly Magazine, vol. ix. p. 585, as follows: 1. It was observed by Mr. Van Hauch, that if a porcelain tube was heated red-hot, and steam passed through it, the aqueous vapour undergoes no alteration; but that if it be filled with tin filings previous to passing the steam through, the tin becomes oxydated, and oxygen and azote pass into the receiver. The same effects take place if lead be made use of instead of zinc. 2. Mr. Van Hauch filled a porcelain tube with black oxyd of manganese, and heated it strongly till no more oxygen came over: he then passed steam through it, and obtained, at first, pretty pure oxygen, and afterwards azotic gas. 3. Dr. Pearson, in the decomposition of water by the electric spark, always obtained azote, as well as oxygen and hydrogen. 4. Dr. Pearson, in recomposing water by the combustion of oxygen and hydrogen, by means of the electric spark, obtained water and azote. 5. In the combustion of oxygen and hydrogen, when this last is in excess, nitric acid is obtained.

Girtanner's own experiments are suppressed, with a remark of the editor, that he is not much worthy of credit. We believe the subject to be exceedingly important in science, and are sorry Girtanner's experiments have not reached us. But we are happy to add, however light they may be deemed, the philosophical world will find sterling weight in the following ones of Dr. Priestley.

1. He is convinced, from many experiments, that azote is not a simple substance, but a compound of the bases of inflammable and dephlogisticated airs, and capable even, in some

cases, of being generated from inflammable air alone (Doctrine of Phlogiston established, sect. 11).

2. From many more experiments, he is convinced that the *whole* of any given quantity of water is converted, by frequent freezings, to *phlogisticated air* (Med. Rep. vol. iv. p. 17 & seq.)

3. Various other experiments made by him, and published in 1793, tend to prove that water, when turned to *vapour*, is always in *part* converted into phlogisticated air; and, by continuing the process, *the whole* is susceptible of a similar change.

4. When dephlogisticated and inflammable airs are confined in a suitable vessel, and the electrical spark passed through them, a highly phlogisticated nitrous acid is instantly produced; and the purer the airs are, the stronger is the acid found to be. When phlogisticated air is present, it remains unchanged, unless there is a considerable deficiency of inflammable air; in which case it unites with the phlogisticated air, and forms the same acid: whence it is inferred, inflammable and phlogisticated airs have a great similarity of constitution. If there is a redundancy of inflammable air no acid is formed.

5. Where water is formed by combining the two airs, a quantity of phlogisticated air is always produced as a matter of surplussage in the experiment.

6. In some cases, iron filings and sulphur, immersed in mercury or water, or placed in a vacuum, yield phlogisticated instead of inflammable air.

From such experiments, and a variety of others, it is fairly to be inferred, that there is a nearer resemblance of *water* to *azotic* air, and of *this* to *hydrogenous* gas, and of both to *nitric acid*, than the adherents of the French doctrine are willing to allow. Indeed, if *azote* is a compound of *hydrogen* and *oxygen*, as both Dr. Priestley and Girtanner seem to have rendered probable, a large part of the controversy can be easily settled, as all these substances are but different modifications of the same elements.

Dr. Priestley has long ago shown by what process in the economy of nature, the *oxygenous portion* of the atmosphere was reproduced and restored; to wit, by the operation of light on growing vegetables. He has now presented as notable a discovery, which is the counterpart of the former, of the means by which its *azotic part* is renewed and kept in equilibrium, viz. by the conversion of water to phlogisticated air,

when it is reduced, by *any means*, into a state of vapour. (See Med. Rep. vol. iv. p. 20).

The philosophical men who had implicitly adopted the doctrines of the French school, as originally promulgated, were so numerous, so positive, so impetuous, and so persevering, as nearly to bear down, at their first charge, every kind of opposition. Dr. Priestley, almost alone, or with a handful of adherents, has remained firm in his citadel, and refused both to surrender and to capitulate. His conduct has been eminently heroic, and honourable to him. He is plentifully supplied with the best of intellectual ammunition and provision. And as there is no probability that his adversaries can succeed, either by storm or blockade, the only resource they have left is, on conviction of the weakness of their force, or the injustice of their cause, to raise the siege, and march off to their proper provinces.

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#### DOUBTS CONCERNING THE PLAGUE IN EGYPT.

The philosophers and physicians who accompanied Bonaparte in his expedition to Egypt, in 1798 and 1799, have brought home very little information concerning that disease which the Europeans speak of with so much terror, THE PLAGUE. Mr. CERESOLE, one of the physicians of the army, relates that the word *koubeh*, in Arabic, which is translated *plague*, is a generical denomination applied to all very violent and malignant diseases; and that he was unable to obtain so much information relative to *koubeh* as he could have wished. DESGENETTES too, the Physician-General, testifies, that in that country they generally confound all pestilential fevers, which are exceedingly various, and form a genus of themselves, with the plague properly so called; which is a very circumscribed species, but leaves the question to be decided by future observations. The truth is, there is no proof of the existence of such a specific disease as the *pestis* of the nosologists, and the *plague* of the commercial nations of Europe. The accounts they give of it are imperfect in some respects, and fictitious in others. The fevers of Asia and Africa, like those of America, take on an hundred different forms, arise from the like causes, and die away under similar circumstances.— If buboes, and hæmorrhages, and mortifications, are criteria of the plague, then we certainly have *plague* in the United States. But we are warranted, by much experience and observation, in concluding that yellow fever is not *specifically*

*contagious*, but is excited by nastiness and corruption both within and without the body. The same we believe to be equally true of the Asiatic plague, which has been so fearfully swelled and exaggerated in description. Read what the philosopher of Marostica has left on the subject of local causes of disease in Egypt, more than two centuries ago, and judge.

Prosper Alpinus (*De Med. Ægyptior.* lib. i. cap. 13) says, an almost infinite number of the Egyptians, impelled by poverty and want, fed upon the worst kind of aliment, and drank muddy and putrid water, at Cairo. The Mahometans used wine very commonly, and got drunk as well as the Christians and Jews. The houses of that city are very high, and are constructed so as to shelve over the streets, and exclude sunshine and light (cap. 6). At Alexandria pestilential fevers happened almost every autumn, and were more destructive to *strangers* than to the *natives* (cap. 14). P. Alpinus takes up almost a page in enumerating local causes of this disease, such as the corrupt exhalations from Lake Mareotis in its neighbourhood; from low places and sunken holes in the city itself; from the water of the Nile conducted to the town, drawn off into stagnant reservoirs, kept during the year for family use, sometimes growing poisonous before it was consumed, and used in this condition for cookery and drinking, &c. (p. 52). He mentions the canal of Cairo as an abominable nuisance, as becoming charged with abundance of putrefying things, changing from green to black, and becoming horribly stinking, and destroying the lives of persons living near it. He describes the diet of the poor (in a society where almost all are poor) as consisting of muddy and corrupted water, and half rotten beef, camel's flesh, fish and cheese, eaten by them because they are cheapest, and because they can buy no other.—After all this, Alpinus admits, though with a seeming reluctance, that the pestilential contagion may be engendered from putrefaction, in certain places, after the waters of the swollen Nile have withdrawn. But he thinks, upon the whole, the contagion is commonly imported, either from Greece, Syria or Barbary, and that the contagion from Barbary is by far the worst!! It rages from September to June, and then stops spontaneously, when the Etesian or cool northerly winds begin to blow.—Leave out the contagion, and this account is philosophical and correct.

*Observations in Natural History, made in the Summer and Autumn of the Year 1800, by S. L. M.*

1. *Account of the Motions of the Hedyfarum Gyranis, or moving Plant, described in Botanic Garden, Part II. Canto iv. l. 335 & seq.*

In the note to this passage, Dr. Darwin informs his readers "that its leaves are continually in spontaneous motion; some rising and others falling; and others whirling circularly by twisting their stems. This spontaneous movement of the leaves, when the air is quite still and very warm, seems to be necessary to the plant, as perpetual respiration is to animal life." From this description we were led to believe that *all* the leaves of this remarkable plant were to be seen in a rising, falling, or whirling motion; and probably other readers of the paragraph are led to think so too. Our curiosity was excited to see this vegetable in a growing state. Some seeds were procured and sown. From these sprang several thrifty plants. As they grew we looked for the movements of the leaves for some time in vain; but, at length, we discovered them. They fell so far short of what we had been led, from the description, to expect, that we were not a little disappointed. This hedyfarum produces two kinds of leaves, the one *large* and the other *small*. The former are, when full-grown, about  $2\frac{3}{4}$  inches long, and  $\frac{3}{4}$  wide, and are supported by a foot-stalk of one inch in length. These constitute the principal foliage of the plant, and we expected to see them fanning themselves, and panting for breath, during the heats of July, August and September (1800). But in *these* no such changes of position could be seen, nor any other alteration of place different from other plants. They, indeed, closed themselves to the stems at night, and in cool and stormy weather, as happens to a multitude of other vegetable species. Mere elevation and depression, at such times, were all the motions we could discern in the large leaves. The *latter* kind of leaves grow out of the foot-stalk about  $\frac{1}{4}$  of an inch below the insertion of the large one. These are not more than  $\frac{1}{2}$  an inch long, and  $\frac{1}{8}$  of an inch broad. Generally, each foot-stalk supports *two* of these small leaves. Not unfrequently, however, there is but *one*, and sometimes there are *none*. Both kinds are well delineated in Dr. Darwin's plate, which is a very good representation of the plant. *The spontaneous motions are performed by these leaflets, which move backwards, forwards, and somewhat circularly, like the ears of horses or sheep.* And with this



limitation ought the celebrated gyrations of this species of the numerous family of hedyfarum to be understood. So much is the account exaggerated, that some patience and nicety of observation are necessary to discern them.

2. *Account of the Sun-dew, or Drosera, described in the same Work, Part II. Canto i. l. 239 & seq.*

“The leaves of this marsh-plant,” writes this philosophical poet, “are purple, and have a fringe very unlike other vegetable productions; and, which is curious, at the point of every thread of this erect fringe stands a pellucid drop of mucilage, resembling a ducal coronet. This mucus is a secretion from certain glands; and, like the viscous material round the flower-stalks of the filene (catch-fly), prevents small insects from infesting the leaves.” The *drosera rotundifolia* growing in my swamp is rooted in peat-moss (*sphagnum palustre*), and is very small. The leaves are green, and not only the margin, but the *whole upper side* is thickly beset with hairs or bristles of a *red* colour. Upon the summit of each of these, in the vigorous state of the plant, there is formed a globule as clear as crystal. Forty or fifty such *pellucid* balls, supported by *red pili*, growing out of a *green* leaf, make an uncommon and beautiful appearance. These globules consist of a tenacious liquid, which entangles the legs of ants, flies, or other small insects which attempt to travel across the leaves. Whenever this happens, a leaf which is naturally concave on the upper side, seems to form a more considerable hollow than before; the consequence of which is, that the bristles are made to converge in a degree proportioned to this concavity; and the unfortunate little creature is completely surrounded by an apparatus somewhat resembling the palm of the hand, with the thumb and fingers half closed, and there held and inviscated until it dies. My own observations correspond with those which Dr. Darwin quotes from Mr. Wheatley and Mr. Brouffonet.

3. *Hybrid Variety of the Almond-Nut.*

Among the trees in my peach-orchard grows a thrifty young almond (*amygdalus communis*), which has borne fruit for two or three seasons. On tasting them this year, we were all sensible of a resemblance between the flavour of the kernel of the almond and that of the peach (*amygdalus persicus*). And in some, soon after gathering, their peculiar bitterness resembled so nearly that of the peach-kernel, that the former might, by an unadvised person, almost have been mistaken

for the latter. It was remarkable, too, that the nuts (drupa) were very hard and solid, like the peach-stone, and required smart strokes of the hammer to crack them.—Hybrid plants have long been known to botanists and cultivators, and their numbers seem to be increasing.—I was led to believe, according to the received doctrine of sexes in plants, that the *fruit* and *kernel of the almond* had, in this instance, undergone a change by growing in the midst of many trees of a different species. And if the pollen or fecundating powder of the peach has really wrought such an effect upon the almond, is not this a new mongrel, and an additional fact in favour of the sexual system?

#### 4. *Domestication of the Wild-Goose (Anas Canadensis).*

Attempts have frequently been made on Long-Island to render the wild-goose which winters in the bays adjoining the Atlantic Ocean, a tame and domesticated bird. Individuals of this species have accordingly been caught alive by the gunners after having been wing-broken by a shot, and carried home free from any other injury. When thus disabled from flying, they become gentle, and will mate with common geese. They even breed together; but the offspring is a mule, incapable of further propagation. Mr. Daniel Coles, of Oyster-bay, has gone a step beyond others in this business. He has a wild-goose and gander in a domesticated state, whom he keeps from flying away by taking off the extreme bones of the wings at the joint. The goose has laid eggs and hatched a brood of goslings. For fear of losing the young ones, their wings have been treated in the same manner; and the whole family now composes (September, 1800) a beautiful flock of wild-geese, in a domesticated state. They are as gentle as common geese, and live upon the food obtained about a house and on a farm quite as well. Mr. Coles even found that the goslings, on the day of being hatched, ate Indian meal as readily as chickens. They are more active and handsome than the tame-goose; and their long necks are arched more like those of swans. If this experiment should be continued for several generations, it is highly probable the temper and habits of the breed may be changed, so that the descendants of these wild-geese may lose their inclination to fly from country to country, and attach themselves, like turkeys, ducks, and other birds whose progenitors were once wild, to the society and protection of man. Should Mr. C. meet with no disasters, it is not improbable that the wild-goose will be eventually added to our stock of poultry.

5. *Squid, Ink-Fish, or Cuttle-Fish (Sepia).*

A beautiful species of the cuttle-fish is sometimes found on the sea-coast of New-York. It is about eight inches long. The tentacula, or feelers of this animal, are furnished with many mouths without throats, which are armed with a circular row of teeth to seize their prey. These convey the food to the real or principal mouth, which is armed with a beak, resembling the rostrum of a parrot. The creature is furnished with a bag of black liquor for its defence against its enemies. When pursued by them, it ejects this fluid into the water through a particular orifice in the anterior part of its body. The water is darkened and rendered of an inky colour thereby, so that its adversary is enveloped in a cloud, while the sepia suddenly darting backward with a spring to the distance of several feet, makes its escape. It is very amusing to view them thus employing the means of self-defence. Some of the larger species of the sepia are said to be the chief food of the spermaceti-whale (*physeter macrocephalus*), and the likenesses or impressions of their beaks are frequently seen in ambergrease, which is said, by the more intelligent of our Nantucket whalers, to be but the indurated excrement of that animal in a constipated state of the intestinum rectum.

6. *The Jerboa or Dipus.*

I have seen this little animal, which has been described by Col. Davis, of Quebec, in Tilloch's Philosophical Magazine, No. 3, p. 285, and by Professor Barton, in the fourth volume of the American Philosophical Transactions, p. 114, in the State of New-York. It is sometimes killed on Long-Island by the farmers when engaged in carting hay and corn-stalks.

7. *Another Instance of a Negro turning white.*

The change of colour which Harry Moss has, within a few years, undergone, from black to white, has been published so often that few curious persons are ignorant of it. In the town of North-Hempstead, something of the same kind is now to be seen. A young negro, named Maurice, aged 25 years, began, about seven years ago, to lose his native colour. A white spot appeared on the right side of his belly, which is now about as large as the palms of two hands. Another white spot has appeared on his breast, and several more on his arms and other parts; and the sable cloud is plainly disappearing on his shoulder. The skin of these fair spots is not surpassed by the European complexion. His general

health is and has been good; and he has suffered no scalding ulceration, scabbiness, or other local disease. The change is not the dead white of the *Albinos*, but is a good wholesome carnation hue. Such an alteration of colour as this, militates powerfully against the opinion adopted by some modern philosophers, that the negroes are a different *species* of the human race from the whites, and tends strongly to corroborate the probability of the derivation of all the *varieties* of mankind from a single pair. Facts of this kind are of great value to the zoologist. How additionally singular would it be, if instances of the spontaneous disappearance of this sable mark of distinction between slaves and their masters were to become frequent! They would then be no less important to the moralist and political economist.

#### 8. *Clay for manufacturing Tobacco-Pipes.*

A small attempt has been made at Musqueto-Cove, in Queen's county, to manufacture tobacco-pipes. An Englishman, who possesses the machinery and skill for moulding them, has been for some time engaged in making trials on the different clays he can procure thereabout. On the economy or probable success of such an establishment at this time in America, we offer no opinion. We understand that a former attempt failed. Be that as it may, it is agreeable information that pipes, of a tolerable quality, have been *formed of American clay*. The samples of the manufacture which we have seen, do not indicate want of talent in the artist; and, though rather deficient in whiteness and cohesion, will answer for common use. It is to be hoped, *clays of greater purity and toughness* will soon be found, and thereby afford another proof of the *resources of our country*.

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#### CHRONOLOGY.

The Rev. John C. Kunze, S. T. D. is preparing for the press, a work on chronology. It is intended to treat of the chronological character of the year which closes the eighteenth century, in the following points of view:—What year actually closes it, according to the received chronology? What year ought to close it by following just computation? Whether the eighteenth centurial year ought to be a leap-year? What year the 1800th J. C. probably is since the creation? What year it may be in the anti-christian period? Of the astronomical incidents of the year which closes the eighteenth century.—A serious and formal discussion of a subject which en-

gages such general attention, and on which there exists great difference of opinion, will doubtless be highly welcome. We hope the learned author will gratify public curiosity as soon as he conveniently can.

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MATHEMATICAL PRINCIPLE FOR CONSTRUCTING THE  
MOULD-BOARDS OF PLOUGHS.

In the 4th vol. of the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society is a paper of Thomas Jefferson, the President, whose object is to investigate, geometrically, that figure of the mould-board which will turn over the sward and pass through the ground with the least possible resistance, or with the smallest loss of exertion in the team. Unfortunately, in binding up the sheets of the book, the plate of diagrams, explanatory of the description, has been left out, so that the piece is not exhibited as the author intended. But he has forwarded to the President of the Agricultural Society a set of the figures referred to in the description, together with an elegant wooden model, illustrative of the manner of applying the principle to practice. That patriotic association in New-York will thus have an opportunity of becoming fully acquainted with this noble investigation of the philosopher of Monticello.

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CASTOR-OIL MADE IN NEW-YORK.

The plant whose seeds afford castor-oil has long been cultivated in our gardens, under the name of *head-ach-bean*, or *bug-bean* (*ricinus palma christi*). Little or no use had generally been made of it, other than to bind the leaves on the head for relieving pains of that part. Some persons raised it under a persuasion it would keep moles out of gardens, and others merely for curiosity. Latterly, however, John G. Gebhard, of Claverack, has prepared the oil from the seeds by expression; and the product appears quite as good as the best imported from the West-Indies, with this circumstance in its favour, that it is *cold-drawn* and *always fresher*. This is another evidence of the resources of the United States, and the citizen who has undertaken the manufacture merits the encouragement of his countrymen, whether druggists, house-keepers, or physicians.

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GRAND SPECIMEN OF MEXICAN GOLD.

A mass of native gold from one of the Mexican mines, which, on account of its rare size and beauty, was intended, by the Viceroy of Mexico, as a present to the King of Spain,

is now possessed by Capt. O'Brien, in the city of New-York. The metal, which is malleable, and not mineralized, is connected with quartz. The whole lump weighs 46 ounces troy. No part of it is crystallized. The colour of the gold is a fine yellow, with a tincture, in one part, of whitish, and in another of greenish. The quartz is white, with a dusky complexion. The mass seems to be a loose nodule, never connected with a large rock. The value of the gold it contains is estimated at five hundred dollars. In the collection of a prince, who can afford such specimens, this piece is invaluable.

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MINERALOGICAL SPECIMENS FROM GIBRALTAR AND ICELAND.

The Mineralogical Society of New-York has received from Dr. Thomas Wilson two fine specimens; one of the *calcareous* rock of Gibraltar, inclosing animal bones; and the other a *silicious* stalactite from the boiling-hot fountain of Guysar, at the foot of Mount Hecla. Our readers are referred, for particular accounts of these remarkable natural productions, to Major Imrie's description of the former, and Professor Black's analysis of the waters of the latter, published in the Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh.

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MEDICAL SOCIETY OF NORTH-CAROLINA.

On Monday, the 16th of April, 1800, a convention of the Faculty was held in the city of Raleigh, associated under a constitution and form of government by the name of the "*North-Carolina Medical Society*;" and the following gentlemen were elected officers for the ensuing year:

Richard Fenner, *President*.

Nathaniel Loomis, }  
John Claiborne, } *Vice-Presidents*.

Sterling Wheaton, }  
James Webb, }  
James John Pasteur, and } *Censors*.  
Jason Hand, }

Calvin Jones, *Corresponding Secretary*.

William B. Hill, *Recording Secretary*.

Cargill Massenburg, *Treasurer*.

The following gentlemen were appointed to deliver dissertations on some medical subject at the next meeting of the Society, viz. J. J. Pasteur, J. Webb, S. Wheaton, and N. Loomis.

An Essay on the Symptoms, Nature and Cure of the Dysentery, was made a prize subject for any medical gentleman practising in this State, at the next annual meeting, which will be held on the first day of December next. The prize dissertation must have annexed to it some cypher or emblem to identify the author, enclosed and sealed, which will be burnt if it should not be accounted worthy of the prize. The sealed enclosure to be broken open in the presence of the Society.

From the early patronage of the Legislature towards this first scientific Society of the State (having, at their present session passed an act for incorporating it), and from the zeal and enterprise of the gentlemen who compose it, we trust it will prove a Society of the first respectability and usefulness.

#### SODA FORMED FROM ITS ELEMENTS BY INCINERATION!

Kelp or impure soda has, since the year 1746, been manufactured in the western islands of Scotland. The plants which afford it are the different sorts of sea-weeds which attach themselves to rocks. The principal species of these are, the *fucus vesiculosus*, *nodosus*, *ferratus* and *digitalis*, Lin. But in order to afford kelp, these marine vegetables must, in their found state, be completely burned. Professor Walker, in his essay on kelp, published in the first volume of the Transactions of the Highland Society (Edinb. 1799), mentions, that when the *sea-weeds become putrid* their produce of *lixivial salt is small*; and Mr. Beaton affirms, when they are not *completely* burned, what is left in that state *yields no ley* (ibid. p. 36). Mr. Jameson, too, considers these plants, when damaged by fermentation, as yielding kelp of a very inferior quality (p. 45). It has been believed, that the soda obtained from these plants by burning, proceeds from the decomposition of the sea-salt, or muriate of soda, they contained before combustion. This, however, must be a mistake; for though the fuci contain sea-salt, it is in too trifling a quantity to account for the soda actually produced. This, therefore, must be formed from elementary combination taking place in the fire. But what is this combination? Perhaps the following facts will lead toward an answer of the question. It is reported that carbon, if burned in *oxygenous* air, will be changed thereby to carbonic acid gas. It is said, too, that if carbon is burned in *atmospheric* air, that not only *fixed air* but *pot-ash* is formed. Now, atmospheric air differs from oxygenous air by possessing or containing a portion of *azotic* or *phlogisticated* air. From this, then, combining with *something else*,

is the pot-ash formed. And the detection of *this something* is the present object of research. In the formation of *ammoniac* by distillation, Professor Woodhouse has shown (letter to Mitchill, Med. Rep. vol. iii. p. 210) how largely the azotic part of the atmosphere contributes to the formation of *that alkali*. The evidence seems quite as strong in favour of the fixation of *azote* in *soda* and *pot-ash*. The day is probably not far distant, when we shall be informed with which of the known elements, as carbon, lime, &c. it combines; or whether a new, and, as yet, an unknown element, is concerned in the process.

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#### VACCINE DISEASE.

Matter of the vaccine disease, received in this city from Boston, is now under trial. Many persons are already inoculated: the progress of infection is favourable, and there is every reason to expect, that in a short time this mild and manageable disease will be universally substituted for the small-pox.

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#### PESTILENCE.

We have thus far deferred our account of the malignant epidemic which lately prevailed in several parts of the United States, in the hope of obtaining many important documents, already prepared, but not yet come to hand. Some of these disclose facts of the utmost consequence, and such as greatly confirm our opinions concerning the origin and nature of the American pestilence. But the periodical limits of this work compel the postponement of them to another occasion.

The course of the weather, during the summer and autumn, in this part of the United States, was generally favourable. A great part of the month of July was, indeed, extremely hot; but this heat was seldom accompanied by humidity, the chief means of rendering it pernicious. In August the change was equally unexpected and salutary. The heat of that month was moderate, both in degree and duration; cool days very frequently intervened; and the rains, unlike those of preceding years, were almost invariably followed by coolness of the air for many days. September partook of the same character, neither warm nor moist to an excessive degree, but generally seasonable and pleasant.

Baltimore and Norfolk have suffered greatly beyond any other places in the United States, by the ravages of this malignant disease, in the late epidemic season. Providence (Rhode-Island) and New-York have likewise experienced a slight de-



gree of it; but, in most of our other cities, from the singular felicities of the season, only a few rare and transient instances of the disease were observed.

From Baltimore we expect to receive some interesting communications concerning the origin and nature of the late epidemic. The Board of Health of that city, on the 22d of August last, published the following account of the disease:

“ We have no hesitation in declaring it to be entirely owing to our own local sources of filth, vegetable and animal putrefaction, and marsh effluvia, within and around that part of the city (Fell’s Point), particularly the foul shore of the cove, and not to any imported or human contagion. This being also the unanimous opinion of the Faculty in that part of the city, strongly points out, that the means of prevention in future, under *favour of Divine Providence*, are now in our hands, and that a rigorous and energetic execution of the nuisance and health ordinances must, and, we have no doubt, will take place.”

We learn that the whole number of deaths which have taken place from the epidemic in that city, from August 1st to October 31st, of adults, amounts to 978—of children, to 219: total 1197.

Of the epidemic, as it appeared at Norfolk, the following account has been obligingly transmitted to us by Drs. Taylor and Hansford, in a letter of 20th October last.

“ The disease which we have experienced this year is that which it seems agreed to call the yellow fever; but is, nevertheless, the same we have known for a series of years, altered, at different periods, in its aspect, by a combination of unknown, or, at least, undefined causes, but still preserving the leading features of the autumnal bilious fever. Nor with men of observation and experience, who disregard bold and innovating theories, can the varieties of appearances excite surprise, or lead to confusion.—Do the measles, the small-pox, the pertussis, the cholera infantum, or any epidemics, show themselves in different years in the same form? Are they not sometimes mild, sometimes malignant, often combined with other diseases, and depending, in a great measure, as to their tendency, upon causes not to be explained? The due consideration of those analogous truths would have, perhaps, prevented the schism in the treatment of the yellow fever, which has distracted the public mind, and disgraced the science of medicine. No intelligent persons amongst us believe the disease to be imported; nor was there any quarantine ordered this year, although it

was known the fever existed in Baltimore before it appeared here—called by them an inflammatory bilious fever. This disease, in its malignant form, always originates on the river, or on low new made grounds, and in houses built on the docks; and, in all cases, begins with strangers and new settlers, affecting every one in proportion to his time of residence, and leaving the old inhabitants (viz. those who have been twelve months constantly in the town, or absent a little while only) not wholly exempt, yet proof against its destroying power. The natives of Virginia, and to the south (though newcomers), for the most part, escape with life. Those from higher latitudes oftener fall victims; and, with European strangers, the fever is generally uncontrollable, depending more upon constitution, for recovery, than the aid of medicine.—We must, with caution, hazard an opinion respecting its contagious tendency. So fearless are the inhabitants, that the disease is, very soon after its appearance, by the removal of the sick, conveyed to every part of the town, yet still is confined to the same description of persons, unless a partial sort of disease, which sometimes affects the attendants, &c. can be called contagion. We have been told, that in the towns of the northern and eastern States, no persons of any description escape when equally exposed.\* If this be so, it is the only difference we perceive in the disease, as it has been described in various parts of the world.”

We are authorized to expect an account of the disease at Providence, in a short time, from Dr. Levi Wheaton.

A few cases of malignant fever occurred at Philadelphia in the course of the summer and autumn. They were admitted by all to be genuine instances of yellow fever. The principal part of them took place in the neighbourhood of a most offensive spot, where a great common sewer, called the *dock*, empties itself into the Delaware. After fruitless attempts to trace the infection from Baltimore, they were asserted, by the advocates of imported contagion, to be the offspring of some undiscovered importation, or of the awakened fomites of the last year's epidemic!!

At Wilmington (State of Delaware), among the more common forms of intermittent and remittent fevers, there occurred several very malignant cases, which wanted nothing of the character of the yellow fever (in the opinion of such as doubted) but general prevalence as an epidemic.

\* It is obvious that these respectable physicians have been misinformed on this point; for the reverse has been remarkably verified.

Some few instances of malignant disease, under the form of yellow fever, were also observed in the town of Boston. They were universally ascribed, by the physicians of that place, to the influence of domestic miasmata.

In New-York, the late epidemic season, compared with the malignancy and mortality of preceding years, must be considered as mild and favourable. In those parts of the town which are chiefly low, damp and filthy, and which have heretofore been distinguished for an unhealthy character, the usual diseases of the summer and autumn prevailed to a very great degree. Dispersed among these, and confined within the same local boundaries, there appeared, here and there, cases of a more malignant grade, terminating fatally after an illness of only a few days, and exhibiting the symptoms of yellow skin, black vomiting and stools, hæmorrhages, convulsions, &c. In many of the cases of mild remittent fever, which terminated in three or five days, and in the most favourable manner, the tendency to malignity was indicated by the suddenness and violence of the attack, by hæmorrhages more frequent than usual, by the copious discharge of black stools, by a sudden subsidence of the force and activity of the arterial system after violent excitement of a few hours, and a reduction of arterial pulsations, in many instances, to forty beats in a minute, and by uncommon debility, greatly disproportioned, both in degree and duration, to the preceding appearances of the disease.

From a journal regularly kept, it appears that upwards of fifty persons died of the yellow fever, in this city, in the course of the late season. Besides these, we find many more fatal cases, reported under the title of bilious and malignant fevers, which no discerning person can hesitate to add to the former catalogue. Under this mode of computation, then, it will appear, that from seventy-five to eighty persons, whose cases were carefully observed and recorded, exclusive of all such as escaped notice, must have perished of the malignant disease called yellow fever.

These malignant cases, though nearly all occurring in the low and filthy parts of the town, were remarkably detached from one another. Of the whole number above-mentioned, only two examples (so far as we know, and the reports have been carefully examined for this purpose) are to be found of more than a single case existing in the same family. And, admitting that the cases which every body agrees to denominate yellow fever did not much exceed fifty, it will appear,

on inspection of the reports, that this number of cases was distributed through at least twenty-five streets.

It has been contended, by a few persons, that the origin of these malignant cases may be found in the awakening of the residual fomites of last year's epidemic. If this had been the case, we should expect to find the disease re-appearing in the same houses and families where it had raged last year. But, on a comparison of the reports of the present year with those of the last, as far as they go, only a single instance of such re-appearance in the same house is found, and this is attended with circumstances which prohibit every suspicion of dormant contagion.

No attempt, with which we are acquainted, has been made to point out any channel by which this disease might have been imported from abroad. On the contrary, we are persuaded that the quarantine law has been interpreted and executed with an unprecedented degree of vigilance, punctuality and rigour.

No propagation of the disease by contagion is pretended to have occurred beyond the limits of that portion of the atmosphere of the town allowed by every body to have been contaminated by the exhalations of putrefaction; and within such limits, it is well known, that an adequate cause is constantly in operation, independently of contagion. In the worst cases, the sick were surrounded, as usual, by relatives, friends, physicians, nurses, &c. After death, the bodies of the deceased were unreservedly handled, laid out, placed in coffins, and conveyed to graves; the bed and body clothes were delivered to washerwomen, &c. And yet all these various descriptions of persons escaped without injury, except where they happened, in the discharge of such offices, to be immersed in the air of those parts of the town originally contaminated by the exhalations of putrefaction.

The inferences from these facts, in respect to the origin, nature and relations of our few late cases of yellow fever, are so manifest, that it may, perhaps, scarcely be deemed necessary formally to deduce them. As it is impossible to trace a line of demarcation, the whole assemblage of epidemic diseases of the summer and autumn of the present year, whether mild or malignant, must be referred to the same cause. If it be contended that this cause is of foreign growth, the consequence will go further than the importers of contagion are willing themselves to believe; for it must then follow that

we import from abroad our mild as well as pestilential, our common as well as extraordinary diseases. The irregular ascent of our former epidemics in this city up to the malignancy of that of 1798, and the gradual declension since, altogether militate against the doctrine of imported contagion, and can only be accounted for from such varieties of seasons as are partly cognizable by the senses, and partly occult and unknown.

Upon the whole, it appears that every succeeding year furnishes an additional mass of evidence of the origin of this malignant disease from domestic sources. It was our design here to exhibit a more ample view of this subject; but the non-arrival of some communications of the greatest importance, for the present, necessarily suspends the plan.—In the next number will be published an account of a most formidable disease at Narbonne, in France, originating from a local cause; and also some notices of a pestilential distemper in the interior of this State, produced by the effluvia of a fœtid pond.

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LONDON MEDICAL REVIEW AND MAGAZINE.

We announce, with great pleasure, a new periodical work, entitled, "*The London Medical Review and Magazine*," conducted by a society of physicians and surgeons in that metropolis. One of the friends and patrons of this work has lately presented us with the three first volumes, containing a variety of interesting matter, with the obliging offer of an exchange for the Medical Repository; an offer which we cordially embrace, not only from the respect we bear to that publication, but from our wish to strengthen the ties which connect the scientific institutions of the old and new world.

Our limits only allow us, at present, to select (from p. 424 of the third volume of that work) the following paper:

THE EFFICACY OF COLD IN MADNESS.

Dr. G. G. Brown, of Bath, has communicated the following account of the good effects of cold in apoplexia mentalis, or delirium sine febre.

Within the period of these last ten years, I have met with five cases in the course of practice. The two first cases were abandoned by two very eminent physicians, who have already done ample honour to their profession, and for whom I entertain the highest regard. Two more cases were attended by me alone; and two most respectable physicians were wit-

ness to the subsequent mode of treatment in the fifth case. After a failure of the most approved medicines and practice, the application of cold water to the head, assiduously persevered in for many days, performed the cure. I well know that this is an old species of practice, and also that it has often proved unsuccessful: this, however, I attribute, in a great measure, to the manner of using it, and likewise to the want of perseverance in it. The method I pursued, in the first four cases, was, by winding an handkerchief round the head, and keeping it continually wet by a sponge dipped in cold water, until it produced a shivering fit: it was then desisted from, for about an hour, more or less, and re-applied as before. After the first twenty-four hours, there was no inconvenience felt in having it always kept round the head. Between thirty and fifty hours from the commencement of the application, sobbing and sighing came on, which have hitherto proved the criterion of the incipient return of rational ideas. This being effected, the vitriolic acid, alone or combined with the cinchona, in conjunction with the cold application, have uniformly perfected the cure. In the first and fifth case, the application was not confined to the head, but extended along the course of the carotid and subclavian arteries. From seven to fifteen days, where the delirium had been of considerable standing, have been the extent of this mode of practice; although I should not have hesitated continuing it a much longer time, had it been found necessary. Perhaps I shall be induced, at some future period, to deliver my sentiments more fully on this subject, but could no longer withhold from the public a remedy I have found so efficacious in so dreadful a malady. I have also reason to believe that it will be found equally successful in some other diseases, not only in the head, but the trunk of the body.



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## APPENDIX.

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### ARTICLE I.

ACCOUNT of LARGE BONES dug up in ORANGE and  
ULSTER COUNTIES (*State of New-York*): In a Letter  
from SYLVANUS MILLER, Esq. to Dr. MITCHILL; dated  
*New-York, Sept. 20, 1800.*

SIR,

**I** RETURNED, on the 10th inst. from a tour to the counties of Orange and Ulster. On my arrival at Newburgh, I was informed, that about twelve miles to the westward of that place had lately been discovered the skeleton of an animal of uncommon magnitude, and decidedly larger than that of any of which we have at this time any knowledge. The information, to me, was not so extraordinary as to some others, as I had seen specimens of parts of like skeletons, about nine years since, when at grammar-school, in the town of Montgomery, near which place there was a part of the bones dug up: but as there were now prospects of procuring the whole of the skeleton, and as more bones had already been procured than I had ever as yet seen, my curiosity could only be satisfied by viewing them myself, and seeing if there was any difference, in magnitude or form, from those formerly obtained, and to observe what might have been the nature, size and qualities of the huge beast when alive. These objects could now be better ascertained, as the whole of the skeleton would probably be obtained. Unfortunately, however, this could not be effected time enough for me to see the skeleton entire. There remains, however, no doubt, but that the residue of the bones are there, and nothing but want of exertions, or means to defray expense, will hinder the whole of them from being procured.

The places where these skeletons have been discovered are generally called marl-pits, and are low, sunken places, very wet and miry. The hole which had been made to procure this skeleton lately discovered, was so nearly filled with water, that the nature of the earth, and the colour, could not be ascertained, otherwise than by the earth on the banks or borders of the hole. The draining of these places has been only

attempted, for the benefit of the farmer, about nine or ten years, before which time they were either unknown as affording good manure, or not in use in the neighbouring country. The bones here discovered lay buried about ten feet under this marl and earth, which generally consists of five different *strata*—the first is the common earth found in low meadows; the second a very black and rich earth, and is deemed good for manure; the third a small stratum of blue clay; the fourth a stratum of white marl; and the fifth a stratum of grey or black marl; at or near the bottom of which these bones are discovered, and some of them sunk into the earth some inches below the marl. It may be proper to remark here, that these marl-pits (as they are generally called by the farmers) are very numerous, and some of them large and extensive where these skeletons have been found, and that a very small proportion of them have been ditched or drained off, so that the farmers might be able to procure the manure, to the better cultivation of wheat, corn, &c.

The bones which were lately discovered appear of the same species, though I think larger, with those found some time since in the same vicinity, and afford a spectacle truly astonishing; they appear little decayed by the lapse of time, and their proper places, and names of the several parts of the skeleton, could, I presume, easily be discovered by a person possessing your knowledge in anatomical science.—They are, however, not as yet entirely procured, though great exertions have been made, and are still making, to effect so desirable an object—the difficulty is made much greater by the influx of the water, continually rushing in from the bottom and sides to the hollow already made—there are among the bones found, several of the legs, some of the back bones, several ribs, and the upper part of the head,\* &c.—one bone of the thigh measures more than forty inches in circumference round the joint, and thirty-six inches on the cylindrical part of the bone, and is nearly five feet long; the teeth are nearly seven inches long, and four broad—they are found white, and fast in the jaw, without appearance of decay; the holes in the skull where appear to have been the nostrils, measure nearly eight inches in diameter; the orifice occasioned by the decay of marrow is, in the back bones, three inches and an half diameter; there are several others of like magnitude, and some bones of the foot which shows evident marks that it once had claws.

I must not forget to mention to you, my dear Sir, that eight

\* The head is thought, by Dr. Graham, to have been as large as an ordinary hog's head.



similar skeletons have been discovered within eight or ten miles of the neighbouring country, and to assure you, that some of them were from fifteen to twenty feet below the surface of the earth, and these within a few years past. I will leave the subject of this prodigy for your reflections, and request of you some remarks, to satisfy the public mind.

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## ARTICLE II.

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*Further Account of the Fossil Bones in Orange and Ulster Counties: In a Letter from Dr. JAMES G. GRAHAM, one of the Senators of the Middle District, to Dr. MITCHILL; dated Shawangunk, Sept. 10, 1800.*

DEAR SIR,

THE result of my inquiries and observations respecting the bones of the unknown animal found in this part of the country is as follows: Some time in 1782, several of them were discovered in a meadow or swamp about three miles south of Ward's Bridge, in the town of Montgomery, now in the county of Orange, three or four feet below the surface, most of them much decayed. The next discovery of them was made about one mile east of said bridge. In this place three or four ribs were found, about eight feet below the surface, in a very sound state. The swamp here does not contain more than three or four acres, and the remaining bones of the skeleton probably yet remain at its bottom. About three miles east of said bridge some other bones have been found; and about seven miles east of said bridge, a tooth (one of the grinders), and some hair, about three inches long, of a dark dun colour, were found by Mr. Alexander Colden, four or five feet below the surface. About seven miles north-easterly from said bridge, a vertebra has been found; and five miles westerly from said bridge, a number of bones were taken up, six years ago, from about five feet below the surface. These I procured, and sent them to Dr. Bayley, of New-York, who has, I am informed, deposited them in Columbia College. And last week another skeleton has been discovered, about three miles east of my house, in the town of Shawangunk, about ten miles north-east of said bridge. These last discovered bones lie about ten feet from the surface, and are in a very sound state. Many of them have been raised, but some much

broken, especially the bones of the head, which, I am persuaded, lie entire, and in their natural order.

I have procured two bones of this last discovered skeleton, and sent them to New-York, by Edward W. Laight, Esq. for the purpose of having them examined by yourself, and other well-informed naturalists in the city. One of these I take to be a metacarpal or metatarsal bone, which indicates the animal to have been claw-footed, and, from the forms of the astragalus and os calcis which were among the bones sent to Dr. Bayley, to have resembled the foot of the bear. With respect to the other bone, I am at a loss where to assign it a station among those of the skeleton.

Mr. Laight can inform you of many other particulars respecting these lately discovered bones, as he has seen and examined them himself.

These large bones are uniformly found in deep wet swamps only, by farmers, in digging up black mould and *marl* for the purpose of manuring their lands. Thus a little enterprize and industry has enabled them to convert those parts of their farms which were formerly esteemed nuisances, into valuable manures, and to make discoveries of great importance in the natural history of our country.

I have been particular in stating the relative situations and distances of those places in which bones have been discovered, from a certain point, to show, from the small district in which many discoveries have been made, the great probability that these animals must have been very numerous in this part of the country: for if we compare the small proportion that those swamps, in which only they are found, bear to the rest of the surface, and the very small proportion that those parts of such swamps as have yet been explored, bear to the whole of such swamps, the probable conclusion is, that they must once have existed here in great numbers. And why Providence should have destroyed an animal or species it once thought proper to create, is a matter of curious inquiry and difficult solution. If, however, they were voracious, it must appear happy for the human race that they are extinct, by whatever means.

The hair above-mentioned seems to prove that it was not the elephant, or, if it was, that it must have been of a species or variety widely different from any known at present. With sincere wishes for your prosperity,

I am your friend,

JAMES G. GRAHAM.

## ARTICLE III.

On the SUBMERSION of SWALLOWS: In a Letter to the Editor of the (New-York) Monthly Magazine.

THE substance of what is contained in the enclosed letter, was related by the writer, in an accidental conversation on the disappearance of Swallows. As he had preserved a memorandum of the facts, and the utmost reliance could be placed on the accuracy of the statement, I thought it of too much importance, in relation to a much agitated question in natural history, to be withheld from the public. More particularly as, from its coincidence in time, it may serve to confirm a similar fact, stated in the Medical Repository, vol. ii. p. 178; first edition, as observed by Mr. Peter Cole, in this city; the truth of which is questioned by an anonymous writer in the 3d vol. p. 241, of the same work, who regards the opinion of the submersion of swallows as exploded. Mr. Pollock has obligingly complied with my request to make the fact known, by sending me the enclosed, with liberty to insert it, with his name, in your useful Magazine. That the swallows could descend, in spite of their specific levity, to the bottom of so deep and rapid a river as the Hudson, or remain there during the winter, is not, perhaps, to be supposed.\* Yet the fact of their *submersion*, after the testimony of Mr. P. and Mr. S. men of undoubted veracity, cannot be questioned. Their continuance in a torpid state, and re-appearance, are different questions, which remain to be decided. The apparent impossibility of their existence under water, arising from their peculiar organization, should make us very doubtful, but not absolutely to reject the utter possibility of the fact. For "natural history," says Kalm, who, with the rest of the Swedish naturalists, defends the *hibernation* of swallows, in lakes, ponds, marshes, and caverns, "as all other histories, depends not always on the intrinsic degree of probability, but upon facts founded on the testimony of people of noted veracity." Reasonings and conjectures on the fact here stated, I leave to naturalists. It is to be hoped, that it may not be thought unworthy of the notice of the learned, candid, and ingenious Dr. Barton, who has already bestowed so much attention on the subject. W. JOHNSON.

\* The house of Mr. Pollock is situated near the margin of the Hudson, about two hundred yards from the Battery. The river is about a mile and an half wide, and from seven to nine fathoms deep, and runs with a strong and rapid tide. Mr. P. does not recollect the species of swallow which then disappeared. The Barn Swallow (*Hirundo rustica*), Chimney Swallow (*Hirundo pelagica*), the Sand or Bank Martin (*Hirundo riparia*), and the Purple Martin (*Hirundo purpurea*), all frequent and build their habitations in the city and its neighbourhood.

“ ON the afternoon of the 24th of Auguſt, 1798, I was fitting in my parlour which looks towards the North River, about fifty feet from the bank, in company with our mutual friend Mr. Jacob Sebor. Our attention was attracted by numerous flights of birds, which appeared to come acroſs the town from the eaſtward, and deſcend immediately into the river. So ſingular an appearance excited our particular obſervation. We went out and ſtood cloſe to the bank, and then perceived that what we at firſt imagined to be black-birds, were actually ſwallows; and that, as ſoon as the various flocks had cleared the houſe, and got directly over the river, they plunged into the water and diſappeared. This was not confined to the vicinity of the place where we ſtood, but was the caſe as far as the eye could reach, up and down the river, and continued, without ceſſation, for nearly two hours, when the cloſing of the evening prevented our further obſervation.

“ Aware of the importance of affording any additional information on this long diſputed queſtion in the natural hiſtory of the ſwallow, I procured a teleſcope, and watched attentively many of the flocks from their firſt appearance until their immerſion, continuing my eye fixed upon the ſpot long enough to be fully convinced that not one of the birds returned to the ſurface again. Indeed, one flock of about two hundred birds plunged into the water within thirty yards of us, and inſtantly diſappeared, without the leaſt appearance of oppoſition that might be expected to ariſe from their natural buoyancy, and, at the ſame time, the evening was ſo ſerene, and the river ſo unruffled, that no deception of our ſight could poſſibly have occurred.

“ When the birds firſt came in view, after croſſing the town, their flight was eaſy and natural; but when they deſcended nearly to the water, they appeared much agitated and diſtreſſed, flying in a confuſed manner againſt each other, as if the love of life, common to all animals, impelled them to revolt againſt this law of nature impoſed upon their ſpecies.

“ As ſome time has elapſed ſince the above mentioned facts occurred, I thought it proper, before I gave you Mr. Sebor’s name, as having been a witneſs to them, to conſult his recollection on the ſubject, and I have pleaſure in aſſuring you he diſtinctly remembers every circumſtance I have recited, and of which I made a memorandum at the time.

“ It may be worthy of remark, that as far as my obſervation went, the ſwallows totally diſappeared on the 24th of Auguſt, 1798; for, during the remainder of that year, I did not ſee one.

“ H. POLLOCK.

“ *New-York, 18th July, 1800.*”

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# MEDICAL REPOSITORY.

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VOL. IV.—No. III.

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## ARTICLE I.

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FACTS concerning the YELLOW FEVER, as it appears at CHARLESTON (South-Carolina): Communicated in a Letter from the Hon. DAVID RAMSAY, M. D. to Dr. MILLER.

Charleston, Nov. 18, 1800.

SIR,

WE have had a fever the last summer which has been usually called the yellow fever, but its ravages were by no means so extensive as represented by common fame. Our whole mortality, including people of colour, in the months of July, August, September and October, was 516. Of these, 134 were reported to have died of the yellow fever; viz. in July 23, in August 55, in September 46, in October 10. Of the 134 fatal cases of yellow fever, 41 (nearly one third of the whole) were sailors from the Marine Hospital. On the second day of September there were twelve deaths, which was the greatest mortality in one day throughout the season. September was, as usual, one of our most sickly months; but there were only seven days in the whole of it in which the deaths exceeded six in a day. The yellow fever has been epidemic in this city in 1700, 1732, 1739, 1745, 1748, 1792. When it was not epidemic, our oldest inhabitants inform us, that a few cases occurred in several summers that would now be called yellow fever. Since the year 1792, we have had an alarming number of cases of this description every year, except the years 1793 and 1798. In the year before the great yellow fever of 1793 in Philadelphia, we had much more of this disorder than in the present year, but it excited no general alarm among the permanent inhabitants. In the year 1799, five or six cases occurred of children born,

and usually resident in Charleston, who died of this disease. In 1800 only two such cases have been noticed by the physicians. With the exception of these children, the disease has been exclusively confined to persons who were unaccustomed to the air of Charleston. A few of such have escaped altogether; a few others the first year, and took the disease in the second. One died with it in his third summer, who had enjoyed good health for the two first years of his residence: but, in general, the disease attacked its unhappy subjects soon after their arrival. The constitution of the air, in 1800, is supposed to have been less favourable to the propagation of the disease than in several of the preceding years: but it is more than probable that the decreased number of strangers who visited Charleston in the late sickly season was one considerable cause of the diminution of its ravages. Farther observations are necessary to ascertain the length of absence from our city which may consist with the safety of a returning native or old inhabitant. Some instances have been observed of our youth, who have returned to us from a more northern latitude, after an absence of three, four, and five years, and, in one instance, of twelve years, without contracting this inhospitable disease. The only exceptions to this remark, which have come to my knowledge, are two; the one after an absence of five years, and the other of nine.

The disputes about the origin of the yellow fever, which have agitated the northern States, have never existed in Charleston. There is but one opinion among the physicians and inhabitants, and that is, that the disease was neither imported nor contagious. This was the unanimous sentiment of the Medical Society, who, in pursuance of it, gave their opinion to the government last summer, that the rigid enforcement of the quarantine laws was by no means necessary on account of the yellow fever.

I have nothing new to communicate on our mode of treating this disease. Under the most approved methods, and the ablest physicians, when clearly marked, it has, in most cases, proved fatal. Many of our yellow fever patients are in circumstances unfavourable to their recovery. Such is the rapid and violent nature of the disease, that they should have free ventilation, and several attendants by night as well as by day: but they are mostly unknown strangers, and often in crowded lodging houses, in the most thickly settled parts of the city, where the apartments are small, and the servants few.

It would be prudent for strangers proposing to reside in

Charleston, to arrive in November and December, and to absent themselves from the city for the two or three first summers after their arrival. Such as only purpose to visit us should avoid the months of August and September. The months of July and October, and the first days of November, are not without danger, but it is much less than in the two intermediate months, and varies very much with the heat of the weather, the late or early appearance of frost, and other circumstances. Danger, though diminished, cannot be said to be entirely over till the air is thoroughly purified by severe black frosts.

We have not yet made a sufficient number of observations to determine accurately how far it is possible for strangers to avoid our yellow fever, by residing, while it is prevalent, entirely on Sullivan's Island, or in the out-skirts, or open, airy environs of Charleston. In one case the disease proved fatal to a gentleman on Sullivan's Island, who had not been off the Island for six weeks before: in another, to the head master in the college grammar-school, who had confined himself to the yard and vicinity thereof, from and after the first of July. In all other cases that have come to my knowledge, the persons making the experiment, and who have taken the disease, had occasionally visited or passed through the thickly settled parts of Charleston. Strangers coming amongst us, too often presume on their constitutions as being able to resist the peculiar diseases of the climate and season. They cannot be persuaded of the danger of a short visit to Charleston, or of slight imprudences or excesses.

My private opinion is, that our yellow fever is a local disease, originating in the air of Charleston; that the chances of escaping it may be considerably enlarged in favour of strangers, though residing in the city, who avoid the night air and all excesses; live prudently, and in clean, airy apartments; and observe a medium between living too high and too low: and that the disease might be generally avoided by such, provided they kept entirely out of the city, or even in the sparse settlements in its out-skirts. And, on the other hand, that the most transient visit to, or passage through Charleston, when the yellow fever is prevalent therein, may as certainly and as fatally induce that disease as a more permanent residence.

I remain, with great regard and esteem,  
Sir.

Your most obedient servant,  
DAVID RAMSAY.

*P. S.* Since writing the above, I have been informed of one case of a gentleman who died here of the yellow fever last summer, who took the disease very soon after his arrival, though he had resided in Philadelphia for the five immediately preceding years, and had had the disease there twice in that period.

It is also proper to add, that of the forty-one cases of yellow fever which took place in the Marine Hospital, forty were brought there, from the shipping in the harbour, with the disorder on them, and, in many cases, far advanced. Only one case originated in the hospital, and that was of an old intemperate man. While so many patients were dying of the yellow fever in the hospital, there was always a considerable number of other patients under the same roof, who all (with one exception) escaped it. This is the more remarkable, as the greatest number of them, as well as several of the nurses, were strangers, and affords additional evidence that the disease was not contagious. As the hospital is half a mile out of Charleston, it adds probability to the opinion I have before given, that our yellow fever might generally be avoided, even by strangers who would confine themselves, while the disease was epidemic, to the out-skirts or environs of the city.

D. R.

## ARTICLE II.

*On the IMPORTANCE of SAVING SKIN in CHIRURGICAL CASES and OPERATIONS: Addressed to the Editors of the Medical Repository, by RICHARD HILLIER, Surgeon: In a Letter dated Sparta, on the River Hudson, November 4, 1800.*

GENTLEMEN,

**P**ERMIT me, through the medium of the Medical Repository, to invite the attention of the faculty to the improvement of saving skin, and healing by the first intention in surgical operations. I pretend not to the merit of invention. My object is partly to recommend a practice which lessens the mass of human misery, and partly to render honour to whom honour is due.



About the year 1785, Mr. Mynors, of Birmingham, wrote a little treatise on the operation of the trepan, wherein he enumerated the leading ideas of surgeons, from very remote antiquity to the time of Mr. Pott. The result of his reflection was, that but little improvement had been made in that branch of surgery; and that the inflammatory adhesion of the scalp to the contents of the cranium, after a complete removal of the causes of compression, was the thing wanted to render the cure of injuries on the head, by the operation of trepanning, perfect. Although this beautiful and simple theory had the sanction of experience, and the approbation of many eminent surgeons in the vicinity of Birmingham, on my entering as a pupil at St. Thomas' and Guy's Hospitals, in the year 1790, I found it unpopular; and, by an article in the London Medical and Physical Journal, I find the old method still prevails. Mr. Bell, in an edition of his System of Surgery, printed since the appearance of Mr. Mynor's work, neither notices the author, nor appears to know any thing of his manner of treatment. I will not investigate the causes of this neglect. It will be more profitable to examine the use of inflammatory adhesion in the cure of diseases, and its application to surgery, particularly to the operation of the trepan; first premising that mistakes may arise from the term "morbid" being often connected with adhesion, as though it were a disease, and not a cure: whereas, when any two vascular, living substances, in a state of inflammation, come in contact, they will adhere. The inflammation may be morbid, but the adhesion is salutary. Thus, nature sometimes cures carditis by the adhesion of the heart to the pericardium; pneumonia, by that of the lungs to the pleura; hepatitis, by attaching the liver to the peritoneum, stomach or duodenum; and peritonitis, by adhesions, at one time or other, to every possible variety of abdominal viscera. And if a musket-ball, passing through a large extent of cellular substance, appear to produce no inflammation, it is because union by the first intention takes place in the cavity of the wound. Nor is this adhesion limited to similar parts, or to parts nearly similar; but cutis will unite alike to muscle, to bone, to tendon, to ligament, and to cartilage, as we see in many operations of surgery.

Taught by Mr. Mynors to apply these ideas to the operation of the trepan, let us suppose ourselves called to a person with a wounded head. Being convinced that the brain is suffering from compression, either by the evidence of the senses, or by a knowledge of the symptoms, we lay the patient on a

table, in a good light; and, making first an incision along the course of the injury, which, though seldom sufficient for the purpose of a full examination, serves to direct us in making a second incision, beginning at one end of the first, and going off at right angles, like the Roman letter L, we now dissect back the divided portion of scalp, and endeavour to remove every cause of compression in the usual way. If two incisions do not give room enough, we lengthen the second incision across the first, thus making a resemblance of the letter T. We then dissect back the second flap, and proceed as before. Should these two flaps not sufficiently expose the injury, a continuation of the first incision, by making a rectangular cross, gives us an opportunity of turning back two flaps more, whereby any curable fracture may be amply exposed. The causes of compression being removed, the peculiarity and excellence of our mode of operating begins. The contents of the cranium being cleaned with very particular care, the flap or flaps are to be carefully brought to their former places, and there to be closely secured by slips of adhesive plaster. Afterwards a compress of soft lint is to be laid over, and retained by any convenient bandage, with just pressure enough to keep the parts intended to unite in easy contact. In a few days the scalp will be found to have adhered to the sound bone and dura mater. Thus will the danger from the contact of external air be obviated, and exfoliations, fungous excrescences, and large suppurations be prevented, while the cure will be much accelerated. In support of the above theory, you will oblige me by inserting the following

#### CASE.

On the 18th of August last I was called to Gerry Vredenburg, a boy of eight years old. Forty-eight hours before I was applied to he had been thrown from a horse. He fell with his head upon a sharp-pointed rock. He was immediately bled, and a wound, about two inches long, in the frontal muscle, an inch above the right eye-brow, was carefully caulked with weeds, and payed with rum and sugar. On my arrival, symptoms of oppressed brain were sufficiently clear: I therefore proceeded, without delay, to an examination. On shaving the head, and clearing the wound, I discovered a considerable fracture of the os frontis. A tumour, in appearance like the half of a damson, situate rather above the centre of the temporal muscles, convinced me that the injury extended

thus far. I made my first incision seven inches long, beginning immediately over the nose, and, inclining obliquely upwards, passed through the wound and tumour, avoiding the temporal muscle. My second incision was between two and three inches long, at right angles, upwards from the end of the first. I fortunately had now a good view of the fracture, which, notwithstanding it was so extensive as to include part of the right parietal bone, did not deter me from making a perforation on its most posterior edge, directly under the tumour. On completing the perforation, I found the natural cohesion between the dura mater and cranium destroyed by an effusion of blood, which was coal-black, and adhering to the dura mater with the tenacity of liver. By five applications of the trephine, I removed nine pieces of bone, measuring, when laid together, two inches and a half at their shortest diameter, and weighing three drachms and one scruple. The dura mater and scalp being laid in contact, adhesion was found to have taken place between them, on the first removal of the dressings, which was done within a week. The contused parts went on as well as could be expected. The child only kept his bed eight days; after which, though restrained from running in the sun, he was constantly at play. For the first week he took occasional purges, and lived low. Afterwards he was put on bark, lime-water, and a more generous diet. In six weeks he was quite well, and continues so.

I am, Gentlemen,

With much respect,

Your humble servant,

RICHARD HILLIER,

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### ARTICLE III.

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EXTRAORDINARY CASE of a MAN who appeared to have THREE TESTICLES: Communicated by Dr. SAMUEL BROWN, of Lexington (Kentucky), to Dr. MILLER, in a Letter dated Nov. 10, 1800.

ON the 6th of July, 1800, Mr. R. a strong, healthy farmer, aged 37 years, applied to me to reduce a tumour in his groin, which he believed to be a case of hernia. About two months before he had perceived a slight uneasiness in the

ring of the abdominal muscle, on the right side, and felt a small tumour, which was easily pushed back into the abdomen by pressure with his fingers. This circumstance excited but little attention until the 2d instant, when, after great fatigue in the harvest field, he was called, by business, a few miles from home. As he rode, in the evening, the pain in his groin became much more acute than it had formerly been; upon which he dismounted from his horse, and was greatly alarmed at the discovery of a tumour as large as one of his testicles, lying immediately on the cord of the right testicle, which remained in its proper place, perfectly sound and free from pain. Having communicated his case to his family, on his return, fomentations, the inverted position of the body, pressure on the part with a plate of lead, and a variety of other remedies, were tried in vain.

Having slightly examined the tumour, I endeavoured to reduce it in the usual manner. But I soon discovered that it was neither the omentum nor a portion of the intestines; for the bowels were perfectly regular, and the injections which had been administered, although they operated powerfully, produced no change in the size or shape of the tumour. The ring did not admit of the introduction of the point of my finger when the tumour lay near to it: I therefore drew the tumour down towards the testicle, when I plainly perceived it to be suspended by a cord, in size and feel exactly resembling those of the other two testicles.

Some slight pain was experienced on drawing down the tumour, and I distinctly felt the action of the cremaster muscle as often as I directed the patient to retract the testicles. The case appeared to me so remarkable, that I prevailed on Mr. R. to submit to the examination of three or four of my pupils, and I also called in another practitioner, who, without having any knowledge of the opinion I had formed, did not hesitate to conclude that it was a third testicle. The same evening I fortunately met with Drs. Warfield and Marshall, two physicians of eminence, who were obliging enough to examine the case with great attention, and who, by concurring with me in opinion, have removed all doubt from my mind with regard to its real nature.

The cords of the two testicles, on the right side, appeared to have no connection with each other, although they both descended through the same opening in the muscles. The patient was a married man, had children, and enjoyed excellent health, which this tumour does not seem likely to impair.

A fact of a nature so anomalous does not admit of much speculation. It is, however, very difficult to say what could have retarded the descent of this testicle until the patient was 37 years old, and it will be interesting, in future, to observe what effects the descent of it may have on his powers and his appetites. If any more information on this subject is obtained, it shall be communicated to the world through the medium of your interesting Repository.

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#### ARTICLE IV.

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*CURIOUS INSTANCE of DISEASE, in which, though Feeling was abolished, the Power of Motion was unimpaired: From the same to the same.*

**M**R<sup>S</sup>. M<sup>L</sup>. of Bairdstown, Kentucky, aged about 40 years, has been deprived, for more than two years, of the power of sensation in her hands and feet. She is quite insensible of the effects of cutting instruments, or of burning coals applied to them. In one instance, when she was employed in shaping a piece of wood with a knife, she incautiously turned her eyes on some other object, and cut off the end of the thumb of her left hand, without perceiving the smallest sense of pain. She cannot, from her sensations, discover the least difference between a hot and a cold iron, and has frequently burnt the skin and flesh to a considerable depth, by mistaking the one for the other. These wounds and burns heal without any uncommon difficulty. Notwithstanding this total loss of sensibility, she retains the power of motion in full perfection, and pursues her domestic employments without any remarkable inconvenience. All her animal and vital functions are in a natural, healthful state, and her spirits are regular—nay, even cheerful. She feels no uneasiness from her complaint, except a sense of fulness in the veins, which she ascribes to the slow circulation of blood in the extremities. As the sense of touch, however, is entirely lost, she finds it difficult to retain substances in her hands without looking at them, as it is by sight, chiefly, that she regulates the degree of muscular contraction necessary to their retention. On turning her eyes aside, she often drops glasses, plates, &c. which she holds, in safety, as long as she looks at them. A variety

of remedies had been tried without any effect. I was desirous of witnessing the effect of electricity. Although it produced very considerable contractions in the muscles of her arms down to her wrists, the effects of it on her hands were scarcely perceptible. After two or three days, however, she imagined that she was sensible of some kind of sensation from strong shocks, and was, therefore, advised to continue the application of it. Volatile liniment was prescribed, and rollers to support the veins which appeared relaxed and distended by their contents. Of the result of these experiments I have not yet been informed, as my patient lives more than 70 miles distant from Lexington.

S. BROWN.

June 30, 1799.

In the first volume of the Wonderful Magazine I met with the following facts and observations.

Dr. Hervey affirms that the heart (though the fountain of life) has no *feeling*; which he proves by the case of a gentleman whom he had seen, who, by an impostumation in his side, had an opening made to his heart, through which its motions could be distinctly observed, and the heart itself touched with the finger, which yet the gentleman affirmed that he felt not.

[Vol. i. p. 386.]

Dionysius, the son of Clearchus, tyrant of Heraclea, through idleness and high feeding, had attained to a great degree of corpulency, and slept so soundly that it was difficult to awake him. His physicians, therefore, took this course with him: They had sharp bodkins and needles, which they thrust into divers parts of his body; but till the point of them had passed the fat he felt not, but the flesh below retained its sensibility.

[*Ibid.*]

Dr. London knew a maid in England, otherwise of good health, that had no sense of burnings in her neck: she would suffer a needle to be run into her forehead, and into the flesh of her fingers, near the nails, and yet without any sense of pain.

[*Ibid.*]

Mr. Hollier and Dr. Hervey knew a girl, 18 years of age, who, without the loss of motion, had so lost the sense of feeling in the external parts of her body, that her handkerchief could be pinned to her neck without her knowledge. Dr. Hervey advised marriage, and she recovered.

[*Ibid.*]

The doctrine of the nervous system is yet so much embarrassed with contradictory facts and visionary theories, that I shall not attempt an explication of the phenomena of the above cases. It is only by carefully noting and recording facts that we can hope to arrive at truth in our physiological investigations.

S. B.

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ARTICLE V.

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REMARKS on a SUBTERRANEAN WALL in NORTH-CAROLINA, by the Rev. ZECHARIAH LEWIS, of the State of Connecticut. [See *Medical Repository*, vol. ii. p. 272 and 275, 1st edition.]

SIR,

AGREEABLY to your request, I transmit to you an account of the subterranean wall in North-Carolina.— This account was hastily written, amidst all the inconveniences of a journey. Since my return I have not found leisure to revise and correct it; and, at present, can only transcribe it in its original crude form.

I am, Sir,

With sentiments of esteem,

Your obedient friend and humble servant,  
ZECHARIAH LEWIS.

Dr. MILLER.

*West-Greenwich, Nov. 12, 1800.*

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THE celebrated subterranean wall, which, for several years past, has been made the subject of much conversation and investigation in various parts of the United States, is about twelve miles north-east of Salisbury, in the county of Rowan, State of North-Carolina. It stands on uneven ground, near a small brook. The stones of which it is formed are all of one kind, and evidently contain a quantity of iron ore. They are of various magnitudes; all of a long figure, and from one to twelve inches in length. The ends of the stones, which are of different figures, form the sides of the wall. Some of the ends are square; others are nearly of the form of a parallelogram, triangle, rhombus, or

rhomboides; but most of them are irregular. Some preserve the figure and dimension of the end through the whole length; others enlarge or diminish from the end. The surface of some is plain, of some concave, and of others convex. Every concave stone is furnished with one of a convex surface. Where the stones are not so exactly fitted as to lie perfectly level and firm, they are curiously wedged with others, which are very small, and of a plano-convex form. The most irregular and unmanageable stones are thrown into the middle of the wall. The whole appear to be arranged in the most skilful manner to make the wall solid and strong.

Every stone is covered with a species of cement. The cement, contiguous to the stone, has the appearance of iron rust; and, where it is thin, the rust has penetrated through it. Many pieces, however, are found more than an inch thick. In these the cement appears to be of a fine and curious texture; not the least sand nor grit is discoverable. In the wet parts of the wall, the middle of the cement, which is not discoloured with rust, is nearly of the colour, the consistence, and the soft, oily feeling of putty in its softest state.

The width or thickness of the wall is uniformly twenty-two inches: its height and length have not yet been discovered. The Rev. Dr. M'Korkle, Rev. Mr. Hall, and Dr. Newman, began, with considerable spirit, to give it a thorough examination. A sum of money was collected, and a number of workmen employed, who devoted several days to the business. About forty yards from the part first discovered, and on a line with the direction of that part, they dug a large pit. After digging several feet they struck the wall. The pit was then continued on one side some depth, that the base of the wall might be found, and its height ascertained. The workmen, however, were soon incommoded with water, which rose in the pit with great rapidity. At length, the man who was digging, although long experienced in the business of sinking wells, became alarmed with his situation, and totally relinquished the object. They then proceeded to discover the length. Another pit was dug beyond the former, and the wall again found. In the attempt to find the northern limit, a bend or off-set was discovered; after which the wall was found to proceed in a line parallel with its former direction. The off-set is not rectangular, but a gentle bend or curve.

The perpendicular distance of the parallel lines is about six feet. Without finding the terminations or the height, the



fund was exhausted, the workmen fatigued and discouraged, and the investigation relinquished. The whole length yet discovered is about 300 feet, and the greatest height is twelve or fourteen. Both sides of the wall are plastered with a substance which resembles the cement on which the stones are laid.

The wall has been so broken by its numerous visitants, that the top of it cannot now be examined with accuracy. The Rev. Mr. Hall gives the following account of it: "Above the cavern or part first discovered, where the ground rises abruptly, the wall ascends; and below the cavern, where the ground gently declines, the top of the wall runs nearly parallel with the declivity. So far as the wall has yet been discovered, the highest part is fifteen or twenty feet above the lowest."

It appears to be the prevailing opinion, in this region, that the wall is a production of nature. In support of this opinion the following inquiries are suggested:

In the first place—What could have been the object of the wall? From the length already discovered, it cannot have been the part of any house or public building; and the ground on which it stands must have been badly calculated for a fortification.

In the second place—To build the wall with such stones—to fit them so exactly to each other—and, particularly, to collect, and so curiously arrange those of the smallest size, must have been the work of much time and immense industry. How is it supposable that men, in a rude state of society, would submit to the labour, or could possess the skill?

In the third place—Where could the materials have been procured?

In answer to the first of these inquiries, it may be observed, that, although we cannot, with absolute certainty, determine the object of the wall, yet we may form conjectures which contain, at least, as great probability as those which can be formed on the opposite side of the question. The form of the wall, so far as it has yet been discovered, will justify the supposition that it was built for a wall of defence. Its strength, also, at a time when bows and arrows were the principal instruments of war, would have been sufficient for the purpose. Since the wall was erected, the surface of the ground may have been greatly changed by repeated and heavy rains, and, possibly, by the general deluge.

It may have been built for the purpose of enclosing a prison, a garden, or a city.

It is also possible that the small stream which runs near the wall was formerly a considerable river, and that the wall was erected to guard against the rise of its waters.

To the second it may be replied, that we are not driven to the necessity of supposing the wall to have been built in a very rude state of society. It may have been constructed by some enlightened antediluvian nation, or by some civilized people who may have wandered to this region from the eastern continent. A tribe, not more refined than the native Mexicans, might have possessed sufficient skill. There are many productions of that nation, and even of more savage tribes, which exhibit more ingenuity and greater perseverance. The floating gardens, which furnished the Mexicans with subsistence; and the dyke, nine miles in length, which guarded them against the inundations of the lake, required incomparably greater efforts of industry, perseverance and skill.

To the third a satisfactory and full answer is at hand. On the adjacent hill are many stones evidently of the same substance and form: they are, however, larger and more broken than those in the wall. From this fact it appears that the best were selected for the work. The distance over which the stones were carried is not more than two or three hundred yards, and nearly the whole is descending ground. This is, possibly, the very reason why this spot was chosen for the location of the wall.

In a river, not more than one fourth of a mile distant, are found great quantities of muscle-shells, of which the cement may have been made. Mr. Probley, who lives within eighty yards of the wall, and who came to us while we were examining its materials and construction, assured us that he had carefully dried the cement, burnt the shells, compared the two, and could find no difference between them.

At a small distance there is also found a species of clay, resembling fuller's earth, of which the inhabitants make a convenient and durable cement for their chimneys. This cement is free from grit, and very similar to that of the wall.

The wall is perfectly regular, and has every possible appearance of an artificial production. The stones are all laid across the wall, and in a horizontal direction. The earth contiguous to it evidently appears to be what is generally termed made ground. It is of a grey, sandy character, and must have been washed to the wall by repeated and heavy rains.

Philosophers have generally adopted the opinion that there

are but three methods by which nature produces regular forms in the mineral system. These are, first, that of crystallization; secondly, the crusting or settling of the external surface of a liquid mass while cooling; and, thirdly, the bursting of a moist substance while drying.\* From a brief investigation, it will, I believe, be determined, that the wall cannot have been produced by either of these modes.

The different strata of substances formed by the first mode are never found, in any considerable quantities, to run in the same direction, and never, I believe, horizontally. They generally run in oblique directions, inclining either to or from each other. But in the wall the different stones are placed parallel with each other, and in a horizontal direction.

The second method is, the crusting of the external surface of a melted mass. We cannot conceive it possible that a mass of melted substance, several hundred feet in length, twelve or fourteen in height, and precisely twenty-two inches thick, should stand and cool in that position. The top would sink, and the sides spread; and this, probably, not equally in all parts. But were it possible that the liquid mass should thus stand and cool, it would be attended with the following process. The external parts first losing their heat, would first congeal: the cold would contract the liquid stratum, and thus separate it from the remaining liquid substance. In the same manner other strata would be formed, as the refrigeration should penetrate deeper into the mass. Thus a stratum would be formed on the top of the wall parallel with its length; and strata would, at the same time, be formed on the sides, either parallel with its length, or perpendicular from the summit to the base. As the middle of the mass would not cool so fast as the sides, so the strata could not be formed horizontally from one side to the other.

The third method, to wit, the bursting of a moist substance while drying, is similar, in its effects, to the second; of course similar remarks will apply. In this case the substance is in a moist instead of a melted state. The bursting of the moist substance, or the separating of the strata, is the effect of contraction by drying. The drying advances, in this case, just in the same manner with the refrigeration in the former; and, for the same reasons, the wall cannot have been produced by the third method.

\* Vide Encyclopædia.

Thus it is evident, in the first place, that no substantial argument is offered to prove that the wall cannot be artificial: in the second place, that it has every possible appearance of being the production of art: and, in the third place, that it cannot have been produced by nature in either of its ordinary modes of producing regular forms.

#### POSTSCRIPT.

After my arrival at the Rev. Dr. M'Korkle's, I was informed, that in May, 1798, the Rev. Mr. Hall, of Iredell county, carried some of the materials of the wall to Philadelphia, and had them examined by a member of the American Philosophical Society. By a chemical process, from 50 to 54 grains of native earth was produced from 100 grains of the materials. The experiment was made separately with the solid stone, the rust formed on the surface of the stone, the purest and whitest of the cement, and the cement which was impregnated with rust. The result, in every instance, was nearly the same. "All appeared to be radically of the same substance, and strongly impregnated with iron ore." The mineralogist was firmly of the opinion, "that the whole is the work of nature, is what chemists call basaltes, and may have been thrown up by a volcano." He concludes a letter to Mr. Hall in these words: "The wall is certainly a great curiosity, and will afford room for the speculations of the curious for ages yet to come."\*

The subject, I apprehend, received a superficial investigation. By a chemical process it was found, that the stones and the cement contain one property of the basaltes, to wit, native earth. It ought, however, to be remembered, that this basaltic property exists, in a greater or less degree, in every species of stone. It ought also to be remembered, that basaltes contain various properties, and that all of them should be found in the wall. But a single corresponding property having been discovered, the opinion was hastily adopted, "that the whole is what chemists call basaltes."

An eminent European philosopher, who has attentively examined the nature of basaltes, observes, "that the most remarkable property of this substance is its figure. It is never found in strata like other marbles, but always standing up in

\* These quotations were taken from a Salisbury Gazette of the summer of 1798.

the form of regular angular columns, composed of a number of joints, one placed upon and nicely fitted to another." The strata, in these columns, run perpendicularly, or nearly so: all in the same column are not of equal height: there is nothing between them resembling cement: and they are so contiguous to each other that the point of a knife can scarcely be thrust into the crevices. These properties do not exist in the wall; consequently it cannot be basalt.

It is another property of basalt, that "it is fusible, *per se*, by a moderate fire." This is not the fact with the wall; consequently it cannot be basalt.

Some philosophers have strenuously contended that basalt is a crystallization; others warmly assert that it is of volcanic origin. If either of these opinions be true, the wall, as I have shown while considering the different methods by which nature produces regular forms in the mineral kingdom, cannot be basalt.

Neither stones, nor other mineral substances found in the earth, unless they have been, at some period, exposed to the aerial acid, are covered with rust. On the supposition that the wall is basalt, and its present form the work of nature, the individual strata, or stones, could never have been exposed to the air. The stones in the wall, without a single exception, are covered with rust; consequently the wall cannot be basalt.

In the accounts of basalt found in Ethiopia, in Spain, Russia and Poland; in the Giant's Causeway in Ireland, and on the island of Staffa; in the vicinity of Mount-Ætna, of Heckla in Iceland, and of the volcano on the Island of Bourbon; nothing which has been described bears the least resemblance, in its form, to the wall. We read of pillars, bases, arches, shafts, cones, &c. formed of strata running perpendicularly or obliquely, but not *horizontally*. These have not the appearance of having been formed of individual stones by the industry of man. They are not constructed with uniform mechanical exactness. With all their regularity, they bear evident marks of the rude hand of nature.

In some parts of Scotland great quantities of basalt are found, in fragments or single stones, lying on the surface of the earth. The stones in the wall, as well as those on the adjacent hill, may, it is acknowledged, be of a similar species, and may have been thrown up by a volcanic eruption. They must, however, have been collected, and placed in their present situation, by the hand of man.

On a review of the whole, I cannot but continue firm in the belief (the experiments and opinions above-mentioned notwithstanding), that the wall is a production of human industry and skill.

About six or eight miles from this wall another has since been found, which is forty feet in length, four or five in height, and uniformly seven inches in thickness. These stones are all of one length, but of different kinds. Some are of the iron character, others of a light grey colour, and differing as widely in kind as in colour.

## ARTICLE VI.

*ACCOUNT of the YELLOW FEVER which originated on Board the UNITED STATES SHIP GENERAL GREENE: By Dr. EDMUND THOMAS WARING, in a Letter to the Editors of the Medical Repository.*

**T**HE malignant fever which occasioned the unexpected return of the United States ship General Greene to this port, in June, 1799, having disappeared, she sailed on her second cruise the 23d of September following. She put into Cape François on the 8th of October, to repair damaged spars, &c. where she remained until the 13th, when she again sailed upon the cruise. From this to the 5th of April, 1800, she sailed from, and returned to the Cape, four times. On the 27th she was ordered to the mouth of the Mississippi, to receive on board General Wilkinson and suite. She arrived on the 10th of May, and, on account of the General not being prepared to embark, was detained upon that station thirty days. During this time the crew were subjected to all the inconveniences and anxiety which alternate sultry calms and violent storms, connected with a situation which they were but little acquainted with, could not fail to produce.— On the 9th of June she sailed for the Havanna, and arrived on the 22d. Here she remained until the 27th, when she proceeded for America. She arrived at the Chesapeake the 11th of July; thence, after a detention of three days, she sailed for Newport; and, on the 21st, was moored in Newport harbour.

During this lengthy cruise, which was performed in a variety of climates, in situations extremely unpleasant and unhealthy, and in which considerable and sudden changes of weather were experienced, the crew continued unusually healthy. Agreeable to the statement of the surgeon, some cases of bilious fever occurred previous to their arrival at the Chesapeak, all of which were controuled by usual modes of treatment, and no cases of fatal termination had taken place at that time. Every customary method of preserving purity of air, and the health of seamen, had been assiduously observed. The ship was freely ventilated, scoured, white-washed, sprinkled with vinegar, and the nitrous fumigation, particularly recommended by Drs. Smyth and Patterson, was frequently excited between decks. But notwithstanding all these precautions, and the still more favourable circumstance of her arrival in a more northern latitude, there was one man attacked, on the day of her leaving the Chesapeak, with a highly malignant fever, which terminated fatally on the fifth day; and, on the day after his attack, another was seized similarly, and died in eighteen hours. Five others were attacked about the same time, but with less virulence. They all soon recovered. —The two above-mentioned cases were the only instances of mortality previous to her arrival at Newport; and as they were stated in the surgeon's report to the Town Council thereof, it was contemplated to impose a quarantine upon the ship. But as there remained no recent case of the fever, and only three or four of the crew indisposed, it was finally concluded to have a sloop provided, remote from the town, for the accommodation of such others as might discover symptoms of the disease.

As I had been appointed to attend the invalid seamen in the Navy-Hospital at this place, I was, accordingly, called upon to attend these men. I visited them on the 23d, the day they were conveyed on board the ship. I found one labouring under a chronical complaint, two with a diarrhœa, accompanied with little fever, and a fourth a convalescent from yellow fever. The three last recovered so speedily that they were discharged on the 29th.

The favourable termination of these cases, and no others occurring, for a few hours satisfied those minds which had apprehended danger. But a fifth man, with symptoms of a highly malignant fever, was sent from the ship after she was hauled aside the wharf, on the very day after those three were discharged. He complained of pains in his head and loins,

with univerfal forenefs, and oppreffion about the præcordia, with nauſea. He was a little comatoſe, his pulſe quick, but of little momentum, and his body extremely warm. On the ſecond day the adnata of his eyes, as well as his ſkin, became of a yellow complexion; and, in the evening of the ſame, he began to vomit and purge abundantly of a dark liquor. His diſtreſs increaſed with the duration of the diſeaſe; and, on the third day, his body became interſperſed with livid ſpots. He died in the evening, with extreme agony.

From this date, every ſecond, third or fourth day, I had one or two applications. They were all attacked with the characteristics of the ſame diſeaſe, with only the difference of degree in virulence. The immoderate uſe of ſpirituous liquors, with but two or three exceptions, was the apparent exciting cauſe of the diſeaſe.

As the ſick were attended under a great diſadvantage, in a place ſo inconvenient as that provided for them, and no inſtance had occurred wherein the attendants contracted the diſeaſe, they were admitted into the houſe which had been occupied as a temporary hospital in the town. Two caſes of death in it ſoon, however, excited ſome alarm, which was much increaſed by an inhabitant of the town, who had been employed on board the ſhip, being attacked with the diſeaſe, and dying on the 15th of Auguſt, after an illneſs of five days. In conſequence of this, the invalids in the hospital were removed into a houſe remote from the town, and the ſhip, which lay at the wharf, was hauled off into the ſtream.

Notwithſtanding theſe prudential proceedings, other inhabitants who had worked on board the ſhip, and, in particular, one young man and two boys who bathed near her at the time her bilge-water was pumped out, were attacked with the diſeaſe, and died.

It is impoſſible to reduce to ſatiſfaction the opinion that all the caſes were derived from the ſhip, ſince ſome occurred wherein the patients had no communication either with the ſhip or any who had had the diſeaſe. They have been obſerved in but few families, moſt of which are not remarkable for cleanlineſs; whilſt others, contiguous to them, who cheriſh this great preſerver of health, and enemy to infectious diſeaſes, have not been infected. In particular, the family of a gentleman whoſe houſe is at the upper extremity of the wharf, and the neareſt to the place where the ſhip lay, have enjoyed perfect health; and individuals of the affected families were attacked, and died with the diſeaſe, a conſiderable time after the re-



removal of the ship, and the sick who were in the hospital; so that, I conceive, it may be an admitted presumption to consider the disease, as it appeared in some of these families, to depend upon the atmosphere which immediately surrounded them being highly contaminated, and if not conveying the cause generated from materials within its limits, to have been highly inviting to the introduction of foreign pestilence. Similitude of disease will, no doubt, favour the latter in many minds, and particularly in those who are advocates of the opinion of foreign importation of yellow fever, since it appeared on board the ship previous to her arrival; whereas, the inhabitants of Newport were exempt from it for three weeks after, and it then appeared among those who had either imprudently worked on board of her, or went within the probable sphere of infection. But, on the contrary, it is observed, that no transient visitors, or occasional attendants, have contracted the disease upon the principle of a specific contagion.

The number of inhabitants who have died is eleven, and two cases still remain under treatment. One of these is father to two lads who died of the disease three weeks ago, and, from report, will probably not recover. Of nineteen who were sent to the hospital, ten were seriously attacked, of whom six died. At present there are nine under care.—Soon after the offensive filth, which collected between the ship's ballast, was with it removed, and the ship properly cleansed, no instance of the fever occurred on board of her.

The only mode of treatment which appeared to be productive of salutary effects, both in the town and hospital, was the early administration of a cathartic, commonly of calomel, with jalap or rhubarb; and, by a repetition of small doses of the calomel alone, to produce as speedy a solution as possible. Evacuations by the bowels, by means of glysters, and the application of blisters on the legs, between the shoulders, and the præcordia, as symptoms indicated, were great auxiliaries during the mercurial course. Emetics did not answer any good effects; neither did the early and extreme irritability of the stomach appear to warrant them. The bark and other tonics required great caution in their use. They appeared to aggravate the symptoms if administered previous to convalescence, and increased much the distress of the patient if given by mouth.

*Newport (Rhode-Island), October 2, 1800.*

## ARTICLE VII.

*An ACCOUNT of DISEASES at WILMINGTON (Delaware), in the Summer and Autumn of 1800; of the DISEASE ORIGINATING on BOARD of the UNITED STATES SHIP GANGES; and of a DISEASE ARISING from the EFFLUVIA of HUMAN EXCREMENTS at NARBONNE, in FRANCE: Communicated by Dr. JOHN VAUGHAN, of Wilmington, to Dr. MILLER.*

DEAR SIR,

**I**N compliance with your request, in your letter of September 23d, I have obtained an account of the malignant disease which existed on board the United States ship Ganges; and have received an interesting article, from a French gentleman, respecting an indigenous malignant fever in Narbonne, which I shall preface with a summary of our febrile diseases of this season.

The early part of this spring was remarkably cool and uniform; but the leading features of our diseases indicated an unfavourable constitution of the atmosphere.

Cynanche trachealis, as mentioned in *Med. Rep.* vol. iii. p. 339, formed the prelude, and its successors were of an equal grade. The small-pox was more general than it had been for many years, and exhibited a degree of malignity unprecedented here. By inoculation it was not fatal, but more inflammatory than usual. A number of children had convulsive fits, and some the confluent form of the disease; and, in the natural way, it was almost uniformly confluent, and very frequently fatal. In some cases the pustules were black, the extremities cold, the patient comatose, and medical efforts entirely useless.

The small-pox was succeeded by glandular swellings, especially of the submaxillary glands, and various intumescentiæ. In children this grade of disease was in the form of urticaria, and in grown persons it was erysipelatous or herpetic. In the case of one lady it was an universal herpes farinosus. Her parents first attributed it to poison, next to a surfeit, and she was sent into the country, to be cured by a change of air and milk diet; but, at the expiration of three weeks, she returned without relief, and was cured by a course of mercurial alteratives, with occasional cathartics.

In the beginning of June the disease in children advanced to ulcerations of the mouth and throat, bordering on cynanche maligna; and in grown persons it became a scarlatina, attended with great anxiety at the præcordia.

Toward the middle of June the weather became warmer, with frequent thunder-gusts, and the revolutions of the atmosphere were accompanied with a modification of the prevailing disease—changing the seat of action to the intestines, and releasing the skin and lymphatic system in a considerable degree. Children were attacked with diarrhœas and choleras, and grown persons with diarrhœas and dysentery. Children, however, were the general subjects of disease, and very few of the second summer, or of one year and upwards, were exempt, while those under that age were undisturbed.

July commenced with excessive heat, and the temperature ranged from 85 to 91 deg. with occasional thunder-gusts, throughout the month. Intestinal diseases continued excessively violent, and frequently fatal in children. On the evening of the 14th instant six of my family were attacked with intestinal fever, without any manifest exciting cause.

During this month there was a peculiar tendency to local inflammation. Several slight injuries produced violent inflammation and pain, and symptoms of gangrene. In a case of fistula in ano, in a healthy man, the operation was succeeded by alarming symptoms, and gangrene was, with difficulty, prevented. I was consulted in the case of a lady, a few miles distant, who had tetanus from a slight prick of a needle in the wrist. She was cured by wine.

A few cases of intermittent and remittent fevers occurred in the latter part of this month, and some of the latter were of a serious complexion. The most violent case occurred on the 19th. A Mr. ——— was attacked with fever: pains of the head and back, suffusion of the eyes, delirium, and oppression of the præcordia, pretty soon succeeded. I saw him the same evening, and drew twelve ounces of blood from the arm; and as he had great pain and tormina of the bowels, I gave alkaline laxatives in large quantities. A profuse discharge of black, granulated, fœtid matter, soon came on, which excoriated the verge of the rectum, and gave him great uneasiness. Imputing the excoriation to an acid, I directed injections of weak soap-suds every half hour, and the effect answered my expectation. The nature of the discharge was changed, and the tormina relieved; but when the acid was neutralized, the alkali of the soap became irritating, and was discontinued.

The indication of the soap-injection was twofold—to neutralize the acid forming septite of pot-ash, while the oil of the soap was disengaged to sheath the tender coats of the intestines.

On the 20th those symptoms were renewed, during the exacerbation of the fever, and relieved by the same remedies, which continued to be the cure for four days: after this he speedily recovered.

The first day of August the thermometer stood at 91 deg. but fell to 78 the next day, and rose from 73 to 85 during the month. This variation of temperature, with diurnal fogs, produced an immediate revolution in our disease. Affections of the bowels ceased, and the arterial system became the seat of disorder. The small-pox unhappily recurred, in the suburbs of the town, in some poor families, with its former malignancy. Several died, but a few who were inoculated succeeded tolerably well. Towards the middle of the month intermittents became numerous and general beyond precedent, and remittents proportionably violent.

Mr. W. an old and respectable inhabitant of this town, was attacked with fever on the 12th, but was up, more or less, every day, until the 16th. In the morning of the latter his fever assumed a more determined form, with pain of the head and irritability of the stomach, when his physician bled him, and gave a cathartic. A profuse discharge *per anum* succeeded, of a claret-coloured matter; his extremities became cold; his pulse imperceptible, with great oppression at his breast; and he expired, at eight o'clock P. M. without a struggle; in fact, he was some time dead before it was discovered: the attendants thought him asleep.

On the 18th I visited Mrs. H. in a bilious fever. Her skin was yellow, stomach irritable, pulse feeble, and tongue striped with purple and yellow. She died on the 25th.

The 24th, the ship *Alexander*, Capt. Davy, arrived here from the Spanish Main, last from the Havanna, in a sickly condition; but she was remanded back to the Delaware, to seek for another port.

September preserved the fogs of August, and was still more temperate—the temperature of noon varying from 63 to 84 deg. and the mornings and evenings about 10 deg. less than noon. Remittents were more frequent, and more of them of a high grade.

Mrs. C. had black-vomit, checked with magnesia. Her sister, in the same house, had scarlatina, and her mother and husband intermitting fever.

J. W. had bilious fever, with depressed pulse, nasal hæmorrhage, cold extremities, coma, blackness of the lips and tongue, and suffused eyes. Cured by one bleeding, blisters and alkalies.

A. O. had bilious fever, with depressed pulse, suffused eyes, &c. Cured by two bleedings, &c.

I. G. fever, with suffused eyes, pains of the head and back, constipation of the bowels, cold extremities, with an oozing of dark blood from the gums and bowels. Once bled, &c. and recovered.

On the 21st the equinoxial storm commenced, and continued until the 29th, which, like the West-Indian hurricanes, arrested our febrile disease in the height of its career. But, what is somewhat remarkable, there were a number of persons relapsed into fever the day on which the weather cleared. Since that period we have had but few complaints.

Having said but little on the treatment of the preceding disease, in any of its forms, I may now add, that I have but little to say. Being satisfied of a prevailing constitution of atmosphere, the protean shapes of the disease did not mislead me from the principle of its sameness: and whether it was cutaneous, intestinal or vascular, the remedies were the same—varied in proportion to circumstances. If there were inordinate action of the arterial system, or oppression of the heart and blood-vessels, I used the lancet until the excess of action was removed, or the heart and arteries released from the surcharge of blood. In several cases in which the pulse was depressed, the patient comatose, and labouring, as it were, in the last struggle for life, the loss of a few ounces of blood gave him new vigour, and diffused the concentrated excitement. Blisters were also highly serviceable. The forms of alkalies generally used were the carbonates of pot-ash and lime, the sulphate and tartrate of soda, the tartrate of pot-ash, castile soap, and ammoniac. These, with small doses of calomel, were my universal alteratives and febrifuges.

This practice was no less simple than successful. The only patient I lost with fever was an old lady, upwards of eighty years of age; and she must soon have died from the ordinary course of nature. And I am persuaded, that Dr. Mitchell's recommendations of the use of alkalies in fevers will be the means of saving many useful lives. That an acid prevails in intestinal fevers there can be little doubt, and I lately met with a case which serves to illustrate it. A child, labouring under a diarrhœa, swallowed a cherry-stone, which

it could not void *per anum*: on extracting the stone with a pair of unpolished silver forceps, they were beautifully coloured of a purplish yellow by the acid.

One fact which merits notice in the history of the day is the disappearance of our birds, in the months of June and July especially. The cherry-trees were undisturbed by the common aerial robbers; the marshes were deserted by the red-winged chirpers; and the hedge warblers fled to some more friendly clime. Whether this desertion of the birds was owing to the presence of the locusts, or the state of the atmosphere, I am at a loss to determine: but the coolness and dryness of August and September may possibly have preserved us from an epidemic malignant disease. Our sources of miasmata are principally artificial; and most of our gutters, in the low parts of the town, being paved by the police, there were not sufficient sources of putrefaction to perfect the evil. Moisture and heat are the requisites of putrefaction, and both of these agents were suspended, in a considerable degree, after the first of August. One fact, which serves to characterize the grade of our morbid cause, is the circuit of our fogs: instead of soaring over the body of the town, to the hills, as in ordinary cases, or grovelling over the south-western flat, as in 1798, it took a circuitous route along the south-eastern level fronting the Delaware, and extending to Brandywine; and I believe not a single house escaped. It was sporadic over the town. Another singular circumstance is, that the French, who escaped the fever of 1798, were generally affected this season. Mr. Webster, in his History of Pestilence, mentions a variety of cases of pestilential diseases affecting certain descriptions of persons at one time, and exempting them at another; also, that it sometimes passed one town, and seized another contiguous. Such has been the fact in this neighbourhood. There is a small village, five miles distant from this, on the borders of the marshes, in a direct line between this and Christiana village, and it has been unusually healthy this season, while Christiana village was generally infected with bilious fever.

The experience of this season has, at least, established one fact, *i. e.* that yellow fever may exist without the subtle poison of contagion. Two of our medical gentlemen acknowledged to me, that they would not have hesitated to denominate some of the afore-mentioned cases *yellow fever*, if they could have been traced to contagious origin, or if the real yellow fever had been prevalent at the time. Those gentlemen are both celebrated for their candour, but their opinions are

influenced by a firm belief in the doctrine of specific contagion.

We had an alarm of contagion this season. A poor woman received a trunk of clothes from the West-Indies, which was the bequest of her son, who had died with the yellow fever. The hapless mother carelessly washed the contaminated clothes, to the great distress of her friends and neighbours; but, as good luck would have it, neither the poor woman nor her neighbours were sufferers from her imprudence. How long this unhappy dread of contagion will continue to distress mankind I cannot determine; but I hope the illusion will be removed by the experience of our naval physicians. I have received a letter from Dr. Hanson Catlett, of the Ganges, which is important testimony on this subject, as follows:

*“ Newcastle, September 29, 1800.*

“ DEAR SIR,

“ With pleasure I comply with your request to be informed in what manner the fever was introduced, or made its appearance on board the Ganges. If this will afford any useful information, or tend, in any manner, to do away the very mistaken opinion, that this fever ever takes place, in any considerable degree, where the climate, and every other circumstance, does not favour its progress, I shall be more than doubly rewarded for the small trouble I take in complying with your wish.

“ For six weeks after our arrival on the station, the crew were remarkably healthy. Early in August the ship lay several days in the Havana, which harbour is much confined with hills and castles. We were then but a few days at sea before we went into the harbour of Matanzas, and remained there about a week. Here also we wanted that free circulation of air which we enjoyed at sea: the heat was, consequently, more intense, and the debilitating and pernicious effects of the climate more prevalent: the height of the sickly season was also coming on.

“ None of the ship's company, except myself, had the least intercourse with other shipping. I was sometimes called upon to visit sick persons on board merchant vessels. About the 14th of August several of the men were complaining of headache, weakness, and want of appetite. Capt. Mullowny was attacked with violent pain in his head and back, and a high fever. John M'Guir (marine) complained of symptoms very different—great prostration of strength, vomiting,

and pain about his breast. He was a man of a debilitated habit. With Capt. Mulloony the most powerful depleting means were used, to which his fever yielded on the second day, and on the third the pains entirely subsided. To M'Guir I gave stimulant medicines, and applied blisters, without effect. His extremities remained cold, and vomiting continued, until he died, on the 17th, with the black-vomit, which was the first symptom that gave me any apprehension of its being a case of yellow fever. Our sick list was now increased to ten patients, a number it had not before known: the surgeon's mate and myself were added to the number; and what passed until the 19th I was unconscious of. We had now arrived again in the Havanna: my fever left me, and I was supported from my bed to the hammocks of the sick, who were increased to eighteen. The symptoms were become more violent; fifteen were sent on shore to the hospital, of whom seven died in three days. New cases were produced almost every hour, and it was determined that we should fly the climate, as the only means of saving any part of the crew.

“On the passage home, our sick list contained, generally, from twenty to thirty. To all evacuant medicines were given, and those of full habit I bled. We lost on the passage ten—since our arrival three—in all twenty-one—and left at the hospital, in Havanna, eleven.

“The great effects of the change of climate I think worthy of observation: before we came on the coast of America we had thirty patients; and, on our arrival, there were but three or four cases of fever.

“I discovered no instance of personal contagion. Those who were constantly among the sick were not affected in greater proportion than those most distant from them; nor was there an instance of the disease spreading from the sick after their being landed.

“With respect to progressive debility, languor, lassitude, and loss of complexion, they were evident in many, previous to the occurrence of any malignant symptoms. I did not discover any premonitory symptoms: our first attacks were less violent than they afterwards became.

“To describe all the various forms and complicated symptoms of this disease would be tedious. If you can collect from this the information you were desirous of obtaining, you will excuse my not giving you a more particular account at present. I am, &c.

HANSON CATLETT.”



This communication of Dr. Catlett is conclusive, on the origin and non-contagious nature of the disease on board the *Ganges*: and the disease which lately existed on board the ship *Delaware*, was equally limited in its nature. Dr. Anderson, of that ship, informed me that the disease unquestionably originated on board, in the harbour of *Curracoa*, while the inhabitants of the island were perfectly healthy. As soon as the nature of the disease was known, they put to sea, in hopes of receiving advantage from a free circulation of air; but the sick list increased daily, and they returned to the harbour of *Curracoa* in a much worse condition than they left it. Forty sick were then landed; and though there were no restrictions in intercourse with the inhabitants, there was not a single suspicion of contagious influence. They, however, were not released from disease until after their arrival at *Newcastle*.

Dr. Anderson promised me a minute history of their disease, with its attendant circumstances; but, returning to sea sooner than he expected, I have not had the pleasure of receiving his written statement on the subject. I do not recollect the precise mortality of the disease, but I think it was not less than twenty deaths.

To these two indisputable testimonies of the origin of yellow fever on board of ships, I may add one, not less unequivocal, of its arising from human ordure:

“In the summer of the year 1783, M. Faure, a merchant of *Narbonne*, in *Lower-Languedoc*, in *France*, bought a house which had previously been occupied as an anatomical hall; and, being desirous of having a cave dug in the cellar, employed three men to do it. In digging they came to the wall of a necessary, which had been the common receptacle of the remains of human subjects, and which was covered in to prevent detection; and, on extracting a few of the stones with their picks, an offensive putrid matter rushed through the aperture, and suffocated them. M. Faure, going to see the workmen, descended but two or three steps before he fell senseless. The neighbouring people, perceiving the putrid smell, went to the house, and, of nine that entered to bring out the sufferers, six died. M. Faure was removed, but died in four days; and the unfortunate labourers survived their release but a day or two.

“In the mean time, the smell increased to such a degree as to create a pestilence, and the neighbours were obliged to remove; but a great many of them died. The Mayor of the city being informed of the circumstance, had the cellar filled

up, and the house closed. But the malignant effluvia had pervaded the town, and a great many died with the *pestis*. The disease was attended with the black-vomit, but not communicated by contagion."

The writer of this article, Mr. P. C. Varlé, lived with the former owner of the fatal house during the calamity, and was accurately informed of the state of the poisonous privy, and was attentive to the progress and nature of the disease.

This is the most decisive fact that I have met with on the origin of pestilence. The circumstances of the case preclude all cavilling, and must be admitted as conclusive. It will tend much towards the establishment of Dr. Mitchill's theory of the *oxyd of septon*, if he can surmount the old doctrine of alkaline, or ammoniacal gas, being the principal product of animal putrefaction. Nitrogen (septon) is acknowledged to be evolved in abundance by the putrefaction of animal substances, and to combine with hydrogen in the formation of ammoniac: but it is not unphilosophical to suppose "that a modification may take place, and the nitrogen (septon) combine with oxygen in the formation of the gaseous oxyd of septon."

The predominance of an acid in pestilential diseases is pretty well ascertained by the beneficial effects of alkalies, independent of every other consideration. I have been informed that Dr. Monges, of Philadelphia, who was celebrated in the *fever* of 1798, made use of alkalies in large quantities, and that he seldom failed in checking black-vomit with magnesia. And if Dr. Mitchill should be mistaken in the precise nature of the pestilential acid, he has, at least, opened the door of investigation, and found the clew that leads to the pestiferous labyrinth.

I am, with much esteem,  
Your friend and humble servant,

JOHN VAUGHAN.

*Wilmington, October 20, 1800.*

## ARTICLE VIII.

SOME OBSERVATIONS RELATING to the SENSE of HEARING: Addressed to the Editors of the Medical Repository, by the Rev. Dr. PRIESTLEY.

GENTLEMEN,

WE know so little concerning the sense of hearing, and, indeed, concerning sound in general, that the communication of any new facts, relating to either of them, may have their use, though, for the present, and, when separately considered, they do not appear to throw any light on the subject. It is with this view that I take the liberty to lay before you the following observations; thinking it possible that other persons may have made similar ones, and that, by this means, something of real value may, in time, be discovered.

Being accustomed to put a watch, and sometimes two watches, under my pillow, especially in winter, and sometimes attending to the beating of them as I lie awake, I was surprised, about a year ago, to find only one watch under the pillow, when, judging by the sound I heard, I thought there must have been two. Finding, however, that there was but one, I gave more particular attention to the phenomena; and, having repeated them more than a hundred times, I can, with certainty, say they were as follow:

1. Besides the sound that we may call *ticking*, produced by the striking one piece of metal against another, I distinctly hear another sound, coincident with it, resembling that of a bell, but generally as at a considerable distance. It is, however, sometimes louder than that of the ticking.

2. This additional sound is generally a fifth, or an octave, lower than that of the ticking.

3. I sometimes perceive two of these additional sounds, differing in tone and intensity.

4. This additional sound is not the necessary effect of the ticking; for I do not always perceive it, and it has sometimes frequent interruptions. Though the two sounds, when both are heard, are always coincident, the interruption in the bell-like sound is sometimes regular, being heard every other beat, and sometimes it is not heard for a considerable time together.

It is only with one of my ears, viz. the left, that I perceive this additional sound, at least very sensibly; and yet I cannot say that I hear distant sounds any better with one ear than with the other. But if I stop my left ear with the end of my finger, I hear a constant undulating sound, but none with the other; and the ticking of every watch is louder when held close to the left ear than to the right.

6. This additional sound is more distinctly perceived from one particular watch than from any other.

Submitting these singular observations to your consideration,

I am, Gentlemen,

Yours sincerely,

J. PRIESTLEY.

*Northumberland, May 8, 1800.*

## ARTICLE IX.

*An ACCOUNT of the EPIDEMIC DISEASE which appeared in the CITY of NEW-YORK, in the SUMMER and AUTUMN of 1800: Communicated by VALENTINE SEAMAN, M. D. to Dr. MILLER.*

MY DEAR DOCTOR,

A DESIRE for fulfilling the request of a friend, although not without its influence, is by no means the only reason for my drawing up and submitting the following remarks upon our late autumnal fever to thy consideration. A sense of duty makes it necessary for me thus to hand in my mite to the historians of the diseases of our country: peradventure it may give some little aid in their praise-worthy, though arduous undertaking; particularly as a variety of circumstances have concurred in throwing a considerable share of the complaint within the scope of my observation: furthermore, as the method in which my patients have been treated is somewhat different, and, as there is some reason to believe, more successful, than what has been heretofore adopted, by thus communicating it, it may, perhaps, be of some practical usefulness; at least, it may gain a trial in unprejudiced hands, whereby its real value will be established.

In the fore part of the 8th month (August) I was called to several cases of irregular intermittent and remittent fevers.

Towards the end of the month applications considerably increased. Intermitents appeared now to be giving way. Febrile diseases began to assume a more regular, uniform appearance, as will be presently described.

The 9th month (September) opened with a great accumulation of patients with this disease; indeed, so rapidly did it increase, that in the course of this single month upwards of ninety cases of it came under my own particular attention.

In the first part of the 10th month (October) people were still taken down with this disease, but not in such numbers as before. On the night of the 3d or 4th we had a frost sufficient to affect the leaves of a gourd-vine in my neighbourhood. On the night of the 6th there was again a slight white frost; since which the weather has been more temperate (*i. e.* not so cold). The disease did not subside immediately upon the appearance of frost, but continued for as much as ten days afterwards, *viz.* the 14th of this month; since which I have not known of a single *decided* new case of it, and, indeed, but one any way suspicious.

This fever came on, as fevers in general do, with chills, succeeded by increased heat, frequent pulse, &c. but was attended with a disproportionate (if I may so speak) pain in the head and back—that is, their pains seemed greater than what is usually met with, in fevers of like appearance, in other respects. The eyes were red, the appetite gone, skin dry, tongue furred, &c.

These symptoms most generally subsided about the third day. The skin then became cool, the eyes natural, pains abating, and that pulse which, but a few hours before, beat from 80 to 130 strokes in a minute, now, in a great many instances, sunk down to 48, and, in one man, as low as 40: in a few days, however, they gradually returned to their natural standard of about 70.

With this subsidence of febrile action, the patients generally complained of excessive weakness, and frequently of nausea and great irritability of their stomachs, which, in some, was accompanied with puking of great quantities of a yellow bitter matter.

Beside the foregoing general symptoms, many were affected with discharges of blood, particularly from the nose. Three, I now recollect, had bleeding from their gums; three had a two week's anticipation of their catamenia; and one raised blood from his lungs.

Two of my private patients had yellow skins, and the per-

piration of a third so stained his linen that his wife said she was not able to wash the yellowness out of it.

The only one of my patients who died of this disease, during its prevalence this year, had, in its last stage, a dry tongue, covered with a brown scurf, and puked the coffee-ground matter. Besides this one person, whose complaint proved fatal, I had an opportunity of witnessing a like termination of three others, to whom I was called, in consultation, a few hours before their end. From the best history I could gain from their attending physicians, the preceding state of their complaints was like those above described. Two of them became yellow, with brown dry tongues, and puked the coffee-ground matter before their death; the third appeared to die from mere debility, without any of those symptoms of malignancy about him.

Of upwards of 150 persons with this disease, whom I visited, all of them, excepting one, resided (or else had stores, wherein they were occupied during the greater part of the day) either in Pearl-street, or between that and the East-River. This one lived on the North-River shore, but lodged in a bed that had been immediately before occupied by a sick person, who had been just taken with her complaint, after removing there from Cherry-street.

In the first stage of this complaint I gave from twenty to thirty grains of a powder, containing the proportion of one part of tartar emetic to thirty parts of calomel, with as much rhubarb, and double the quantity of prepared chalk, which generally purged freely, and frequently puked considerably, but without any violent strainings. Its proving emetic did not appear, in the least, to lessen its effects upon the bowels. Sometimes, when the first dose did not operate well, it was repeated.

The febrile commotion was, for the most part, considerably relieved by these evacuations. In the evening a draught of the spiritus Mindereri, with laudanum, was given, which often induced some sweating, and generally procured a tolerable night's rest. Afterwards my patients took small portions of tartar emetic, with nitre, repeating the anodyne sudorific draughts, with the semicupium, at night, till the violence of the fever subsided.

Some few were bled, and many who lost blood spontaneously appeared to be benefited by it.

Upon the coming on of the second stage of the fever, and whose approach was watched with the closest attention, immediately as the violence of action appeared to be giving way

to an opposite state of the system, a strong decoction of Quassia wood was begun with, and generally continued till the patient was recovered. I had formerly been in the habit of administering the cold infusion of the bark in this state of the complaint; but having observed that its stimulating quality seemed to rekindle the immediate action of the arterial system, inducing heat and huskiness of the skin, &c. when given early, and not unfrequently disagreeing with the stomach, even when deferred till a later period, I generally, nay, almost uniformly, substituted a decoction of this simple powerful bitter in its place, and I cannot but think with the best effects: it appeared to strengthen without stimulating, to brace the stomach without exciting the fever.

The following is the manner in which the Quassia was administered: ʒj. of the shavings of the wood was boiled in ʒij. of water, till one third part had boiled away. A tablespoonful of the strained liquid was given every two hours.

After two or three days, when the danger of re-exciting the fever was not much to be feared, and the stomach was pretty steady, the bark was sometimes given, and seemingly to good purpose.

When sickness at the stomach was troublesome, a plaster, containing a considerable proportion of the essential oil of mint, was applied to the scrobiculus cordis, which generally proved a remedy: however, in some instances it became necessary to remove it, to give place to the more powerful operation of an epispastic.

In conjunction with these means, the most rigid abstinence from all stimulating drink and diet was adhered to. Nothing but bread and water was given as food; and water, with a piece of toasted bread in it, thin gruel, barley-water, or something of that kind, was the only drink, at least until the disease appeared to be subdued. During convalescency a more full diet was recommended.

Among the variety of questions that the foregoing account might give rise to, the following may not be considered as the least important: viz. Is this fever of the same kind with that which has so fatally scourged our city for some preceding years? If so, why was it so materially less mortal? Was it from the disease being milder in its nature, from a change in the disposition of the atmosphere in our favour? Are we to hope that that heavy epidemic cloud which has so dreadfully hung over us for these some years past is now going

off, and that this season's disease was milder in consequence of the lighter influence of its passing skirt? Or, if the disease arises from contagion, can it be assignable to its seeds, left from a last year's prevalence, having degenerated, from having lain in a climate unfavourable for supporting its original strength of malignancy? Or, finally, may its less fatality be ascribed to a difference in the mode of treating it?

In respect to the identity of this season's epidemic with that of preceding years, I cannot, for my own part, entertain the least doubt. The part of the city in which it prevailed, the violence of attack, the degree of pain, the general subsidence of the excessive arterial action about the third day, the succeeding paucity of circulation, hæmorrhages, yellowness of the skin, yellow sweating, coffee-ground vomiting, and death about the fifth or seventh day, all evince their being the same. It is true, a very small proportion had the black-vomiting, and but few were yellow: however, black-vomiting, it must be remembered, is by no means a necessary symptom of the disease—not much more so than death itself is, as, in fact, it is almost uniformly succeeded by it: and even in regard to yellowness of the skin, every ingenuous physician must acknowledge, that a small proportion only recover after it has taken place. It is highly probable to me, that a successful treatment is generally the means of preventing that appearance.

That the morbid influence of our atmosphere is moderating I am fully of the belief; but that the general recovery of my patients was owing *entirely* to the milder nature of the disease this season, I confess I cannot but doubt. The following considerations oblige me to think that something must be attributed to the peculiarity of their treatment.

First, The only *one* that died was not prescribed for till the third day of his complaint, and he neglected taking his medicine till the commencement of the fourth.

Secondly, Four persons, thus treated, who were taken sick in houses where persons, under a different management, had previously died, all recovered.

Thirdly, By the accounts of deaths, as stated by James Hardie, 67 persons must have died of bilious and of yellow fever between the 1st of August and 23d of October. Now, even admitting the death of my poor neglectful patient to have been owing to the inefficiency of this mode of treatment, still, if it has not been more successful than the various other methods as practised throughout the city, we must suppose



that there has been, at least, upwards of ten thousand persons sick with this disease within that time—a number, I suspect, far exceeding any one's calculation.

If this communication can be of any use to thee, I am rewarded for drawing it up. I must not close, however, without begging an excuse for the general egotism it possesses, which necessarily originated from my confining myself so closely to what came under my own particular observation. I may also be suspected to have been too partial to my own method of cure. It may be that the milder nature of the disease was the *only* cause of the general recovery of the sick; I can only say, that no one can more heartily wish that that may have been the case than thy friend,

VALENTINE SEAMAN.

*New-York, 10th month (October) 30th, 1800.*

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ARTICLE X.

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*On the YELLOW FEVER, as it appeared at BALTIMORE (State of Maryland), in the SUMMER and AUTUMN of 1800: Communicated by Dr. CHATARD, of that City, in a Letter to Dr. MILLER.*

SIR,

THE yellow fever, which formerly I have often seen and attended, both here and in St. Domingo, shall be the subject of my present letter. As it is not my design to give you a regular account of this disease, I shall omit all description of it, and many other details which might otherwise be deemed necessary. If my observations have not deceived me, I can venture to assure you that the disease called yellow fever, and which has committed such ravages, for many years, in the United States, is essentially a bilious fever—very often accompanied with a sanguineous plethora—and sometimes combined with nervous affections. These nervous affections are more common in St. Domingo than in this country, and it is especially in such cases that the cold bath is an appropriate remedy. It will readily occur that those three states of the disease require modes of treatment entirely different. The practitioner who can most certainly discriminate between these

states, with all their variety of complications, will be the most successful in his practice. I might here properly undertake to describe the symptoms belonging to each of the above-mentioned states of the disease; but I decline this at present, because it would carry me beyond my assigned limits, and because these observations are addressed to a person who has often seen the disease. On this point I shall only remark, that it is not always an easy matter to distinguish an inflammatory state of the system from that sanguineous turgescence produced by violent bilious affections on such occasions. In both cases the face and eyes are equally red and suffused; but when this suffusion is the result of bilious disorder, pain of the head is more severe, the skin drier, the heat more pungent, the pulse harder and less contracted, thirst more ardent, and the tongue more foul. This is, indeed, a short description of the symptoms which characterize our epidemic fever of the present season; and hence you will perceive the reason why I have ordered venesection only in two instances of the prevailing epidemic, although, in that of 1797, at Fell's-Point, I had cured many by means of the lancet, as the learned Dr. Rush had previously done, by the same remedy, in the epidemic of 1793, at Philadelphia. That able physician enjoined copious blood-letting, because he distinctly saw that the epidemic of that particular season was accompanied with a real inflammatory diathesis. Other practitioners have been less successful in the use of this remedy than he was, and, consequently, have contracted violent prejudices against it, merely because it was employed in a different condition of the system, or, in other words, where the sanguineous turgescence was excited by bilious disorder. Indeed, the celebrated Avicenna brought us acquainted, many centuries ago, with this distinction, by asserting, "*Sanguis est frænum bilis.*" Blood-letting is as pernicious in the bilious, as it is useful in the inflammatory condition of the system.

Being, therefore, convinced that the predisposing cause of our existing epidemic results from a load of bilious acrimonious matters lodged in the first passages, without any combination of inflammatory diathesis, I direct all my attention, from the commencement of the attack, to the evacuation of the alimentary canal, and to the preventing of the absorption of that deleterious matter confined in it, which, if once allowed to infect the mass of circulating fluids, speedily decomposes the whole frame. Accordingly, if I am called at the first attack of the disease, I prepare my patient by copious

draughts of chicken-water, barley-water, tamarind-water, or warm lemonade, to take an emetic in a form greatly diluted, as, for instance, a solution of three or four grains of emetic tartar in a quart of warm water, of which a tea-cupful is ordered to be taken every quarter of an hour until vomiting be induced; and, at the same time, the vomiting is promoted by large draughts of warm water, and continued, as long as it is deemed necessary, by an occasional return to the use of the emetic solution. After the operation of the emetic I enjoin the plentiful use of either of the above-mentioned diluent drinks, at the option of the patient, for twelve hours. I then order a cathartic of Glauber's salt, or of castor-oil. Strict abstinence from food is required, even although the patient should have an appetite to eat. It commonly happens, after the operation of the cathartic, that the sick find themselves much better; and, if so, it is sufficient to preserve an open state of the bowels by emollient clysters, and by chicken-water, with wild succory. But sometimes the fever continues, vomiting comes on, and a burning sensation is felt at the stomach, attended with sour eructations. In this situation I prescribe small doses of magnesia, often repeated; a strong decoction of barley, both for drink and food; and a wine-glassful of a weak decoction of columbo or gentian every second hour. Sometimes I order a tea-spoonful of De Häen's sedative potion to be taken every second hour till the tumult abates, which usually takes place in four or five hours, unless the disease go on to a fatal termination. It happens, now and then, that all these means prove unavailing; delirium and prostration of strength come on; and the skin becomes dry, and pungently hot. In such a case as this I direct the warm bath, endeavour to excite sweating, and to support the strength by giving wine-whey, or by a strong infusion of snake-root, taken warm. In the mean time I try emollient fomentations, and clysters of like quality. If, to the alarming symptoms already mentioned, be added vomiting of black matter or of blood, stools of the same appearance, and especially a suppression of urine, the life of the patient is in the greatest danger; and I confess that the remedies which I have hitherto employed have been so unavailing that I cannot undertake to recommend them in such hopeless circumstances. Perhaps it may be proper, on such occasions, to commit the patient to the efforts of nature, and to indulge every craving not absolutely pernicious. In taking this course, I have had the pleasure to see some recover.

The practitioners of this city made a frequent use of blisters, applied to the arms, to the legs, and to the epigastric region. The object in applying them was generally to relieve the head, and to obviate the irritation of the stomach. These intentions were generally disappointed; and it was to be expected that such would be the event; for the vomiting and the delirium are produced by acrimonious matters lodged in the first passages, upon which a blister can exert no action. Blisters, in my judgment, are not suitable to this disease, except where there exists a very obstinate spasmodic constipation, unconquerable by diluent and evacuant remedies. In this case, a blister, applied to the lower belly, does wonders in resolving the spasm by the continued irritation which it keeps up on the surface.

I cannot comprehend the advantages which are expected to be derived from the large and repeated doses of calomel commonly prescribed from the commencement of the disease. As a cathartic I cannot believe it to be the most eligible. I can assert that it often operates in a very irritating manner, and that it frequently causes evacuations debilitating and painful, which it is sometimes impossible afterwards to restrain. Such evacuations are successfully checked, on some occasions, by emollient clysters, by the preparations of opium, and by absorbents. Upon the whole, I cannot believe that this remedy possesses any specific power in this disease, as mercury; for, by dissolving the fluids, it co-operates with the deleterious and decomposing cause of the disease, to destroy the principle of life. Some medical gentlemen assure me that all their patients, in whom they can excite salivation, recover. If this assertion were correct, the yellow fever ought no longer to be the scourge of American cities, and mercury, as an infallible preventive, ought to be vigorously and universally prescribed. But, alas! on this, as well as on many other occasions, I fear our prejudices and mistaken observations deceive us. In this epidemic, I can assure you, it has fallen in my way to see many persons destroyed by terror, under the impression that this disease was utterly incurable. And, indeed, the flight of physicians from the city was not well adapted to remove such an impression.

Another prejudice, not less fatal, exists with regard to emetics. Many practitioners suppose, as the stomach is very irritable in this disease, that emetics must be pernicious by increasing this irritability. But they do not consider that the irritation of an emetic is always less than that which is incessant.

fantly kept up and renewed by the acrimony of bile and other contents of the stomach, unless they shall have been early evacuated by this remedy, whose operation is neither violent nor of long continuance, when its stimulus is blunted by a large quantity of warm water. Besides, why should we apprehend mischief from an emetic in this disease, while we daily administer cathartics, with success, in dysentery. The irritation of the intestinal canal is as much to be dreaded in the one case, as that of the stomach in the other.

Such, my friend, are the reflections concerning yellow fever which I wish to communicate. I should be glad to offer to you some opinions concerning the nature of the efficient cause of this destructive distemper; but the whole of this subject appears to be so obscure, that it seems advisable rather to keep silence than to hazard mere conjectures. This much appears to be certain, that hitherto no person has discovered effectual means of extinguishing the acrimony of the bile, which seems to act a very important part in this disease, and which, by its highly exalted acid or alkaline quality, excites, at first, irritation of the stomach, and, eventually, decomposition of the whole system.

*Baltimore, October 29, 1800.*

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## ARTICLE XI.

### EXTINGUISHMENT OF PESTILENCE.

[Continued from page 97.]

No. III.

*On the EFFICACY of the VOLATILE ALKALI to overcome PESTILENTIAL FLUIDS; showing the wholesomeness of burning Fossil Coal in Cities: In a Letter from Dr. MITCHILL to WILLIAM BLAIR, Esq. Surgeon of the Lock-Hospital, in London, &c. dated New-York, December 18, 1800.*

IT becomes me to make a grateful acknowledgment of the receipt of your excellent Essays on the new antisyphilitic remedies, and of the London Medical Review and Magazine you were so polite as to send me last summer. I still suspect the gentlemen who attempt to cure, by acids, diseases produced by poi-

son, are not in the best train of investigation; for we find, in America, that the septic gas which excites our autumnal pestilence is an acid—that dysenteric evacuations contain an acid—and syphilitic, cancerous and malignant ulcers contain acids. I am, therefore, of opinion, that the administration of alkaline remedies is more agreeable to the method of nature.

It is well known to you, that since the forests of many parts of Europe have been cut down, the scarcity and dearth of fuel, in some cities, have become so great, that the use of wood, for the purpose of keeping up fires, has been generally discontinued. Instead of this material, in some places, peat or turf, and in others coal, have been dug from the earth, and substituted. And since the introduction of the latter, after the first opposition to it was overcome, an opinion has been very prevalent that coal is a wholesome kind of fuel, and that there is something very conducive to health in its thick and disagreeable smoke. Its salubrity has thus been deemed more than an equivalent for its offensiveness.

Still, though popular opinion was in favour of coal, men of science have either disputed the fact, or differed with each other as to the manner of accounting for it; and, in a complicated case, it is not wonderful they should. In order to understand the question, it is necessary to attend to the analysis of coal by fire. This may be done by collecting the vapours of that inflammable substance, and examining their kinds and qualities. The Earl of Dundonald's method of making tar from it was a pretty good analytical process. I remember to have visited the manufactory of that noble and ingenious chemist at Culrofs, when the coal-tar was much celebrated for preventing the entrance of the pipe-worm into the timber of ships. The vapours exhaling from pit-coal, by slow combustion, were collected into cold chambers, and there condensed. These vapours were merely the thick common smoke proceeding from the fuel when a little smothered, or not burning clear. From the liquor obtained by confining and cooling them, was procured, among other things, by distillation, a large quantity of volatile alkali, or ammoniac. The inference, therefore, is, that mineral coal, while it undergoes the operation of fire, affords an alkaline vapour, which, in common cases, is not collected into reservoirs, but diffused through the surrounding air, where it exists as a constituent part of the smoke of cities.

The celebrated Irish philosopher, Mr. Kirwan, who has

made many experiments on various sorts of coal, with great care, has proved, in a manner quite as satisfactory, the formation of the volatile alkali from most species of that fuel, when subjected to the action of heat. The atmosphere of towns, where coal is the general material for making fires, may be, therefore, considered as containing a considerable quantity of ammoniacal gas, or alkaline air.

Great cities are almost constantly enveloped in the smoke of their own fires, especially in winter and in calms. Their inhabitants are in a perpetual fumigation; and, where coal is burned, the chief active material in this fumigating mixture is alkaline air. The inhabitants of London, Leige, and other places where fires are made of that article, are subjected, daily and incessantly, to fumigation with ammoniacal gas. Their philosophers ought to have attended to this part of the constitution of the air in which they live: yet I do not know that they have discussed it properly. Its commonness is probably the cause of its having been overlooked: yet the inhabitants of London have been thus fumigated for more than two hundred years.

It is the disposition of the alkaline air employed in this fumigating process to unite with acids. In ordinary cases, a sufficient quantity of carbonic acid gas is formed, during combustion, to allay its causticity, and to render it mild: therefore, the usual form in which it exists is that of the carbonate of ammoniac. But if an acid should present itself, for which this alkali has a stronger attraction than for that with which it is already associated, a combination with the new acid will take place, and the connection with the former be dissolved of course.

Now, in many cases, such a stronger acid does exist in cities, and frequently in the form of vapour or exhalation. Experiments and observations, made by residents of New-York, have shown that such acidity can be smelled and tasted, that it corrodes metals, decomposes soap, curdles milk, effervesces with fixed alkalies, and imparts active qualities to the dews. These acid exhalations are of a noxious and stimulant nature, since they are known to act as the exciting causes of catarrhs, of dysenteries, yellow fevers, and various other kinds of pestilential distempers, often destroying life in a short time.

Mr. Thouvenel has proved that the vapours exhaling from putrid substances are attracted by chalk, and are highly acid; and Professor Chaptal, of Montpellier, has repeated the experiment with a similar result. This acid, which I have

called septic acid, because produced ordinarily by putrefaction, has both the *property of corroding silver*, and of *exciting pestilential fevers*, when in the form of vapour, as the following account will show :

Martyn's abridgment of the Philosophical Transactions; vol. ix. p. 212, contains the case of Mr. Cox, surgeon at Peterborough, who tapped the abdomen to draw off the dropical fluid remaining there, of a woman, a few hours after death, and was nearly killed by the poison of it. The included humours had reached to so violent a degree of corruption as to discolour the external parts with a green and livid hue; and, on flowing through the *silver canula*, *deeply corroded it*. On every spot where the least portion of this moisture had fallen, about the hands and fingers, angry pustules arose, which festered and broke; some of them healing soon afterwards, and others continuing very painful, and ending in universal convulsions, and great oppression of the vitals. The septic vapours which arose from this poisonous fluid were so subtle and malignant, that some of Mr. Cox's assistants, who were in the chamber only, and did not touch a drop of the fluid, were very much disordered, and afterwards had red and livid spots on their skins. This is a decided case of the local origin of pestilential fever from the vapours of a fluid which deeply corroded silver.

Pestilential acidity, it seems, may also exist in the atmosphere, after emission from putrid bodies of animals, from corrupting provisions, and from rotten excrements. And the production and emission of such mischievous acid vapours, in the vicinity of their sources, is one of the most frequent processes of nature. During the puerperal fever, the sourness of the exhalations from the patient has been so manifest in some cases, that fumigation with ammoniacal gas has been practised by Mr. Guinot, to overcome it. In many common malignant ulcers, as well as those of the syphilitic and cancerous kinds, the matter on their surfaces is of an acid quality. When the pus turns to vapour, in the crowded and filthy wards of ships and hospitals, there exists a sour exhalation also, which gives rise to infection and fever. Ammoniacal gas would be the proper substance for fumigations in such places. Its volatility makes it singularly proper for this purpose. It appears wholly accordant to the numberless other cases of wisdom displayed in the creation, that this light and penetrating alkali should be capacitated to reach every place into which septic acid gas may insinuate itself, and there to



destroy its virulence. If ammoniacal gas is ever formed in putrefactive processes, its use and object are the neutralization of the same deleterious acidity.

In the second volume of Lowthorp's abridgment of the Philosophical Transactions, p. 525 & seq. may be seen the opinion of Dr. Charles Leigh, that the volatile alkali contributes to the stopping of the plague in Grand-Cairo. This discerning writer, on the nitrian water of Egypt, affirms, that the *nitre* which is the ingredient in gun-powder is not to be understood when we meet with that word in Hippocrates, Galen, Matthiolus, Dioscorides, Pliny and Agricola; for all these authors mean, by that term, soda, or the mineral alkali. Sad mistakes have arisen, in the modern practice of medicine, from an ignorance of this distinction; when physicians, in imitation of the ancients, ought to *have prescribed soda*, have, instead thereof, dosed their *patients with salt-petre!* And, what is worse, these same pernicious mistakes are repeated, every day, with this *modern nitre* and its *acid!*

I now recollect a case of the exhibition of the latter, recorded in a book not often read. Poterius, the German chemist and physician, whose works are extant in a quarto volume, published, 1698, at Frankfort on the Maine, declares, that he has known *dysentery* to be occasioned "*nimio et incauto spiritus nitri in febribus usu, pro extinguendo calore,*" (Centur. i. p. 54)—*by a too free and incautious use of spirit of nitre in fevers, administered with the view of extinguishing their heat.* This curing of fever, by inducing dysentery, is a match for the common practice of inducing a bubo by the acid of lunar caustic employed to cure a chancre!

Science is not always progressive: it is sometimes retrograde. I shall give you an instance of it. Etmuller had taught, long ago, in Germany, "that every febrile paroxysm arose from an acid;" and that an acid, engendered in wounds and ulcers, stirred up symptomatic fevers. The reader of the third chapter of the fifteenth section of his Compendium, will find near twenty arguments in favour of this opinion, by the old Professor of Leipzig. Sylvius (de la Boe), of Leyden, was convinced that the malignant fever of that place, in 1669, was caused by a prevailing acid. It is very reproachful that these doctrines have, of late, been so totally neglected or forgotten.

In some foul dissecting rooms, septic acid vapours have occasionally been so abundant as to cause dysenteries and fevers,

and otherwise exceedingly to injure the health of those who, by passing much of their time there, were particularly exposed to them. *New* dissectors are more liable to be incommoded by them than other persons. Where many carcases are collected into a chamber, and are suffered to undergo the putrefactive process before they are removed, as happens sometimes in your metropolis, have you not known disorders to be caused thereby in your cooler climate, differing but in degree from those which arise in this town, during our intense summer heats, from corrupting beef, &c. (See *Med. Rep.* vol. iii. p. 309 and 409.) If any of the laborious cultivators of anatomy in the Borough of Southwark, under the able directions of Cline and Cooper, for example, had suffered intestinal disorders, had contracted ill health from respiring the pestilential atmosphere of their apartments, and had been obliged to withdraw awhile to the country to repair their exhausted constitutions, would not this be evidence that that noxious SEPTIC acid vapour was such as the old Egyptian embalmers used to correct by *their* nitre, or *our* soda, and which the modern chemists of France have found to be actually attracted by chalk, and, on obtaining it from that substance, to wear the altered face of the NITROUS? And would not ammoniacal gas neutralize and overcome it?

Two facts are, in this inquiry, rendered plain enough for any body to understand: first, the evolution of ammoniacal gas from coal-fires; and, secondly, the extrication of septic acid gas from corrupting substances. The former of these, by its neutralizing power, tends to render cities healthy, by overcoming the noxious and pestilential quality of the latter. Yet here a question occurs to me. As the salt called nitrous ammoniac is the offspring of the two airs, may not the gaseous oxyd of azote be one of its products, by natural or accidental decomposition, and thus sometimes abound in the atmosphere?

Cities where coal is burned (I do not mean charcoal) ought to be free from the septic poison which excites fevers, in proportion to the quantity of ammoniac sent forth into their atmosphere. There can be little doubt that this is the fact. In England and Scotland, wherever this material is employed as fuel, infectious distempers have become less prevalent; though, notwithstanding its alkaline vapour from local causes, the septic virus may so predominate about the bodies, in the clothing and habitations of certain persons, as to cause ma-

signant fevers of various types. The cities in the Netherlands and Germany, where coal is employed, have been less ravaged, of late, by pestilential diseases, than formerly. The city of Richmond, in Virginia, has been referred to, by some sensible observers, as an example of the febrifuge operation of the smoke of coal; the febrile ailments of its inhabitants having greatly lessened since their fires were generally made of that material.

When modern improvements are taken into consideration, it would be improper to ascribe the greater healthiness of cities now-a-days to their alkaline smoke *alone*. Greater regard to personal cleanliness, the introduction of better water, the more general use of soap, a more complete system of removing nuisances, all contribute toward lessening the mortality consequent upon the accumulated filth of former times. Among these, ammoniac acts not by carrying out of town any of those baneful productions, but by rendering them harmless in or near the places of their origin. Much good may, therefore, be expected from the general use of coal, in process of time, in the large cities of America.

The antiseptic quality of ammoniac has been proved, half a century ago, by Sir John Pringle, who says that the volatile alkali, so far from being dreaded as a deleterious part of corrupted bodies, is rather a corrector of putrefaction; though I find it employed for preserving animal substances from putrefaction as long ago as 1695. Blancard, the anatomist, in his treatise on the art of making preparations (*De Balsamatione nova Methodus*, § 5), recommends the preserving of dead bodies by means of rectified spirit of wine, mingled with a *fourth or fifth part of spirit of sal ammoniac distilled with quick-lime* (caustic volatile alkali); for in that way they may be kept a great length of time (*diutissimè conservantur*). He particularly mentions, that the delicate anatomical preparations of the incubated egg can be nicely made with this liquid, and be preserved fit for use and instruction at all times.

However, the good to be expected chemically from ammoniac, and, indeed, from the other alkalies, will be determined chiefly by the acidity present, and threatening, or actually working mischief. Now, besides the cases in which I believe an acid to be a noxious agent in the living body, Hufeland is convinced of the fluid acidity of the lymph in scrophula—the French Encyclopædists of the concrete acidity of the stone in the bladder—and others of the existence of lithic acid with

soda, in the chalk-like matter of gout; and of another kind of acid in the pus of fever-producing ulcers. From such correct authorities as these you may learn more than

Omnia quæ, Phœbo quondam meditante, beatus  
Audiit Eurotas, jussitque ediscere lauros—

VIRG.

Though some parts of the subject must be inquired into to a greater depth and extent. In this arduous undertaking I hope much from your helping hand, and from your continued exertions as a fellow labourer with us; remembering always that I remain respectfully, &c.

SAMUEL L. MITCHILL.

## ARTICLE XII.

CONJECTURES concerning the ACTION of the CONTAGION of SMALL-POX, and of other Diseases which only once attack the Human Body: Addressed to the Editors of the *Medical Repository*, by an anonymous Correspondent.

*Fairfield County (Connecticut), March 10, 1800.*

GENTLEMEN,

ENCOURAGED by an invitation that extends to all, I shall offer to your consideration a few observations on the small-pox, but which will generally apply to some other exanthemata.

Why the small-pox never returns after one has once been carried through it, and why it is so much severer when received from natural contagion than by inoculation, are questions that have considerably been agitated in the medical world.

The doctrine of excitability is universally understood: but I have long thought that it was a different thing in different parts of the body. Dr. Brown, with a confidence rarely observed in eminent productions, does, indeed, consider it as one undivided property over all the system. But whoever confi-

ders, with candour, that opium and sulphate of soda, though applied to the same organs, produce different actions—or that mercury, tincture of cantharides, bark and alcohol, all are stimuli, yet each has a peculiar effect, will, I believe, find serious difficulties in supporting that theory.

Almost every organ of importance is possessed of branches of *different* nerves. Why this deviation from the simplicity of nature, if excitability be the same in every part of the nervous system? But Dr. Tracy's communication, while it exhibits a curious fact, adds an almost undeniable proof of the diversity of excitability. Assuming the doctrine of varied excitability as a fact, I believe most physicians will think it possible that one branch of excitability, or rather the susceptibility of impression from one peculiar exciting cause, may be destroyed without destroying the general excitability.

Mr. Hawkins,\* in his voyage to Africa, lost his sight by viewing a vessel at a distance through a glass. Boerhaave† says, sight may be destroyed by intense light. But, gentlemen, I need not prove to you that a peculiar excitability may be destroyed by a powerful impression of its appropriate stimulus. These things premised—

I suppose there is, in every living human body, a peculiar excitability implanted, upon which variolous matter, and almost only that, can act. This peculiar excitability I shall term variolous excitability. In inoculation variolous matter is introduced, and commences its action. The first action resulting seems to be an increased, but peculiar action of the secreting vessels: a puriform matter is formed, which, when oxygenated, becomes variolous contagion: a part of it is absorbed, and carried to every part of the system: a fever is produced: a new action takes place on the surface: and an eruption is formed. In the pustules variolous matter is also formed, which being absorbed, and carried into the system, produces the secondary fever. If the mass of variolous excitability has been large, the more severe would be the primary fever and eruption. The absorption might be greater; and, at any rate, would undoubtedly be amply sufficient to destroy the variolous excitability: for if an excessive degree of sound or light can destroy the auditory or optical excitability, why should not the constant and increasing action of the contagion in the inoculated part, and the absorption of matter sufficient to give the disease to fifty thousand people, destroy the variolous?

\* Hawkins's Voyage.  
Vol. IV. No. 3.

† Lectures, § 574, No. 10.  
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Hence, also, we perceive that the action of contagion, in the vicinity of the inoculated part, and of that which is thence absorbed into the system, by destroying a very considerable portion of variolous excitability, would inevitably diminish the action of the matter absorbed after the eruption; consequently the secondary fever would be milder than by natural contagion.



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 REVIEW.
 

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ART. I. *The Magnetic Atlas, or Variation Charts of the whole Terraqueous Globe; comprehending a System of the Variation and Dip of the Needle, by which, the Observations being truly made, the Longitude may be ascertained. Third Edition, with Additions. By John Churchman, Member of the Russian Imperial Academy. New-York. Gaine and Ten Eyck. 4to. pp. 82. 1800. With three Maps.*

READERS of the periodical publications of America have, during the last twelve or thirteen years, frequently seen the name of the author of the Magnetic Atlas. The members of several of the learned societies, of some of the State Legislatures, and of Congress, have been informed of the scientific labours of Mr. Churchman, and of the method he has proposed to determine the longitude of places. None of our philosophical friends need to be informed that he started, with other competitors, for the fame and emolument of correctly and easily finding, at sea, the degree of a meridian line on any parallel of latitude.

For this purpose Mr. C. turned his attention to *Magnetism*, and persuaded himself the phenomena of that curious science, if rightly interpreted, would furnish a true solution of the problem. From the observations he made upon the variation of the magnetic needle, he thought its direction eastwardly and westwardly of the due north point depended upon a certain principle, by the operation of which all its seemingly wavering and unstable movements were regularly produced. If, then, the motions of this delicate instrument could be demonstrated to be influenced by some uniformly-operating agent, and if it could be made evident what this agent was, where it existed, and by what rules it acted, there would, he thought, be enough done to establish a theory of magnetic variation, applicable to various useful purposes in geography and navigation. But there was great difficulty in this. Indeed, in many respects, the difficulty was insuperable: for, in the present state of human knowledge, there were not facts enough collected to form such a theory; nor, in the present state of hu-

man ability, could such facts be immediately ascertained and brought together.

Hence it happened that the author was obliged to leave the low and tedious *posteriori* road, and to travel, by the more high and short *priori* path, to this goal. He was under a necessity to conjecture what it was not in his power to explore, and to offer probability where it was impossible for him to arrive at certainty. This, therefore, may be considered as Mr. C.'s hypothesis to account for the variation of the magnetic needle. He supposes, if we comprehend him, that the planet we live on, besides the two points of its axis called the north and south poles, has two magnetic points, or poles, which are considerably distant from the other. These magnetic points move round the poles of the earth at different periods. The northern magnetic point moves quicker, and the southern slower than the earth; whence the *apparent* revolution of the northern is from west to east, while that of the southern is in the opposite direction. And to the attraction exerted by these moveable magnetic poles are the variation and dip of the needle to be referred,

But here new difficulties arose. The exact latitudes of the supposed magnetic poles were not well known. More observations were wanting to fix their first and last meridians: and it was desirable to have astronomical observations made on the spots. These, he imagined, might be found by sailing in high latitudes, "until the horizontal needle became indifferent to any particular direction," or "by the inclination of the dipping needle."

Perhaps, however, we might do injustice to Mr. C.'s ingenuity in explaining his doctrine of magnetic points and poles: we shall, therefore, let him speak for himself (p. 31.)

*Definitions and Corollaries.*

"*Definition I.* The two points D and E, which give an universal direction to the magnetic needle, and represented in the sphere drawn round the centre C, fig. 1, may be termed magnetic points.

"*Def. II.* That magnetic point D, which is situate in the northern hemisphere, at a certain distance from the north pole of the earth, may be called the northern magnetic point.

"*Def. III.* That magnetic point E, which is situate in the southern hemisphere, at a certain distance from the south pole of the earth, may be called the southern magnetic point.



“ *Def. IV.* The half of a great circle, drawn from one pole of the earth to the other, through any given place, is the terrestrial meridian of that place.

“ *Def. V.* All the curves which meet in the magnetic point, on either of the charts, are the magnetic meridians.

“ *Def. VI.* The angle contained between the magnetic meridian and the meridian of the earth, in any place, is the variation of the compass for that place.

“ *Def. VII.* The time in which either magnetic point revolves round the pole of the earth, from a conjunction with any fixed star, until its return to the same again, may be termed its sidereal, or real revolution.

“ *Def. VIII.* The time which either magnetic point requires, from its leaving any one meridian of the earth, until its return to the same again, may be termed its periodical, or apparent revolution.

“ *Def. IX.* A line drawn through the different parts of the globe, where the magnetic needle points due north, is the line of no variation.

“ *Corollary I.* The line of no variation changes its place as the two magnetic points change their places.

“ *Cor. II.* The line of no variation alters its curvature in proportion to the different positions of the two magnetic points.

“ *Cor. III.* Whenever the two magnetic points are neither on the same, nor on opposite meridians of the earth, then those parts where a meridian of the earth makes a tangent to a magnetic meridian, there the line of no variation passes.

“ *Def. X.* A point G, diametrically opposite to the southern magnetic point E, may be termed the northern magnetic nadir.

“ *Def. XI.* A point H, diametrically opposite the northern magnetic point D, may be termed the southern magnetic nadir.

“ *Cor. I.* If the two magnetic points were at equal distances from the two poles of the earth, and on opposite meridians, they would be diametrically opposite to each other.

“ *Cor. II.* If the two magnetic points were diametrically opposite to each other, the magnetic meridians would all be arches of great circles.

“ *Cor. III.* As the two magnetic points are neither at equal distances from the two poles of the earth, nor, at present, on opposite meridians, they are not diametrically opposite to each

other. Hence none of the magnetic meridians, except the first and the last, are arches of great circles.

“ *Cor. IV.* The distance between the magnetic points and the magnetic equator is different on different sides of the globe.

“ *Def. XII.* A great circle ICK, drawn every way equally distant from and between the two magnetic points and the two magnetic nadirs, will be the magnetic equator.

“ *Def. XIII.* Those two opposite points LM, situate ninety degrees from the magnetic equator ICK, are the poles of the magnetic equator.

“ *Cor. I.* The magnetic equator, as well as the first and last magnetic meridian, continually changes its place.

“ *Cor. II.* The magnetic equator divides the globe into two equal parts.

“ *Cor. III.* Every circle, dividing the globe into two equal parts, is a great circle.

“ *Cor. IV.* Every great circle has two poles.

“ *Cor. V.* The two poles of every great circle are diametrically opposite to each other.

“ *Cor. VI.* Hence the two magnetic poles, being distinct from the two magnetic points which influence the direction of the needle, are nothing more than the poles of the magnetic equator.

“ *Def. XIV.* A right line DNE, drawn from one magnetic point to the other, may be called the magnetic pointer axis.

“ *Def. XV.* A right line LCM, drawn from one magnetic pole to the other, may be termed the magnetic polar axis.

“ *Def. XVI.* A right line GOH, drawn from one magnetic nadir to the other, may be called the magnetic nadir axis.

“ *Cor. I.* The magnetic polar axis, and no other, passes through the centre C of the earth.

“ *Cor. II.* The magnetic polar axis equally distant from and between the magnetic pointer axis and magnetic nadir axis, all of which are parallel to each other; but,

“ *Cor. III.* As the two magnetic points are not diametrically opposite to each other, the distance between the magnetic points and the magnetic equator is different on different sides of the globe.

“ *Cor. IV.* As the two magnetic points move with unequal velocities, the distance between the magnetic pole and the magnetic point undergoes a continual alteration.

“ *Def. XVII.* As the magnetic equator divides the globe into two equal parts, for distinction, one half may be called the northern, and the other the southern magnetic hemisphere.

“ *Cor. I.* In each magnetic hemisphere the magnetic pole is, at any given time, equally distant from the magnetic point and the magnetic nadir.

“ *Def. XVIII.* A magnetic needle, suspended on a pin passing through its centre in a horizontal direction, is a dipping needle.

“ *Cor. I.* Magnetic powers of equal force having equal influence at equal distance, as the magnetic equator is equally distant from each magnetic point, if the dipping needle stood horizontal on the magnetic equator, this would prove the influence of each magnetic point to be equal.

“ *Cor. II.* If the influence of each magnetic point were equal, the magnetic meridians would all be circular curves.

“ *Cor. III.* If the magnetic meridians were all circular curves, they might be considered as arches of regular polygons of an infinite number of sides, and the horizontal needle would always represent one of these sides.

“ *Cor. IV.* Although none of the magnetic meridians, except the first and last, are circular curves, the horizontal needle makes always a tangent to the magnetic meridian.

“ *Cor. V.* In the northern magnetic hemisphere the dipping needle gives north dip, and southern south dip, proportionally to the distance from the place where it stands horizontal.

“ *Def. XIX.* The distance between the northern magnetic point and the north pole of the earth may be called the north polar distance.

“ *Def. XX.* The distance between the southern magnetic point and the south pole of the earth may be called the southern polar distance.

“ *Def. XXI.* An arch of a great circle *DKE*, passing from one magnetic point to the other, through each magnetic nadir, and from which all the other magnetic meridians are numbered, may be called the first magnetic meridian.

“ *Def. XXII.* The opposite arch *DIE*, of the same great circle, 180 deg. from the first, may be called the last magnetic meridian.

“ *Def. XXIII.* Lines drawn through those parts of the earth where the magnetic variation is equal, after the manner of Dr. Halley, are called Halleyan lines.

“ *Def. XXIV.* The mean time, taken by the sun, from

its leaving one meridian of the earth until its return to the same again, being 24 hours, as the mean time of the rotation of the earth on its axis, from west to east, is determined and known to be 23h. 56' 4", this last-mentioned time is called a sidereal day."

Having thus defined and explained his meaning, the author proceeds to illustrate further, by a series of problems, eighteen in number, some of them to be resolved by calculation, and others by his chart. To these he has added a table of the place of the northern magnetic point, as found to perform a revolution round the north pole of the earth at the rate of 19' 42" 29'" of longitude each year, and exhibiting the corresponding variation of the compass, in certain years between 1622 and 1794, by calculation and observation. For the particulars of these, too long for insertion here, we must refer to the work itself.

Finding, still, that objections were stated to the *practicability* of his scheme, even if true, particularly by reason of the difficulty of distinguishing, at sea, between *true* and *false* variations, Mr. C. sums up, and replies to the objections, thus: (p. 50).

"*Objection* 1st. The same compass has been said to give a different variation, from no other cause than putting the ship's head a contrary way.

"*Answer.* This might readily happen, if there was more iron near the compass on one side of the ship than on the other. The following remedy is proposed for this difficulty. Let there be fixed a true meridian on shore, but near the ship, out of the reach of the attraction of iron: here let the variation be taken on this meridian; then, before she sails, let the variation be taken on board the ship, with her head turned, if occasion should require, on every point of the compass: by noting the difference between the true variation on the true meridian, and the false variation on board, a table of difference may be constructed, which may show the allowance necessary to be made for false variation throughout any voyage, while the iron remains in the same situation. Or, if the azimuth compass is firmly fixed to a three-legged staff, about five feet above the deck, it will then be nearly out of the reach and influence of the iron.

"*Objection* 2d. The same compass, removed a few miles, but at a different time of the day, has been said to give variations differing from one another.

"*Answer.* As it is impossible to move, either on the same

meridian or parallel of latitude, without having a different variation, it is not strange if there should be a sensible difference in a few miles: besides, if the observations are made at different times of the day, the small diurnal variation, which seems reducible to certain fixed laws, will require to be allowed for.

“ *Objection* 3d. The same compass, on the same day, and in the hands of the same observer, has been said to give variations differing from one another, on board the same ship, when under sail, and when at anchor in a roadstead.

“ *Answer.* A ship being under way must certainly change her situation: if the variation was not different in different places, it would be hard to know the situation of the place by the variation; therefore, one answer may apply to both the second and third objections.

“ *Objection* 4th. Compasses, made by the same artist, at the same time and place, but on board different ships, have been said to differ in the variation.

“ *Answer.* This might arise from a greater quantity of iron in one ship than another, placed in such a situation as to give a false variation to the needle.

“ *Objection* 5th. The same compass on board the same ship, and within a few miles of the same situation, but at different times of being in such situation, is said to have given different variations.

“ *Answer.* The two magnetic points being known to perform revolutions, the variation must of consequence continually alter more or less in every part of this globe; therefore, the different variation may readily be accounted for, as well from the difference of time as the different situations of places.

“ *Objection* 6th. Different compasses, at the same time, on board the same ship, and, in every respect, under the same circumstances, are said to have given variations differing from one another.

“ *Answer.* Different compasses, if true, are found to agree with one another on shore. I knew an instrument-maker, in particular, who had a meridian on shore, and made many circumferenters. He made a rule never to turn one out of his hands till he proved it by his meridian. By this method all his instruments would agree one with another.

“ Captain Cook, when he observed the transit of Venus at the Island of King George III. or Otaheite, although, he found, in some instances, that different instruments gave different variations, yet, in the account of his voyage, he

writes, "the same needle agrees with itself in several trials one after another." This seems to prove what dependance may be placed upon a true needle. The cause of different instruments disagreeing must then be occasioned by a fault in the workmanship.

"Hitherto it has generally been thought useless to try to obtain the variation with a great degree of accuracy, merely for the purpose of steering the course of a ship; but, in order to make the variation scheme useful in finding the situation of a ship at sea, it will be necessary, in order to counteract the motion of the waves, to make a number of observations with great care, and take a mean for the true variation. In this respect a little practice will point out the path towards perfection.

"It is well known, that on land there is no difficulty in determining the longitude by Jupiter's satellites: if the true situation of any coast, and the situation of the two magnetic points, are known, the true variation may be found by calculation: so that, if bodies of iron ore, upon the sea-coast, should even influence the needle, the difference between the variation, by calculation and observation, will consequently be the allowance for false variation. By this method the variation may be corrected with a little care.

"It is probable the magnetic observations, in Capt. Cook's last voyage, are still as accurate and extensive as any other yet published; but as the variation of the compass is subject to change, the length of time between Capt. Cook's last observations, and the time for which the charts are constructed, will cause some difference, unless the proper allowance is made."

Mr. C.'s charts are constructed in such a manner, that if the blank gores were cut out, the remainder would fit and cover a globe 48 English inches in circumference. This method of projecting the sphere, he thinks, with the magnetic meridians, will be found to preserve the true proportions of each country, and, probably, show the curves formed by the magnetic meridians, better than Mercator's projection, on which the Halleyan lines are delineated; and another advantage of Mr. C.'s projection is, that it may answer the double purpose of charts and globes. But, for a proper understanding of them, they ought to be carefully inspected.

The author is of opinion, that not only magnetic needles, but the waters of the ocean, are influenced by the rotation of the magnetic points. He is inclined to believe a swell of that

great mass of fluid accompanies the magnetic point as it revolves, and causes high tides and inundations on the parts of the earth adjacent to its meridian lines, and a proportional recess of the sea from the opposite sides; causing, thus, alternate incroachments of the ocean upon the land, and of land upon the ocean. This he computes to amount to about two millions of acres yearly. When we shall become fully possessed of what is knowable on this subject, the periods of deluges may be calculated with as much certainty as the return of comets (p. 64). But he offers this merely as a speculation.

Prefixed to the work is an abstract of the history of magnetic discoveries and inventions; and in an appendix the readers will find some extracts of letters and registers, from some of the distinguished men and learned societies in America and Europe, who have written to the author on the subject of his book.

ART. II. *A New Physical System of Astronomy; or, an Attempt to explain the Operations of the Powers which impel the Planets and Comets to perform Elliptical Revolutions round the Sun, and revolve on their own Axis: in which the Physical System of Sir Isaac Newton is examined, and presumed to be refuted. To which is annexed, a Physiological Treatise; in which the first Stage of Animation is considered, and the Means shown by which Circulation is performed in the first Rudiments of the incipient Animal, before the Vessels are completely organized, &c. together with an Explanation of the General Laws by which the Animal Economy is governed; and particularly the Mode whereby the Operations of the Vis Medicatrix Naturæ, or the unassisted Powers of Nature, are exerted to obviate and cure Disease. Also, successful Methods of curing Cancerous Ulcers, the Quartan Ague, Putrid Fevers, stopping Mortifications, and extracting Frost, so as to leave the frozen Member perfectly well. By Joseph Young, M. D. of New-York. New-York. Hopkins. 8vo. pp. 188. 1800.*

THE numerous relations and dependencies of Astronomy, besides the intrinsic grandeur of the subject, have always made it be regarded, among civilized nations, as an important branch of research. Considering the immaturity of our state of

society in America, it will not be expected that our countrymen should generally keep pace with the astronomers of the old world. But, on the other hand, we cannot admit that America is justly chargeable with deficiency in the cultivation of this science, if allowance be made for the peculiarity of its circumstances. At the head of a respectable list of American astronomers, who have recently distinguished themselves, stands Rittenhouse, who, though not equally fortunate with the European Herschell, in the extent and brilliancy of his discoveries, was probably not inferior to him in the vigour of a self-taught mind, and in the use he made of the slender advantages which his circumscribed situation afforded.

The author of the astronomical system under consideration, in his attempt to confute the hypothesis of Sir Isaac Newton, has undertaken an arduous task, in which much learning and ingeniousness have been frequently exercised—but, according to the prevailing opinion, without any great share of success. We think the clearest view of Dr. Young's hypothesis may be obtained from the following extract:

“As the sun is, without doubt, the *primum mobile*, or first mover of this stupendous system, it behoves us to investigate the means or powers by which he is actuated, and caused to perform a revolution on his axis once in twenty-five days and six hours. I shall, in the first place, give my opinion of this matter, and then corroborate my conjectures with a recital of such experiments and observations as the nature of the subject will admit of. In the first place I shall venture to assert, that the whole universe is full of elastic, repulsive matter, denominated electricity, which is most probably composed of oxygen and caloric. When cold, it is more condensed and less active, and unites freely in the composition of many solid bodies, and remains for some time inactive; but when acted upon by friction, collision, or heat, it immediately assumes its pristine qualities, and is the secondary cause of all the motion in the universe.—In the next place, I suppose the body of the sun to consist of solid incombustible matter, formed in such a manner as freely to admit the more condensed electric matter (by which he is surrounded and strongly compressed) to enter, at his poles, into a large cavity in his centre, where, being heated and expanded to the greatest possible degree, it is expelled, with amazing velocity, to the circumference, through numberless curving pores, all uniformly bending westward from the centre. And as it is a known property of bodies in motion, and of the rays of light



in particular, to move in straight lines, it is evident that the power of every particle of the igneous matter exploded from the centre through these curving pores, must be directed against, and exert their force upon the eastern sides of the canals through which they move; which causes the sun to revolve on his axis eastward. That this is an invariable law of nature, may be demonstrated by constructing a wheel on these principles, which may be actuated either by steam, electricity, common air, water, or fire. It was only necessary for the omniscient architect to construct the sun in some such manner, of such materials as would withstand the action of the fire; and, first, to give the internal cavity such a degree of heat as to cause the explosive igneous matter to move, with great celerity, from the centre to the circumference of the globe; which impulse being at all times equal, as both the quantity and quality of the combustible matter with which he is supplied is invariably the same, the periods of his revolutions must also invariably be the same. And as he is continually pouring forth oceans of fire from his equatorial and tropical regions, he must receive an adequate supply at his poles, of electric matter in a state of extreme cold and condensation, otherwise a perfect vacuum would succeed, and the sun be extinguished; and, consequently, light, life, heat and motion would cease, and be no more. The cold air flowing into an air-furnace, may serve to convey some idea of this grand operation. But the chief objection to this hypothesis arises from the difficulty of conceiving how the sun can be supplied with a sufficient pabulum to support such an immense waste of fire for ages, especially when this pabulum is said to consist only of the matters contained in the common air, while we daily experience the necessity of supplying our fires with fresh quantities of more substantial fuel, without which they are soon extinguished. But this objection will vanish, when we consider that matter is indestructible, that no being, except the one who created it, can annihilate one single particle of it: it may be decomposed and recomposed millions of times, but the same quantity of matter still exists; consequently there is the same quantity of fire existing now as at the creation, and no more.—Let those who find difficulty in conceiving by what means the cold condensed air, rushing impetuously into the poles of the sun, should be instantly converted into real active fire, and diffused through the regions of space, only consider, that the electric matter, dispersed through the regions of our atmosphere, requires only rapid

motion to convert it into the most tremendously active fire with which we are acquainted. And even the trifling quantity that we can collect from the air, by means of our diminutive machines, is sufficient to teach us how this grand operation is performed in the immense body of the sun, which is a mass of solid matter of eight hundred and ninety thousand miles in diameter, heated throughout to the most intense degree, surrounded and strongly compressed, especially at his poles, with igneous matter, in a condensed, latent state, that only requires to be excited into rapid motion, to exhibit every appearance, and assume every quality of fire. This operation may be termed the respiration of the sun; and, if he should ever cease to respire, he will also cease to revolve, and be extinct: but when this matter is decomposed by the violent heat and agitation in the body of the sun, and expelled, with extreme velocity, from his equatorial and tropical regions, the caloric forms rays, which afford light as long as they continue to move with great velocity in straight lines, but cannot exhibit all the phenomena essential to fire, until it is again united to the oxygen, or some other acid gas. Among the many reasons which induce me to believe that the body of the sun is composed of solid, incombustible matter, are, first, that no permanent collection of atmospheric matter can subsist without some solid body to attach itself to, because active repulsive matter, without such nucleus, would expand and diffuse itself abroad until it was equally distributed; and our system would be reduced to a condition similar to that of an animal deprived of both heart and lungs. Secondly, all pneumatic, aquatic, and pyrotechnic machines, are composed of solid matter, which is, in all cases, passive, and are so constructed as to be actuated by fluids, which are, in all cases, the instruments in producing motion, as there is no case in which solids generate or continue motion independent of the impulse or energy of fluids. And were it not for this admirable mode of collecting such immense quantities of condensed latent igneous matter, rendered almost infinitely subtle, active and penetrating by heat, and diffusing it through space, to be recomposed, condensed, and returned to the sun, in constant succession, all motion would soon be lost, and the planetary orbs would cease to revolve.

“ I have, then, supposed the earth laying entirely at rest, at the tropic of Capricorn, on the 21st day of June, with its atmosphere perfectly still and inactive, until the rays of the sun, by their energy and influence, began to heat, rarefy,

agitate, and render it actively repulsive, when, by a law already mentioned, to wit, that the strongest atmosphere will always repel the weakest to the opposite side of the body to which it belongs, where that of the earth would form a long dark cone or tail, which would re-act with a force proportioned to its quantity of matter, and degree of its excitement; and, when a sufficient quantity of the earth's atmosphere had been excited and propelled to the opposite side, to overcome its vis inertia [*inertiæ*], the earth would begin to move on slowly to the eastward, in the line of the ecliptic, most probably in a direct course to the centre of the sun; but, as it gradually approached the solar equator, it became more exposed to the action of his direct rays, sent off in great abundance, and with more velocity from his equatorial than his tropical regions, where the earth was supposed to begin its first revolution. In consequence of this increasing degree of heat, a greater quantity of the earth's atmosphere would be excited, and rendered more repulsively active, to re-act and antagonize the vertical rays of the sun, which prevents it from proceeding to the sun, and gradually propels it to a greater distance, accelerating its motion at the same time, until it arrives at that limit where repulsion and appulsion are exactly equal; and where, by the opposite actions of these two powers, the earth is not only impelled in its annual circuit, but also assisted in its diurnal revolution; for, as it must now move in a curve line, the resistance of the medium through which it passes will bend its atmospheric cone back westward, condensing its eastern side to the greatest degree, which will cause it to act with most power on that side of the earth which is successively presenting a cold, dense atmosphere to the sun, to be heated, rarefied, and rendered actively repulsive; which becomes a powerful agent in promoting the earth's diurnal rotation. As these impulsive powers, which were capable to begin these revolutions, are constantly acting with undiminished influence, they will be continued, notwithstanding the opposition the moving bodies may be supposed to meet with, in passing through a resisting medium; which it is impossible that any projectile should do, let its original force be supposed to be the greatest possible."

Different opinions have been entertained as to the cause of the motions of the bodies which compose the solar system. While some have considered them as *projected* by the hand of the Almighty, from a given point, and moving through *pure* space their destined rounds, in equipoise between

the central forces—others have contended that a *perpetual exertion* of that power which first created them is necessary to keep them in their orbits, and enable them to consummate their periods; and that this is effected by motions incessantly communicated to them through the medium of the matter which fills up the space between the sun and the remotest of the stars.

The disputes concerning these two doctrines formerly agitated the schools with great warmth; the former involving the notion of a *vacuum*, and the latter contending for the existence of a *plenum* in nature. The advocates for the opinion of projection were obliged, by their hypothesis, to suppose the celestial bodies moved through empty or *unresisting* space, to avoid retardation, and, finally, a total stoppage of their course; while their opponents, who affirmed that all space was full of created matter, were forced to find, or imagine, some qualities in this matter enabling the planets and comets to travel through it, and to assist them in their passage.

The idea of a planet set in motion like a projectile, and made to deviate from its rectilinear direction into an elliptical curve, by an attractive power or influence termed gravitation, is a leading trait of the Newtonian philosophy, and is generally adopted, as being, at once, highly probable, and corresponding well with the phenomena. We say *generally* adopted—for there existed, at the time of its publication, and there have existed, from time to time, ever since, several men, of literary and scientific minds, who have not merely doubted this solution of the motions of the planetary orbs, but have openly opposed it, and boldly called in question its truth.

Perhaps the most violent of these was the noted Hutchinson, a third edition of whose books was published in 1748. Irritated at the prevalence of Newton's principles, and envious of his extended fame, he attempted the overthrow of the whole system of that wary and illustrious philosopher. With the view of ensuring success to his undertaking, Hutchinson declared the doctrine of vacuum, projection and attraction, to be *unscriptural*, and, therefore, untenable and absurd. To exhibit the more glaringly the wickedness and folly of the *Principia* of Newton, he published a large, learned and formal work in contradiction of it, which he called *Moses's Principia*. In this he strove to convince his readers that the account of the creation, given by the Jewish legislator, was not intended solely for historical, pious, or moral use, but was,

indeed, a most complete and comprehensive system of natural philosophy. This system he pretended to detect and unfold with a vast parade of words from the Hebrew language and its dialects, in expounding which he differed as widely from other translators as from the contemporary philosophers. Philosophical doctrines, derived from the Bible, were thus to crush all opposition, and the vulgar and profane book of Newton be consigned to neglect and contempt.

The better to accomplish this, Hutchinson, we said, found it expedient to interpret the books of the Old Testament in a manner very different from other expositors. These he calumniated as not entering into nor comprehending the physical meaning of the text. A literal and spiritless translation had marred the sublime sense of the original; and the persons who made versions of them into other languages were as deserving of reprobation as were that other class who dared to philosophize by experiment and induction. He, therefore, roundly affirmed, that "the principal business of Moses was to determine natural philosophy," and that the first part of revelation, as expressed in Genesis, "was written to cure the madness of the naturalists and star-gazers." (2 Hutchinson's Works, Introd. p. 2). For their own "strange whims" they had rejected scripture; while he, rejecting their dreams, would endeavour to lead them back to scripture again. Furnished, thus, with various Rabbinical learning, and aided by the Mishna and the Talmud, Hutchinson laboured to prove the irreligion and nonsense of the Newtonian philosophy.

It is not an easy task for a reader to gather from his erudite, obscure and diffuse writings, what he precisely means. The following is, we believe, a tolerable compendium of it. All things are contained in the substance of God, and his substance extends to infinite space. Heaven and earth, space and matter, are created things, and consist of solid atoms; those of earth adhering in bodies or dense fluids—those of the heaven in orbs, darkness, fire, light and clouds. The universe is full of these solid atoms: in other words, creation is a *plenum*. The matter of the heavens is fluid; it is also finite, and has circumferential limits or extremities, though it extends through all created space, from the sun, its centre, beyond the remotest fixed stars. This matter of the heavens consisted of *spirit*, or *air*, *light* and *fire*, as three of its principal modifications. The sun is the fire-place which sets all this matter in motion, melting, expanding, and throwing it off to the most distant confines of creation, where it is cooled, consolidated, and

pressed back again, to be melted anew, and sent forth a second time; and so on. The solid atoms are of different sizes and figures; so that, when one portion of them congeals, or forms into grains, there are pores among them large enough to permit atoms of a smaller size to pass freely through. The condition of the matter of the heavens, under the action of fire at the sun, was *chamah*; the streams of light from the sun, moon and stars, were *ashteroth*; and the grains of air returning from the circumference of the heavens to the sun, was *baalim*. Concrete matter, however, is often so constituted as not to be permeable very easily, but to resist. The several sorts of atoms composing the fluid matter which occupies immeasurable space, are the moving powers by which God acts upon and regulates the machinery of the universe. The more compact or unyielding modifications of it constitute the great orbs, or machines, to be urged along by their impulse. The latter are the *chariots*, and the former the *drivers*. When, therefore, light, impelled by the sun, strikes the side of such a body as the earth we inhabit, it excites heat in that part, and the spirit, or air, being rarefied, or made to recede thereby, motion is communicated to the whole orb. The motion thus begun, is promoted and continued by the vast and incessant pressure of the dark, cold and dense matter on the opposite side. And thus the globe being started by the lessening of pressure on one side, and the augmentation of it on the other, its diurnal and annual revolutions were soon impressed upon it by a little variation of the forces. The like reasoning he applied to the moon, and to all the other planets and their satellites. By the operation of light, thus sent out from the sun, and acting upon the other fluid matter of the heavens, and upon the celestial orbs, they become enlightened, warmed or inflamed. Spirit, or air, pushed in with irresistible compression, and motion, rotation and progression were accounted for, without having recourse to such miserable terms as projection, gravitation, or attraction.

Thus Newton was charged, by Hutchinson, of advancing philosophical doctrines repugnant to revelation and the principles of Moses. The impiety of his system was exhibited at great length, as volume after volume grew under the pen of his indignant adversary, who gloried in tracing it "upwards, and showing from what poor conjectures and silly stories it took its root, which, by often telling, came almost to be believed." He even gave out that he would, from "divine authority," make every believer ashamed of it. The

denunciation of discoveries in science as heterodox, which had been so cruelly exercised against Gallileo, had so far lost its fashion or influence, that it was unable to stir up intolerance or persecution against Newton. Later attempts, which have been made to retard the progress of experimental philosophy by similar means, have sometimes raised a noise for a short time, but have commonly wrought no dangerous or lasting changes in public opinion.

We have given this concise account of the opinions of Hutchinson, because the author of the treatise now before us seems either to have perused his publications, or, independently of them, to have fallen into a somewhat similar train of thought. Without pressing the analogy too close, Dr. Young, in this astronomical performance, which is anti-Newtonian, takes pretty nearly the same ground of opposition which had been occupied by Hutchinson.

Dr. Y.'s hypothesis, on several accounts, seems to be entitled to the praise of ingenuity. But we object to it principally on two grounds—1st, because it takes for granted many principles wholly unsupported by proof; and, 2dly, because, even admitting the truth of his suppositions, they are wanting in point of unity and mutual relation, and do not exhibit a scheme of the motions of the heavenly bodies so coherent and systematic, or of such universal application, as one would expect to find in these vast operations of nature, or as have been actually displayed in the hypotheses of preceding astronomers, and particularly in that which it is the author's object to refute.

On the first objection it is not necessary to enter into any detail. It must be obvious that the whole account of the structure of the sun, however plausibly imagined, together with all the operations consequent upon such a structure, is merely matter of supposition, unsupported by proof.

As to the second objection, it will be proper to be more particular. As soon as the Copernican system began to prevail, it became an object of importance to ascertain the operation of that unknown chain which holds together such a number of immense bodies in so harmonious an arrangement. Kepler was successful in this pursuit. He discovered that *the right line joining the sun and any planet described areas proportioned to the times*; that *each primary planet described an ellipse, having the sun in one focus*; and that *the squares of the periodic times of the different planets were proportioned to the cubes of their mean distances from the sun*.

By the establishment of these laws, the way was prepared for the more important discoveries which were soon to follow. But, on the hypothesis of our author, the value of the discovery of Kepler's sublime proportions sinks to nothing.

Descartes, without availing himself of the discoveries of Kepler, contrived a system to explain the connected and harmonious movements of the heavenly bodies. That ingenious and fanciful philosopher, though little scrupulous in the admission of fundamental principles without proof, erected, upon such principles as he chose to adopt, a consistent theory, which embraced a great number of phenomena. Grant him but his vortices, and the planets will revolve round the sun with perfect order. But though this theorist connected the motions of the heavenly bodies more happily than had been done before, he did so only when they were considered in the gross; for his principles failed when examined in the detail. Yet the harmony of such imaginary vortices is more eligible than an hypothesis which offers no adequate bond of union.

It was reserved to Sir Isaac Newton to construct a system whose parts are all more perfectly in unison than those of any other philosophical hypothesis. Admit his first principle, the universality of gravity, and that the force of it decreases as the squares of the distance increase, and all the phenomena, which he combines by it, necessarily follow. No quality of matter, except inertness, is more familiar than gravity. The law, also, by which it is supposed to diminish, as it recedes from its centre, is analogous to the propagation of light, heat, &c. On the principle that *all matter gravitates to all matter*, we understand why the centres of the revolutions of the planets are not precisely in the centre of the sun, but in the common centre of gravity of the sun and the planets. The mutual attraction of the planets for each other, on the same principle, accounts for many other irregularities in their motions, especially for those of Jupiter and Saturn, which are considerable when those planets are nearly in conjunction with one another. The question here unavoidably returns, how we shall explain these irregularities of the planetary motions upon Dr. Y.'s hypothesis?

But if the hypothesis of our author could be applied to explain the complicated motions of the primary planets, it remains to be inquired, whether it would equally embrace the phenomena of the secondaries? Of all the irregularities in the heavens, those of the moon had occasioned the greatest perplexity to astronomers before the time of Newton: to



these irregularities, however, if possible, his theory more accurately corresponds than even to those of the primary planets. Here Dr. Y.'s system seems evidently to fail. If the sun, constructed in an appropriate manner, emits vast quantities of electric fire, to impel the planets in their revolutions round his orb, how does the earth impel the moon in a manner altogether analogous, though possessing no similarity of structure for the purpose of accomplishing such an impulse? And this may equally apply to the other satellites.

Many other objections occur in considering the details of our author's hypothesis, which, at present, we forbear to enumerate. But how much soever our opinions on this subject may differ from his, we revere his warm attachment to science, we wish to participate that glow of delight which he seems to enjoy in astronomical studies, and we are entirely persuaded that his love of truth will always induce him to receive it, from whatever quarter it may come, when offered with conviction to his mind.

The remainder of the work is devoted to physiological and medical inquiries and precepts; the consideration of which shall be resumed in our next number.

*(To be continued.)*

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ART. III. *Observations on the Influence of the Moon on Climate and the Animal Economy; with a proper Method of treating Diseases when under the Power of that Luminary.* Philadelphia. Folwell. 8vo. pp. 24. 1798.

THAT the satellite accompanying the planet which we inhabit, and performing revolutions around it in definite times, had an influence extending beyond its own body, and reaching to this earth and its productions, is an opinion of considerable antiquity. Human beings, in the rudest states of society, have often been known to assemble and celebrate the Neomenia, or New Moon. That orb has been customarily looked to, by the cultivators of the soil, as possessing great power over the atmosphere, causing changes of the weather, and, by modifying heat, cold, moisture and dryness, sensibly affecting the constitutions of plants and animals. By the alchemists, the moon, or Luna, gave a denomination to silver,

then reckoned the second of metals, as the sun, or Sol, lent his name to designate the first of them, or gold; and hence luna cornea, lunar caustic, and some other preparation of silver, still retain the titles significant of their derivation. Among the most ancient nations, a connection was formed between the phases of the moon and the exercises of religion; and even in the Christian Church, the moveable feasts and fasts are still regulated by the motions and periods of that variable neighbouring globe.

From the supposed action of our secondary planet upon the beings, animated and inanimate, on its principal, the imagination of man roved to the other spheres belonging to the solar system, and ascribed to each of them, to whom they had given names of heathen deities, an influence on the affairs of this world, and especially upon human creatures. Not satisfied, however, with planetary influence, Fancy stretched her wings beyond their furthest orbits, and pretended to have discovered that celestial energy was conveyed to the earth from the distant abode of the fixed stars. The names of the animals which had been applied to the constellations of the zodiac exceedingly aided this belief, and as Mars dwelt with Taurus or Leo, or Venus passed some of her time with Sagittarius or Capricorn, could a terrestrial conjurer predict much of warfare and of love, and unfold a vast deal concerning anger brooding in the head, and jealousy rankling in the heart.

On this foundation the fallacious hypothesis of *judicial astrology* was erected; a vain and delusive art, which, by calculating the positions and aspects of the planets at the time any person was born, affected to tell what good or evil fortune awaited him through life. This calculation of nativities, and the delineation of their horoscopes, have become unfashionable, and have been generally deemed foolish, since astronomy, from a collection of desultory facts, has been improved to a science. But a miserable relic of it still exists among us, and disgraces and disfigures some of our most popular pamphlets. We fear it will be hardly credited in Europe, and in the distant parts of America, that in the city of New-York, famous as it is for enterprise, genius, learning and talents, the almanacks teach the people who read them, that each constellation in the zodiac presides over a particular part of the animal body. *Aries* thus governs the head, *Pisces* the feet, *Libra* the small of the back, &c. and when the influence of each constellation is increased by the conjoined influence of the moon, when her place is within that constellation, the organ,



limb or bowel which they superintend is particularly affected and endangered. This miserable doctrine, propagated in publications more generally spread among the people than perhaps any other kind of books, has such sway in many parts of the country, that a citizen will not castrate a lamb or a pig, nor suffer himself nor any of his family to be bled from the arm, without inspecting the almanack in the first place, to find what the philomath who compiled it has certified about the astral and lunar influence on the body for that day. These visionary notions are expressed in symbols, or mystic characters. Arranged around the figure of the human body, at the beginning of our annual calendars, they indicate the parts subjected to particular zodiacal signs; and, by aid of monthly columns adapted to the purpose, show also in what region the sign is at any given time! These, with trines, and quartiles, and sextiles, and similar astrological nonsense, are not only tolerated from year to year, but, from long habit, regularly expected as a most important part of these periodical productions.

But to proceed to the piece before us.—Since the moon's attraction has been found to assist in causing the tides of the ocean, it has been believed, upon similar considerations, that it likewise occasions periodical movements or tides in the atmosphere. And if the whole mass of water and air were thus subjected to its influence, it was scarcely credible that many other things, and among them the bodies of animals and of man, should not be, in some degree, operated upon by the same power. Under such persuasion, *lunacy* has become but another name for *insanity*, and the word *moon-struck*, when applied to madness, has been deemed a well-chosen epithet.

Since the publication of the essay *de Imperio Solis et Lunæ*, by the learned Mead, many medical observers have turned their attention to the subject; and none have written with more confidence than Kirkland, on the lunar influence upon pregnant women, and Balfour, concerning its operation on febrile distempers.

The writer of the present "Observations" is a firm believer in lunar influence, and has brought together a considerable number of facts and remarks to support his opinion. We select the passages on the influence of this planet on climate, and on persons in health, as specimens of his composition and reasoning:

"About forty-eight hours previous to, and succeeding the new and full moon, all nature appears to be affected; a warm south-west wind generally prevails; the barometer sinks to 29

and  $28\frac{1}{2}$ ; and the thermometer rises from 15 to 25 degrees: a cold, dense and heavy air from the north-east rushes in to supply the place of this rarefied air, which continues to blow sometimes two or three days, attended with thick clouds and rain, obscuring the whole atmosphere, and often does considerable damage along the coast and wharves. It was one of these storms that prevented Dr. Franklin from observing an eclipse of the moon in the year 1760.

“ Within the periods, or on one of the two days which immediately precede and follow the new and full moon, high winds, storms, hurricanes, tempests, tornadoes, and earthquakes, are always expected; or, if a storm or tempest is then in being, she most commonly moderates it. Within the periods, our tides in the Delaware generally rise from one to two feet higher than in the intervals. This is so well known, that some of our ship-carpenters wait for the periods before they launch their vessels.

“ I believe the water, when the moon comes towards her meridian, is at its greatest height; because the atmosphere, from the elevation of the column of air directly under her meridian, is diminished in weight and pressure, and not more depressed, according to Dr. Franklin, who says, ‘the tide is a wave, and a wave a tide in miniature; and that the wave follows her two hours after she passes the meridian.’

“ The United States are most subject to inundations at the new and full moon; which is to be accounted for by the high winds, occasioning the sea to flow in the rivers with a strong current, which check the tides, and cause them to overflow the low lands. The lakes on our continent are, likewise, it is well known, influenced by this luminary.

*“ Of the Influence of the Moon on People in Health.*

“ The influence of this planet on the animal economy has been remarked by many authors, from the venerable Hippocrates to the ingenious Darwin, and particularly by the Arabian physicians; by Galen, Baglivi, Van Helmont, Ballonius, Ramazzini, Pitcairn, Mead, Sir Hans Sloan, Floyer, Grainger, Gregory, Balfour, Musgrave, Lind, Wilson, Mosely, Leake, Tyson, Wade, Jackson, Laing, and the late Dr. Smith, of New-York.

“ Within the periods, the pulse is generally more quick and tense than in the intervals, and respiration is more free and easy: hence an agreeable sensation of heat is perceived, and vigour is imparted to the whole system.

“ Persons in health appear to drink more at the full and change; a plethora is induced in the system; the appetite of thirst is much increased, and, perhaps, one-third less of the usual quantity of liquor is required to make a man drunk at this time than in common. This has been particularly observed by the friends and acquaintances of Mr. J— R—n, of this city.

“ The appetite for animal food is not increased; the determination to the alimentary canal is diminished, while that of the insensible perspiration of the body is much increased; the quantity of fluids in the vascular system is more considerable.

“ Impressions made on the senses excite quicker sensations and reflections. The secretions are increased; and hence I have often observed mothers and nurses, in general, who are sucking children, afford more milk at this time.

“ The young and old, from their accumulated excitability, are more sensibly affected than the middle-aged. A Mr. Ross, rope-maker, of this city, has a daughter, seven years old, who enjoys a good share of health, except at the periods, when she falls in a syncope, which lasts ten or fifteen minutes. When she recovers from this state of insensibility, she enjoys her usual good health until the periods return, when, unconscious, she is seized as before.

“ In Hartford, State of Connecticut, Dr. T. was found dead in the street. He was going from his neighbour’s to his own house, January 31, 1794, and on the same day, hour and minute, the sun was in an eclipse, with a new moon.

“ On the mind it produces the most powerful effects; as an equanimity of temper, a disposition to cheerfulness, and an aversion to anger in people of irascible dispositions. Perhaps there may be discovered in the atmosphere a mixture of airs, at the periods, favourable to the intellectual faculties. In this state of the mind, physicians visit their patients and relations, their friends labouring under contagious diseases, and are not so liable to receive infection.”

The author then proceeds to treat of the influence of the moon on diseases, and has stated many facts to show that the human constitution is invaded by various distempers within what he calls “ *the periods.*” And truly it is not wonderful that this should happen; for, as the periods comprehend two days before, and as many after the *new* moon, and two days before, and as many after the *full* moon, making eight days in the whole, which are considerably more than one quarter of a lunation, we might reasonably expect, upon the common

calculation of chances, that more than one-fourth part of the disorders of the human frame, and more than one-fourth of the deaths, would happen *within the periods*, if the lunar influence was entirely out of the question. We have not the least doubt of the commencement and termination of the many diseases enumerated by the author within the periods; but there does not appear to us to be that logical deduction of these from the phases of the moon, at the full and change, that is necessary to convince his readers of their catenation and dependance as cause and effect. There may be, and often is, coincidence without causation.

Upon the whole, though we are not disposed to deny the reality of the moon's influence, yet we apply to it the observation made by a great man on the subject of witchcraft, "that though, *in general*, he admitted it, yet he knew of no *particular instance* of it."

If we were disposed to suggest a hint to the author on this subject, it would be that he turn his attention, in his future pursuits, to the moon's radiance, or the *light of the moon*. There is a persuasion among the fishermen, along the coasts of Asia, Europe and America, that the *lunar light* peculiarly and rapidly promotes the putrefaction of fishes. And so fully are they satisfied of this, that they consider the rays of the moon more pernicious to the aquatic game they have caught than the shining of the sun. In common language, the *increase* and *decrease* of the moon are spoken of as if these terms referred to *its magnitude*. But the moon's magnitude, in all her positions, remains unaltered, and it is *her light alone* which suffers enlargement and diminution. To this object the attention of the author, and of other philosophical observers, may be directed with a prospect of usefulness and advantage, though triflers and sciolists may discourage them by remarking, that the grave subject of their researches is nothing but a *matter of moonshine*.

ART. IV. *The Valedictory Lecture delivered before the Philosophical Society of Delaware. By Dr. John Vaughan, Member of the said Society, &c. &c. Wilmington. Wilson. 12mo. pp. 36. 1800.*

**A**N association of citizens, at Wilmington, in Delaware, for the purpose of cultivating experimental physics, and of applying the principles thereof to useful arts and practical science, was announced in our vol. iii. p. 306 : and, in p. 406 of the same volume, we informed our readers that Dr. Vaughan had been prevailed upon to give a course of philosophical instruction to the members and others; and, at his commencement, had published a Syllabus, of which we there made respectful mention. Since that time, it appears that he has been seriously engaged in the performance of the business assigned to him; and the piece now under consideration is the concluding discourse, wherein he recapitulates the principal subjects on which he had been employed,

The Society had requested him to exhibit “ a series of lectures and experiments, on electricity, pneumatics, and chemistry;” and, having done so, he has dedicated the farewell address to the ladies, or that part of them whom he calls “ the Female *Inquirers* of Wilmington.”

Dr. V. considers electricity, heat and light, as modifications of the same principle, and that what is the matter of heat in summer becomes electricity in the winter. He takes a retrospect of the phenomena of lightning, and of thunderstorms, with the history and usefulness of metallic rods. He answers the objections brought against them as attracting electric matter, and thereby doing more hurt than good. The aurora borealis, in all its forms, is ascribed to electric streams or flashes, passing from cold to warm strata of air; and terrestrial electricity, he thinks, may give rise to earthquakes. In most of this he adopts the more respectable opinions of our times. But he is not content with ascribing a considerable part of these great operations to electricity, but boldly refers the effects wrought upon animal nerves and muscles by contiguous zinc and silver, and upon parts under the influence of pain, by cuspidated pieces of brass and iron, to the same agent.

Whether the metallic influence called *galvanism* is electrical or not, we feel no disposition, at present, to dispute. . But

the effects wrought by the *tractors* have been attributed, with great appearance of truth, to the change they work on the skin as a sentient organ, whereby they operate, in the relief and removal of pain, in a manner analogous to that by which *scratching cures itching*. In this way they have very often done good, and we have frequently known pain to cease by the irritation of cuticular surface, produced by their repeated strokes. Yet the phenomena seem not to us to be electrical; nor did the original patentee himself insist primarily that they were so. The illustration of the operation of the *tractors* by scratching is derived from the deceased inventor himself, who was of opinion that the claws of quadrupeds, and even the nails of the human fingers, were beneficial in removing pains upon the same principle that their imitations in metals are. But this is not the only matter concerning which we differ from Dr. V. We observe he, like many others, has been deceived by the terms of a published account of a billet from the Secretary of the Royal Society of London. That learned body never made any acknowledgment of the efficacy of the *tractors*. They never passed any specific vote of thanks for communications relative to these instruments. The facts were simply these: The author of a book on the effects ascribed to these sharpened pieces of metal, and of a controversial discussion concerning their influence, had sent a copy of his publication to the Royal Society, for their information and acceptance. In consequence of this act of generosity, the Secretary returned the answer customarily made to the donor in all such cases, that the present was received, and the Society thanked him for it. This was no more than common politeness, and to such an acknowledgment he would have been entitled as readily for a two-headed snake, or a bird of paradise, as for the gift he sent.

On the *pneumatic* part of his course, Dr. V. after treating of *heat* and of *water*, proceeds to the consideration of *air*, on which he thus expresses himself. We insert the passage as a specimen of his composition and matter.

“The pneumatical and chemical properties of air were discussed in connection; hence the term pneumatical chemistry. The ordinary effects of the atmosphere by which we are surrounded, are to preserve a balance of power in the system; to furnish oxygen for the support of animal life and combustion; to preserve liquids in proper consistence, &c. &c. The pressure of the atmosphere is computed at 15lbs. on every



square inch of surface; so that a common-sized man bears a weight of 28,000lbs. for his common burthen. This enormous pressure is counteracted by the air within the system.

“ Mr. Boyle tells us, that the stratum of air next to the surface of the earth is compressed into one-thirteen-thousandth part of the space it would occupy if it were at liberty; and yet it may be compressed into one-sixtieth part of that space: therefore air may be condensed 780,000 times.

“ Dr. Gregory observes, that if a globule of air, of one inch in diameter, had as great an expansion as it would have at the distance of the semi-diameter of the earth (3985 miles) from its surface, it would fill the planetary regions as far as the sphere of Saturn, which is 916,500,000.

“ The height of the atmosphere is estimated at 50 miles, and 1204 inches, or  $100\frac{1}{2}$  feet of air is equal to one-tenth of an inch of mercury; consequently the mercury of a barometer falls one-tenth of an inch for every hundred feet of ascent. Hence the altitude of mountains, and other heights, may be measured by a barometer.

“ The velocity of wind is from twelve to fifteen miles an hour; sometimes it is fifty miles.

“ The component parts of the atmosphere are oxygen and nitrogen—in the proportion of 28 parts of the former to 72 of the latter, in 100 parts of air.

“ The primary gases are, oxygen, nitrogen (or septon), hydrogen, and carbonic acid gas.

“ Oxygen is the principle of combustion, the essential of animal life, the principle of acidity, and a constituent of water.

“ Nitrogen, or septon, is a constituent of atmospheric air, and of alkalies, and is fatal to animal life. Its properties, however, are not clearly understood. Dr. Mitchill, of New-York, has lately given it the appellation of *septon*, and considers it concerned in the production of pestilential diseases. The ingenious professor has received great applause from his publications on this interesting subject, and opened a new field for philosophical discussion. His recommendation of the use of alkalies in fevers, and his proposed reforms in the police of our cities, deserve attention. If his doctrine be ultimately sanctioned by experience, our calcareous streets and houses will be lasting mementos of his genius; and become the peaceful habitations of humanity, freed from the devastation of pestilential fevers.

“ Hydrogen is a constituent of water—is inflammable with

vital air—has a garlic smell—and is unfit for respiration. The unfortunate Pilatre du Rozier inspired this air, and set it on fire during the expiration, which forms a very curious jet of flame. He also respired a mixture of one-ninth of atmospheric air with very pure hydrogenous gas; but when he attempted to set it on fire, it exploded with such violence that he imagined all his teeth were blown out.

“ This air is easily obtained, by putting diluted sulphuric acid on filings of iron.

“ Carbonic acid gas, or fixed air, is formed by the union of oxygen with carbon. It extinguishes flame, is noxious to animals, and combines with alkalies. It is an ingredient in most mineral waters, and is the usual test for detecting the presence of lime in waters.

“ It is this gas which produces so many unhappy accidents at the opening of cellars and wells which have been closed for a considerable time; and many lives might be preserved by a little preliminary caution. A person should never descend into a well or cavern without first introducing a lighted taper or candle; and if the flame be not extinguished, he may descend with safety, as the same principle supports life and combustion; but if the flame be extinguished, he must suspect the presence of carbonic acid gas, or some air unfriendly to life. Quick-lime should then be thrown into the well, and repeated until the whole of the fixed air is neutralized, or combined with the lime, forming common chalk, which may be ascertained by the burning of a taper.

“ This gas is heavier than atmospheric air, and, consequently, grovels along the surface of the earth; and remains in wells or privies, where it is formed, until expelled by artificial means. It is produced, in great abundance, by the fermentation of vegetable substances, and is emitted from some caverns and lakes. The Grotto del Cano, near Naples; the wells of Perolls, near Montpellier; and the famous Lake of Averno, in Italy, afford this gas in perpetual volumes.”

So do the Saratoga and Ball's-Town springs, in the State of New-York.

In the *chemical* part, acids, alkalies, earths and metals are enumerated, some experiments interposed, and then succeeds an animated and pathetic peroration, in which the Lecturer resigns his commission to the Society, and compliments the female part of his audience for their praise-worthy example, in having overcome the tyrant Custom, by attending the lectures, and in having manifested an ardent zeal in the pursuit

of useful knowledge. We concur with Dr. V. in his sentiments on making female education more extensive and solid than it generally is at present; and when we reflect how deeply health, pleasure and economy are concerned in the philosophy of house-keeping, we are convinced that many things would be better ordered in practice than we find them, if our fair countrywomen were somewhat better chemists.





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## Medical and Philosophical News.

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### DOMESTIC.

*Experiments proving the Acid Quality of the Pus, or Matter formed on the Surface of Venereal and Cancerous Ulcers.*

THE fluid secreted on the surface of malignant or ill-conditioned ulcers has frequently been said to become oxygenated, after exposure, for some time, to the atmosphere.—The benefit derived from alkaline remedies, as stated in p. 149, countenances that supposition. Further light is thrown upon the subject by the following experiments. They prove the existence of an acid in foul and corroding ulcers. If this acid is absorbed, it may be evidently the exciting cause of fever in the individual; if it evaporates, it will infect the surrounding air, and may poison others.

*From the Apothecary of the New-York Hospital.*

“DEAR SIR,

“November 28, 1800.

“I send you an account of the experiments made by my colleague, Mr. Brouwer, the House Surgeon, and myself, at your request, upon purulent matter. I am happy to find the result confirms your opinion, that pus is often in an *acid* state. Of the subjects chosen to make the experiments upon, three were labouring under syphilitic ulcers, as chancres and buboes; two with fore legs; and one with a recent wound on the head. In the fores of these persons, papers, tinged with the juice of litmus, were placed. Upon examination, several hours after, we observed that two of the papers in the venereal fores had changed to a deep red. The paper in the third venereal ulcer had not changed its colour, but its texture appeared to be much eroded and dissolved by the action of the pus. Of the two papers in the fore legs, one only was changed red; the other had undergone no perceptible change; nor had the paper in the recent wound on the head suffered any material change.

“In order to ascertain that the redness of the papers was not owing to any hæmorrhage from the smaller vessels of the

fore, we dipped them in a solution of the carbonate of soda, when they resumed their original colour. With respect to those two cases where the experiment did not succeed, I beg leave to observe, that one of them (the fore leg) was nearly well; the surface of the sore being but small, and the pus well digested. The other was the case of a recent, and but a small wound in the head, in which the pus was also well digested. These last cases seem to confirm another opinion of yours, that pus is not an acid when first secreted, or when it is well digested.

“ Another observation I wish to make, that, for some days previous to making the experiment, the sores had no other dressing applied to them but the ung. simp. of the shops; and, after the papers were applied, nothing but dry lint was put on.

“ Looking over Hoffman’s works, I find, in the fourth volume of his *Medicinæ Rationalis System.* chap. iv. sect. 6, where he treats of ulcers, that it was the common opinion of physicians in those days, that pus was an acid, though he is inclined to consider it as the product of putrefaction. Wishing you success in your laudable endeavours to promote medical science, I have the honour to be,

“ With respect and esteem,

“ Your humble servant,

“ H. C. KUNZF.,

“ *Apothecary to the House.*

“ To Dr. MITCHILL.

“ P. S. Since writing the above, I have the pleasure to inform you the experiment has again succeeded. The litmus paper was left only four hours in an ulcer on the leg, and was changed to a red colour.”

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*From the Practitioner in Cancerous Diseases, mentioned in Med. Rep. vol. iii. p. 302.*

“ SIR,

“ *New-York, Dec. 30, 1800.*

“ It has been lately suggested to me, that there existed an acid in the discharge secreted from cancers and inveterate ulcers, either at the time, or very soon after the secretion. And, having a number of patients of both descriptions, I noted the following cases with some care:

“ S. R. a woman aged forty-eight years, had a cancerous tumour in her left breast five years, and in an ulcerated state

two years. I applied the litmus paper inside of the dressing, and examined it three hours after, when I discovered some slight shades of red. I let it remain twenty-four hours, and the red had considerably increased. I then let the dressing remain two days, and applied the paper to the pus, while warm, on the dressing, and found it instantly changed with different shades of red.

“ J. M. a man aged forty years, had laboured under a cancerous affection of his lower lip for three years. The lip was almost destroyed, and his system much debilitated. In this case I applied the litmus paper immediately to the part affected, without any evident change. I left it on the part twenty-four hours, and it was not only changed red, but a great part of the paper destroyed. I also applied the paper to the matter in three hours after dressing, and it changed instantly reddish.

“ I repeated the experiment in a variety of other cancerous cases, with nearly the same effect as before stated.

“ I tried the same experiment on the purulent ulcer, without discovering any visible change on the paper. I tried it also on the scorbutic ulcer, without any evident change.

“ I am, with due respect,

“ Your very humble servant,

“ SAMUEL TORBERT.

“ To Dr. MITCHILL.”

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These experiments open wide and distant views of this important subject. The discharge of an ulcer is prone to grow sour: this sourness comes on by exposure to the air: where pus is good and laudable there is none of that quality: when its condition is worst, there is the greatest proportion of acidity. During this process there must be a decomposition of oxygenous gas; and the caloric extricated on the occasion may produce, in part, the burning and smarting sensation of some ulcers. The connection of fever with this form of ulceration is remarkable. The virus, acquiring its activity from oxygen, may injure the patient by absorption; or, where many patients are crowded a long time together, may rise by evaporation, and, like other acid pestilential gases, spread mischief around. Alkaline lotions, dressings and fumigations, are the proper extinguishers of all these noxious productions.

## ELEMENTS OF THE FIXED ALKALIES, OF LIME, AND OF MAGNESIA.

M. Guyton (Morveaux), we are informed, has read to the National Institute of France an account of some experiments made by himself and M. Deformes, of the Polytechnic School, on the constituent ingredients of pot-ash and soda. The result of these nearly corresponds with the opinions we gave concerning these subjects in p. 189 and 203. Mitchill's experiments had proved, that wood, decomposed by *putrefaction* in the American forests, contained no alkali, but *an acid*. Pot-ash, therefore, does not pre-exist in the timber, as Rouelle supposes, but is formed during combustion: and its constituent parts seem to be carbone and azote (the latter being supposed to be a compound of hydrogen and oxygen); p. 204. M. Guyton's experiments lead him to conclude that pot-ash is a compound of *lime* and *hydrogen*, and that lime itself is composed of *carbone*, *azote*, and *hydrogen*; consequently pot-ash, according to this, is made up of hydrogen, carbone and azote.—But, in p. 192 & seq. we stated the experiments of Priestley and Girtanner, to show that *azote* was a compound of oxygen and hydrogen; whence it is to be inferred, that, on a strict analytical inquiry into the whole subject, pot-ash consists of carbone, hydrogen and oxygen; and lime is no more than a different modification of the same ingredients.—M. Guyton also considers soda to be a compound of *MAGNESIA* and hydrogen, and that magnesia itself is composed of *lime* and *azote*; consequently soda, according to this, is made up likewise of hydrogen, carbone and azote; or, in more simple language, of carbone, hydrogen and oxygen, in proportions differing from both pot-ash and lime; and magnesia is but another, and a varied form of the same constituent particles. Thus pot-ash, soda, lime and magnesia, are shown to be the products of similar classes or associations of atoms or elements, varying only in their quantities and forces of attraction.

## INTERPRETATION OF FACTS CONCERNING LIME.

“It is generally thought,” says Priestley, “that the fixed air contained in fallen lime has been attracted from the atmosphere, in which it is said to float in a loose, uncombined state. But, from no other experiment that I am acquainted with, can it be proved, that any fixed air necessarily exists in the atmosphere; and lime or lime-water will become saturated with



it in all situations." (Doctrine of Phlogiston established, p. 63). And "a portion of atmospherical air, exposed some time to lime or lime-water, is sensibly less pure than before." An antiphlogistian might now explain these facts, and all others of the same kind, by saying that the fixed air is formed from the carbone and oxygen of the lime, or from the carbone of the lime and the oxygen of the atmosphere.—M. B. G. Sage, Director of the first School of Mines in France, has lately endeavoured to show by what process *animal*, or absorbing earth, is converted to *calcareous earth*, or *lime*; and he affirms, that the lixiviated ashes of burnt bones afford *soda*. These declarations violate no probability, since the carbonic, hydrogenous and oxygenated particles may be conceived to be susceptible of these, and, indeed, of many other modes of combination.—Testaceous animals have been supposed to borrow, *ab extra*, the lime of which their coverings or habitations were formed. On the present view of the subject, this doctrine is both untenable and unnecessary. The compound calcareous matter which surrounds an egg, or forms a conck-shell, or constitutes the basis of a bone, may fairly be comprehended as formed from its elements, by appropriate functions of the living body analogous to other secretions. Thouvenel witnessed the conversion of *washed chalk to pot-ash*, in his experiments upon septic vapours; and Chaptal testifies a similar change of a *well-washed chalk to pot-ash*, by exposure to the putrid exhalations of bullock's blood. (Chaptal, Elements, art. Soda). And such a transition now appears very easy.—Cannot the use of lime-stone, in reducing iron-ores, in producing the oxyd and gases of lead, and in various other processes, be now much better understood than heretofore?

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#### USE OF ALKALIES IN SURGERY.

Since the publication of the method of curing *primary* venereal ulcers by fluid carbonate of pot-ash (Med. Repos. vol. ii. p. 217, first edition), we find notices, in the Medical and Physical Journal of London, and in Blair's Essays on the Venereal Disease (vol. ii. p. 310), that the same remedy has been successfully tried in that city. In p. 149, some trials are related of it in *secondary* ulcerations of the syphilitic kind, and in other *diseases of the skin*. It is remarkable that Dr. Blane's observations on the use of alkalies in *cutaneous eruptions* (2 Med. and Chirurg. Trans.) tend to the enlargement of the same practice. Since those events, numerous

experiments, in the New-York Hospital, have proved that the pus of ulcers, after a few hours exposure to the air, is acid, and tinges litmus paper red. And a case has been communicated by Dr. Hillier, of Sparta, of actual effervescence on applying carbonate of pot-ash to a very foul ulcer!

SODA FORMED FROM ITS ELEMENTS IN THE LIVER.

In p. 189 and 203, cogent reasons were assigned, to show that both pot-ash and soda were compound bodies, and had no pre-existence in the vegetables which afforded them on burning. But, though incineration is the *ordinary* process by which both of the fixed alkalies are produced, it is, perhaps, not the *only* one in nature by which they may be formed. With regard to soda, at least, it seems to be certain that it is an ingredient in the gall of all animals which, as yet, have been the subject of experiment. Of many of these, dogs, neat-cattle, swine, sheep, and the other domestic animals, who share with man a portion of the muriate of soda, or sea-salt which he consumes, it may be said they derive the soda of their bile from the decomposition of that neutral salt, as was conjectured by Dr. Mitchill, in our vol. ii. p. 295, first edit. This may, indeed, be the case with creatures who are freely supplied with that article, or with food containing it. Though, in opposition to this, it may be said, that inasmuch as sea-salt is a substitute for gall in the alimentary canal, the liberal use of it with food might be expected to render the biliary secretion less necessary. Be that as it may, it is well known, that in the high tracts of the American continent toward the north-west, where there are few or no salt-springs, that the native red-men eat their food without that condiment. And travellers of our own complexion, who have penetrated the forests far enough beyond the Lake of the Woods, have related, on their return, that the want of salt, to season their meat and fish, was more distressing to them than any thing they had to endure. The bile of such human beings, and of the wild animals dwelling there in the wilderness, must derive its soda from some other source than sea-salt taken into the body. And so, indeed, must that of the stall-fed ox, who, perhaps, may receive an ounce or two of salt to lick once a week or two; while the copious stream of bile which his digestion requires is furnished with a steady and never-failing supply of soda. The liver is the organ which prepares this alkali, not by straining it off from the blood (for there was none contained in the blood), but by forming it synthetically

from its simple ingredients. That large and important viscus may, therefore, be defined to be "the manufactory of soda for the ordinary supply of the constitution." And this, which has usually been called the *mineral*, may henceforward, with equal propriety, be termed *animal alkali*.

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#### LUMINOUS APPEARANCE OF OCEAN-WATER OWING TO ANIMALS.

In a memoir on the light emitted by the water of the ocean, written by Dr. Mitchill, the author has expressed his conviction, that this phenomenon is *universally animalcular*. He has discovered several species of the Medusa which emit light, and some others of the Mollusca. He has made observations on their structure and functions. The emission of light is connected with the circulation of the *arterious* blood, and is not perpetual, but intermitted, and seemingly performed *ad arbitrium*. It goes on *during the day* as well as by night, though then not ordinarily distinguishable, on account of the greater light afforded by the sun. These creatures seem capable of living in water of all common temperatures above the freezing point. Mr. Mitchill's observations were made on the salt-water of the Atlantic, upon the shore of Long-Island.

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#### CHEMICAL SOCIETY OF PHILADELPHIA.

Among other communications lately made to this association of the votaries of science, is a series of Geological Essays, by Mr. George Lee. Though we have not heard that the author has given the geology or mineralogy of any part of the United States not heretofore described, yet we learn that, like Mr. Kirwan, he is a spirited supporter of the Neptunian theory of the earth, and a firm believer in the Mosaic account of the deluge and its consequences.

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#### TRAVELS IN THE NEIGHBOURHOOD OF THE MISSISSIPPI.

Many places on the banks, and in the vicinity of this western limit of the United States' territory, abound with lime-stone, in which there are numerous impressions of shells and other animal relics. Those are plain and frequent in the tract between the mouth of the Ohio and the junction with the Missouri, as well as on the Ohio, and in the lower country, as one descends toward the Gulf of Mexico. Mr. Stephen Ayres has brought specimens of these petrifications, collected by him, in his tour through that country, in the

course of the year 1800. In his manuscript journal, which we have seen, mention is made of the salt-springs and works in the country bordering on the Mississippi, and of pumice-stone found floating on the waters of the Missouri. Pieces of this pumice-stone which are in our possession, and which now readily swim in water, were taken up fifty miles above the mouth of the river, and lead to a conviction of the existence of volcanoes in the neighbourhood of its superior streams. These probably issue from that chain of mountains which, stretching N. and N. W. from the Cordelieras in South-America, form the insurmountable barrier of Darien, which repels the intra-tropical currents and surges of the Atlantic, and, in higher latitudes, dividing the waters which fall into the Pacific from those which run into the Mississippi, constitute the immense and unexplored mountains which may be called the "Northern Andes." We understand the Missouri is considered by the British and Spanish governments as the territorial line, defining the limit where the dominions of the former, extending from Canada and Hudson's Bay, and of the latter, reaching from Florida and New-Spain, meet, and circumscribe and compress the United States. The policy of two powerful and hostile nations has not, that we know, given rise to any expedition whereby the sources of this vast river might be visited, and the adjacent regions explored:—As to the salt-springs, Mr. Ayres is of opinion, the quantity of salt in the western country he has visited is very great; that a large space of land, now bare, was formerly overflowed by means of dams of rocky and mountainous matter below, which have since given way; that the saltiness of the lakes, anciently so formed, might have enabled the testaceous creatures, whose remains are so abundant, to have lived in them; and that their existence there may be thus accounted for, without deriving them from the ocean.

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INSECTS IN ABUNDANCE NOT NECESSARILY CONNECTED WITH SICKLY SEASONS.

In describing pestilential seasons, it has been very common to notice the innumerable swarms of insects. Some observers of the phenomena attendant on times of sickness have even been led to an opinion, that the growth and multiplication of these tribes of animals is promoted by that condition of the atmosphere and the waters which is unfriendly to the health of man. We suspect, however, this is by no means correct. The summer and autumn of the year 1800 was very produc-

tive of insects, in the States of New-York, Jersey and Pennsylvania; and still no corresponding degree of sickness occurred, either in city or country. Locusts were so thick in West-Jersey, and the eastern parts of Pennsylvania, as to keep up an incessant noise. In Dutchess County (N. Y.), Dr. Ricketson, who resided on the spot, describes various other kinds as uncommonly numerous, and making great ravages among the forest-trees; and, at the same time, observes, that a favourable state of health had generally prevailed.—Insects, then, may be very abundant, and no remarkable sickness exist. There is, therefore, no necessary connection between swarms of insects and pestilential seasons. But it is, nevertheless, true, that, during some periods of epidemic sickness, there have been great numbers of insects. These, however, have been merely accidental coincidences, and by no means indicate a law of nature on the subject. On the contrary, some insects are killed by pestilential air, as has been often observed of common house-flies, vast numbers of which died on the approach of the sickness in New-York, toward the latter part of the summer of 1799. For the future, physicians, and others who describe pestilential seasons, should be careful not to use the broad and unqualified term “insect,” but, instead thereof, particularize the species which they observe to be prevalent at such times. They will thus express themselves with precision, and their readers will the better comprehend their meaning.

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MACHINE FOR EXPEDITING THE TANNER'S BUSINESS.

James Cox, of Rahway, in East-Jersey, has obtained letters patent for a machine of his invention, to save labour in tan-yards. It consists of sets of frames adapted to the vats, on which the hides are to be stretched, and secured in such a manner as to be at once in a situation to be acted upon by the fluid in which they are immersed, and to be easily lifted out in a body, for airing, by the strength of one or two men. Thus, in the operations of soaking in common water, in lime-water, &c. the hides are handled with very little expenditure of time or strength. Good judges are of opinion, on trial, that Mr. Cox's invention promises to be of great utility in that extensive branch of manufacture.

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Is MATERNAL EMOTION COMMUNICABLE to the FÆTUS?

Ever since the publication of Roederer's famous essay, denying the influence of the mother's imagination upon the

figure and complexion of her unborn child, it has been generally fashionable, with men of philosophical understandings, to reject such interpretations as illusory and deceptive. That many of them are so nobody will deny. Fancy, imposture and credulity, joined to a propensity for the marvellous, have done wonders in this way. Still there are singular facts, which it becomes us to consider well before we renounce. The following is an instance now in the city of New-York: A woman, during pregnancy, had a conference with her husband concerning the disposal of the milch-cow which they kept. It was the wish of the wife, that the animal, which was a favourite, should be kept over to the next season; but it was the husband's opinion she should be fatted, and slaughtered for beef. No decision took place at the time, nor was there any further conversation on the subject. Some time afterwards, in an advanced stage of gestation, this woman was suddenly surprised, and inexpressibly shocked, at the sight, through a window, of the creature she valued so fondly lying dead under the butcher's hands. The circumstances which particularly struck her notice at the instant, and dwelt indelibly upon her memory, were the stumps of the fore-legs, that had just been cut off at the knee-joint, as the cow lay turned up.—After this spectacle of disgust and horror, the child was born at the usual time, BUT UTTERLY DESTITUTE OF THE FORE-ARMS AND HANDS OF BOTH THE UPPER EXTREMITIES! About half-way down the humerus there is an abrupt termination in stumps, as if the arms had been amputated above the elbows. In other respects, except some mal-conformation of the toes, this little girl is well-shaped, hearty, and still alive.—This looks like cause and effect. Modern physiologists will probably laugh at the explanation as strange and unwarrantable. So they may: but it does not follow that a remarkable event, preceding a phenomenon, has no connection with it, because human understanding has not hitherto traced the whole chain of causation. Notwithstanding the distinctness of persons between mother and child, there is some wonderful sympathy between them.

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DESCRIPTION OF THE SARATOGA MEDAL.

After the capitulation of the British troops at Saratoga, in the year 1777, the American Congress voted to Major-General Gates, who commanded that division of the army on the occasion, a sword and a medal, in honour of his bravery and success.

The medal was struck in Paris, and is of exquisite workmanship. The one sent to the General is of gold, and weighs ten half-johanneses. On one side is a fine likeness of him in profile, surrounded by the words, "HORATIO GATES DUCI STRENUO;" and, at the bottom, "COMITIA AMERICANA," in allusion, probably, to its having been voted by Congress. On the reverse, Burgoyne, in the act of delivering his sword, on the capitulation of Saratoga, occupies the foreground, about midway between the American and British forces, which are represented on the right and left in the rear. Above are the words, "SALUS REGIONUM SEPTENTRION." and beneath, "HOSTE AD SARATOGAM IN DEDITION. ACCEPTO, DIE XVII. OCT. MDCCLXXVII."

Since the commencement of the revolution in France, the dies by which the medal was executed have been politely forwarded to General Gates by an unknown person. It is thus in the power of Americans to have these commemorative medals multiplied to any number they may desire.

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#### CULTIVATION OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

A *Grammar*, an *Abridgment of the Grammar*, and a *Book of Exercises*, connected with the grammar, have, within a few years, been published in England, by Mr. Lindley Murray, of York. The author, who is an American, and a native of the city of New-York, has, more lately, edited two other works, entitled the *English Reader*, and the *Sequel to the Reader*. All these are performances adapted to their several ends with great taste and discernment. They have, therefore, been generally commended, and have become very popular. The greater number of these useful and meritorious books have already run through several editions, of five or six thousand copies each, in England, and several of them have undergone impressions in America. The profits of the copy-right and sale, which are very considerable, are, we understand, not converted, by the benevolent author, to his own emolument, but the whole, consistently with his original design, are steadily and invariably applied to the benefit of others. The introduction of these elementary books into many of the *great schools* in Britain, may be considered a favourable prelude to their reception into seminaries of learning in the author's native country.

## REMARKABLE PRODUCT OF THE POTATOE.

Mr. CUSHING,

In your paper of June, 1799, you published an account of the great produce of one potatoe, which a gentleman in England planted in his garden, taking particular care to make it produce the most possible, which, if I mistake not, was *eighty-one pounds*.—When I read the account I did not think the produce any thing extraordinary; but, having finished my planting, I could not try the experiment until this year.—My garden being small, I could not afford any part of that for the purpose, but planted a large potatoe by itself in my field. I cut it into small pieces, to make it yield as much as I possibly could. In October I pulled the potatoes which proceeded from it, and spread them on the grass to dry, from eleven o'clock forenoon, until three in the afternoon; then weighed them, and found the produce of the one potatoe that I planted to be *one hundred and eighty-two pounds*; among which was one potatoe that I think capable of producing a considerably larger quantity.

Yours,

EBENEZER STEVENS.

*Andover, Dec. 4, 1800.**[Salem Gaz.]*

## TUSK OF THE MAMMOTH.

Since the publication of the communications of Mr. Miller and Dr. Graham (p. 211 & seq.), concerning the fossil bones on the west bank of the Hudson, about eighty miles from the city of New-York, other discoveries have been made. We have been informed that the upper jaw-bone is perforated to receive a tusk, like that of the elephant. In neat-cattle the horns cover the clints, which are bony projections or excrescences from the skull; but in the skeleton of this unknown creature, the connection of this tooth or tusk was by gomphosis. Two pieces of the substance of one of these are in our possession, and they are evidently *ivory*.—This structure of the head leads towards a belief that the animal was a species of elephant.

## AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY.

*Philosophical-Hall, Jan. 2, 1801.*

At a meeting of the American Philosophical Society, the following members were duly elected officers for the ensuing year, agreeably to charter:



Thomas Jefferson, *President.*

Caspar Wistar,  
Robert Patterfon, } *Vice-Presidents.*  
Andrew Ellicott,

John Redman Coxe,  
Adam Seybert, } *Secretaries.*  
Joseph Clay,  
Burgefs Allifon,

Jonathan B. Smith,  
William Currie, } *Counfellors for three years.*  
Samuel Wheeler,  
P. S. Duponceau,

C. W. Peale,  
J. R. Smith, } *Curators.*  
Robert Leslie,

John Vaughan, *Treasurer.*

John Redman Coxe, *Secretary.*

AMERICAN ANTIQUITIES.

Figured stones, which formerly were employed by the Aborigines, or red-men of America, for pointing their arrows and heading their spears, are frequently found in the places where they formerly dwelt and hunted. They are of various sizes, from one inch to five inches in length, and of proportional breadth. They are all formed of silicious stones, not polished, but worked into shape by repeated small strokes scaling off the flinty matter by a concavo-convex fracture.— Along the sea-coast, and islands of New-York, the most common materials of these *Indian piles*, as they are called, are white quartz and dark flint; though some are composed of jasper, or cornelian, and others even of a milk-coloured stone, very much like chalcedony. Their stone-axes, with which they used to girle trees, are ordinarily of compact argillaceous sand-stone.

EXPERIMENTS on the PRODUCTION of WATERY VAPOUR during the PREVALENCE of EXTREME COLD.

December, 1800, had been remarkable for the moderate weather which had generally prevailed throughout it, especially the latter half of the month. A milder temperature, at that season, had rarely been known. Mist and fog had been succeeded by rain, which, having not been hardened by cold, had rendered the walking, in the city of New-York, very muddy. Indeed, on the 24th and 25th, the face of the earth,

in the maritime parts of the adjacent country, was not only bare of snow, but quite free from frost. On New-Year's day, 1801, the weather, though colder, did not exceed a very moderate winter-temperature. On that night, and on the morning of the 2d of January, there was a slight sprinkling of snow, enough to whiten the earth, but not to thicken the water: and there was not, at this time, a single cake of ice floating either in the River Hudson (or North-River), or in the East-River (or Sound). So warm had the weather been, in the interior country, that the ice in the Mohawk-River, and in the Hudson at Albany, was said to have broken up.

During the night of the 2d, and morning of the 3d, the temperature became rapidly colder, and there was such a speedy abstraction of caloric, that water congealed within doors for the first time since the commencement of winter. At eight o'clock on the morning of the 3d, the quick-silver in Fahrenheit's thermometer was as low, in the open air, as 6 deg. above zero.

At that time the *salt-water* of both the rivers, and of the Bay of New-York, emitted copious vapours, resembling those which hot water sends forth into the colder atmosphere in common cases, and, like them, gradually evaporated and dissolved in the air. A similar exhalation proceeded from the cisterns of *rain-water* in the city; part of which condensing on the refrigerated wooden work above ground, and on the spider-webs remaining in the corners of the cistern-mouths, formed beautiful crystallizations of hoar-frost.

To determine the relative temperatures of water and air, when this phenomenon occurred, Dr. Mitchill made experimental trials. The following are the results: While the mercury in the thermometer, at the surface of the earth, then besprinkled with snow, was at 12 deg. above cypher, near the opening of his cistern, it raised to 41 deg. on being let down to the depth of eight feet in the water. Here stagnant fresh water,  $41 - 12 = 29$  deg. warmer than the contiguous air, elevated plenty of visible vapours. There was a fall of a little more snow during the morning of the 4th; and, at nine o'clock, the quick-silver, in the open air, had risen to 22 deg. The heat of the cistern-water was still 41 deg. and it continued, when the lid was raised, to exhibit a more faint, though still a discernible exhalation. Fresh water, thus, may be seen to smoke when the air is  $41 - 22 = 19$  deg. colder than itself.

The condition of ocean-water was somewhat different.

While the mercury was as low as 12 deg. on a snowy plank, upon a wharf in the East-River, near Dr. Mitchell's house, it rose to 37 deg. on being let down to the depth of eight feet, through a port-hole in the side of an armed brig moored there. Here current salt-water of the tide,  $37 - 12 = 25$  deg. warmer than the incumbent air (though it had been smoking all the preceding part of the day, while the mercury had been rising from 6 deg. the point at which it stood at eight o'clock A. M. to 12, at four o'clock P. M.), had just ceased to afford any more visible vapours. Though the heat of the water in the river continued at 37 deg. on the morning of the 4th, yet, as the heat of the air on the wharf was altered to 22 deg. there was no sensible evaporation. Air, no colder than  $37 - 22 = 15$  deg. below the temperature of the salt-water, elicits no perceptible fumes from it. When the rivers and bay smoke, the incumbent air must be more than 25 deg. colder than the water beneath, to produce an exhalation discernible by the eye.

These experiments were made with a green-house thermometer, connected with a tin case and cup. They show that rain-water, when the atmosphere is 19 deg. colder than it, emits a vapour which, though small, is discernible; that ocean-water does not afford visible exhalation unless the atmosphere exceeds it in coldness by a greater number of degrees than 25; that the salt of the ocean attracts the water in which it is dissolved so strongly as to require  $25 - 19 = 6$  deg. more of relative cold in the air, to make it furnish sensible exhalations, than rain-water does; and that, consequently, during this evaporating process, both the kinds of water communicate caloric most rapidly to the atmosphere, warm it, and raise its temperature, as far as they can, toward that degree at which it shall be incapable, on account of its increased solvent capacity, of manifesting visible vapours any longer.

One might now almost calculate what degree of coldness in air would be necessary to raise vapour from water of a given temperature. Let it be required, for instance, to find how low the atmosphere must be cooled to enable visible steam to rise from the air-holes of the Hudson, or the rapids of the St. Lawrence, where the fluid is rain or river water. The water is undoubtedly warmer than the freezing point, or 32 deg. suppose two degrees, or 34. Let *D* be the degree of frigidity in the air necessary to form visible vapour; *R* the heat of the water in the river; and *V* the point at which vapour is seen: then the problem may be solved by the following

formula:  $R$ , or  $34 - D$ , or  $19 \pm V$ , or  $15$ , the degree of cold in the air at which steam would begin to be visible.

Again, let it be asked at what temperatures of air and water ought visible exhalation to be formed in the Bay of New-York, or in the ocean-water of either of its rivers? Then putting  $O$  for the temperature of the water;  $D$ , again, for the difference of temperature in the atmosphere; and  $V$  for the degree at which the exhalation could be seen; the calculation would stand thus:  $O$ , or  $34 - D$ , or  $25 \pm V$ , or  $9$ , or the highest degree at which vapour can be seen under such circumstances.

#### DIGITALIS PURPUREA.

The reputation of this powerful remedy still continues to stand high in America and Great-Britain.

In Great-Britain it is contended that, by a judicious management of this plant, variously combined, pneumonic inflammation may be obviated with as much certainty as the progress of an intermittent fever can be arrested by means of the Peruvian bark; and that, if pulmonary consumption be divided into four stages, the digitalis will commonly cure the three first, and greatly alleviate the distressing symptoms of the last. Some deduction, however, should be made in an estimate of the opinions of physicians who infer general conclusions from particular cases.

This remedy has been also often prescribed with success in *continued fevers* of various types—in *croup*—in *asthma*—in *measles*—in violent cases of *hemicrania*—and in the more severe degrees of *hæmorrhoidal* affections.

It has been also proposed, in combination with opium and camphor, as a means of preventing abortion; and we find stated a remarkable instance of its efficacy in this case, where it appeared to remove the peculiar irritability of the system, and especially of the uterus, which takes place in females disposed to that disease.

The infusion of digitalis has been likewise employed with success, externally, as a remedy for many stubborn cutaneous eruptions. It is asserted that it will subdue the itch with certainty.

As Dr. Ferriar, of Manchester, has used the infusion of digitalis, as a lotion, with success, in the inflammatory affection accompanying anasarca of the inferior extremities, which has hitherto proved one of the most intractable species of external inflammation (see Med. Rep. vol. iii. p. 428),

the question naturally arises, whether the same infusion would not be a promising remedy, if employed as an injection in the more stubborn forms of virulent gonorrhœa, and, at the same time, given internally in cases of unusual irritability, and of generally increased vascular action? How far would such an infusion be admissible as a collyrium in any of the more obstinate forms of ophthalmia?

In this city the good effects of digitalis were lately exhibited in the following case: An unmarried woman, about thirty years of age, of hysterical constitution, was affected with an obstinate watchfulness of nearly a fortnight's duration. Her system, at the same time, was unusually irritable by the slightest impressions: By degrees she was attacked with all the symptoms of hysteria, which progressively increased in violence, till the convulsions; &c. assumed a frightful appearance. At length hysteria gradually passed into mania, and the patient, for many days, continued altogether ungovernable by ordinary means. The usual remedies were all ineffectually tried. Recourse, at last, was had to digitalis, in the form of infusion, which soon calmed the violent commotion, reduced the pulse from a very rapid state to nearly forty beats in a minute, induced sleep; which had been so long banished, and quickly removed every hysterical appearance. By an accidental overdose of the remedy, a severe retching, of several hours duration, was brought on; which, however, yielded merely to the discontinuance of the medicine. She is now well.

Dr. A. J. De Rossset, of Wilmington (North-Carolina), in a letter to Dr. Miller, communicates the following case of the efficacy of digitalis:

“In consequence of a paragraph in one of the numbers of your Repository, the mother of a numerous family has been restored to her children, her husband and friends, when even hope itself had almost ceased to afford its cheering influence. She had, for some time, laboured under the symptoms of a rapid *phthisis*, which had daily gained ground till she was reduced to the last extremity. The discharge from her lungs was excessively copious, and appeared to be *pus* mixed with blood. An erect posture was the only one she could obtain any sleep in. Every symptom portended approaching dissolution. This had been her situation for a fortnight, as I learned from her husband, who is a physician, when I showed him the paragraph alluded to, giving an account of the use of the digitalis in that disease. I furnished him with some of the herb, which he readily agreed to make trial of, and the

success of the experiment exceeded our most sanguine expectation. The symptoms gradually abated, and the lady now enjoys good health. It is now eight or ten months since her recovery. The powder of the leaves was given in substance.

“N. B. During the use of the digitalis, the lady drank freely of the infusion of the horehound (*marrubium vulgare*).”

Dr. John Spence, of Dumfries, in Virginia, has just transmitted, in a communication addressed to Dr. Mitchell, some valuable observations on the use of digitalis, accompanied with the journal of one severe phthical case in which its efficacy was very happily displayed. The powers of this remedy in reducing the excessive action of the arterial system, in subduing irritability, in gradually relieving the cough and purulent expectoration, and, finally, in conducting the patient to the recovery of perfect health, have been seldom exhibited in a more satisfactory manner. A more particular account of Dr. Spence's employment of digitalis will be given in a future number.

The inquiry concerning the mode of operation of digitalis is extremely interesting. By ascertaining it we shall be enabled more correctly to modify and regulate the use of this powerful agent—to extend as well as to limit the employment of it—to guard against deleterious consequences—to select and combine the best auxiliaries—and to determine in what cases it ought to be preferred or postponed to other medicines. Some conjecture that it operates by rendering the heart and arteries less susceptible of the stimulus of the blood and other agents, or, in other words, as a direct sedative. Hence it has been used in Great-Britain, either in a solitary or combined form, in almost every case of *increased vascular action*. But it is contended, on the contrary, from its speedily evacuating watery accumulations in many cases of dropsy, that it must act by a direct stimulant operation upon the absorbents. Whether these opposite actions in the animal system be compatible with each other, or, if not, which of them be the true one, we leave to the decision of future experience and observation.

#### THE NEW GERMAN REMEDIES FOR FEVERS.

The American newspapers have lately contained several paragraphs concerning certain discoveries in the cure of febrile diseases, by Professor Gottfried Christian Reich, of Erlangen. This is the man whom we mentioned in our vol. i. p. 262, first edit. as having been very instrumental in trans-

tating and publishing, in Germany, the pieces he had received from this country on the doctrine of septon, with additions and enlargement. He has, during the year 1800, published several works of his own. One of these is a small octavo book, of about three hundred pages, printed at Nuremberg, and contains a description of cases of disease, amounting to thirty-eight, treated by his new remedies: the other is a duodecimo pamphlet, of 88 aphorisms, printed at Berlin, and containing a concise, but sententious, developement of the philosophical or scientific principles by which he supposes fevers are produced, and of the manner in which his remedies operate in curing them. The history of these publications, as related by the author, is this: His thoughts having been turned to new views of the subject, by the perusal of the pieces from the United States, he determined not only to study the principles which they contained, and others to which they prompted his understanding, but to apply his own matured opinions to practice. In prosecuting this inquiry, he reflected much upon the works of many writers, but particularly of Mitchill, Hufeland, Reil, Röschlaub and Brown,\* and made up his mind after a survey and consideration of the whole of their systems. Convinced of the utility of the discoveries he had made, he gave out that he was possessed of the knowledge of two excellent remedies for fevers; and the consequence was, that the king of Prussia invited him to Berlin; caused experiments to be made by him, with them, before a committee, in the Great Hospital; gave him honour, promotion, and a pension, and prevailed upon him to disclose to mankind at large whatever he had found out on the subject. Such is the account derived from the learned Professor Reich himself, and the books which he has obligingly sent us. The author, whose letter is dated Sept. 5, 1800, is now settled in the capital of Prussia.—The grand remedies are the SULPHURIC and MURIATIC ACIDS. He thinks well of the *phosphoric*, but fears the noxious effects of the *nitrous*† in some of its forms.

The following paragraphs, which contain a part of his doctrine of fever, have been rapidly translated, for the immediate information of our readers:

(§ 29.) “As every disease, in general, is a particular modification of the living state of the body, so is fever a pecu-

\* Reich's Beschreibung mit seinen neuen mitteln behandelten Krankheitsfälle; Einleitung, page 9. u. f. w.

† Von fieber und dessen behandlung, § 68.

liar modification of this living state; and the word fever is accordingly made use of to denote a genus of disease which must be entirely different from every other.

(§ 30.) “ Inasmuch as by the term fever a peculiar form of disease is denoted, which really belongs to all those disorders comprehended under the denomination of fever: so far must all these diseases agree with each other.

(§ 31.) “ The circumstances in which these different diseases agree with each other, and whereby they constitute a fever, must likewise have some marks of distinction, something essential, general and original, and which must absolutely be present, in order to a disease being pronounced a fever. There must likewise be something they all have in common, because only upon this account the different special forms of disease which are known under the name of fever can be placed under this title, or can, with justice, be ranged under the generic character.

(§ 32.) “ Without the presence of this generic character no disease can be called a fever. This follows from that law in logic, that what belongs to the genus must likewise belong to the species; and that such a species can no otherwise be constituted than by possessing a character common to the whole genus.

(§ 33.) “ All fevers, from the simple ephemeral fever to the plague, as the highest grade of fever, are only different species of one and the same genus; and if fever in general is to be justly defined, the things common to them all must be noticed in the definition—that is to say, the generic character must be expressed.

(§ 34.) “ What is, therefore, this generic character? Is the knowledge of it so attainable that we are immediately able to discover it? To a person who meditates it is plain enough: for though it cannot be perceived as matter, the thing itself not being of a material, but abstract kind, yet it can be established, with entire certainty, from the collection and order of the phenomena of fevers, and from the external discoverable causes of them.

(§ 35.) “ We now remark, in an empirical manner, that every thing which disturbs the universal and true union of both living principles\* with one another, and with the simple and compound matter present in the body itself, through

\* The author here refers to the eighteenth aphorism, where oxygen is said to be the positive, and azote the negative principle of life.



which the variety of principles necessary to life are accomplished, and through which that which is called by me unnatural fermentation depends, creates a condition peculiar to fever.

(§ 36.) “ This condition consists in a change, sometimes great, sometimes small, of all the secretions and excretions, which depends upon an absolute diminution, or a disturbance of just proportion, of the chemical combination of oxygen, and of its effects upon and in the body.

(§ 37.) “ The generic character, or essence of fever, the symptoms of which, I presume, are already known, consists in an unnatural and general separation and re-union of the most simple particles of the human body, effected by the unnatural, absolute or relative, local or universal diminution of oxygen. It is scarcely necessary to observe, that the word unnatural does not mean any thing contrary to the laws of the general course of nature, which would include an absolute impossibility, but that it is made use of to denote a certain relation to the natural state of the body.

(§ 38.) “ This diminution of oxygen can be effected by external and internal causes.

(§ 39.) “ To external causes belong, besides miasma, and the impurity of the atmosphere in general, all eruptive poisons, all of which create a fermentation in bodies; whereby the right adjustment of oxygen is impaired, and the force of natural connection between it and the other elements dissolved, by an unnatural decomposition and recombination among them.

(§ 40.) “ As there are many kinds of chemico-animal processes in the sound state, external circumstances, which hinder the combination required by healthy nature, may create fevers. Witness the phenomena of the dead chemical fermentation, and the known influence of external circumstances, as temperature, state of electricity, &c.

(§ 41.) “ Internal powers, existing in the body, are likewise able to create fevers.

(§ 42.) “ As in every chemico-animal process the solids, as muscles, nerves and vessels, have their definite co-operation, every thing which hinders the exertion or activity of these parts must likewise be sufficient to produce such an effect. Impressions upon the mind, as well as material powers, may, therefore, have a share in causing fevers.

(§ 43.) “ The proximate cause, therefore, of all fevers, lies either in the prevention of the reception of oxygen, or in an unnatural application of it, or in an accumulation and

evolution of carbone, hydrogen, septon, sulphur, phosphorus, and of all other particles of the human body supposed to be simple, and in the conjunction of these matters, among themselves, in binary, ternary, quaternary, and quintuple forms; and with such matters as have their access externally, which we comprehend under the names of caloric, light, magnetism, and electric matter."

He then goes on to say, that oxygen must be the only true remedy for fevers; but as we cannot get it quite simple, we use those things which contain it in the purest and most simple manner: these are acids. He says that he uses acids in all kinds of fevers, by whatever name they are known, and he is confident they will cure in the most easy and best manner, provided only there is no destruction of the organization of any part. "I at first," continues he, "for a long time, made use of the SULPHURIC ACID; but finding that it was not relished by the sick, that it did not part with its oxygen quick enough, and that it often felt heavy in the stomach, I made a trial of the COMMON MURIATIC ACID, and this proved, in the result, to be one of the best and most pleasant acids. I have, since that, constantly made use of it. Besides these two mentioned acids, I have made use of others, and found their operation coincided with my opinion."

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#### YELLOW FEVER IN THE UNITED STATES.

We are disappointed in the expectation of inserting, in this number, an account of a malignant disease which raged with great mortality, last autumn, in an interior situation of this State. Assurances have been given us that the facts are very remarkable, and that a narrative of them shall be transmitted as soon as it can be fully prepared.

In a letter from Dr. A. J. De Rossé, of Wilmington (North-Carolina), to Dr. Miller, dated 2d November, 1800, the following account is given of the epidemic of last autumn.

"Our summer had been remarkably healthy, very few cases of remittents having occurred. About the beginning of September the wind changed to the east, and the weather became unusually chilly; after which those diseases became more frequent, and many of them assumed a continued form. The symptoms were such as usually attend bilious fevers. The irritability of stomach was less than in some of the preceding seasons. A tendency to diarrhœa marked many cases: the discharges from the bowels were remarkably bilious. These remittents were generally of the *double tertian* type. In severe

tal of such cases, which occurred to myself, as well as to some of my medical friends, the paroxysms that took place in the morning were accompanied, almost through the whole course of the disease, by a cutaneous eruption, resembling much the *urticaria* of Cullen, though in a very severe degree; while those fits which occurred on the evenings of the intermediate days were perfectly free from it. Among the seamen a few cases occurred where the disease assumed the form of yellow fever, most of which proved fatal: indeed, it was only among these people that any mortality took place; for none of the settled inhabitants died, if we except two or three infants. The crews of all the vessels in the harbour were very sickly, though no suspicion has been expressed, by persons of any description, of the importation or contagiousness of the disease, as its origin, in every case, could be reasonably ascribed to local circumstances. It may be mentioned, that relief was obtained, in some of the more violent cases, by a speedy ptyalism having been induced by copious mercurial frictions. As far as my information extends, the epidemic of other towns in this State differed in no respect from our own."

Dr. Kollock, of Savannah, in Georgia, in a letter to Dr. Miller, gives a favourable account of the health of that city, and of the State at large, through the last summer and autumn. In the month of August two or three cases of malignant fever occurred, which terminated fatally on the third, fourth or fifth days of the disease, marked by black vomiting and the other formidable symptoms of yellow fever. Two of these patients were gentlemen just arrived at Savannah from Charleston; neither of them was a native of that country, and one had only landed from Europe ten days before. No person received infection from them.

From Drs. Selden and Whitehead, of Norfolk, in Virginia, we have received a very interesting account of the fatal epidemic of the last summer and autumn in that city, which will be inserted in our next number.

Several physicians in Baltimore have engaged to send us further information concerning the epidemic as it appeared in that city.

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#### YELLOW FEVER IN SPAIN.

No authentic notices of the pestilential epidemic which prevailed, during the last summer and autumn, in many parts of Spain, have yet come to hand. We give the following newspaper account as the best within our reach at present.

“ The plague is committing dreadful ravages in Spain. In Andalusia 11,000 have died: in Seville 21,000: in Xeres from 160 to 200 die per day. The utmost consternation prevails: It is approaching the borders of Portugal, and is supposed to sweep off one-sixth of the population of the places through which it passes. But a small proportion of women die.—This disorder begins with violent pains in the limbs, and head-ache, a strong fever, and reaches its height by the fourth day. Many die with the black-vomit, and their bodies turn yellow.”

We have written to several learned correspondents in Europe, to request particular information concerning this epidemic, which we hope to be able, in due time, to lay before our readers.

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#### RETALIATION ON THE IMPORTERS OF YELLOW FEVER.

Importation of contagious and pestilential distempers is very much dreaded by many persons in America. Rejecting the existence and operation of a domestic cause, they are apprehensive of introducing them from foreign places alone. In this opinion many persist, although it has been so often shown to be unfounded in nature, and contradictory to experience. Now the doctrine they teach is visited upon them. There is a party, in countries beyond the sea, who think as they do, that yellow fever is contagious, and easy of conveyance from one port to another. They even quote American authorities in proof of it; and, for fear of suffering from contagion imported from the United States, our ships are subjected to quarantines and their consequences in all the ports of Europe. If our trade extended to Smyrna, Aleppo and Damietta, doubtless the police of these cities would require nice examination of American vessels, for fear of importing contagion from New-York, Philadelphia and Baltimore! All that is wanted to remove this incumbrance from commerce, and its concomitant reproach from legislation, is to act according to the dictates of science, in preserving more cleanliness in ships, and in using the same means for that purpose that are found successful in destroying similar filthiness in houses: and these are known to almost every female servant.

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#### SMALL-POX.

We learn from Halifax (Nova-Scotia) that a general inoculation for the small-pox has been lately permitted there; and

that the mortality has been very considerable, particularly among children. One letter mentions 800 deaths, infants and adults, and that one family had lost seven persons.

[*National Intelligencer.*

VACCINE POX.

The inoculation of that disease in this city, mentioned in our last number (see p. 204), has not succeeded according to expectations; and there is now much reason to suppose that the matter employed is not genuine.

We hope this failure will speedily be remedied by procuring more efficient matter. For whatever disappointment may have arisen, on particular occasions, from the use of spurious matter, there can be now no reasonable doubt, that the vaccine disease, truly produced, renders the system unsusceptible of the small-pox. In addition to the numerous proofs of this fact, heretofore offered to our readers, we now subjoin the following:

Dr. Andrew Duncan, Professor of the Institutes of Medicine in the University of Edinburgh, in a letter to Dr. Miller, dated 2d October, 1800, states, that "vaccine inoculation is making great progress at Edinburgh, and promises fair to render the small-pox much milder than variolous inoculation. The medical practitioners here have given the lead; the children of Dr. Gregory, Dr. Spens, Mr. Bennett, &c. having been inoculated with vaccine matter. Though many hundreds have now been inoculated at Edinburgh with vaccine matter, yet, among all these, not one case has occurred where the patient was even in the smallest danger, or had a symptom in any degree alarming. Not one instance has occurred, where the child, after vaccine inoculation, has taken the small-pox; though repeatedly inoculated with variolous matter, and intentionally exposed to natural contagion."

The annexed declaration of physicians and surgeons in London, taken from the *Medical and Physical Journal*, will tend further to establish the preference of the vaccine disease.

"Many unfounded reports having been circulated, which have a tendency to prejudice the mind of the public against the inoculation of the cow-pox, we, the undersigned physicians and surgeons, think it our duty to declare our opinion, that those persons who have had the cow-pox are perfectly secure from the infection of the small-pox, provided such infection does not exist in the system at the time of the inoculation for the cow-pox.

“ We also declare, that the inoculated cow-pox is a much milder and safer disease than the inoculated small-pox.

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|-------------------------------|---------------------|
| “ William Saunders, M. D.     | “ Edward Ford.      |
| “ Matthew Baillic, M. D.      | “ Astley Cooper.    |
| “ Henry Vaughan, M. D.        | “ John Abernethy.   |
| “ Maxwell Garthshore, M. D.   | “ Joseph Hurlock.   |
| “ John Coakley Lettsom, M. D. | “ William Blair.    |
| “ James Sims, M. D.           | “ Samuel Chilver.   |
| “ John Sims, M. D.            | “ J. M. Good.       |
| “ William Lister, M. D.       | “ James Horsford.   |
| “ Robert Willan, M. D.        | “ Francis Knight.   |
| “ C. Stanger, M. D.           | “ James Leighton.   |
| “ Alexander Crichton, M. D.   | “ James Moore.      |
| “ Thomas Bradley, M. D.       | “ Thomas Paytherus. |
| “ Thomas Denman, M. D.        | “ Thomas Pole,      |
| “ John Squire, M. D.          | “ J. W. Phipps.     |
| “ Richard Croft, M. D.        | “ John Ring.        |
| “ Robert Batty, M. D.         | “ James Simpson.    |
| “ R. J. Thornton, M. D.       | “ H. L. Thomas.     |
| “ Richard Dennison, M. D.     | “ Jonathan Wathen.  |
| “ Henry Cline.                | “ Thomas Whateley.” |

Dr. Lettsom, of London, in a letter to Dr. Barton, of Philadelphia, writes thus :

“ Vaccine inoculation is becoming more and more general in England ; and on the European continent about 16,000 have had the disease, if disease it can be termed, without any case of fatality ; and about 3000 have been inoculated again with the common small-pox, without conveying any disease ; so that, probably, soon, no other than the cow-pox will be adopted here.—I imagine a fatal case will never occur, as there is rarely more than one pustule.”

We hope our readers in the United States will endeavour to ascertain whether the vaccine disease is to be found among the cows of this country ; and, if so, that they will employ infection derived from a domestic, in preference to a foreign source.

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#### MODE OF DESTROYING PRINTERS' INK BY COUNTER-FEITERS.

The power of oxygenated muriatic acid to destroy *writing ink* is well known. The gallic acid of that black liquor being decomposed by it, the hue which this ingredient of the galls imparted to the iron fades away and disappears, leaving the paper without a stain. But *printing ink* resists the action of

that remarkable agent. Yet this pigment (for it is truly a paint) is not capable of resisting *all* solvents. It is chiefly a compound of fine carbone, or lamp-black, mingled with boiled lintseed-oil and spirit of turpentine. Hence it dries quickly after it is impressed by the types. Human ingenuity, devoted to fraudulent practices, has discovered a method of obliterating characters made upon paper by this coloured composition.—The following note from the Cashier of the Manhattan Company to Dr. Mitchill, and the reply to it, will elucidate, in some degree, this pernicious practice, and teach how to guard against it.

BILLET.

“ H. Remsen presents his respectful compliments to Dr. Mitchill, and sends him herewith a phial containing some of the *preparation* used by the transformers of bank notes to extract the printed part of the note, and which one of them (who is now convicted, and in the State-Prison) informed the Attorney-General was the *salt of ley*. H. Remsen has been informed by Mr. Maverick, the engraver, that the usual mode of cleaning old copper-plates, in the cavities (letters) of which the ink had been suffered to harden by the inattention of the printer, was to cover the face of the plate with soft soap, and let it remain there till the ink in the cavities became soft, and could be removed by washing or wiping.

“ *January 28, 1801.*”

REPLY.

“ *East Rutgers-street, Jan. 29, 1801.*

“ S. Mitchill to Mr. Remsen sends health and respect.—He finds, on examination, that the substance contained in the phial is, indeed, the *salt of ley*; that is to say, it is an impure pot-ash, evidently obtained by boiling down common ley until there remained too little water to keep the alkali in solution. From experiments made with it, there remains no doubt of its capability to decompose and discharge common printers' ink. There is a method of applying it, by which the colouring material may be destroyed without sensibly damaging the paper. This is probably effected by a combination with the *oily* part of the ink, whereby it is rendered incapable of adhering any longer to the *carbonic* part, and of fixing it, which is the colouring ingredient, indelibly in the paper.

“ It may be thought singular that this alkali, which destroys the ink, should spare the paper. Yet it ought to be remembered, that common paper is chiefly made of *linen* or *hempen*

rags, and that cloth of these kinds, while in the manufacturer's hands, has repeatedly undergone the operation of such an alkaline salt as this, especially during the whitening process. Bleachers of linen goods and garments know that these will sustain, without damage, soaking, and even boiling, in alkaline ley, frequently and long, if skilfully managed. The efficacy of this liquid to remove spots and stains, at the same time, is well known. The destruction of the paper, then, if made of linen or hemp, is not a necessary consequence of even being boiled in a strong solution of pot-ash, or a ley sufficiently charged with that salt to bear an egg. Any damage done to the paper will be merely the effect of unskilful or clumsy adjustment and handling. In like manner, it seems, the material of which your notes are made possesses the quality of resisting, itself, the agent which has chemical power enough to destroy its ink.

“The desideratum in question, therefore, is to mix the colouring material for printing notes, and similar securities, with some one of the *essential oils* for which alkalies have a weaker attraction, and which, consequently, they cannot so readily decompose. Which of this numerous order of oils will be preferable, experiments, to be made for the purpose, alone can determine.”

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METEOR AND EARTHQUAKE.

*Pittsburgh, Jan. 16, 1801.*

About eight o'clock on Wednesday evening, the 7th instant, an extraordinary light appeared in the atmosphere, and continued for about ten seconds. It was equal to the brightest sunshine, and was succeeded by a slight rumbling noise. We are informed that on the Allegheny Mountain the earth was greatly agitated, and the noise similar to the discharge of cannon.

[*Pittsburgh Gaz.*]

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*Fayette, Jan. 9, 1801.*

On Wednesday evening last, about eight o'clock, the atmosphere being cloudy, and the night very dark, an extraordinary glare of light arose near the southern horizon, and illuminated the whole atmosphere for the space of about five seconds; and which, in about four minutes and a half after, was succeeded by an explosion similar to a discharge of a large cannon at a distance, which considerably shook the houses, and kept the windows and door-latches in continual trepidation, for the space of about twenty seconds. [*Fayette Gaz.*]



*Washington (Penn.), Jan. 12, 1801.*

On Wednesday last, between eight and nine o'clock, an extraordinary glare of light made its appearance, which illuminated the whole atmosphere for a few seconds: it was succeeded by a rumbling noise, like distant thunder. From shaking of the houses at the same time, it is supposed to have been attended with a slight shock of an earthquake.

*Winchester (Virginia), Jan. 14, 1801.*

On Wednesday, the 7th inst. at about twenty-two minutes after eight o'clock P. M. this town, and the country around, was illuminated by a meteor; and, in about thirteen minutes afterwards, a tremendous noise was heard, attended with a sensible shock, which not only agitated the windows of the houses, but even the household furniture. As the velocity of sound is at the rate of 1142 feet in every second of time, it is presumable that the distance from this town to the place where the explosion happened could not be less than 168 miles.

PRIZE-QUESTIONS OF THE CONNECTICUT MEDICAL SOCIETY, FOR THE YEAR 1801.

1st. Scirrhus, its causes, symptoms, and modes of issue: what is the best method of treating it in its recent state; and how best treated if it becomes cancerous? Premium, Perkinson's Voyage to the South-Sea.

2d. Chronic Rheumatism, what; how distinguished from the inflammatory; how distinguished from the gout; its causes, symptoms, and best method of cure? Premium, Dr. Fothergill's Works.

3d. Mercury, its nature: what preparations of it are best; in what diseases; and how to be administered?

OFFICERS OF THE MEDICAL SOCIETY OF PHILADELPHIA.

At a meeting of the Philadelphia Medical Society, held on Wednesday, the 4th of February, for the purpose of electing officers for the ensuing year, the following gentlemen were duly elected:

President, Dr. Rush. Vice-Presidents, Drs. Barton and Physick. Corresponding Secretaries, Drs. Otto and Coxe. Curators, Messrs. Gartley and Dorsey. Treasurer, Mr. G. Lee, jun. Secretary, Dr. George Logan.

## REGISTER OF THE WEATHER.

We have been favoured, by Mr. Seth Johnson, of this city, with a very accurate register of the weather for the year 1800. His observations generally distribute the weather into clear days, variable, cloudy, rainy, and snowy: he often notes the direction of the winds, and is very careful to remark all uncommon deviations from the course of the seasons, the excesses of high and low temperature, hurricanes, storms of lightning, &c.

It is gratifying to observe how large a portion of the year, in this climate, consists of clear and serene weather. In Mr. Johnson's recapitulation of his notes for the twelve months, he finds of clear days 235—of variable 55—of cloudy 38—of rain 33—of snow 4.—July presents the highest number of clear days, viz. 27—June 25—January 23—May, September and October, each 20—February and March 19—August 18—April and December 16—and November 12.

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 FOREIGN.

## EXPERIMENTS ON LIGHT AND HEAT.

AN ingenious gentleman of London has lately, by a repetition of the experiments of Sir Isaac Newton concerning light and colours, ascertained, "that *primogenial light* is *white*; and that the seven different *colours* which appear in the prism are produced by the inflections and changes which the white ray undergoes in passing between painted surfaces, and through transparent media."

Having, in a former number, announced the important discoveries of Dr. Herschel, on the different temperatures of the prismatic colours, we shall now give a short abstract of the two interesting papers on this subject, which have been laid before the Royal Society.—Being engaged in a course of experiments to ascertain the best method of viewing the sun with large telescopes, Dr. Herschel made use of various combinations of differently coloured glasses, for the purpose of darkening the image of the sun. While using these, he remarked that some which transmitted little light excited a strong sensation of heat, while others that allowed a freer passage to the light appeared to transmit but little heat. Now, as in these different combinations of glasses the sun's image appeared dif-

ferently coloured, he was induced to suppose that the prismatic rays might differ from each other in their power of heating bodies. To ascertain this, a ray of the sun was divided by a prism, into a spectrum, and the different colours applied successively to the blackened bulbs of two thermometers: the experiment being made repeatedly, and always with a similar result, it appeared that any of the prismatic rays falling on a body will increase its temperature, but that this effect is inversely as their refrangibility, the least increase being produced by violet, and the most by red rays. Where the additional temperature occasioned by violet rays is equal to 1, that of green is equal to  $1\frac{1}{2}$ , and of red equal to  $3\frac{1}{2}$ . Thus far being ascertained, it became an object of importance to determine whether the *illuminating power* of the prismatic rays coincided with the order of their *calorific powers*. With this view a number of experiments were made, agreeing unusually well with each other, and concurring in the conclusion, that the maximum of illumination lies between the brightest yellow and the palest green; that the red rays afford less light than the orange, and this last less than the yellow; that the green itself is nearly as bright as the yellow; that the blue is upon a par with the red; the indigo is much less than the blue; and the violet is by far the faintest of all. Having thus ascertained that the heat as well as light of the solar rays is refrangible, but that the place of greatest illumination is about the middle of the spectrum, whereas the heat goes on increasing from the violet to the red—the question naturally arose, whether the rays of heat might not be so far separated from those of light, by their different degrees of refrangibility, as that some of them should actually fall some distance beyond the coloured spectrum on the red side. For this purpose the spectrum from a prism, 52 inches distant, was thrown on a stand covered with white paper, and it was found that rays affording no illumination, at the distance of half an inch beyond the extreme boundary of the red colour, raised the thermometer  $6\frac{1}{2}$  degrees in ten minutes; that those an inch beyond the red produced a heat of  $5\frac{1}{2}$  degrees in thirteen minutes; and those an inch and a half beyond the red produced  $3\frac{1}{8}$  degrees in ten minutes. At the other extremity of the spectrum there was no increase of heat beyond the boundary of the violet rays. As in these experiments the limits of heat extended beyond those of illumination on the red side, it became of importance to determine the place of the greatest calorific power. This maximum of heat was found, by experiment, to be about

half an inch distant from the boundary of the red colour, and the heat at one inch was equal to that of the middle of the red colour itself. The boundaries of the *calorific spectrum* lie between the extreme of violet and an undetermined point, at least  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inch beyond the red colour. From the above very important facts it follows, that there are rays coming from the sun which are less refrangible than any that affect the sight; that these *invisible* rays of the sun probably far exceed the visible ones in number; and if we call *light* those rays which illuminate objects, and *radiant heat* those which heat bodies, it may be questioned whether light is essentially different from heat.

[*Lond. Month. Mag.*

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#### CURE OF SYPHILIS BY OXYGEN.

The late Mr. Girtanner writes, in a letter to Van Mons; that he has made a number of experiments in curing venereal diseases by oxygen, which discovery he claims to himself. The results of these are the following: When the disease is not inveterate, and only requires the first degree of oxydation, he uses the citric acid; for the second degree, the diluted oxalic acid; for the third degree, and, in general, against the most inveterate diseases, he applies the oxyd of arsenic. There is no remedy more efficacious against venereal diseases, diseases of the liver, obstructions of the belly, dropsies, &c. than this; but the lungs must not be affected, as the patient cannot then support it, but will expire in a short time. He mixes four or five drops of a saturated solution of the white oxyd of arsenic in nitric acid, with two pints of water, to be taken in two days. This remedy has done wonders with him. There is also nothing more powerful against agues than this. If the patient begins to cough, the remedy must be laid aside, a dry cough being a sign of the body becoming over oxygenated. Should the cough continue, it can be mostly removed by the liver of sulphur.

[*Hufeland's Journal*, vol. ix. No. 102.



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# MEDICAL REPOSITORY.

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VOL. IV.—No. IV.

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## ARTICLE I.

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*On the YELLOW FEVER at Norfolk (Virginia), in the Summer and Autumn of 1800: Communicated by Doctors SELDEN and WHITEHEAD to Dr. MILLER.*

**T**O determine the origin of the malignant fever, which has, of late, so frequently visited the cities of the United States, whether it be foreign or domestic, is certainly a matter of the greatest importance. A diligent and careful examination of circumstances, a fair and candid statement of facts, free from the heat of controversy, and the acrimony of contested opinions, are undoubtedly the best means of shedding light upon this dark and difficult subject. Impressed with this belief, we will state, as briefly and clearly as we can, the situation of Norfolk, the local circumstances, both permanent and accidental, previous to the appearance of the disease, and during its progress, which have been known, in other places, to affect the health of the inhabitants; leaving it to those who have accurately examined the operations of nature, in such cases; to form an estimate of the influence of each cause separately, and jointly with the rest, and determine whether we shall, with most justice, consider this fatal malady the offspring of our own climate, or regard it as a direful distemper, introduced by commerce from a foreign country;

The ground upon which the principal part of the town of Norfolk stands, forms a kind of peninsula of an oblong figure. The main street, ranging with the course of Elizabeth river, runs along the ridge of this peninsula, forming its longest diameter. It is not paved, nor are any of the other streets or alleys, one small lane only excepted; and the soil being chiefly a red clay, mixed with sand, renders them, in rainy weather,

extremely muddy. The market, where butchers' meat, poultry, and vegetables of all kinds, are sold, stands on the main street, near the middle of the town; around which are ranged every morning carts from the country, loaded with provisions of every kind, both vegetable and animal. It is generally after eleven o'clock (A. M.) in summer, before all provisions are removed from the market place, so that, from what of animal and vegetable substances is left on the ground, by those attending market, and from the sweepings of the stores, houses, kitchens, &c. which are casually thrown into the streets or gutters, especially in the more populous parts of the town, we may justly consider their surface as a compost of animal and vegetable matter, kneaded together by the feet of passengers, horses, drays, &c. which, when acted on by moisture, and the scorching rays of a burning sun, must exhale abundance of gases extremely deleterious to the health of the inhabitants. This might be supposed to be true in a particular manner, this summer, from the long continuance of an extreme degree of heat and moisture; which was, in some measure, confirmed by the observation of strangers, who, on their first arrival in town, complained greatly of the disagreeable smell of our streets and gutters, though it was not so perceptible to the inhabitants of the place. But a more fertile source of noxious exhalations remains to be pointed out. The line which marks out the boundary of the borough of Norfolk, on the side next the river, comprehended originally more water than land, on that side of the main street. In some places the wharves are advanced upwards of an hundred yards into the river, as far as this boundary line, in others they are not yet carried so far, while, in some parts, no attempt has yet been made to disturb the original possession of the river; but that part of the town where the malignant fever chiefly prevailed, stands entirely on made land, reclaimed from the river, by sinking pens of large logs, and filling them up chiefly with green pine-saplings, which are slightly covered over with earth or gravel. In some places large openings are left for the formation of docks; in others, wharves are formed next the channel of the river, while the more interior parts are still covered with water, and, in many others, the lots remain in their original state; so that from these circumstances, and the loose texture of the whole work, the water of the river penetrates, every tide, through the whole extent of this wooden fabric, which is thus alternately exposed to the action of the water and air, assisted by the powerful rays of an almost vertical sun. The private

interest of the moment, without regard to futurity, or interference of the police, seems alone to have directed the arrangement of the houses on this property reclaimed from the river. The means of ventilation and cleanliness have been neglected; proper spaces for streets have not been left; and what has been marked out for that purpose, is, in several places, not yet filled up, though the private property around is completely occupied with buildings. In the only tolerable public street in this part of the town, there are two places, in a very public situation, about twenty yards each in length, and eight or nine in breadth, which have never yet been filled up with other materials than what accident has carried thither, and the filth of the neighbourhood, for which it serves as the common and only receptacle. In these ponds, or rather sinks, of putrefaction, though sixty yards or more from the river, the tide ebbs and flows through the open texture of the adjacent reclaimed ground; yet, at low water, they are never entirely dry, but form an agreeable retreat to the neighbouring hogs to wallow in, as is customary with these animal in the sultry months of the year. The effluvia which were exhaled from these and similar places, during the warm months of summer and autumn, were indeed highly offensive, and will appear to many medical men almost sufficient of themselves to account for the generation of pestilential diseases, wherever they may exist. And, in fact, the malignant fever did first make its appearance about twenty yards from these offensive pools, in a wooden house, resting upon logs, the ground under it not being raised to a level with the adjacent land, and which was always covered partly with water, and completely overflowed twice in twenty-four hours by the tide. Besides these, and many other sources of pestilential vapours, which abounded in this quarter of the town, another, at this time, was accidentally added. Three vessels arrived from the West Indies successively, on the 21st, 22d, and 23d of July, loaded partly with fruit. These cargoes were landed on Commerce-street wharf, about sixty yards from the above described ponds, and the greatest part of the oranges and limes being spoiled, the casks were opened, and picked on the quay, and the rotten fruit, together with the matter in which they were packed, were left on the spot a great many days. These formed a large mass of vegetable matter, in a state of putrefaction, the offensive smell arising from which was so great, that gentlemen have declared they were unable to pass that way without stopping their nostrils; and in one person, of undoubted veracity, delirium animi, as he affirmed, was

well nigh induced from the same cause: yet this nuisance was not removed till after a number of persons seized with a malignant fever in the neighbourhood excited alarm, and attracted that way the attention of the public.

Two young gentlemen employed in a vendue-office at the spot where the fruit was landed, and by whom it had been picked, and repacked for public sale, and near the window of whose chamber the above mentioned putrid vegetable mass had been for some time lying, were the first attacked on this street, on the 26th of July, and both dying, after every effort had been made by their physicians to save them, with the usual symptoms of the Yellow Fever, in its most malignant form, occasioned no small apprehensions. Several, indeed, had died, after a short illness, some days before, but these being mostly sailors, in obscure boarding-houses, and not regularly attended, we believe, by any physician, had drawn but little attention.

With regard to the diseases which prevailed anterior to the appearance of the malignant fever this year in Norfolk, it is worthy of notice that complaints of an high inflammatory character very generally obtained, during the spring and first of the summer months, attended with symptoms of greater severity than were usually met with in other years.

The small-pox, which had not disappeared altogether in the winter, became, in a manner, epidemic in the beginning of spring. Many were attacked with this disease in the natural form, and died, who thought themselves secure from infection, believing to have had the disorder in their youth, as they had frequently acted as nurses, with perfect safety, to those labouring under the complaint. From inoculation also this distemper was uncommonly severe: large sores formed frequently at the place of inoculation on the arm, and tumors and abscesses in other parts of the body, which often proved extremely obstinate in the cure. In the month of May several cases of cynanche maligna occurred, some of which had a fatal termination. The whooping-cough made its appearance early in the spring; in April and May it became very general, severe, and often proved fatal; nor did its violence abate till towards the end of July. The cholera infantum began very early in June, and carried off vast numbers of children. Slight cases of dysentery, and severe cases of cholera morbus were common in June and July.

The influence of climate in the generation of malignant diseases is acknowledged by medical men of every age; and the present year, in this place, it appeared to be extremely un-



friendly to health. The spring was uncommonly late, but the hot weather set in very early. On the 8th of April the quicksilver had risen as high as 90 degrees of Fahrenheit; about the 20th of June it became steadily hot, and continued till after the middle of August with little variation. Southerly winds prevailed, which were always light, and often interrupted with calms; nor did we once experience, during that period, the north-west wind, which usually succeeds rains, and tornadoes at this season; which proves so refreshing and invigorating, and which suspends, for some time, the too powerful influence of the sun in a sultry climate. Rains had been very frequent in June and July; but instead of cooling the atmosphere, it was observed that they were invariably followed by more intense heat. For more than two months after the 25th of June, the inhabitants of Norfolk lived in an atmosphere heated above the 85th degree of Fahrenheit, sometimes to the 94th and 95th, but very frequently upwards of 90 degrees. Such a long tract of intensely hot weather is not, we believe, within the remembrance of any person now living in this place; and its effects on the health of the inhabitants, must, of necessity, have been very considerable. It has been already observed, that, previous to the 20th of July, several persons had died, after a short illness, in a house adjoining the ponds of water above described, without exciting any particular notice; but in a few days they were recollected with sensations of dread, when a disease of malignant aspect began to spread rapidly in the same part of the town. On the 22d of the same month, while yet no suspicion existed of an epidemic complaint, we were called to see Thomas Bailey, a sailor, then in the third day of his illness—His eyes were much inflamed and watery, his tongue was moist and furred, and his countenance expressive of great anxiety and distress; he was extremely restless, and complained of intolerable pain over his eye-brows, great oppression about the præcordia, with a sensation of burning in the region of the stomach, which made him feel, he said, “as if his bowels were all on fire.” The heat of the body was much increased above the natural standard, his face was flushed, and his pulse was more remarkable for frequency than strength. He had taken some evacuant medicines before we saw him. He was bled with manifest relief of his head-ache; a purge of calomel and jalap was exhibited, and a blister was applied to the region of the stomach. By these means the febrile symptoms were considerably moderated; but the blister was not suffered to remain till vesication was accomplished, and

the sensation of burning in the region of the stomach increasing, vomiting became incessant, and of a dark colour; the strength sunk rapidly, while the skin assumed a yellow hue, and the disease hastened to a fatal termination, with symptoms unusual in the febrile diseases of ordinary seasons. We have been induced to notice this case more particularly in consequence of a belief with many that the malignant fever was introduced by the vessels which arrived from the West-Indies on the 21st, 22d and 23d of July. Although the extreme degree and long duration of the hot weather, with some other unfavourable circumstances, which have been mentioned already, had not excited, for some time past, among the medical gentlemen, apprehensions of a fatal epidemic; it was impossible to help observing, during the progress of Bailey's case, the strict resemblance it bore to the Bilious Yellow Fever, as described by physicians in different parts of the United States, where it has made its appearance. Our apprehensions were but too soon realized. In two or three days after the termination of the above mentioned case, almost every physician in town had patients labouring under the same disease. Many of those who were first attacked sunk under the disease; and so great was the alarm in that quarter where it first appeared, that most of the mercantile houses in Commerce-street, were, in less than a week, entirely shut up; and those, who, from circumstances, thought themselves particularly liable to the complaint, left the place as soon as possible.

Europeans and natives of the northern States, who had not been accustomed to warm climates, were most exposed to the attack of the disease in its severest form; those from the same countries who had resided here some time, and strangers from this and the neighbouring States, were not exempt, but the disease put on a milder form; while those who were born in Norfolk, and were old residents of the place, never enjoyed a greater portion of health in any former season; none of them died, or were even affected with the prevailing epidemic. This entire exemption of the permanent inhabitants of Norfolk, different from what was experienced in more northern parts of America, as Philadelphia, New-York, and Baltimore, may probably be accounted for on the supposition that our situation and climate here approach nearer to the circumstances of the West-India islands, where strangers in general are the only persons attacked with the Yellow Fever.

Habitual intemperance in the use of spirituous liquors was the most powerful predisposing cause; and in a vast number

of instances, the disease was excited by a fit of intoxication, in which cases the greatest mortality occurred. But the fatal ravages of the fever were greatly extended by the very bad nursing and attendance given to the sick. In most of the small boarding-houses, where seafaring people are received, the rooms are confined, and the accommodations wretched. The care of the sick was almost wholly entrusted to negroes, who, not being prompted by humanity, attachment, or a sense of duty, executed their trust in a very negligent manner; nay, in more instances than one, the people of the house deserted their habitation entirely, and left the sick to their fate. No wonder, in such circumstances as these, that the efforts of the physician were often unavailing, when destitute of that which is probably more necessary in this than any other disease, the co-operation of a careful and a judicious nurse.

Tobacco ships were remarkably unhealthy, although communication with the shore was, as much as possible, guarded against. Of several that were loading here, during the months of August and September, a great part of their crews sickened and died. Nor was the opinion entertained by many, that negroes are not susceptible of the disease, found correct; many of them were attacked, and several fell victims to the disease. For several days in the last of July, and early part of August, the weather was cooler than it had been for some time before; there was then a temporary suspension of the disease; but we are at a loss to say whether this was owing to the change of weather, or to the inhabitants avoiding that part of the town which had been infected in the beginning; for the fever for several weeks after its commencement was quite local. The weather became steadily hot again about the 6th of August, and continued so throughout that month; the disease returned with the hot weather, and continued with unabated violence to the end of the month; by the middle of August the Yellow Fever was the only disease we met with in our practice; on the 30th there was a considerable fall of rain, which was followed by three or four days of cool weather, with a brisk northerly wind. On the 4th of September the thermometer stood at 60 degrees in the warmest part of the day. Attacks of the fever were less frequent at this period, but there was little alteration as to the form or severity of the disease. The number of cases was diminished evidently from one cause, the lessened number of subjects susceptible of this form of fever. About the middle of the month it again became sultry; rains were frequent, and the heat of the sun oppressive; and although the number of

new cases was very sensibly decreased, yet no vessel arrived from Europe, or the northern States, without some of the crew being immediately affected with the prevailing complaint. Towards the latter end of September the fever appeared under a new form in young subjects of both sexes, but more particularly with delicate females; many young persons, who had hitherto escaped, were now overtaken with the disease, in the well marked form of typhus gravior: free from local complaints they exhibited marks of strong nervous affection, and generally became deeply comatose three or four days before death.

On the 5th of October a deluge of rain fell, accompanied with a powerful sweeping wind from the north-east; the weather became suddenly very cold; the mercury fell to 48 degrees on the morning of the 6th, and on the 7th it was as low as 42 degrees of Fahrenheit. In a few days after this, not a vestige of the Yellow Fever was to be seen in Norfolk; but children under 14 years of age were very commonly attacked with a fever of a continued type, with severe nervous affections, and frequent discharge of worms. The weather became hot again on the 12th and 13th (on the latter day the mercury stood at 80 degrees in the shade, and it was oppressively hot in the sun) and continued till about the 20th. The cessation of the fever in the early part of this month induced those who had removed to return, and strangers began to visit us after the 15th; several of whom were attacked with this fatal disease, and not being aware of its existence, neglected themselves in the commencement, and, in many instances, fell victims to it; but since the 30th all descriptions of persons have enjoyed uninterrupted good health. Of the mortality caused by the fever no accurate register has been kept, but from the most careful investigation of this subject that now can be made, we believe the number that died this year of the Yellow Fever, not to have exceeded 250.

It is unnecessary to enter into any particular detail of the medical treatment that was followed in combating this formidable disease. It will be sufficient to observe, that the depleting plan of cure was adopted in its fullest extent, and the antiphlogistic regimen, as far as circumstances would permit, was strictly adhered to. Mercury was exhibited liberally, and we found, as has been observed by other practitioners, that where a free salivation was brought on, the patient uniformly recovered. But whether we ought to regard this effect of the mercury as a proof of the energies of the constitution not sub-

duced by the disease, or as a legal victory obtained over the fever by means of the remedy, is what we have not yet, in our minds, been able to determine. Bark, wine, and cordials, in the early stage of the disease, were found always to do harm. The affusion of cold water, after the bowels were duly emptied, was also had recourse to with decided advantage. In several cases where the cure of the disease was intrusted chiefly to cold bathing, it seemed to yield readily to that remedy; but it must be owned that these cases were not of the most violent kind, and the remedy was applied on the very first attack. Although we have no reason to believe that the several remedies employed in the case of this disease have been less successful in our hands than in those of others, yet we are inclined to think that much remains to be learned both as to the nature and cure of the Yellow Fever. In this opinion we agree with an ingenious gentleman, lately much employed in the treatment of this complaint in the Island of St. Domingo: he says, "Quicumque medicinæ scientiâ confusus, jactat, se hunc morbum posse certò curare, vel seipsum decipit, vel vult alios decipere."

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## ARTICLE II.

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CASE of TETANUS from a PUNCTURED WOUND in the HEEL cured by the TINCTURE of CANTHARIDES: Communicated in a Letter from Dr. SAMUEL BROWN, of Lexington (Kentucky), to Dr. MITCHILL, dated Dec. 1, 1800.

ON Wednesday, the 28th of October, 1800, I visited Miss P—D—, a young lady aged nineteen. On Monday night, previous to my visit, she, unfortunately, set her foot upon a nail, which, entering the middle of the heel, penetrated quite to the os calcis. At first she complained of a numbness rather than pain; but in the course of half an hour the pain became tormenting in the wound, from which, however, it soon removed to the sides of the ankle, leaving the puncture perfectly free from any uneasiness. During the night she continued restless, though the pain, at intervals, considerably abated. On Tuesday evening all the symptoms became more violent. The wound discharged nothing except a drop or two of blood and serum; the pain became more acute in the ankle, and extended to the knee, hip and joints of

the back. In the night she had many twitches of the nerves, and spasms of the muscles of the arms, and those which retract the head. Before the morning there was so great a degree of rigidity in the back of the neck, that the relations were at no loss with regard to the nature of her complaint. A physician was sent for, who unluckily, was at a horse-race, and declined to visit her. He, however, sent a few anodyne pills, which she took without any material advantage. It was twelve o'clock on Wednesday night when I arrived. I found the patient in extreme agony, with spasms in her back and neck, and acute pains in her ankle, knee, and hip joint. On examining the puncture, not the slightest appearance of inflammation could be discerned; the heel was preternaturally cold, the skin was pale, and nothing but blood and serum could be pressed from the wound. I introduced my probe, and was greatly surprised to find that she was scarcely sensible of pain from a very harsh examination of the direction and extent of the puncture. At length, however, the point of my probe touched a nerve or ligament, which appeared to possess extreme sensibility. Having fixed the probe firmly against the os calcis, I took a scalpel, and cut down the side of the probe through the ligaments quite to the bone, in a transverse direction with regard to the foot. Immediately on making this incision, the whole of her complaints seemed to be removed, and I flattered myself, that I should be able, by the usual remedies, to prevent a recurrence of the spasms. But, anxious more effectually to destroy the injured nerve, and to excite inflammation in the part, I washed the wound with spirits of turpentine; and, having made a doffel of lint, I covered it with powdered sulphate of copper and spirits of turpentine, and pressed it down to the bottom of the incision. This application gave severe pain; but the patient assuring me, that it was much more tolerable than the spasms, I suffered it to remain. I now gave her a very large dose of laudanum, which I directed to be repeated every four hours—I likewise laid a large blister on the ankle, where the pain had been always very distressing some time before it extended to the body. Warm poultices were kept to the heel. I ordered two grains of calomel every hour when she was awake, and had ℥i of mercurial ointment rubbed into the legs, arms, and back—I likewise endeavoured to hasten salivation, by rubbing calomel on the gums. She slept about two hours, and continued tolerably easy until twelve or one o'clock on Thursday, when her spasms returned—I was again sent for, and arrived about dark. All the symptoms were then

greatly aggravated; the spasms more violent than I had ever seen them; they were more general—her jaws were stiff, her deglutition difficult, and the stridor dentium so great as to be heard in a very distinct manner all over the house. Recollecting the cases which occurred to Mr. Dallas, and his friends, in the island of Carciacow, as published in the Edinburgh Medical Annals, from which, it appears, that not one person in fifty who is affected with tetanic symptoms, from the læsion of a nerve, recovered, notwithstanding the most approved modern remedies were vigorously employed, I resolved to give my patient a chance for life, by attempting to relieve her by a new mode of treatment.

The case appeared so hopeless, and death so near, that I thought the "*anceps remedium*" perfectly justifiable. Having, in vain, endeavoured to subdue the spasms, by antispasmodics, to produce salivation by the liberal exhibition of mercury, and to excite inflammation in the wound by the strongest stimulants, I determined to make trial of wine and bark, which had proved so efficacious in the hands of Dr. Rush. These were immediately rejected by the stomach. The blister, after remaining on the ankle, from Wednesday until Friday night, produced very little effect on the skin.

By this time ℥ij of mercurial ointment had been rubbed in, xxij grains of calomel taken in form of pills, and ℥i. rubbed on the gums. I now despaired of being able to excite ptyalism early enough to prevent the fatal termination of the disease. I therefore directed fifteen drops of the Tinctura Cantharid. in a cup of tea, to be taken every hour, until the symptoms of inflammation in the bowels forbid their further exhibition. I now removed the dressings from the wound, and filled it with the root of the phytolacca decandra (or poke-root), which produced very great uneasiness for two or three hours. The hot poultices were continued, together with the use of injections, which had been found necessary during the whole course of the disorder.

After the patient had taken ℥iiss of the tincture of cantharides, she was seized with a sensation of heat and burning in the stomach, which, becoming more and more severe, extended through the whole course of the alimentary canal, and produced a number of stools, mixed with blood and mucus. The inflammation of the stomach occasioned vomiting, and the acute pains in her bowels resembled those which are felt in the most violent attacks of dysentery. *Immediately on the occurrence of these symptoms, all the tetanic affections disappeared, and*

*never returned.* In order to mitigate the disease which I had produced in the alimentary canal, I gave large quantities of mucilaginous drinks, and anodyne enemata, which afforded considerable ease. Fortunately, however, the day after this inflammatory state of the bowels came on, the mercury, which before seemed quite inert, began to show its effect on the salivary glands, and (as we have often seen in dysentery) removed the disease of the intestines. Some slight affection of the kidneys appeared, with bloody urine, but soon left the patient without any complaint, except a very moderate salivation, which continued for about two weeks. The wound began to form pus eight days after the accident, and was kept open several weeks, from an apprehension, that if it closed, the spasms might return.

This case, which terminated so happily, is not communicated to the public as the foundation of any new favourite theory. The writer is sufficiently aware of the danger of deducing general inferences from solitary facts. Disappointed in his expectations of relieving his patient by the fashionable remedies, his practice was the result of that necessity which occasionally gives birth to the most useful discoveries. He thought it his duty to communicate it with simplicity and candour, and hopes that those who practise medicine in climates where tetanus is a common disease, will strive to lessen its mortality, by giving cantharides a fair trial. It is well known that physicians are often under the necessity of combating one disease by creating another, and although it must be confessed that the inflammation of the stomach and bowels is attended with great danger, no practitioner will hesitate to affirm that tetanus is still more dangerous.

### ARTICLE III.

*On the CONNECTION of EARTHQUAKES with EPIDEMIC DISEASES, and on the SUCCESSION of EPIDEMICS: Communicated in a Letter from NOAH WEBSTER, jun. Esq. to Dr. MILLER, dated New-Haven, Feb. 21, 1801.*

**I**N the course of reading, I frequently find accounts of epidemic or malignant diseases, which corroborate, in a surprising degree, the opinions I have advanced in my history. Some of these accounts I will occasionally communicate to you, and you will judge whether the facts are worthy of a place in your Repository.



In the year 1770, Hispaniola experienced numerous successive shocks of earthquake. For many months, scarcely a day passed without a shock of greater or less violence; nor was the following year exempt from them. During these convulsions, a malignant disease broke out at Leogane, Port au Prince, and other places near the Bite, which must have been the real plague; for, soon after the patient was seized, a bile or tumour appeared under the arm, and he died in about eighteen hours. The Commander in Chief retired from that part of the island, all commerce with those ports was voluntarily abandoned for some months, and troops were posted to prevent all intercourse between them and the neighbouring country.— This disease was, at the time, ascribed to the noxious vapours ejected by the convulsions of the earth and eruptions. These facts are extracted from various gazette-accounts of the years mentioned.

“ In 1770,” says Moseley on tropical diseases, p. 44, London edition, 1795, “ the nervous remittent fever, the endemic of Jamaica, entirely changed its type. It took on an immense military eruption, and other circumstances never before observed. It raged with violence, and killed almost all the young people who were seized. It returned the two next springs, and then disappeared.” I shall only observe, that this change in the type of that disease was cotemporary with the events before related in Hispaniola, which is in the neighbourhood of Jamaica.

In the same year, a petechial fever broke out at Hartford, in Connecticut, in the family of one Burnham; most of the family, and several others died. This account I have from a friend of mine, who was then affected with the disease, and from an attending physician.

On the 7th of January, 1780, a severe earthquake was felt at Jamaica. In April following, a malignant ulcerated sore throat appeared, and killed almost every child seized. It abated in summer, but attacked adults in September. It was very insidious in its attacks; frequently the whole throat, fauces, and palate were rotten before the disease was perceived. In October following appeared the malignant yellow fever. Moseley, p. 182, 245.

I have related these last facts only for the sake of exhibiting their order—for it is the same as in this country—the malignant sore throat frequently, not to say usually, preceding the malignant yellow fever and dysentery. The most deadly dysentery that prevailed in Connecticut, the last half century,

was in 1751 and 1773—in both years preceded by the angina maligna in spring; as was the yellow fever and dysentery of 1794.

To the facts illustrative of the effects of earthquakes on the human body let me add, that the great earthquake, which destroyed Lisbon, in 1755, was followed by a distemper so fatal as to raise an alarm in England, and an order was issued by government, for all ships from Portugal to ride quarantine, notwithstanding the calcareous basis of Lisbon. My authority for this fact is not before me, but it is the Gentleman's Magazine for that or the following year, and may be seen in the New-York Library. In proof of the same point I can heap Pelion upon Ossa,\* but it is not necessary, as I believe the point to be conceded by medical gentlemen.

Another point suggested in my history, and on which no small stress is laid, is, that the most generally prevalent, and most fatal epidemics, are every where introduced by the influenza. I apprehend the fact to be proved, that the influenza in Egypt, and the tropical regions of America, is invariably and speedily followed by pestilential diseases. In addition to the mass of evidence accumulated in my history, please to accept the following facts:

In the winter of 1772—3, and immediately after the influenza of that period, a malignant disease appeared in Mexico, and the adjacent country. By the Spaniards it was called the plague. Twenty thousand persons died of it in a few days. How long it continued is not mentioned. This account is from a public gazette, inserted as a letter from Spain. It will be recollected, that in North-America the influenza of the same period was followed by measles, angina maligna, and dysentery. In North-Carolina it was followed by an epidemic

\* This allusion may be thought, by some, not classically correct; for Virgil describes the giants, in their war against Jupiter, as attempting to place Ossa upon Pelion:

Ter sunt conati imponere Pelio Ossam  
Scilicet, atque Ossæ frondosum involvere Olympum. GEORG. I.

But Longinus, it ought to be remembered, (*Περί Ύψους* §. 8.) has preserved a quoted passage, by which it appears, the other mode of piling was undertaken: and yet these sons of Titan, who, on the Phlegrean plains of Thessaly, strove to heap the mountains on each other, did not succeed in their enterprise.

The circumstances under which sickness from septic effluvia may occur, notwithstanding the prevalence of *lime-stone, chalk, and other kinds of calcareous earth*, were stated and explained as long ago as 1797. See Medical Repository, vol. ii. No. I, art. x.

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bilious fever in autumn 1773, unusually violent. In July of that year, Guatimala, in the Mexican country, was sunk by an earthquake, and 30,000 people perished. The same summer was very sickly at New-Providence; but New Spain, and the Bahamas are said to abound with lime-stone.

The scarlatina anginosa appeared in the eastern part of Connecticut, in Providence, and Newport, in the winter of 1783—4. It prevailed in Lyme, a town in Connecticut, lying on the river and the Sound, and which contains some salt marsh, but, in ordinary years, is as healthful as other towns in the State. In the summer of 1784, an epidemic bilious fever seized the inhabitants, to an extent not before recollected by elderly men. This is the more remarkable, as the scarlatina of that period fell lightly on the western parts of this State; but was more severe in the eastern towns, and in Massachusetts, New-Hampshire, and Rhode-Island. The connection in the epidemics at Lyme is not to be passed without notice. My authority is Dr. Mather, of that town.

I find an account of a very fatal bilious plague in Barbadoes, in the winter of 1647—8, introduced by the influenza of 1646, which I have transcribed and sent to the academy of medicine. It is the first instance, I believe, on record, as Barbadoes had then been settled but about twenty years. This was long prior to the period assigned to the importation of the Siam fever. Had the writers on that disease, whether French or English, examined the histories of America, the idea of its introduction from Siam or Africa, would never have entered their brains. Siam and Africa are as exempt from that malignant fever, in ordinary years, as Barbadoes or New-York.

Let it not be overlooked, that in Barbadoes, the same disease was universally severe *after* the influenza of 1733, 1737, 1761—2. I wish we had more light on this subject, and that medical gentlemen in the islands would examine the history of the diseases, as well as the memories of old people for facts. Barbadoes is said to have a basis of lime-stone, and this, as well as all the islands, are healthy in ordinary years.

In my history, vol. i. p. 251, I have mentioned the extreme drouth of 1761 and 1762, and have suggested, from the concurrent evidence of a great number of facts, the probability that an extraordinary evaporation, as well as failure of rain, precedes and accompanies eruptions of fire. I have since found an account of a remarkable eruption in Mexico, during that drouth. At Juruyo, in Michuacan, was only a small hill in 1760, on which was a sugar plantation. On the 29th of

September of that year the earth burst open, with furious shocks, and continued to emit fire and burning rocks for some years, until the mass ejected formed three high mountains of six miles in circumference. The ashes were wafted 150 miles, and, at 60 miles distance, covered towns, so as to oblige the people to sweep their yards two or three times in a day. See Clavigero, vol. i. 14. Note. This is an interesting fact, as it throws light on the formation of volcanic mountains, and is one of the most recent instances. I do not, you will observe, undertake to allege, that the severe drouth of that period had a connection with the eruption, but the coincidences of this kind are remarkable and deserve notice.

#### ARTICLE IV.

FACTS concerning the NOXIOUSNESS of RAIN-WATER and DEW in 1797: Communicated in a Letter from Dr. FOOT to Dr. MILLER, dated Greensburg, Dec. 29, 1800.

IT is with pleasure that I comply with your request, to furnish you with the facts concerning the morbid effects of rain-water in this quarter of the country, in the summer of 1797. As I was not a resident within this State at that time, and, of course, not a personal observer, I have delayed compliance until I could inform myself of more particulars, of the extent, duration, and other circumstances of the occurrence.

After making particular inquiry, I find but few persons of common curiosity, of those who had been in a condition for this kind of observation, who had not noticed these uncommon appearances; and when I consider the publicity and great singularity of the facts, conjoined with their importance, in support of certain physical principles, and the intense thirst for philosophical researches, which characterizes the present age, I have been surpris'd that they have not heretofore found way to your Repository; a work which I cannot but consider as the proper receptacle for every thing novel or interesting in the philosophical world, and which, for the interests of medicine, it is to be regretted, had not been able to boast of an earlier origin in this country. Facts, of sufficient importance, from which to infer new principles, or even to support analogies, are not of daily occurrence, and may not be repeated in the same country in so interesting a manner in an age: consider-

tions which render a work like yours essentially important, and which ought to operate as a powerful stimulus to country practitioners of medicine within the United States, whose sphere of observation, it must be acknowledged, is comparatively great.

Since the late improvements in Chemical science, and the writings of Dr. DARWIN (who, however, in some of his principles, was anticipated by the ingenious BROWN), I believe, that the identity of those laws which govern animal and vegetable bodies is pretty generally acknowledged. This is a discovery of incalculable importance to the interests of medicine. It has presented to the physician an extensive field for improvement by analogical reasoning, and has called to the aid of medicine almost every other science. For amusement, the physician stands on a level with the Botanist and Chemist; and, in short, the healing art, instead of a mere collection of symptoms and prescriptions, incoherent, and frequently contradictory, has become reducible to calculation, and merits the title of a science, affording the ingenious student a field for amusement, as engaging as it is extensive.

Craving your indulgence for the preceding, and I had almost said involuntary observations, the facts of which I promised you a relation were as follows:—The latter part of the summer of 1797, was rendered remarkable, by the fall of an uncommon quantity of rain. It commenced about the 15th or 16th of July, and continued, with short intermissions, until past the middle of the succeeding month. The earth, by this means, became so loaded with water, that it was almost impossible to walk with dry feet, even over the most elevated fields. The consequence was, in this quarter of the country, a great loss of property experienced in the damaging of much hay, and in the prostration of some valuable mill-dams, with their mills.

But the greatest singularity attending this season was manifested in the inconvenience resulting from the effects of this water on the bodies of that class of people (farmers) who were necessarily most exposed to its influence. This appeared in an uncommon and troublesome soreness of the hands and feet of those, particularly, who were occupied in saving their hay from the rain in low-land meadows. An erythematous inflammation of the whole part immersed in water, frequently took place on the same day; and, in addition to this, often a complete abrasion of the cuticle of the whole foot and leg, in many attended with such a degree of pain and tumefaction as to lay the subject by. In others, besides the above effect, there frequently arose on the part, more especially between and about

the toes, where the water would be longest retained, a livid-coloured vesicle, which, on breaking, discharged a dark grumous-like matter; this left behind an ulcer of the phagedænick species, which became difficult to heal, and continued troublesome even for weeks. But the most striking proof of acrimony in this water was, that a swelling and foreness (as I am credibly informed) took place, in some instances, on the same day, after slightly wetting the feet, in walking through the dewy grass of uplands in the morning. These appearances were generally noticed as singular; yet few suspected them the result of any morbid quality in the water; and as one of the most striking (though not less mischievous) propensities of human nature is, that in case the real causes of effects do not readily present, to impute them, however singular, to the most obvious, so the conjectures on this occasion were various, vague, and very unsatisfactory. Whether any singularity in this water was discernible by the organs of taste, I have not been able certainly to learn. On asking an old gentleman, a neighbour of mine, whether he tasted of this water, he replied, with a degree of engagedness, "that, when at labour from his house he had occasion to take a draught from a small rill issuing from the ground, it affected him so sensibly, that he did not forget it in a number of days." Instances of this kind may have been more frequent, but as the quality of water is materially changed by filtration through the earth, it is probable they were not numerous.

I have not likewise been able to satisfy myself, whether the health of other animals was materially affected; certain, however, it is, that swine, at this time, and often, were attacked with a disease, which proved, among them, unusually mortal. The symptoms were, a loss of appetite, and consequent emaciation, attended with a discharge from the inner angle of the eye of a frothy limpid fluid, producing a depilation, and even excoriation of the whole cheek in its course. To what cause this singular complaint among that species of animals is imputable I shall not conjecture. The remedies which proved of most efficacy in saving them, I am informed, was a free exhibition of brimstone combined with their food. If such were the effects of these waters on animal bodies, we should expect them to be at least not less conspicuous on vegetables: these appeared particularly in the destruction of tender garden plants, such as cucumbers, &c. and in a discolouration of the grass where the water remained any time, and in its complete destruction in patches about meadows, as effectually as if scorched by fire.

I have been more particular in a relation of these appearances, as they took place some time past. With respect to their extent, I believe, from the best information I have been able to obtain, that they were limited by the south of this, but extended northwardly quite into Dutchess county, easterly to the distance of a few miles only. The circumstance of limitation seems to involve some obscurity. Neither have I been able to learn at what period of this rainy season these effects were most conspicuous.

I am not qualified to hazard any conjecture on this subject. You will recollect that the summer of 1797 was rendered remarkable by numerous occurrences, which go strongly to establish the doctrine of occult causes in the atmosphere—a doctrine which contains many valuable arcana, and from a developement of which important acquisitions will result to the science of medicine.

Did these waters possess an acrimonious quality previously to their precipitation? If so, was it of volcanic origin? Was the atmosphere of that season compounded of more than its usual quantity of azote? Or did the morbid properties of this water arise from its meeting with some agent on the surface of the earth? If so, was this septic acid simply from vegetable decomposition, aided by the water as a menstruum? And did this water possess any unusual quality which favoured this decomposition?

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## ARTICLE V.

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*Case of ALCOHOL administered to a Man after having taken an immoderate Dose of OPIUM: Communicated to Dr. MITCHILL by Mr. SHEPHARD, in a Letter dated New-York, Dec. 17, 1800.*

**I** SUBMIT to your consideration a case of debility, arising from the effects of Opium, that fell under my care, which, perhaps, more accurately illustrates the operation and effects of *this* medicine, and shows to what extent *it* may be exhibited, and the patients still have a chance for recovery, than almost any experiment by which it has been preceded.

Daniel Grayham, aged about 35 years, of a firm, robust habit, and apparently in perfect health, residing at the time transiently in Schenectady, in this State, took the fatal resolu-

tion of destroying himself, and made the desperate attempt by the means of opium. Early on the morning of February 4, 1800, he procured, of a physician in that town, two drachms of opium; and then, repairing to an adjacent inn, called for a bed (complaining of illness), and immediately took the intended fatal portion. This, as nearly as could be ascertained, was about eight o'clock in the morning; and about eleven he was discovered by one of the family. I saw him immediately, and found him in a state of insensibility, accompanied with a complete apoplectic respiration, and some slight convulsive contractions of the muscles, especially of the hands and face. The pulse was full, regular, and not perceptibly removed from the standard of health. From these appearances I supposed him to be in the interval of an epileptic paroxysm; it not being known, at this time, that he had taken any thing to injure himself, or even had the design in contemplation. The symptoms, however, continuing the same for a considerable length of time, without any succession of spasm, or appearance of returning animation, I was totally at a loss how to proceed, or, in fact, what opinion to form of the disease. Some other physicians were now called in by the general alarm; but, previous to their arrival, I had accidentally discovered a paper upon the floor, in which, I found, had been opium; and which, at once, developed the wretched scene before me.

One of the physicians who now attended proposed, on this discovery, to immediately give an emetic, which was accordingly exhibited: but as the opium had had its full effect long before, no benefit could be expected from *such* practice. I exerted myself to have an opposite mode of practice pursued, and could not effect my purpose; but calmly contented myself with looking on, while a variety of other exertions were made, without the least advantage.

As a dernier resort, he was, about two o'clock P. M. placed into the hot bath, in which he was immersed a considerable, and, probably, a sufficient length of time; but the result of this experiment was similar to every former trial; and he was now abandoned by all to the certainty of his fate.

For some time previous to this period I had been absent; but about four o'clock, and near two hours after all exertions in the patient's favour had been discontinued, I again saw him.

To support the system by the exhibition of an *adequate* degree of stimuli was the object I had before wished to pur-



sue. In *this* last stage of the disease it was the *only* object. And although I scarcely retained a hope of success, yet the dictates of humanity, the prospect of future utility to the world, and the confidence I had in the principles on which I proceeded, urged me not to relinquish every hope while existence remained. *This* was the moment to which the stimulant mode of cure was peculiarly *adapted*; for now the effects of the opium were subsiding, and the system rapidly sinking into the impending dissolution with which it was momentarily threatened. The apoplectic respiration now nearly suspended, and a weak, sinking, tremulous and irregular pulse, were the only indications of remaining vitality. His skin was universally cold, and partially suffused with a glutinous moisture; and his cadaverous countenance was literally the aspect of death. The tongue and mouth (which were widely extended) were perfectly dry, and produced, to the touch, a sensation similar to that arising from the action of a rasp; and, in fact, every appearance pointed to an immediate termination of the tragical scene. These were the formidable symptoms I had to encounter; and, as the patient was exposed to public view, I sustained a degree of censure for the temerity of retaining a hope of success in a situation so desperate. The safety of the patient, and my own reputation, were sources of great anxiety; but still I adhered to my first resolution of trying the experiment.

I took some brandy, which having sweetened, and diluted with a trifle of water, I exhibited a little immediately after each respiration, the intervals of which were now near a minute. I soon found the mouth and tongue were assuming a degree of natural softness, and was confident the liquid was gradually, though quite mechanically, passing into the stomach; and in this cautious manner I very soon gave more than a gill of the brandy; and I flattered myself I discovered some slight symptoms of returning animation. At this period I was obliged to leave the patient with an attendant, directing him, with the most forcible injunctions, to steadily pursue the plan I had adopted. I was absent near an hour; and, on my return, had the pleasing satisfaction of finding my patient perfectly sensible, able to turn and raise himself in bed, and to converse freely; but incapable of supporting an erect position, in consequence of the vertigo incident to that situation, in cases of extreme debility.

He had now taken about one pint of brandy. His irritability was so great, that the smallest cause of emotion would

excite great, and sometimes an alarming degree of agitation. I continued this practice through the night, without any variation, excepting gradually diminishing the quantity of stimulus exhibited. The next morning I changed the stimulus by alternating the brandy with wine; which I continued through the day and night ensuing, still diminishing the quantity of spirits; and, as soon as the stomach would admit, gave him biscuit, and wine and water, and from thence proceeded to the use of fresh-meat broths. On Thursday he took a portion of calomel; which, I presume, from the irritable state of the stomach, proved violently emetic, and very slightly cathartic.

This medicine was materially serviceable, as his lungs had been all along somewhat oppressed; which, by this, was relieved, and the stomach and bowels sufficiently cleansed for the reception of the bark. From this period the bark was exhibited, and the laudanum and wine used as stimuli; and the case, in every respect, treated as a convalescent of indirect debility. In about ten days he was able to leave the town, which he performed on foot.

After his recovery he informed me, that his design being to make his exit sure, he had taken all the opium procured of the physician above-mentioned, which he said was *two drachms* (the truth of which the physician afterwards confirmed to me), together with a piece he had before obtained, as he supposed about half a drachm; and that he retained his recollection for about ten minutes after taking the dose.

One observation occurred to me, which, I presume, will be found of consequence in the treatment of similar cases; which is, that *no* stimuli should be exhibited till the effects of the one constituting the disease are subsiding, and the system discovers evident marks of sinking. This is the period to employ the assistance of other stimuli, to give due support to the habit, and to excite and maintain *its* action till the morbid disturbance has *ceased to be*. Had the brandy been given on the first discovery of the patient, undoubtedly the already too highly excited action would have been increased, the hopes founded on this practice frustrated, and the patient lost. There is room sufficient for observations, and for a good deal of theoretical speculation, on a case so singular as the above: but, as I was under the necessity of protracting it to the length in which it now appears, I presume that further remarks may be dispensed with.

## ARTICLE VI.

OPINION of the MEDICAL FACULTY, addressed to JAMES CALHOUN, Esq. Mayor of the City of Baltimore, relative to the DOMESTIC ORIGIN of the PESTILENTIAL SICKNESS in that City, during the hot Season of 1800: Communicated by Dr. DANIEL MOORES to Dr. MITCHILL.

SIR,

IN compliance with your request, the Medical Faculty of the city of Baltimore have taken into consideration the subject of the late epidemic, and herewith transmit to you the result of their investigation of its origin, together with their opinions respecting the most probable means of obviating the recurrence of a similar calamity.

After the most scrutinizing investigation, the faculty have found no proof, or even cause of suspicion, that the fever which lately so unhappily afflicted our city was derived from foreign causes. The following considerations, they are persuaded, will tend to elucidate this opinion.

I. The prevalence of an *epidemic constitution of the air*, which, although not yet demonstrated by chemical analysis, is sufficiently apparent from the following effects:

1. It appears, from the united testimony of the faculty of medicine, throughout the United States, that the diseases of our country have for late years, manifested a more malignant character. Those places formerly subject to mild intermitting and remitting fevers, have lately been visited by diseases of a more inflammatory diathesis. In the western part of this State, a fever of a very malignant type has prevailed for two or three years, very different from any disease hitherto known in that tract of country.

2. The morbid disposition of our atmosphere has been further evinced by its deleterious influence on certain brute animals in various parts of the United States; it has affected horses, horned cattle, dogs, cats and poultry. Now the general history of epidemics proves that this affection of certain brute animals, either precedes or accompanies their prevalence.

3. The existence of such a state of atmosphere discovers itself to our senses, by the various sensations which are perceived during the prevalence of that fever, even by those not

confined with it, more especially in persons not accustomed to inhale the impure air of our city. The history of all countries proves, that great epidemics have visited them at some period, and it would be extraordinary indeed, that the United States should be the only country on the globe exempt from their invasion.

II. That the late epidemic fever was derived from domestic sources we think the following facts and circumstances will sufficiently demonstrate. The first persons who sickened had no communication with vessels engaged in foreign commerce, but were exposed to powerful local causes, and were attacked at such distances from each other, as to preclude the probability of any one of them having derived it from the other.

The case of John Harris, visited by Dr. Rounald, near Jalland's garden, Fell's Point, on the 2d of May; Thomas Sherwood, visited by Dr. Potter on the 2d of May—these two cases occurred immediately succeeding the remarkable warm weather during the last week in April; Captain Conner on the 8th of June, Mrs. Davis on the 9th, John Mills on the 13th, Captain Derochbroom's apprentice boy on the 22d, Captain Stewart's niece on the 24th, Basil Gale's sister on the 24th, and several others, all visited by Doctor Coulter previous to the 1st of July; James White, visited by Doctor Allander on the 10th of June; Mrs. Wilson, visited by Doctor Dunhel on the 21st of June; Jonah Thomas (John-street, Old Town), visited by Doctor Archer on the 28th of June; Thomas Ing, near the corner of Gay and Frederick streets, visited by Doctor Archer on the 3d of July; Thomas Sorin, about fifty yards from Jonah Thomas's, visited by Doctor Archer on the 25th of July. The above cases attended by Doctor Coulter were at Fell's Point, where they had been exposed to powerful local causes, emanating from the cove hereafter to be described, and to other sources of pestilential exhalation. Thomas Sherwood had worked near a putrid sink of water, containing vegetable matters, in a state of putrefaction, and the offensive condition of Jonah Thomas's market yard, and the gutters and streets near his house, are well known to have annoyed all who passed them. We have in vain endeavoured to trace any of those cases to vessels employed in foreign commerce; none of them had any communication with any known vehicle of human contagion. These cases and some others occurred before the fever became general, and did not communicate to any person; if it had been derived from human contagion, why did they not communicate it in

the same manner as it must have been communicated to them? It is no inconsiderable argument in favour of our opinion to remark, that a similar disease has visited many of the interior parts of the United States, remote from all communication with the Atlantic, but where the local causes were too evident to escape the notice of the most superficial observer. Not to enumerate many of the places where a disease has been marked with all the characteristic symptoms of the yellow fever, and with the same mortality as in the city of Baltimore, we would ask, if the disease was imported, how it could have reached Gallipolis on the Ohio, Mifflin County in Pennsylvania, or the Genesee Lakes in the State of New-York? To suppose that the fever which has ravaged these new settlements at such a distance from the Atlantic, could be derived from the West-Indies, would be too unphilosophical to merit attention.

III. The general extinction of this disease by frost, proves that the cause exists in the atmosphere, for fevers arising from human contagion are admitted to be most contagious in cold weather.

IV. Is it not very extraordinary that we should be supposed to receive a disease by imported contagion, which is only occasional in the country whence it is allowed to be derived, and is there scarcely thought contagious?

V. We are, moreover, confirmed in our opinion of the indigenous origin of the late epidemic fever, by having learned that a similar disease prevailed, at the same time, in many other parts of this State; viz. in Harford County, on the banks of the Susquehanna—on the canal in Cecil County—in Charles County—in Dorchester County—and in some other places.

VI. The reasons, in our opinion, why this disease has been so long and so erroneously ascribed to imported human contagion, is the circumstance of its having so often originated on shipboard, from foul air, generated by improper ballast, or other substances in a state of putrefaction. Indeed, the confined situation of the holds of vessels is, of all circumstances, the most likely to be productive of noxious effluvia. The history of the yellow fever which originated on board of the United States frigate General Greene, affords a melancholy illustration of this opinion. The narrative given by Dr. Kollock states, that this ship sailed, on her first cruise, from Rhode-Island, and that the yellow fever appeared on the 15th day from the time she left Newport, and is ascribed, by him, to her having sprung a leak, and thereby affected her ballast,

which was composed of iron, slate-stone, and shells, intermixed with marine vegetables. The Doctor further states, that after her return to port the fever was in no instance communicated, although the intercourse between the sick and well was constant and inevitable. The faculty would here be understood to draw a distinction between an imported disease and the imported cause of disease. While they are convinced that this fever cannot, with truth, be attributed to imported human contagion, they are equally well assured that the cause may be imported, and that the foul air in the holds of vessels is a frequent source of mischief, and may co-operate with the like causes on shore, in the production of disease. We are nevertheless confident, that if the air of our city was rendered as pure as it might be, by the removal of nuisances on shore, that the cause on shipboard would scarcely be worth estimating as an object of terror, as it must soon be so widely diffused, in a pure surrounding atmosphere, as not to produce any permanent effects.

The gradual manner in which this disease becomes epidemic is an additional proof that it is not derived from foreign sources. The first effects produced by the causes, while they are feeble—such as slight pains in the head, stomach and liver, and other mild grades of the disease—are the certain harbingers of a more malignant state of fever, when the same causes acquire more force. If this disease were imported, the prominent features would develop themselves at first, and these precursors and more mild grades of the disease could not affect thousands on shore who never had any communication with vessels from the West-Indies, or any diseased body.

It has been suggested that the late fever might have been imported in the United States frigate *Insurgent*. This suggestion, we are satisfied, is destitute of foundation. The *Insurgent* arrived at this port on the 24th of March, with an healthy crew, who continued equally free from disease after her arrival, which precludes the possibility of personal contagion from this source. That the ballast of this ship was not the cause of the fever is evident from the following facts: The neighbourhood of the wharf at which she was moored was the most healthy at Fell's Point, and the first case of fever occurred at the other extremity of that place. Of nearly two hundred persons who were constantly employed on board, in repairing this ship, not one was among the first persons attacked by the fever. The rumour that Mrs. Wilson contracted her death-sickness from exposure to the ballast of the

Insurgent, is equally invalid. Her illness is more rationally explained by her having paid a visit, on the margin of the pestilential cove, immediately preceding her attack: and hence most of the first cases at Fell's Point may be traced; and hence they date their first indisposition.

But what, in our minds, places this question beyond the reach of controversy, is the fact, that this fever is never contagious early in summer, and rarely so at any season in a pure atmosphere, remote from the exhalation of stagnant water, or putrefying animal or vegetable substances. If this fatal disease were derived from imported contagion, each succeeding case should be as capable of multiplying itself as that whence it first originated on shipboard. Since, then, it is evident that this disease is not communicable beyond the sphere of noxious exhalation, the advocates of imported contagion will agree with the favourers of domestic origin in recommending energetic measures of prevention on shore, however materially they may differ on the controverted question of origin.

The faculty believe the following to have been the principal sources of this late malignant fever.

1. The *cove*, which extends from the mouth of Jones's Falls to the interior parts of Fell's Point, the bottom of which was left bare, by the recess of the tide, for some weeks immediately preceding the epidemic appearance of the fever. This was occasioned by the prevalence of north and east winds, which continued a great part of the summer, as may be perceived from a register of the weather during that season. Such is the situation of this pestilential cove, that all the filth conveyed into it by the west, north-west, and south winds, must remain to stagnate and putrefy under a summer's sun. There can be no egress by any but a north-east wind, and this cannot act, for the point is a barrier which effectually obstructs the wind from that quarter.—From the united testimony of the physicians at Fell's Point, the disease began on the borders of this cove, and its progress could be traced through the streets in whatever direction the winds wafted its poisonous effluvia. Such was the pestilential condition of this sink of putrefaction, that the labourers employed in filling up its northern shore were compelled to relinquish their undertaking early in the summer. So offensive were the effluvia emanating from this source of death, that it affected those who had occasion to pass it even at a considerable distance.

2. The *docks* in general, but more especially the *interstices* between the *wharves*, where the water stagnated, and af-

forded a proper matrix for the generation of pestilential effluvia.

3. The stagnant water retained in *cellars*.

4. The *gutters*. The noxious exhalations from this source, so near the doors of our houses, are too obvious to require a comment.

5. Certain filthy *alleys* and *unpaved streets*.

6. Unclean *back yards*.

7. Certain *privies*.

8. The *ponds* and *low grounds* in the city and its vicinity.

9. The *made ground*, of which the wharves and the lower parts of some of the streets are formed; and from all substances, animal and vegetable, subject to putrefaction.

From these sources we derive the first causes of the late fever; and from these, fomented by the summer's sun, we believe it to have become afterwards epidemic. We are more strongly impelled to ascribe our late malignant fever to these causes, from having ascertained that it did not exist in the higher parts of the city, remote from exhalation, unless it had been carried there from the Point, or from the lower parts of the city. The following fact is of itself sufficient to point out the sources of our late awful calamity. The superintendant of the streets, who enumerated the nuisances previous to the epidemic appearance of the fever, declares, that in whatever part of the city he then marked a *nuisance*, he can now mark the ravages of death.

## ARTICLE VII.

EXPERIMENTS and OBSERVATIONS on MERCURY: *In a Letter addressed to Professor HOSACK, by GEORGE LEE, A. M.*

*Pennsylvania Hospital, Sept. 12, 1800.*

DEAR SIR,

HAVING lately finished some experiments on mercury, which tend, in a small degree, to correct a prevailing error of some magnitude, I cannot avail myself of a more favourable opportunity of transmitting them to public notice than through your hands. With this liberty I therefore hope you will indulge me; at the same time assuring you, that a high and grateful sense of the kind treatment which I received



from you at New-York, a few weeks since, is not among the smallest of the considerations which have induced me to make this communication.

The subject to which these experiments were more particularly directed, presents an interesting example of the evil which may accrue from an imprudent and unphilosophical application of a principle which, in its present unguarded extension, I hope to prove fallacious. I allude to a late doctrine taught by Drs. Girtanner and Beddoes—men as justly celebrated, perhaps, for the inventive genius of imagination, as for the useful and durable labours of a cool and deliberate understanding. These gentlemen believe that mercury, when introduced into the body, owes its activity to oxygen, with which they suppose it is always combined. To accord with this doctrine, it was necessary to conceive and assert, that after the administration of this metal in a previous state of oxydation, it was thrown out revived, in consequence of having imparted its oxygen to the system.\*

Having stated the doctrine which I mean to controvert, it would be injustice, on my part, not to mention, in this place, that the authors of it have made no experiments to maintain their favourite position. At the same time it would be derogating from their fame not to add, that the opinion seems to have sprung partly from analogical induction, but more from preconceived theory. To act otherwise, I say, would be unfriendly: for but few artists possess the power of raising a superstructure, the pillars of which have no foundation. This is what is commonly called reasoning *a priori*; which is, for the most part, either accidentally right, or accidentally wrong. To say in which of these two points the reasoning of our authors has terminated, is unnecessary: suffice it to observe, that, in general, it is neither an arduous nor unpleasant task, to reason *down*, by experiment, opinions which men attempt to reason up by *conjecture*. Hypothesis may, by chance, cast an ephemeral ray of reason on a subject, but it is *experiment* alone which can reflect the durable and animating lights of truth.

Candour induces me, before proceeding any farther, to acknowledge, that, upon my first acquaintance with this doctrine, I was much pleased with the simplicity of its structure, as well as the ingenuity with which it had been erected. I was, during some time, an advocate for its prevalence; so in-

\* Vide Beddoes on Consumption, and Girtanner on Irritability.

fenfibly was my mind carried into a conviction of its fupposed truth. But who would not be captivated by, and admire the theory of the *modus operandi* of a clafs of medicines (called fialagogues), which reduced it to fo plain and fo intelligible a point, as that oxygen was the univerfal principle of falivation? I forfook this belief, however, nearly as foon as I had attached myfelf to it: for, after fome ftudy, and not without fatisfaction, its abfurdity ftruck me in the moft forcible manner. Why, it was natural to inquire, attribute the effects derived from the adminiftration of mercury to oxygen, and not to the metal itfelf? or, why ufe the latter, if the former is alone the agent by which every thing is effected?

Some of the reafons which caufed me to fufpect the validity of the fore-mentioned doctrine, I will here adduce, nearly in the order in which they occurred.

1. Many fubftances falivate which do not contain a particle of oxygen; of courfe, a falivation may be induced without the prefence of oxygen. Dr. Barton, in his lectures on the *Materia Medica*, mentions the cafe of a child, who, in confequence of fwallowing a cent, was falivated. The coin, when difcharged, was diminished in fize a fifth part. The copper, in this cafe, when fwallowed, contained no oxygen; and to fay that it became oxyded in the ftomach, is an evasion which, on account of its abfurdity, merits but little attention. It has been obferved,\* that the phofphoric acid exifts, in a naked ftate, in the gaftric juice, which may be capable of oxyding a metal. From the refpect due to the gentlemen† who are fupposed to have detected this acid, I am averfe to difpute its exiftence in the gaftric juice. It is my duty, however, to obferve, that if it does really exift in this fluid, its quantity muft be very fmall indeed, when the colour of a blue vegetable is not altered by it. This was proved by feveral experiments which I affifted Dr. Glover to make upon the gaftric juice of animals‡ which had previously fafted many hours. As a further proof of the non-exiftence of this acid in the gaftric juice, we have the high authority of Spallanzani, and his professional colleague Scopoli, who, by accurate and well-conducted experiments, were unable to detect any other acid than the muriatic, which was combined with the volatile alkali.§ Spallanzani fays, that when an acid is

\* Elements of Chemistry and Nat. Hift. by Fourcroy, vol. iv. p. 21.

† Mefrs. Macquart and Vauquelin.

‡ Cats and dogs.

§ Spallanzani's Differtations, vol. ii. p. 328—331.

found in a free state in the stomach, it is not derived from the gastric juice, but is evolved by the aliment in digestion. This fact accords with the experiments made in conjunction with my friend Dr. Glover.\* But if these be not sufficient reasons for disbelieving the calcination of a metal in the stomach, how will the authors of the opinion to which this paper is opposed explain the operation of camphor and seneka, which, upon the authority of Dr. Barton, salivate?

2. It has been said that sulphur relieves a fore mouth by combining with the oxygen which was the cause of the disease. But, in answer to this, were I to inquire, is the sulphuric acid formed in this case? I should receive but an unsatisfactory answer. Again—Dr. Barton says, in his Lectures, that he has seen, in a number of cases, the effects of mercury upon the mouth abated in a very surprising manner by the use of opium. The illustrious Boerhaave has taken notice of the same fact, in the following extravagant words: “Opium is a heavenly and most certain remedy in quieting a too violent salivation.”† I do not know that opium has an affinity to oxygen!

3. It is well ascertained, that the heat of the human body is not sufficient to deoxygenate mercury in the forms in which it is generally used. It is true that trituration alone will revive precipitate *per se*. This preparation contains but a small quantity of oxygen, and all higher degrees of oxydation require a temperature many degrees above 98, to disengage the oxyding principle from mercury.

4. Mercury may be rendered invisible, by triturating it with rhubarb and honey, in the space of two minutes. Is it to be presumed that this metal can be oxyded in so short a time? Yet, if administered to a patient immediately, it will salivate.

5. A few grains of corrosive sublimate will salivate, which do not contain, perhaps, a thimble-full of oxygen. Can gentlemen tell you that this small quantity of oxygen will produce a *febris mercurialis*, who believe themselves in the oxygenation of the blood by respiration? If this paradox can be reconciled to common sense, it is to be effected only by the ingenuity of a Girtanner or of a Beddoes.

I could multiply objections of this nature—I had almost said—*ad libitum*. But this would be making an unpardonable intrusion on your patience. If the subject, however, is

\* Vide his Inaugural Dissertation on Digestion. 1800.

† Vide Acad. Lect. vol. vi. p. 398.

not sufficiently examined already, the following experiments, I hope, will place it in a fairer point of view. They are calculated to prove that mercury, in two of its forms, is not oxyded; and, consequently, that its action in *them*, at least, does not depend on oxygen. It therefore must be presumed, *cæteris paribus*, that oxygen is not the essential, nor only active principle, in the other preparations of this metallic substance.

One hundred and twenty grains of crude mercury, and an hundred and ten grains of powdered rhubarb and conserva rosarum, mixed, were triturated together in a marble mortar until the mercury was invisible. The thermometer of Fahrenheit was at 90 deg. At the end of this operation, which was continued at least half an hour, the mass was carefully weighed, and found to have lost seven and a half grains in weight. Next day, the thermometer being at 82 deg. this experiment was repeated upon 240 grains of mercury, and 300 grains of the rhubarb and conserve. The trituration was continued the same length of time, and the loss of weight in the mass amounted to  $15\frac{1}{2}$  grains.—*N. B.* A very considerable degree of heat was generated in the mass by the trituration, and the diminished weight doubtlessly arose from the consequent evaporation.

These two experiments tended not a little to convince me, that the belief in the oxydation of mercury was rather premature. Yet the possibility of evaporation and fixation of oxygen going on at the same time in the trituration of these substances, rendered the experiment somewhat equivocal. This difficulty was removed by another experiment.

Two hundred and forty grains of mercury, an hundred and sixty grains of flour, and an hundred and twenty grains of conserva rosarum, were triturated together, in a marble mortar, two hours, the thermometer standing at 80 deg. The loss experienced in weight was fifteen grains.—By way of comparison, 160 grains of flour, and 120 grains of conserva rosarum (the same quantity of each used in the last experiment), were triturated without mercury, the thermometer being about 78 deg. The trituration was continued as long, and in a manner similar to the last. The loss which resulted was thirteen grains.—The evident impracticability of repeating these triturations exactly in the same way, will easily account for the difference in the results of the two last experiments. This difference, however, proves, in an especial manner, that the metal was not oxyded; for if it had been,

the additional weight it would have necessarily received would have rendered the total loss in the first much less than that in the last experiment.

These two last experiments being repeated upon a larger scale, with a correspondent result, in addition to the preceding, satisfied me that the metal, in the hydrargyrous mass, was not oxyded. Hence the efficacy of the *blue pill* does not depend upon oxygen. And that its virtue consists in an extreme or minute division of the mercury (so as to fit it for absorption), is an inference which, in my opinion, can be drawn with strict propriety from the foregoing experiments. Whether the same principles can be applied to mercurial ointment, will be determined by the succeeding experiments.

One hundred grains of crude mercury, and 150 grains of simple cerate (a composition of hog's-lard and bee's-wax), were unremittingly triturated together for the time of one hour and an half, and the loss of weight was twenty grains. This experiment was repeated upon double the quantity of these substances, and the loss was forty-three grains.\* For the purpose of a comparative estimate, 300 grains of simple cerate were triturated an hour and an half, and the loss of weight was forty-one grains.—*N. B.* The thermometer was about the same standard in all these experiments—being generally at the 80th degree of Fahrenheit.

The results of these last-mentioned experiments coincided so happily with the results of the foregoing, that little hesitation existed in my mind, in its determination on the question. But wishing to place the truth as much in the light as I could, I instituted another experiment, which, perhaps, is of as much importance as any yet related.

For the purpose of triturating mercurial ointment in a certain quantity of atmospheric air, I procured a common apothecary's bottle, with a large mouth, and cut the bottom off. Over the mouth of this bottle I tied a sound piece of bladder, leaving it so loose as to admit of a considerable concavity, when it was suffered to fall within the mouth of the bottle. In the centre of this bladder a crucial incision was made, and a long wooden pestle was passed through, and the bladder tied firmly round it, about midway. I then fastened a small glass mortar to the shelf of a pneumatic tub, over which the water rose two inches. The bottle thus constructed was proved to be air-tight, by immersing it full of air, when no

\* The trituration was continued one hour and an half.

bubbles arose from it.—Having put two ounces of fresh lard and ten drachms of crude mercury into the mortar, the bottle was placed over it on the shelf. A quantity of air was then withdrawn from it by means of a syphon; and the height to which the water arose, within the bottle, was marked on its outside, making, at this time, the bladder preserve a plane. The trituration was then commenced, and continued two hours, at the end of which time the water within the bottle rose exactly to the same height at which it stood before the experiment was begun. The ointment had by this time assumed its usual blue appearance. This experiment was repeated upon two ounces of mercury and two ounces of lard; and, after a trituration during two hours, the air had not diminished, apparently, in the smallest degree. The inference, therefore, from these experiments, is, that if mercury is oxyded by this kind of trituration, it is not in consequence of the decomposition of atmospheric air. That this metal could have been oxyded by the lard, as has been supposed by some persons, was improbable from two circumstances: 1. The lard was not raneid, which was a proof of its not being saturated with oxygen. 2. Lard has a stronger affinity to oxygen than mercury; consequently the latter cannot take oxygen from the former. This is proved by boiling lard upon an oxyd, when the metal will be revived.

I will not lose sight of the above experiments, before I add an important observation of Mr. Cruickshank, who says, that the “globules of quick-silver, in the best prepared mercurial ointment, may be distinctly seen in the microscope.”\* This is a strong argument against the oxydation of mercury.

It is not uninteresting to observe, that some of the ointment, as well as of the mercurial mass, made in the above experiments, was administered to patients in the hospital, with the common effects of these remedies.

Before I bring this letter to a conclusion, permit me to make one or two additional remarks. The dark blue colour of the ointment has been assigned as a proof of the oxydation of the mercury it contains. This colour, however, is only natural. When the ointment is new, it is of a light ash, or grey colour, and becomes blue gradually in time. This gradual change is not owing to the union of oxygen to the mercury: for 500 grains of fresh mercurial ointment were exposed in

\* Vide Anat. of Absorb. Vessels, p. 103.

a box covered with fine gauze, and, at the end of three months, it was found to have lost 18 grains of its weight. It is true, that if a certain quantity of air be exposed to mercurial ointment, it will be diminished. In this case the oxygen is absorbed by the lard, which thereby becomes rancid. A quantity of fixed air is emitted from the lard. This arises from a combination of part of the oxygen to the carbon of the lard. Hence a putrefactive process goes on in the lard, and the metal remains unchanged. Another proof of this was afforded me, by exposing equal quantities of mercurial ointment and lard, separately, in equal quantities of atmospheric air, and the absorption in both was exactly the same.

Gentlemen who have adopted the theory I have endeavoured to prove erroneous, have been so much infatuated by the perverting poison of enthusiasm, that nothing has been able to cool their ardour, or to put a stop to their wild career. Oxygen has been the burden of their song; and, in the pursuit of this question, common sense has been offended, whilst prudence has been unable to mark out a single limit to their range. Candour has long since retired from the scene of action: for while the heart beat sensibly for the truth on one side of the question, self-love and misguided fancy proclaimed victory on the other.

It has been the custom, of late, to estimate the powers of medicines according to the quantity of oxygen they contain. Hence the superior powers of the oxygenated muriate of mercury, over those of the mild muriate, have been explained in this way. May not this doctrine be applied, with equal advantage, to saccharum saturni and white lead? But to be serious—is not corrosive sublimate of mercury a more complete salt than calomel, and on this state alone do not its superior powers depend? The nitric acid is more powerful than the nitrous; and it is said, because it contains more oxygen. Admit the fact: but, then, is it not combined with the azote? Is not the azote completely saturated in the nitric, and not in the nitrous acid; and does not this circumstance constitute in the one a more complete acid than in the other? Azote is as necessary to the formation of the acid of septon as oxygen; and if certain effects are derived from the use of this acid, they are to be attributed to both its constituent principles, and not to one alone. When azote and oxygen are combined, they produce certain effects upon the body. These are properly said to be the effects of the nitrous acid. When

these two principles are not combined, they are either inactive, or their effects are no way analogous to those of nitrous acid. The same remarks may be applicable to the oxygenated and common marine acids.

But after all that has been said on this curious subject, have our authors ever proved the decomposition of these different substances in the body? This is a point of some consequence to them. Their future reputation rests upon it in a great measure. In my opinion, an investigation of the subject, on this ground, will either extricate them from their present difficulties, or advance them a few steps further into the mire. It behoves them, at least, to make the experiment.

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## ARTICLE VIII.

*An ACCOUNT of REMARKABLE EFFECTS from the APPLICATION of the ACTUAL CAUTERY to the NAPE of the NECK and the TOP of the HEAD, in several Diseases, both Idiopathic and Symptomatic, of the Eyes, Ears and Brain. By LOUIS VALENTIN, M. D. formerly Professor of Anatomy at Cape-François, &c. &c. now of Nancy, in Lorraine. Communicated to Dr. MITCHILL.*

### SECTION I.

IT is well known how much the actual cautery was used by the ancients; and, at this day, great is the extent of the practice among the Egyptians, the Japanese and Chinese, either by the *moxa* or the hot iron, for pains of almost all parts of the body. It was so familiar with the Grecians and Scythians, that they looked upon diseases as incurable when fire had not conquered them. Thereupon Hippocrates said: “*Quod remedium non sanat ferrum sanat, quod ferum non sanat ignis sanat, quod ignis non sanat insanabile dici oportet.*” This excellent method has been renewed and celebrated in our age, by Pouteau, of Lyons.\* I do not mean to relate all cases where I have successfully employed this help

\* See the posthumous works of that ingenious and skilful surgeon, by Dr. Colombier, of Paris. Prosper Alpin. *Med. des Egyptiens.* Du Jardin, *Histoire de la Chirurgie*, tom. i. à Paris.



in the healing art, but shall confine my remarks merely to what concerns the principal diseases of the head and face, as it has been extensively used in them.

## SECTION II.

In many kinds of obstinate ophthalmias, in the blindness that follows them, and in serious old sores of the eyes, whatever the cause might be, in which all means, both internal and external, blisters and setons on the hinder part of the neck, had been employed, I have always observed the efficacy of fire upon the top of the head to deserve a preference. It must be applied about the middle of the hinder edge of the coronal bone (the place being shaved), and the extent of the burning at least as large as a dollar. The application produces, indeed, an acute pain, but the patients are greatly relieved by the useful effects they derive from it. The part must be immediately anointed with oil, and covered with a soft and suppurative plaster. The next day two or three crucial incisions must be made into the burned spot, in order to accelerate the suppuration, which becoming more copious, and being nearer the seat of the disorders than when these emunctories are put on the nape or occipital region, they produce a speedier relief; besides the primitive effects of the exustion, in changing the nervous irradiations, and attracting, as about a centre, the humours of the head. I prefer it to the other external irritants, as it maintains for a longer time a copious discharge of matter.

At Cape-François, where sore eyes are common and very obstinate, and their cure very difficult, I have cured many people by this salutary method, though they had already taken advice from all parts, and tried, unsuccessfully, various kinds of remedies, for a long time; and this even when the blindness was acknowledged and certified by professional men.\*

I oftentimes scarified and took off portions of the tunica conjunctiva, when the vessels were considerably choaked up, particularly in the *ophthalmia chemosis*, *ophthalmia ulcerosa*,

\* A fact the most known and desperate concerns a young lieutenant of volunteers, whose cure the general assembly of the colony had trusted to me, about the beginning of the year 1792, after the exhibition of a certificate delivered to him by the two first health-officers of the charity-hospital, where he had before been treated, attesting the loss of his sight, and his being passed as incurable. The proof of the radical cure is mentioned in the verbal procès of that assembly, June 24, 1792. The patient recovered his sight in less than five weeks.

and many others. In all cases one or two pukes must be administered previous to the cauterization, and they should be used rather than purges.\* The softening and lenient topicks and collyria ought to be preferred to those which are acrid and irritating, in the increase as well as in the decrease of the disease.

### SECTION III.

In fore ears, as the *otalgia inflammatoria*, accompanied with delirium, convulsions or drowsiness, when liniments, topicks, cupping-glasses, leeches, or blisters, have been unsuccessfully employed, the hot iron behind the ear, upon the *processus mastoideus*, succeeds perfectly well. I have also cauterized, advantageously, the inward portion of the ear with a smaller red iron, slipping through a sheath, with a design of appeasing tooth-ache, and pains of the jaws and the contiguous parts, produced by a defluxion to that region, as some of our predecessors have done.

### SECTION IV.

I have seen it likewise produce good effects in acute and obstinate pains of the head—that is to say, in *cephalalgia* and *cephalæa*, as well as in madness, after an unsuccessful use of other means. Then it is better to cauterize the vertex strongly, and, if it be possible, on the painful place, particularly when the fits return periodically, and have not been sufficiently overcome by the red-powder-bark.

Some have also employed a large blister-plaster, covering all the head; and in malignant fevers and commotions of the brain its effects appear very salutary.† Others have cauterized the head to the very skull, or even to the bone itself, after having cut away the hairy scalp, in madness and in epilepsy.‡ But these experiments were not always prosperous.

### SECTION V.

It is in phrenitis, in the frightful symptoms of putrid and malignant fevers, and others of an eruptive kind, or coma,

\* In general, I have observed, in all cases of fore eyes, that pukes succeed better than purges. This preference given to pukes, in diseases seated above the diaphragm, agrees with the aphorism of Hippocrates: *Quæ, supra septum transversum vomitus, et infra purgationes requirunt.*

† The blister-plaster, in the form of a cap, is known to be useful in commotions of the brain; and M. Default, chief surgeon of the Hotel Dieu, at Paris, has used it frequently, and with success.

‡ Vide Dehaën, ratio medendi.

delirium, convulsive motions, *prostratio virium*, &c. that the application of the actual cautey on the occiput is very useful. I could give an account of many remarks made in France, in the West-Indies, and particularly in Virginia, with regard to the hot iron in the treatment of the above diseases. I shall confine myself, however, to a few facts.

Mademoiselle Pellier, a superannuated maid, at Nancy, in Lorraine, living near the Botanical Garden, was attacked by an excessive phrenitis, in the year 1787, after the operation of a violent purge she had taken for the head and belly-ache. She was furious, and they were obliged to tie her in bed. Her pulse was low and frequent, and her eyes animated. She constantly refused swallowing. Repeated employment of the *femicupium*, and blisters put on the legs, dry frictions, cooling topicks upon the head, were inefficacious, and nothing could appease or relieve her. Having been consulted on her dangerous case, I cauterized the nape of the neck without delay. Her great agitation, flow of words, and cries, ceased immediately. She remained with her eyes open, and speechless, during two hours; after which she slept till the next morning. Her fever was moderate, her pulse stronger and more free, and that disease which had a putrid character was radically cured in a fortnight.

#### SECTION VI.

At St. Domingo, where malignant fevers of a bad character, agues and intermitting fevers, are exceedingly common amongst the white people, the cauterization of the nape of the neck, precisely between the occipital bone and the first cervical vertebra, near the superior insertions of the trapezius muscle, has very often succeeded with me, when the sick had fallen into a coma, with convulsive motions, and a closing of the jaws. Sometimes the power of swallowing was lost, besides shortness of breath, &c. If the patient is depressed, low, and sinking under the disease, notwithstanding blisters and the use of quinquina, so advantageous in this state; if the nervous system was a little affected, the brain confused, and the mind roving, and those means were inadequate to put a stop to these disorders—I apply the burning iron without delay. I made use of it early, according to the emergency, but never before having obtained the necessary evacuations; it would otherwise be useless. It may be employed at any other times, towards the sixteenth, seventeenth, or twenty-first day; seldom later in those climates.

Two young men in Cape François underwent this operation at an advanced period of their sickness, after which the crisis\* and cure appeared to take place. The one named Vetcon (chevalier) fell suddenly senseless on the seventeenth day: the teeth closed, the belly swelled, and he was rapidly declining under his symptoms, though he had all along received regular treatment and attendance. He at last threw up all his medicines.—The other, named Arnould, a watch-maker, † was struck with the same desperate symptoms on the sixteenth day; having had, till that time, a simple remittent fever, regularly treated. Convulsions and dreadful howlings, affrighting the neighbourhood and the people passing by, not being abated by cold water poured on the head, blisters on the legs, assisted by sinapisms, &c. I fully cauterized the occiput. He soon began to swallow some spoonfuls of an antispasmodic mixture and powder-bark; and the disease was happily terminated, by degrees, in the former about the thirty-first day, and in the latter the twenty-second.

## SECTION VII.

The same operation was very advantageous to us in the fatal epidemic disease which afflicted the seamen of the French squadron which was at anchor in Chesapeake-Bay, in the months of February, March and April, of the year 1794. These men, miserably distempered, were placed in our three hospitals, established on both sides of Elizabeth-River, near Norfolk.

The character of the disorder was a putrid and malignant fever. Some were troubled with worms and peripneumony. The greater part were brought to me in a state of extreme debility and despondency—being often in a delirium—having a blackish looseness, little fever, and scarcely sixty-eight or seventy-two pulsations in a minute. There were some in whom the vital strength languished so much, that I found only thirty-six, forty-four, forty-eight, and now and then from fifty to seventy, pulsations in a minute.

Others, very much animated, and stronger, having a full and frequent pulse, became soon frantic, and, getting out of their beds, wandered up and down, and obliged us to tie them. For some of these I prescribed bleeding, with anodyne and

\* Those diseases are commonly shorter in the Antilles than elsewhere: in general, the crises are never observed, because of the early and so amazingly profitable use of the quinquina.

† From Nancy.

antispasmodic remedies. Sometimes they refused them. But nothing abated those symptoms better than cauterizing. They recovered sooner and more easily than the former, to whom this operation was made in the state of delirium and of tremours in the extremities. Blister-plasters and quinquina kept almost always an equal pace together: sometimes Huxham's tincture, with camphor and vitriolic acid.

Many of those patients underwent the hot iron. One day, in my morning visit, I cauterized eleven of them in a single hospital, and we were satisfied that many owe their salvation to it. Fire has two effects: 1. In awakening and reanimating the benumbed sensitive principle in the former, or the weakest patients; in changing the nervous irradiations more suddenly, and having a tendency to destroy the other irradiation so hurtful to the system, &c. in the latter. 2. By determining, in both, a more copious flow of humours from the tela cellulosa (since the skin is disorganized), and during a longer time than can be effected by blisters.

We saw some parotids, but almost all were mortal, notwithstanding the stimulating topicks. The cautery applied to the tumours was more beneficial. At length, attendance failing, many died, because the health-officers, as well as myself, inhaled the poisonous vapours, and sickened in consequence thereof.

## ARTICLE IX.

*To the Editors of the Medical Repository.*

GENTLEMEN,

*If the following observations appear to deserve a place in your Repository, the insertion of them will oblige your most obedient,*

F. BLANCHET.

*New-York, 24th August, 1800.*

READING, in the "Philosophical Magazine" of London, an account of the circumstances which led to Dr. Mitchill's theory of pestilential fluids, I find that the reason assigned for the prevention of chemical combination between the azote and oxygen in the ordinary state of the atmosphere, is, that these elements, united to a sufficient quantity of calo-

ric to render them gaseous, are repelled beyond the sphere of chemical attraction, and, of consequence, remain in the state of mechanical diffusion.

This explanation, though extremely ingenious, is not entirely free from objections. For if, according to the supposition of Dr. Mitchill and Citizen Guyton, atmospheric air can form an acid by the condensation of the integral molecules of the two gases (viz. of azote and oxygen) which compose it, how happens it that cold, which always produces condensation of the constituent particles of bodies, does not form nitric acid? Agreeably to the hypothesis of these two distinguished persons, it ought to follow, that the spontaneous formation of nitric acid in the atmosphere should be more frequent in the frozen zones than in the torrid zone. But this seems to be contradicted by experience.

Besides, whether our attention be extended over the globe, or confined to the narrow limits of a laboratory, it appears that the formation of nitric acid is produced by caloric, the effect of which must be expansion rather than condensation. In consequence of this fact, which appears to be invariable, it necessarily results, that caloric, in certain circumstances, exerts a chemical action upon these two bodies, and changes, by this combination, their individual nature into one new and peculiar. Further; it is reasonable to suppose, if caloric be a substance, that it should, like other substances, exert a chemical attraction for matter. It is, doubtless, on account of our ignorance of the laws of this attraction, that nature presents compositions which still astonish us, and baffle all the powers of our minds.

From the considerations thus briefly stated, I still venture to differ in opinion with these celebrated chemists. But, whatever may be my predilection for my own notions, I hold myself always ready to submit to evidence. Like those gentlemen, I am in search of truth. I am entirely convinced, as they are, that truth is essential to the happiness of man. I should be far from wishing to obscure it by any mistakes of mine. I am apprehensive that but too often it is only to be found at the *bottom of the well*. Whatever may be the danger of descending, I am willing, in quest of such an object, to run the risque of plunging into the water.

## ARTICLE X.

OBSERVATIONS on certain OBJECTIONS of Dr. JOSEPH PRIESTLEY to the ANTIPHLOGISTIC SYSTEM of CHEMISTRY. By JAMES WOODHOUSE, M. D. Professor of Chemistry in the University of Pennsylvania, &c.

No. III.

*To the Editors of the Medical Repository.*

GENTLEMEN,

THIS letter will finish my reply to the objections of Dr. Priestley to the new theory of chemistry, and I shall not make any more observations on the subject until I hear from the Doctor.

*Of the Production of the Carbonic Acid, or Fixed Air, from heating Copper, Silver and Lead, in pure Air.*

An objection of Dr. Priestley, to the opinion that fixed air is composed of oxygen and carbon, is, that this gas is obtained by heating certain metals in pure air, which, according to the French chemists, do not contain charcoal.

To decide this question, a quantity of copper was precipitated from a clear solution of blue vitriol in distilled water, by iron tacks, which were previously exposed to vitriolic acid, diluted with water, in order to scale them. When the copper was collected, vitriolic acid and water was added to it, to dissolve any particles of iron it might contain, and it was well washed in pure water.

The focus of a lens was thrown upon a portion of this metal, confined in fifty-six ounce measures of oxygenous gas, which had been washed in lime-water, and was of the purity of 155, until nineteen ounce measures were absorbed: the remaining air was of the purity of 140, and contained  $\frac{1}{100}$  parts fixed air.

The copper calcined in this operation was then revived, by heating it in forty-eight ounce measures of hydrogenous gas, from malleable iron, when eighteen ounce measures of the air disappeared. The remainder of the inflammable air contained no fixed air.

The revived metal was then melted in fifteen ounce measures of pure air, of the strength of 140, until eight ounce

measures were absorbed. The remaining air was of the purity of 125, and contained  $\frac{1}{100}$  parts fixed air. The calcined metal was again heated in forty-four ounce measures of hydrogenous gas, until sixteen ounce measures disappeared.— The remaining air contained no fixed air.

The revived metal was then heated in twelve ounce measures of pure air, until four ounce measures were imbibed by it. The remaining air contained  $\frac{5}{1000}$  fixed air. It was then repeatedly heated, alternately in inflammable and pure air, and always with the same result. The remainder of the pure air uniformly contained some fixed air.

Similar experiments were made with the lead of the shops, and lead precipitated from its solution in the acetous acid by plates of zinc; with the copper of the shops, the copper money of Great-Britain and the United States, and copper revived by inflammable air from the calx of copper, precipitated from blue vitriol by ammoniac; and with silver precipitated from its solution in the nitric acid by strips of copper. In several of the experiments no fixed air was procured by heating these metals in pure air: no absorption of this gas took place when silver was heated in it, for the innumerable bright surfaces of the metal reflected the rays of light, and no impression could be made upon it by the lens.

Having acknowledged the fact, that fixed air is generally obtained by heating the purest silver, copper and lead, that can be procured in pure air, the next thing is to find the charcoal, which is one of the component parts of this gas.

As the metals are obtained from their ores by means of coal, it is not unphilosophical to suppose, that a small portion of this substance is mixed with them in the operation of reduction.

When lead is precipitated from its solution in the acetous acid by zinc, or copper from blue vitriol by iron, a portion of these precipitants is dissolved, and the coal separated from the dissolved part will be deposited with the precipitated lead and copper.

When fixed air is generated by heating copper in pure air, which has been revived by inflammable air from the calx of copper, precipitated by ammoniac from blue vitriol, the only source of the coal can be from particles of dust which accidentally become mixed with the copper, and which it is difficult to exclude.

The disinterested must decide whether this explanation is completely satisfactory.



SECONDLY. *Of Manganese heated in Inflammable Air.*

In my answer to Dr. Priestley's considerations on the doctrine of phlogiston and the decomposition of water, published in the fourth volume of the American Philosophical Transactions, it is particularly mentioned, and a number of experiments are related to confirm the position, that when metallic oxyds are heated by a burning lens, in hydrogenous gas, that the air vanishes, and that its disappearance is always in strict proportion to the pure air which the calces contain. An argument which was considered as conclusive was brought forward to prove this fact. One drachm of manganese, exposed to the action of the lens in hydrogenous gas, made exactly twenty-two ounce measures of the air disappear in ten minutes; but when the pure air was previously driven off from it, by means of a red heat, it would make none of the air vanish, although it was heated in it one hour.

In reply to this, Dr. Priestley tells us (*Med. Rep.* vol. iv. p. 137), that manganese, out of which the pure air had been expelled by a strong heat, when heated in inflammable air, produced the same result as if fresh manganese had been used, except *that much more heat was necessary* to make it imbibe the air.

The two experiments made by the Doctor, relating to this part of the controversy, do not warrant the conclusion which he has drawn from them. No comparative trial was made with fresh manganese, and an equal quantity of the same kind of calx from which the air had been driven off by heat. He acknowledges that manganese, containing dephlogisticated air, imbibes inflammable air *very rapidly*, and with a *very moderate degree of heat*; but he does not say in what manner the oxygen acts to produce this effect.

The Doctor supposes, that when the calx of manganese is heated in inflammable air, the oxygen it contains enters into the phlogisticated air which is found in the residuum; but there is no occasion to make this supposition, for phlogisticated air is contained in all manganese, and is expelled from it by heat. When I exposed three drachms of this calx in fifty-six ounce measures of hydrogenous gas, fifty-four ounce measures of the air disappeared, and two ounce measures of phlogisticated air remained behind, which was previously contained in the manganese, and was expelled from it by the heat of the lens.

Since, then, when manganese, and other pure metallic calces,

are heated in inflammable air, fixed air is not produced; if the pure air which they contain parts from them by the heat of the lens, and cannot be found, in an uncombined state, in the air which remains behind; if the source of the phlogisticated air which is sometimes produced can be pointed out in a most satisfactory manner, what becomes of the pure air of the calces, if it does not unite to the hydrogen, and form water?

When manganese has been exposed to the low red heat of a common furnace, a part only of its pure air is dissipated from it; and the eighteen-inch lens of Dr. Priestley being superior to the heat of the furnace, will expel more of the air; which, when the operation is performed in inflammable air, will unite with it, and make some of it vanish; but the eleven-and-a-half-inch lens which I use being not superior to the heat of a furnace, will not expel the remainder of the pure air from the manganese, which has previously been exposed to heat; consequently, when it is heated in inflammable air, none of the air will disappear.

Let Dr. Priestley make a fair comparative experiment, as I have repeatedly done, with fresh manganese, and some from which the pure air has been expelled by heat, and he will find that the former will make much more inflammable air disappear than the latter.

### THIRDLY. *Of Finery Cinder heated in carbonated Hydrogenous Gas.*

A probable evidence of a calx containing oxygen or dephlogisticated air, says Dr. Priestley, is, that when it is revived in inflammable air, fixed air is produced. But this is not the case when finery cinder is revived in these circumstances, although I purposely prepared some by melting iron in the open air.\* In another place he tells us, that a very small quantity of oxygen is attached to the scales of iron, because a barely perceivable quantity of fixed air is sometimes found, when they are revived in inflammable air.†

The observation that oxygen, in a calx, is, perhaps, most easily detected by its forming fixed air when it is heated in inflammable‡ air, is not true.

No fixed air is generated by heating the pure calces of red precipitate and manganese, which are acknowledged to con-

\* Doctrine of Phlogiston established, p. 14.

† Ibid. p. 12.

‡ Ibid. p. 28.

tain oxygen, in inflammable air from malleable iron; but if carbonated inflammable air be used, fixed air is always formed from the oxygen of the calces uniting with the coal held in solution in this gas.

The same result takes place from heating finery cinder in these airs. Water is formed when pure inflammable air is used, and fixed air when carbonated inflammable air is tried.

The focus of a lens was thrown upon one drachm of finery cinder, obtained from passing steam over red-hot iron-wire, confined in eight ounce measures of carbonated hydrogenous gas, from the flowers of zinc and coal, and which had been well washed in lime-water. No absorption took place. One measure of the remaining air, thrown in an eudiometer tube, over lime-water, gave  $\frac{1}{100}$  parts of a measure of fixed air.

The reason that Dr. Priestley obtains more water from heating finery cinder in pure inflammable air than from red precipitate, is, that the water, which is one of the constituent principles of this substance, is separated from it, and another portion generated, by the oxygen uniting with the inflammable air.

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## ARTICLE XI.

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LUMINOUS APPEARANCE of OCEAN-WATER caused by ANIMALS: *In a Letter from Professor MITCHILL, of New-York, to Professor BARTON, of Philadelphia.*

SO obvious an appearance as the phosphorescence of ocean-water was ascribed to animals as long ago as the time of Pliny. Some of these adhering to the rigging of vessels in windy and stormy weather, and shining in the dark, seem to have caused the appearances known formerly by the names of Castor and Pollux. Much has been offered on this subject, both physically and historically, you know, by CHARLES FREDERIC ADLER, in his *Dissertation de Noctiluca Marina*, which is well worthy of perusal. He has given a magnified figure of a microscopic worm, which, in the sea of China, makes the salt-water luminous. It is called, by some French writers, *scolopendre marine luisante*, and by Linnè, *verreis noctiluca*.—Some of the *sea-jellies* and *sea-blubbers*

have also been long known to be occasionally luminous. The principal part of these are "medusas," which, at a very early day, obtruded themselves on the attention of naturalists.— But, notwithstanding all this, the philosophical world seems still to be a good deal undecided as to the real cause of the phosphorescence of the ocean. I have therefore recorded the following facts, which fell under my own eye, hoping they may not be without their use in explaining the phenomenon. PENNANT, in his *British Zoology*, vol. iv. expresses very just ideas on the subject.

On the evening of Saturday, the 13th of September, 1800, about high-water, as we were preparing, between seven and eight o'clock, to bathe in the bay, my attention was called to a remarkable luminous appearance at the water's edge on the beach. The wind was from the southward, and the day had been so warm, that about 2 P. M. the quicksilver in a thermometer hanging in a shaded piazza, on the south side of the house, had risen to 89 deg. At this moment it stood as high as 76. The distance from the chamber windows to high-water-mark is 210 feet. It seemed as if the beach was covered with coals of fire, and that bright sparkles were constantly emitted among them. The small undulation which moved to land looked like a wave of flame rolling along the shore. And the water beyond, to the distance of a few rods, exhibited frequent corruscations of extraordinary brightness. On going down to the water, I found the sand covered with mollusca-animals, the greater part of which were the *medusa simplex*. Thousands of them had just been left by the receding tide, and were yet alive. Being incapable of living long out of the water, and unable to survive until the next flood, they seemed to be under the influence of their last vital movements. They lay so thick under foot, that at every tread many of them were crushed to pieces. Besides their spontaneous power to become luminous, whenever they were moved they emitted light; and this happened indifferently whether their gelatinous bodies were agitated through the medium of air, water, or the direct contact of the feet or fingers. On walking among them, and thereby exciting their luminous action, the beach resembled melted metal in a red-hot state; or the phenomenon might be compared to a radiant glory surrounding the feet, to the distance of a foot and a half, or more, at every tread. In several instances, the light emitted by a single one, when taken, in its fresh and vivid state, into my hand, was sufficient to enable me to determine the time of

night by my watch, the minute and hour hands being plainly to be seen: but this brightness was but transient. Frequently the creature emitted not a particle of light, and then, on a sudden, the luminous appearance would be conspicuous, and as quickly disappear. The succession of these lucid emanations from the creatures lying in such numbers upon the wet sand, resembled, if small things may be compared with great, the unsteady light of the fixed stars; and, indeed, the twinkling of these phosphorescent animals below, and of the celestial bodies above, afforded a spectacle so singular and so splendid, that I spent good part of the evening in admiring it. I remarked, also, that the sand on which these animals were left by the tide was luminous; and found, on crushing them to pieces in my hand, that a faint phosphorescence was imparted both to the sand and to my skin; but in neither case did it last long.

But what was as singular as any part of the phenomenon, was the effect produced by them upon our bodies and clothes while we were bathing. Whenever the water near one of them was agitated, a large fire-ball seemed to burst upon the view beneath the water; and whenever this happened in contact with one of the limbs, caused some of us instantaneously almost to start, for fear of being burned. Where any of the slimy matter was left, somewhat of a luminous appearance was perceptible on our clothes, giving them and our skins sometimes the appearance of phosphoric spots, and sometimes the more extraordinary semblance of being painted over with liquid fire. There were more than one species of animal; for, besides those which, by their magnitude, were very plain subjects for examination, there were some luminous spots as small as points, and as minute as the eye could discern. These adhered to our clothes and skins, and, when taken up with the water in vessels of glass, were too small or too pellucid to be distinguished by the naked eye, though they contributed eminently towards the effect of this submarine illumination. This, I presume, was the *neréis noctiluca*, an INTESTINAL animal. I succeeded in discovering another species, which was a slender worm of about a quarter of an inch long, and emitted, at times, a bright light of a greenish hue. This was probably a larger species of *neréis*.

Not being well acquainted with the nature of those mollusca beings, I apprehended some inconvenience from such a mass of animal matter left on the shore to putrefy so near the house. But my cause of alarm vanished before the next rising

sun: for, during the recess of the tide, they all perished; though, instead of remaining a great mass of dead gelatinous creatures on the beach, this whole collection of living animals, whose vivid exhibitions of light evinced their being alive near midnight, had so totally disappeared before four o'clock, that no other trace of their having been there could be discerned, than some phosphorescence in the sand, on being stirred up by the foot or taken up in the hand. They had lost their organization, and, in so short a time, dissolved into a kind of slime, which penetrated the sand, and was mingled with the water of the next flood. On examining the spots at six o'clock next morning, before the beach was covered by the tide, not a vestige of one of this numerous shoal of animals was discoverable by day-light. A spectator of the morning-scene could not have known, by any thing discernible, that such a brilliant exhibition had been made there the preceding evening, or that a single animal had been cast ashore on the spot.

I put several of the larger species of these creatures into glasses of their native salt-water, and carried them into my chamber. During the night I made repeated observations upon them, and found that the light they afforded was neither perpetual nor extended to their whole bodies. It was intermitting, and confined to certain lines passing from one extremity of the creature to another. The light was of a bluish colour, and the streams of it were highly beautiful. These animals lived all night in the water, and were as lively as ever in the morning. They were almost transparent, and nearly of the colour of the fluid in which they were suspended; yet, on placing them in a good light, they were found sufficiently opaque to be distinctly examined. Their figure was globose, or rather elliptical, shaped like a walnut. The largest were about an inch and a half in length, and the least as small as the eye could discern. Their structure was too delicate to allow them to be examined in any other manner than in their floating state. They were about of the same weight with sea-water. At their option they could readily ascend and descend in it. And as they have no air-vessels like fishes, they accomplished their rise and fall by a mere change of their specific gravity, contracting themselves into a smaller volume if they wished to sink, and expanding themselves to a wider bulk if they intended to swim. Before ten o'clock next morning several of them were evidently dying, and before forty-eight hours had elapsed all of them were dead, and so entirely disorganized that not a film or membrane was left; but the wa-

ter, which was a little turbid, had a small mud-like sediment, and smelled strong of phosphorated hydrogenous gas.

The nearness of their approach to pellucidity displayed their internal structure to the eye without the trouble of anatomizing. They might be looked through without the aid of a dissecting instrument; and their blood, though not *red*, but nearly of the pale colour of their bodies, reflected light enough in the day-time to enable it to be seen in motion, briskly circulating through the arterious and venous tubes. This view of the circulation of the blood through the whole economy of a healthy animal was one of the most interesting appearances in animated physiology that I ever had beheld. This creature, like the echinus, and many more, had no heart, but the vessels were endowed with muscular power enough to propel their fluids without the aid of such an organ. The pulsations of the arteries could be easily counted, and the little waves of the circulating fluid distinguished as they passed from the larger extremity, where the motion was most evident, to the smaller, where it was more evanescent, and terminated in corresponding veins. In these animals the circulation not only proceeds, as in other creatures, one while swiftly, and at another slowly, but, at times, is totally intermitted or suspended, and this, seemingly, *ad arbitrium*. Eight large arteries received the pale blood from a common trunk, and conveyed it from one extremity toward the other. They were about equidistant, and gave the animal a somewhat striped appearance, such as a slight intermixture of arsenic imparts to glass. The termination of these arteries in continuous veins was very plain to be seen, until their ramifications upon the parts which appeared to be nutritive viscera became too minute for sight, after which the invisible tubes seemed to connect their branches into a common canal, or vena cava, whence the eight arteries before-mentioned derived their supply.

Such being the manner in which their juices circulated, it could now be understood in what part the luminous exhibition was made. I was soon satisfied it was in the *arteries*, and not in the veins; and the diaphanous consistence of the animal permitted this light to be seen through its substance as plain as through crystal. The blood, after entering the arteries, and during its subjection to their action, became luminous, and passed through like streams of ignited metal or electric emanations. And this vascular illumination, variously refracted in passing through the pellucid substance of the crea-

ture, through the water in which it floated, and through the atmosphere to the eye, made the whole body, when seen at a distance, appear luminous. These streams of light, however, were not constant. They not only intermitted when the circulation of the blood was intermitted, and the action of the vessels stopped, but very commonly, while the fluids were passing through their tubes with the utmost rapidity, there would be no phosphorescence at all. Then, again, one or more, and sometimes all the arteries, would suddenly exhibit the lucid phenomenon, and the creature and the surrounding water flash with light. This luminous evolution was not confined to the nocturnal existence of the animal; for, on attentively examining their functions by day, when the light was too faint to be seen, it could be easily distinguished, by the *colour* of the fluid in the vessels, that the same action was going on. It appeared of a bluish, or somewhat iridescent hue, along the course of the arteries, though its feebler light, like that of a taper, was lost amid the splendour of the solar rays. The same process, however, is going on during the day-time, in these creatures, though unobserved, that we behold in the dark.

One of these medusas may be compared to a glass lantern, freely permitting the light produced within it to diffuse itself to the surrounding spaces, while an external observer can thereby discern what is going on in the inside. I am so entirely satisfied of the connection between this *evolution of light* and the *circulation of arterious blood*, that I want no clearer evidence to that point. It is probable that in an animal which is entirely destitute of lungs as well as of heart, the pulmonary function may be performed by the vital vessels themselves. In these creatures I believe this to be the fact.

The light, then, which these marine animals exhibit, may be concluded to be produced by a function in them analogous to the respiration of animals which are of larger size and more complicated structure. The only reason why it is visible from their bodies is, that the gelatinous matter of which they consist is transparent. It is not improbable the same phenomena would be as obvious in the bodies of other creatures, and of even human beings, if the opacity of the materials of which we consist did not hinder the light within us from shining so as to be seen.

The remarks hitherto made chiefly refer to the larger species of light-emitting creatures. The same apply, as far as I can judge, to all the smaller species. A vessel of the water, con-



taining no *visible* animalcula, was carried, the same evening, to my chamber. When agitated from without it sparkled; and, if stirred by the finger within, the number of shining spots increased. When left to rest, lucid points were frequently to be seen arranging themselves at the surface of the water, where it touched the inside of the glass. Some of this water, that was poured upon the table, appeared full of shining points, like sparks of fire. There was not a doubt in my mind, that these phenomena, like the others, were animalcular; yet, on viewing the water in the morning, it was as transparent as sea-water usually is, and not a single creature was to be discerned in it. The presumption, therefore, is, that this form of marine light is also owing to animalcules, though too small to be discerned by the eye unassisted by optical glasses. I am somewhat doubtful whether the transparency of these minute light-emitting creatures would allow them to be distinguished if I had had a microscope with me.

Reasoning in this manner, I became persuaded that the luminous appearance of ocean-water in other cases, wherein no flash or sparkle was distinctly to be seen, or traced to an individual point, but an indistinct glow alone appeared, as around the blades of oars, or near the bows and rudders of vessels in motion, that the phenomenon was, in like manner, referable to animalcular action. And I terminated my speculation by concluding, that the light emitted from millions of these viewless aquatic animals concurred to produce the general luminous appearance of the ocean in which they float, by the same rule that innumerable clusters of fixed stars, as modern astronomers teach us, produce the luminous spots or milky hue of those portions of the heavens where Omnipotence has placed them.

I have said nothing about the manner in which the light is evolved in these animals. If it is by the decomposition of oxygenous air that light is so freely emitted, what becomes of the caloric? for their bodies are not sensibly heated, nor warmer than the fluid in which they swim. Still it is not to be denied, that in the decomposition of that *triple* fluid there may be an evolution of *caloric* sufficient for the economy of creatures so small, and of a structure so nice and exquisite as these, and yet not be measurable by our thermometers; and that *oxygen* may mingle with their fluids in due quantity. And it may be easily conceived, that during the process *light* may be evolved, sufficient, in rapidity and quantity within

them, to occasion, by transmission through their pellucid forms, the phenomena of these and all other luminous oceanic meteors.

The animalcular origin of this phenomenon is corroborated by this additional consideration. At the time when the salt-water is remarkably luminous in some places, there is very little of it to be seen in others, though but a few rods distant. At such times, I found that by taking up parcels of the water, and viewing it, there were abundance of lucid points in those which were most luminous, and but few in those which were feebly so. The light proceeding from these invisible *INTESTINAS*, when nearly and narrowly examined, radiates from numberless shining particles or centres; and, when viewed from a distance too remote to permit these lucid centres to be seen, the effect produced on the organ of vision is a general and weaker impression, as if every drop of water was luminous, by reason of something chemically dissolved in it.

The same creatures are not capable of emitting light for a long continuance of time. If shaken, touched or agitated, their luminous faculty soon becomes exhausted, and the water in which they float immediately returns to its ordinary colour. This is so much the case, that if a very luminous portion of water (I do not mean a current) be much moved by the limbs of several persons swimming or wading in it, its luminous quality will, in a few minutes, be sensibly diminished. Therefore, when a boat is rowed along, or a ship is moved by the wind, or when a stream rushes over rocks, or against any kind of obstacle, the light emitted in such instances is produced by a succession of animals, each of which, on being stimulated, evolves, in its turn, a certain proportion and duration of light, and in this manner gives continuance or permanency to the phenomenon.

In October, 1772, Mr. Forster observed the Southern Ocean, beyond the Cape of Good-Hope, illuminated in a similar manner (*Voyage round the World by Cook and Forster*, vol. iii. p. 45). The curious inquirer will be struck with the correspondence of the phenomena off Table-Bay, and those in Long-Island Sound. The circumnavigator ascribed the luminous appearance of the sea-water, in 34 deg. south latitude, to animals of the same genus which caused it in 40 deg. 40 min. north. He saw the ocean luminous in 58 deg. south, during March, 1773, while the weather was tempestuous, and so cold that the quicksilver in the thermometer was as

low as  $33\frac{1}{4}$  deg. at noon. Thus it appears these creatures can live in water of any temperature above the freezing point. (Ibid. p. 97).

An opinion has been entertained, that, during the *shining of the sun*, its rays are absorbed by the ocean, and that the extrication of them again makes its water luminous. It has been conjectured, too, that the water of the ocean becomes occasionally so *highly electrical*, that the brightness it manifests is but the evidence of a high charge of electricity. There has been published, too, an idea that the *phosphoric matter* extricated from putrefying fish in the ocean, was the cause of this marine resplendence. And others have even been inclined to think the light proceeded from some attrition of *saline particles against each other*, or some unknown combinations formed among them. The true cause of the phenomenon, I am inclined to conclude, is neither of these, but universally, as far as my knowledge of the subject extends, is a function of animals. These are often conspicuous in tempests, when

High o'er the poop th' audacious seas aspire,  
Uproll'd in hills of fluctuating fire.

FALCONER.

And though the timid may be impressed with additional alarm at this appearance,

Not so the man of philosophic eye  
And inspect sage; the waving brightness he  
Curious surveys, inquisitive to know  
The causes and materials, yet unfix'd,  
Of this appearance beautiful——

THOMSON.

It is remarkable how far these creatures, on some occasions, are carried up our rivers. During the drought of the year 1796, when sea-crabs were plentifully caught in the Hudson as high as Poughkeepsie (eighty miles from New-York), the water of the river was luminous in the neighbourhood of Pollepell's Island, as I sailed through the Highlands one dark night.

I forbear to trace the analogies between these *aquatic* animals and the numerous *aërial* species which emit light. Leaving these to your sagacity and penetration, I have only to conclude by renewing the assurances of my respect.

SAMUEL L. MITCHILL.

*Cedar-Grove, Oct. 1, 1800.*



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## REVIEW.

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ART. 1. *Six Chemical Essays*, by Joseph Priestley, LL. D. &c. Read at several Meetings of the American Philosophical Society. 4to. pp. 50.

THE sheets on which these Essays are printed form the beginning of the fifth volume of the Transactions of the Philosophical Society of Philadelphia. But as we possess them detached from the rest of the volume, which is not yet published, we lose no time in giving our readers an account of them.

That the value of the experiments related may be duly appreciated, it is proper to mention that the most important of them were made with a burning lens of sixteen inches diameter, "generously furnished," says the author, "by Mr. Parker, who has so much distinguished himself by his improvements in the art of grinding glass." To the liberality of this gentleman, in supplying him with various vessels made of glass, Dr. Priestley declares the public is indebted for a great proportion of his other experiments on air.

We shall proceed to examine these pieces in the order in which they stand.

1. *Experiments on the Transmission of Acids and other Liquors, in the Form of Vapour, over several Substances in a hot Earthen Tube.*

The results of sending the vapour of spirit of nitre over iron-turnings, copper, perfect charcoal, charcoal of bones, melted lead, tin and bismuth, are concisely stated. The effects of the vapour of marine acid and copper upon each other, and what happened to it when passed through an earthen tube glazed on the outside only, and when acting upon perfect charcoal—are also told. These recitals will be instructive to those who are engaged in similar pursuits, or who, in the course of experiments, employ the substances which Dr. P. made use of. He relates a remarkable fact concerning *caustic fixed alkali*. When he sent this in vapour, through an earthen tube containing iron, the first portion that came over was slightly acid, but not afterwards. The same result was obtained in three processes. What sort of acid this was we are not informed.

The remainder of this paper is of a miscellaneous cast, and has no strict connection with its title: for he next recites certain experiments with *perfect charcoal* and *charcoal of copper* in nitrous acid by solution; with some account of the dissolution of *phosphorus* and *dry-boiled beef* in the same. He is of opinion that nitrous air contains oxygen, from the burning of pyrophorus and charcoal of wood in it. Though he seems again inclined to think, if oxygen was really one of its ingredients, it ought not to retain its aerial form. We believe the generally-received idea is correct, that it is an oxygenated basis, whether it exists in a liquid or a gaseous form. If "the juice of turnsole does not change its colour by saturation with nitrous air," all that we infer is, that *such* nitrous air is an oxyd, and not an acid; but give it oxygen enough, and it will redden litmus instantly. The experimenter, who works much in his laboratory, will find it useful to examine these particulars.

After these follow eleven articles of detached chemical intelligence. Every one of them has its value in its present insulated state, and will acquire additional worth when its connection with other facts is better understood. We are glad to see morsels of science thus preserved. It was directed by a great authority, "to gather up the fragments that remained, that nothing be lost."—The experiment with Papin's digester shows, "that a solution of caustic alkali, aided by heat, in that instrument, made a *liquor silicum* with pounded flint glass." The solution of silix in the boiling fountain of Geyser is *now* no mystery.—We relate the following facts at large, as they are not only curious in themselves, but may explain another cause of *spontaneous* combustion besides those commonly known. "Pyrophorus is generally made with the charcoal of vegetable or animal substances mixed with alum, or any thing that contains the acid of vitriol, and the heat by which it takes fire is occasioned by the eager attraction of this acid for water. I accidentally found that a pyrophorus may be made of *sulphur and iron*. Having kept a cupfull of this mixture, made up with water, in a quantity of common air, about two months, I then took it out, and left it in the cup. The next day, perceiving the cup to be warm, I emptied it upon a board, when it grew hot, smoked very much, gave out a strong smell of vitriolic acid air, and, at length, became red-hot. Putting a part of it into another cup, confined by common air, the air was rapidly diminished."

2. *Experiments relating to the Change of Place in different Kinds of Air, through ſeveral interpoſing Subſtances.*

In this paper Dr. P. relates ſome extraordinary facts relative to the *ſeeming* permeability of the materials of chemical apparatus by ærial fluids. That opaque veſſels of metal and earth were penetrable by heat, and that transparent ones of glaſs would admit both light and heat, every operator has long known. It has not ſo generally been underſtood that an earthen veſſel of inflammable air, inverted in a large jar of oxygenous air, will, on being heated by a lens, part with its contents, and, in lieu thereof, be filled with oxygenous air. Nor has the converſe of this been commonly known, that a ſimilar veſſel of oxygenous gas, inverted in a larger jar of inflammable air, will, after being expoſed to the heat of a lens for half an hour, exchange its original charge for an equal quantity of the ſurrounding inflammable air, with which it will be found wholly filled. Yet Dr. P. affirms that ſuch are the reſults of his experiments. He found the mixture of airs in the external or *glaſs* jar was a chemical one; while that in the internal or *earthen* one had undergone no change, but was of the very ſame quality with that in the glaſs jar. Of the reaſon of this difference he can form no probable conjecture.—He formed ſomewhat of a like tranſmiſſion of the two airs both ways, when heat was applied through a *common* and a *tanned* bladder, though without chemical union. The like change of place he has found to happen in various other circumſtances, and unexpected products to be obtained when nitrous air and marine acid air were employed. The diverſified trials which he made have led this *man of long practice in experiments* to conſider them among the moſt extraordinary that have occurred to him in Phyſics, and ſuch as experimenters ought to be acquainted with, in order to prevent miſtakes of conſiderable conſequence. Through ignorance of theſe facts, it is probable that hundreds of miſtakes have been made already, and that the philoſophical world is at this moment miſled by their deceptions.

3. *Experiments relating to the Abſorption of Air by Water.*

The matter contained in this paper is likely to ſhake our faith in the correſtneſs of eudiometrical experiments with *nitrous air over water*. The unſuitneſs of the eudiometer to indicate the purity of atmospheſical air has been mentioned in our vol. iii. p. 212. The reaſons there given were two

1. The variableness of the strength of the nitrous gas; and,  
 2. Its attraction for water. Dr. P. has found that the whole materials of an eudiometrical mixture will combine with water; and, indeed, "if sufficient time be allowed, all kinds of air, without distinction, will be wholly absorbed by the water with which they are confined." A mixture of *nitrous* and *common air* was completely absorbed by water in about eleven months. Another mixture of equal quantities of the like ingredients was made on October 5th, and was quite absorbed on the 24th of next July. And a third, made on December 11th, had disappeared on July 1st. A mixture of equal quantities of *common* and *inflammable airs*, fired together, was totally absorbed between December 13th and July 19th. And that the *water* imbibed the gases appeared indubitable from contrasting the experiment with quicksilver; for when nitrous and common air, in mixture, were confined over that metal from October to April, there was no change discernible.

Independent of nitrous air, the whole of every kind of air confined with water, will, sooner or later, be incorporated with it. But when atmospheric air is the subject of this experiment, the oxygenous part is always attracted first, and after that is imbibed, the remaining air, to the amount of about three-fourths, was quite phlogisticated. But this was afterwards gradually blended with the water too. He found dilatation by an air-pump to prevent absorption, and compression by a condensing machine rather to promote it. This piece also contains some curious facts on the change of the qualities of different kinds of air by *agitation in water*. Of these, the destruction of the inflammability of hydrogenous air is one of the most memorable.

#### 4. *Miscellaneous Experiments relating to the Doctrine of Phlogiston.*

This piece is a recital of experiments tending to the same point with those which have appeared in the former numbers of our work. It contains experiments on plumbago, on the revival of quicksilver in inflammable air from the precipitate *per se*, on pyrophorus, on the calcination of metals in common air over lime-water, on finery-cinder, on aerated *terra ponderosa*, and some other substances. As this is a part of the great phlogistic controversy, the whole essay ought to be carefully perused in connection with the other documents on



the ſubject. The concluding paragraph, however, is ſo remarkable that we ſhall infer it entire.

“ I have obſerved, that when a mixture of dephlogiſticated and inflammable air is exploded, *acid* is produced if there be any exceſs of the dephlogiſticated air, but *only water with phlogiſticated air*, if there be any exceſs of the inflammable air. Theſe proportions I endeavoured to aſcertain, and I found that acid is formed when 100 meaſures of inflammable air are united to 54 meaſures of dephlogiſticated air; but that only water was produced when 100 meaſures of inflammable air were united to 47 meaſures of dephlogiſticated air.”

5. *Experiments on the Production of Air by the freezing of Water.*

This is the article which was published in our preſent volume, page 17. It is republished here, with the following words of addition at the end of the concluding paragraph: “ Alſo, if any ſpecies of air be entitled to the appellation of *hydrogen*, it is phlogiſton, and not inflammable air.” That is, we ſuppoſe, the *baſis* of inflammable air, and not the gas itſelf, is *hydrogen*, *i. e.* the *phlogiſtic radical* of water.

6. *Experiments on Air expoſed to Heat in Metallic Tubes.*

Dr. P. finds that in *metallic* as well as *earthen* tubes a mixture of dephlogiſticated and inflammable air will not explode even in a red heat, though this always takes place in tubes of *glafs*, where there is no metallic ingredient. This he verified in tubes of *iron*, *copper*, *ſilver* and *gold*, and of *flint-glafs*, which contains a portion of *lead*.

He thinks, in ſome caſes, *airs* are tranſmitted through the *ſubſtance of metallic tubes*, in a manner analogous to their paſſage through *bladders* and *earthen tubes*. Theſe are, indeed, exceedingly curious matters, and eminently deſerving the attention of all who purſue chemical inquiries. They diſcloſe the ſources of ſo much fallacy in artificial philoſophy, that of a large proportion of ſuch experiments, though made by able hands, and with the beſt apparatus, we ſcarcely know what to believe or what to diſbelieve. Nor is this ſcepticiſm unfriendly to truth and reaſon: for latterly we have obſerved that the exceſſive deſire—the rage we may call it—of making experiments in rooms and work-ſhops, has conſiderably diminiſhed the number of the true obſervers of nature. While engaged in minute operations with the imperfect inſtruments of human contrivance, within narrow and ſecluded apart-

ments, the genius of our time too often suffers the great works carried on by the perfect machinery of the Deity, through the wide range of creation, to pass unnoticed or neglected. His laboratory is his world, and not unfrequently he knows little or nothing of what is going on out of doors! NATURE IS THE GREAT EXPERIMENTER; and what we most want are OBSERVERS AND INTERPRETERS OF HER PROCESSES. But man is vain and impatient, and will be busy, though in vain. Dr. P.'s communications will have a strong tendency to make his readers modest and diffident, and to turn their minds to becoming objects.

Towards the close of this paper are some experiments relating to phlogisticated air. The base of this, like all other kinds of air, he believes to be water; and, beside it, to consist of nothing but some modification of phlogiston. He thinks, however, there is a peculiar difficulty in ascertaining its constitution, as some of his experiments seem to show that it contains the principle of acidity, and others that it is entirely free from it: nor do we find the difficulty removed by the experiments related.

ART. II. *A Review of the Improvements, Progress, and State of Medicine in the 18th Century. Read on the first Day of the 19th Century, before the Medical Society of South-Carolina, in pursuance of their Vote, and published at their Request. By David Ramsay, M. D. 8vo. pp. 47. Charleston. Young.*

AMERICA already ranks the author of the "Review" before us among her best historians. The opportunities afforded him, while he was a member of Congress, to acquire a correct knowledge of public affairs, and to inspect original documents in their proper offices, were industriously improved. And the publication of the "History of the American Revolution," and of the "History of the Revolution of South-Carolina," was not only reputable to the literary character of the author's native State and country, but was replete with information concerning the causes, the progress and termination, of that struggle which severed the Atlantic Colonies from the British Empire.

The compositions from Dr. Ramsay's pen, which have been inserted in our work, show him to no less advantage in his professional capacity. Such of our readers as have perused

the address to the Medical Society, inserted in page 98 of the present volume; and the account of the yellow fever at Charleston, in page 217, will already have formed a favourable opinion of the good sense and discernment of the author. In the piece now before us he rises in our estimation, while he takes a wider range of observation, and surveys the progress of medicine, from one improvement to another, during the last hundred years.

We do not mean to say that it contains a complete and circumstantial account of every thing done, during the century which has just elapsed, to advance the interests of physic in all parts of the world; but there is so much information contained in it, on the different branches of the profession, and stated in so orderly and concise a manner, that the perusal has afforded more than a common share of pleasure. There is a polite and gentlemanly air which pervades the whole performance; and whether Dr. R. makes mention of the dead, or offers any sentiments concerning his contemporaries now alive, liberality and candour distinguish his expressions. Not a word of invidious discontent, nor of jealous rivalry, nor of angry disputation, is to be found in this chaste and manly pamphlet.

After some preliminary remarks on the state of logic, of literature and science, at the close of the seventeenth century, the author turns his attention more particularly to medicine. The improvements in *anatomy* first engage his notice. The anatomizing of human bodies, the injection of their vessels with various coloured fluids, and with wax; the corrosion of them by acids; the improvements in delineation and engraving; and the making of models in imitation of natural forms, are successively mentioned. Then follow the discoveries in *surgery*; of which the modern mode of operating for the stone, hydrocele, aneurism, fistula lacrymalis, bubonocoele and cataract, and a number of other advantages of surgery as practised at this time, are enumerated. He next treats of the *obstetric art*, and delivers a sketch of its history from the printing of Thomas Reynold's book, entitled "The Byrthe of Mankind," in 1540, down to the recent publications of Hamilton and Denman. The *theory and practice of physic* are then considered. After which follow BRAIDWOOD's and SICARD's *plans of instructing the deaf, and teaching them to speak and write*; the discoveries made by means of morbid anatomy; experiments with poisons, and other substances, on living animals; and the establishment of humane societies

for the recovery of persons drowned, and otherwise apparently dead.

Dr. R. afterwards calls the attention of his hearers to the *cool regimen in fevers and small-pox*; to the establishment of learned societies; to the erection and endowment of hospitals and infirmaries; and to the improvement and simplification of the *materia medica*. The cultivation of botany, and the late and great discoveries in chemistry, are the next subjects of the intelligent author's observations. The triumphs of physic over the small-pox by inoculation, and over scurvy by vegetable diet and oxygen, are spoken of in terms at once exulting and philanthropic.

After some observations on the abatement of plague, pestilential fevers, putrid scurvies and dysenteries, from the improvements made in diet, cleanliness and living, during the eighteenth century, Dr. Ramsay enters a little into the *medical* history of America. From this (p. 35) we make an extract in the author's own words, that our readers may form some judgment of the subject, and his manner of treating it.

“The Rev. Dr. Cotton Mather recommended, and Dr. Boylston (one of the ancestors of President Adams) practised inoculation in Boston, as early as the year 1720. Dr. Mather received his first impression in favour of this practice from a volume of the *Transactions of the Royal Society of London*, which gave an account of inoculation at Constantinople. This he showed to Dr. Douglass, who treated the proposal with ridicule. He was more successful in his application to Dr. Boylston, who began to inoculate at the risk not only of his practice, but even of his life. The friends and enemies of the practice filled the newspapers of the day with arguments for and against it. The whole of the influence which the learning and piety of the New-England clergy have always given them, was exerted; and the whole of it was necessary to induce their hearers to consent to inoculation. The practice, by degrees, extended through New-England, to New-York and Philadelphia, and, finally, to Charleston, where it was partially adopted in 1738, and afterwards became general in 1760.

“The earliest publication in America, on a medical subject, which has come in my way, was a treatise on the iliac passion, by the late Dr. Cadwallader, of Philadelphia, printed about sixty years ago. In this the enlightened author very ably explodes the then common practice of giving quicksilver and drastic purges, and recommends in their place mild ca-

thartics, with the occasional use of opiates. About the same time, Dr. Tennant, of Virginia, wrote a treatise on the pleurisy, in which he brought into public view the virtues of seneka snake-root, which were before unknown. Dr. Colden, of New-York, and Dr. Ogden, of Long-Island, at this early period, favoured the public with their observations on a species of fore-throat which was then prevalent and mortal. I have not been so happy as to meet with either of these performances, but have heard a favourable account of each of them. There are, doubtless, several other early writers in America, but they have not come to my knowledge.

“ At the commencement of our revolutionary war, Dr. John Jones, of New-York, one of the most eminent physicians and surgeons that ever graced this country, published a work, entitled ‘ Plain Remarks on Wounds and Fractures,’ addressed to the students and young practitioners in America. This was particularly designed for the benefit of the surgeons in the army and navy of the United States, and will long remain a monument both of the professional skill and patriotism of its worthy author.

“ The yellow fever, which, for eight years past, has infested our sea-port towns, has given birth to much medical discussion; but as the writers on this subject are still living, any observations on them, at present, would be premature.

“ Fain would I point out to your recollection the many valuable and important writings of Dr. Rush, who has rescued America from the reproach of producing no original writers in medicine; but he lives, and long may he live the pride and boast of his country; and delay, to a far distant day, that celebration of his fame which is only decent after the death of its subject. For the same reason, I must, in silence, pass over the literary productions of Dr. Mitchill, of New-York. If we may judge of the full harvest by the first fruits that have already appeared in his early youth, we may confidently indulge the hope, that, in the progress of his valuable life, he will largely contribute to the growing fame of his country.

“ The first medical lectures in America were given, in or about the year 1763, by Dr. Shippen, the present Professor of Anatomy and Surgery in the University of Pennsylvania; who had been prepared for the able discharge of this duty by the celebrated Dr. William Hunter, of London. The trustees of the college of Philadelphia, with the venerable Franklin at their head, soon after enriched their institution with the lectures of the enlightened Morgan, and of the judicious Kuhn,

who had been a pupil of Linnæus. One was still wanting to complete a system of medical education. The trustees turned their eyes to young Rush, who had then scarcely completed his apprenticeship; and they encouraged him to prosecute his studies in Europe, with the promise of a Professor's chair on his return. With how much judgment and advantage this was done, the noble ardour for medical improvements which he possesses, and with which he has the happy art of inspiring his numerous pupils, affords the most ample testimony. Whilst these young Professors were engaged in teaching anatomy, surgery, materia medica and chemistry, the venerable Bond, then an old practitioner, was appointed to illustrate the practice of physic, by chemical lectures on the cases of patients in the Pennsylvania Hospital. Some of these original Professors have been succeeded by younger men, who are not inferior to their predecessors; and promise to continue, in the nineteenth century, that generous ambition for medical distinction which had begun among Americans in the eighteenth. In such high estimation are they held, that their lectures are attended, every season, by more than an hundred medical students.

“ Much praise is due to the trustees of the college of Philadelphia, who, at this early day, established the first medical institution in America, and began to confer degrees, while their country was a colony of Great-Britain. With pleasure I add, that since we have been free and independent States, other medical establishments have been made in New-York, Cambridge University in Massachusetts, and Dartmouth College in New-Hampshire: in each of which are Professors of merit and talents.

“ It reflects no small honour on our young country, which only began to be settled by civilized people in the seventeenth century, that, at the close of the eighteenth, there are in it so many medical schools; and, in particular, that in the three adjoining States of New-York, New-Jersey and Pennsylvania, within the distance of 120 miles, there are three Professors of Chemistry—Mitchill, Maclean and Woodhouse; who, for an accurate knowledge of their department, can bear a comparison with the Professors of the same in the oldest seminaries of Europe. The greatest chemist of the world has also fixed his residence among us, and, in the woods of Northumberland, continues those philosophical experiments which have done so much honour to the eighteenth century.

“ Our country is now favoured with a periodical publica-

tion, under the title of the 'Medical Repository,' which, in addition to many valuable original essays, chiefly from the ingenious editors, Drs. Mitchill and Miller, brings to the view of the American student all that is new, ingenious or useful in foreign publications, on the subject of medicine, or the arts connected therewith.

"In the medical history of South-Carolina, the yellow fever and small-pox have been the most injurious epidemics. My information relative to these two diseases, prior to the year 1763, has been chiefly furnished by Dr. Prioleau, as collected from the manuscripts of his accurate and observing grand-father, the venerable Samuel Prioleau, Esq. who died in the year 1792, at the age of seventy-four. From these it appears, that in the year 1699 a disease prevailed in Charleston, which swept off a great part of the inhabitants, and some whole families. This was then called the plague, though afterwards supposed to have been the yellow fever.

"In the year 1732, the yellow fever began to rage in May, and continued till September or October. In the height of the disorder there were from eight to twelve whites buried in a day, besides people of colour. The ringing of the bells was forbidden, and little or no business was done. In the year 1739 the yellow fever raged nearly as violently as in the year 1732: it was observed to fall most severely on Europeans. In 1745 and 1749 it returned, but with less violence: however, many young people, mostly Europeans, died of it. It appeared again, in a few cases, in 1753 and 1755, but did not spread. In all these visitations it was generally supposed that the yellow fever was imported; and it was remarked that it never spread in the country, though often carried there by infected persons, who died out of Charleston, after having caught the disease in it.

"For forty-two years, after 1749, there was no epidemic attack of this disease, though there were occasionally, in different summers, a few sporadic cases of it. In the year 1792 a new æra of the yellow fever commenced. It raged in this city in that year, and also in 1794, 1795, 1796, 1797, 1799, and 1800. In those last seven visitations of this disease, it extended from July to November, but was most rife in August and September. With a very few exceptions (chiefly children), it exclusively fell on strangers to the air of Charleston, and was in no instance contagious. In the years 1796 and 1797 it raged with its greatest violence. In the two last years it has considerably abated. In the year 1799, the whole

number of deaths from it was 239; and in 1800, no more than 134: but this decreased mortality was partly owing to the decreased number of strangers; for such were cautious of visiting Charleston in the warm months. In Philadelphia it began with great violence in the year 1793; and from that time to the present it has been more or less epidemic almost every year, in nearly all the sea-ports of the United States.

“The years 1699 and 1717 are the dates of the two first attacks of the small-pox in Charleston. In both it proved fatal to a considerable proportion of the inhabitants. It returned in 1732, but effectual care was taken to prevent its spreading. In the year 1738 it was imported in a Guinea ship, and spread so extensively that there was not a sufficiency of well persons to attend the sick, and many perished from neglect and want. There was scarcely a house in which there had not been one or more deaths. Dr. Mowbray, surgeon of a British man of war then in the harbour, proposed inoculation; but the physicians opposed it. Col. Beale, who was informed of the success of inoculation in Boston, had his family inoculated. Mr. Philip Prioleau was the first person in Charleston who submitted to the operation. The success which attended this first experiment encouraged several others to follow the example. The disease soon after abated.

“About the beginning of the year 1760, the small-pox was discovered in the house of a pilot on White Point. Guards were placed round the house, and every precaution taken to prevent the spreading of the disease, but in vain. When the persons first infected at White Point were either dead or well, the house in which they had lain was ordered to be cleansed. In doing this a great smoke was made, which being carried by an easterly wind, propagated the disease extensively to the westward, in the line of the smoke. Inoculation was resolved upon, and became general. Fifteen hundred persons are said to have been inoculated in one day; but it is also said that five hundred of these died. This mortality, though great, was comparatively less than what had taken place in the year 1738.

“In the year 1763 the small-pox again became epidemic; but as there were few to have it, and inoculation was generally adopted, its ravages were not extensive. For seventeen years after the year 1763, the small-pox was seldom or never heard of. During the siege of Charleston it was introduced, and immediately after the surrender of the town, on the 12th of May, 1780, a general inoculation took place. As the



cool regimen was then universally adopted, the disease passed over without any considerable loss or inconvenience. Since that time no pains have been taken to exclude the small-pox. To inoculate for it is a thing of course, and the disease has ceased to be formidable.

“ For eighty or ninety years after the first settlement of South-Carolina, the practice of physic was almost entirely in the hands of Europeans: among these were several able physicians, who possessed an accurate knowledge of the diseases of our country. In this class Dr. Moultrie, the elder, was eminently distinguished. He died twenty-eight years ago, after having been at the head of his profession for more than forty years. He was the idol of his patients. They who had him once, could not be satisfied, in case of need, without having him again. So great was the confidence reposed in his judgment, that they who were usually attended by him, preferred his advice and assistance, even on the festive evening of St. Andrew's day, to that of any other professional man in his most collected moments. He possessed excellent talents for observation, and was wonderfully sagacious in finding out the hidden causes of diseases, and adapting remedies for their removal. His death was regretted as a great public calamity. Several of the ladies of Charleston bedewed his grave with their tears, and went into mourning on the occasion. The year after his decease was distinguished by the deaths of several women in child-birth. While he lived, they thought themselves secure of the best assistance in the power of man, or of art, in case of extremity. In losing him, they lost their hopes. Depressing fears sunk their spirits, and, in an unusual number of cases, produced fatal consequences.

“ In that early period of American medical history, which was before Dr. Rush began his brilliant career as an author, there were more experiments made, more observations recorded, and more medical writings ushered into public view, by the physicians of Charleston, than of any other part of the American continent. Dr. John Lining, of this city, favoured the public with a series of judicious statical experiments, perseveringly conducted through the whole of the year 1740. He was one of the first experimenters in the novel subject of electricity, with which he became acquainted, in corresponding with Dr. Franklin, soon after the discoveries of that celebrated man had astonished the philosophers of both the old and new hemisphere. Dr. Lining, also, in the year 1753, published an accurate history of the American yellow

fever, which was the first that had been given to the public from our continent.

“Dr. Lionel Chalmers made and recorded observations on the weather for ten successive years, that is, from 1750 to 1760. The same able physician furnished a particular account of the opisthotonus and tetanus, which was communicated to the Medical Society in London, in the year 1754, and afterwards published in the first volume of their Transactions. He also prepared for the press an account of the weather and diseases of South-Carolina, which was published in London, in the year 1776; but his most valuable work was an essay on fevers, printed in Charleston, in the year 1767. In this he unfolded the outlines of the modern spasmodic theory of fevers. Hoffman had before glanced at the same principles; but their complete illustration was reserved for Cullen, and laid the foundation of his fame.

“Dr. Garden, about the year 1764, gave to the public an account of the virtues of pink-root, and, at the same time, gave a botanical description of the plant. This truly scientific physician was much devoted to the study of natural history, and particularly of botany, and made sundry communications on those subjects to his philosophical friends in Europe.

“In compliment to him, the greatest botanist of the age gave the name of *Gardenia* to one of the most beautiful flowering shrubs in the world.

“William Bull was the first native of South-Carolina who obtained a degree in medicine. He had been a pupil of Boerhaave; and, in the year 1734, defended a thesis ‘*De Colica Pictonum*,’ before the University of Leyden. He is quoted by Van Swieten, as his fellow student, with the title of the learned Dr. Bull.

“John Moultrie was the first Carolinian who obtained a medical degree from the University of Edinburgh, where, in the year 1749, he defended a thesis ‘*De Febre Flava*.’ Between the years 1768 and 1778, ten more natives obtained the same honour. Three of these, viz. Drs. Fayffoux, Harris and Chanler, have been presidents of our society.

“Since the revolutionary war, the number of native students has very much increased. Among them are several young men of great hopes. If we may judge of their professional skill by the specimens they have already given, we may augur well to our country. It is no inconsiderable evidence of the increasing prosperity of South-Carolina, and of

the progress of medical knowledge therein, that at the close of the eighteenth century, in the space of four years, fifteen of its native sons, viz. Johnson, Alston, Huger, North, Prioleau, Brailsford, Bellinger, Akin, Baron, Gough, Glover, Hunscombe, Screven, Smith and Tidyman, have been admitted to the degree of Doctors of Medicine, which is treble the number of all the Carolinians who had attained that honour, thirty-two years ago, at the expiration of one hundred years from the first settlement of the province, in 1669. In that long period of our infancy, the whole number of native graduates was only five, viz. Bull, Moultrie, Chanler, Caw, and Fayffoux."

Dr. Ramsay mentions, with great respect, LINING, CHALMERS, MOULTRIE, GARDEN and WALTER, South-Carolinians, who have eminently contributed to the enlargement of our knowledge of medicine and natural history. We barely observe, but without complaining, that we have looked in vain for the name of CATESBY. The author exhorts the members to lose no opportunity of improving their profession; advises an accurate analysis of rice, the staple commodity of the State; the investigation of the qualities of indigenous vegetables; and the erection of a dispensary for the relief of the poor.

He concludes by exhorting the physicians of Charleston to accept seats in the City Council, that they may assist in amending the Police, particularly as respects the prevention of pestilential distempers. It is a remarkable fact, that very few instances exist, in any of the American sea-ports, where physicians are members of municipal bodies. By generally withdrawing themselves from juries, from most town and ward offices, and from the militia, medical gentlemen are looked upon as exempts from the active services of society, and exclusively devoted to the pursuit of their profession. This appears, in many instances, to be carried too far; for thereby the public, in a considerable degree, loses the benefit of their extra-professional counsel, and their profession itself is deprived of much of the influence it ought to possess in the community. Believing, as we do, civic duties and relations are as binding upon physicians as upon other classes of citizens, we think they should exert themselves to perform, at least, their proportional part of the public labour; and, in doing so, be enabled to participate an equal share of public usefulness and honour.

ART. III. *An Address to the Philadelphia Medical Society, on the Analogies between Yellow Fever and True Plague. Delivered, by Appointment, on the 20th February, 1801. By Charles Caldwell, M. D. 8vo. pp. 44. Philadelphia. T. and W. Bradford. 1801.*

WHEN colonists from Europe first established themselves on the eastern shores of North-America, it was natural, and, in many instances, indeed, during some time, necessary for them to derive their supplies, both of food and of knowledge, from the country whence they emigrated. The provisions which they brought with them might soon be consumed, and additional quantities imported from their former homes. But, in due season, the plants and animals brought with them, by thriftiness and increase in their new situations, furnished an adequate store of nourishment; and, in addition to these, the indigenous productions of the soil itself on which the adventurers had fixed their abode, likewise contributed something toward their subsistence. Soon, therefore, would they become independent of their parent land for the necessities of *bodily* support.

Far otherwise was it with regard to the *mind*. Having little leisure, from the pressure of immediate wants and exertions, to cultivate their understandings, they languished through neglect of culture, or sickened for lack of knowledge, *the true physic of the soul*. Or if, at length, information was sought after and obtained, it was generally through the medium of the publications, discourses and conversations fashionable in the mother country, and tinged, of course, with the prejudices and errors of every sort which were prevalent there. To this source can we trace language and its dialects, religion and its rites, government and its forms, manners and their tendencies, customs and their peculiarities, with much of the habits, taste and genius of the different tribes of our people. From the same origin came the literature and science which reigned in their infant schools and seminaries, where frequently the books that were read, and the instructors who presided, were imported from foreign dominions.

Great as this influence was, it had in no department of knowledge more sway than in the profession of *physic*. Many of the practisers of this art were natives of Europe. Of the descendants of the colonists, many were sent to Holland, or England, or Scotland, for education: of those who remained

at home, the greater part, either directly or indirectly, gleaned something from the books in vogue; and as they perused the writings of Pitcairn, Allen or Salmon, made up their minds accordingly.

But this state of dependence was not to continue for ever. The severing of the political connection between this country and Europe was a glorious event. Not only an escape from the tyranny of political and theological, but of literary and scientific domination, was effected. Taught to think and act for themselves on governmental, military and commercial subjects, the American people also began to assert independence in matters of a philosophical nature.

A pestilential sickness, one of the most serious calamities that ever fell upon civilized society, has stimulated physical inquiries, and exercised medical talents, to an extraordinary degree. Under the desolating influence of this distemper, the Americans grew vigilant, and suffered none of its accompaniments to escape their notice. They beheld its rise, progress and decline, year after year, under circumstances the most favourable to its investigation. Their feelings, their hopes and their interests, all prompted them to be correct in their observations, clear in their narratives, and fair in their reasonings. A candid spirit of inquiry, like Ariadne's thread, led them through the labyrinth, and enabled them, on their return, to make a true report of what they had witnessed, instead of having been, like their predecessors, bewildered and lost in its mazes.

They declared, as the result of their experience, that the yellow fever, which they had so often seen, was a plague, whose pestilential quality, however remotely dependent upon the general constitution of the atmosphere, as modified by climate and season, was particularly occasioned by poisonous exhalations from certain sorts of organized substances in a corrupting condition; that beef, and fish, and hides, and human fæces, putrefying in hot weather, had often afforded such a deleterious air, by which many persons had been diseased, and many killed; that this septic effluvium was most noxious near the place of its production, and could not be formed, even from materials which contained its elements, but by the joint operation of moderate degrees of heat and moisture. They also declared their conviction, that febrile distempers of all denominations, from quartan agues to Syrian plagues, were excited by the same general cause, variously modified in its

strength and virulence, and in respect to the food, way of life, habits, temperaments, dress, predisposition, and part of the constitution to which it was applied; that this cause being not the offspring of living vascular secretion, but of common putrefactive dissolution, and therefore not a contagion, would not produce a contagious disease; and that, of course, not one of the disorders arising from this general or common source of mischief was (in the proper sense of the word) contagious, or liable to spread from man to man in any other manner than as a putrid and sickening vapour might be engendered in the discharges of the body before, and in the body itself after death. And they further became satisfied, that if this plague of America was not contagious, the plague of Asia ought not to be contagious; that the yellow fever often arose from local causes on board merchant-ships and vessels of war, and was thence erroneously said to be brought from places beyond the seas; and, by parity of reasoning, the plague of the western Mediterranean ports was not introduced from the Archipelago and Levant, but engendered on ship-board, through improper regulations there, either during their voyages, or rather during a quarantine, or forty days detention at the place of their arrival; and, consequently, that this misconception had given rise to many unnecessary and burthensome restraints upon commerce, to the great reproach of legislation, and the disgrace of science.

Dr. Caldwell is one of those whose understanding has been long exercised in contemplating the appearance and disappearance of the pestilential distempers of Philadelphia. They have repeatedly arisen, taken their course, and died away before his eyes, under circumstances the most favourable for observation and remark. And the piece now under consideration is a respectable testimonial of the care he has taken to gather facts, and of the ability he possesses to reason upon them. He expresses his opinion, that under the term "pestilence" should be included all diseases which arise from a vitiated and malignant atmosphere. Plague and yellow fever arise from this cause, and constitute two of the leading modifications of pestilence. Being certainly promoted by putrid exhalations, officers of police ought to be much less solicitous to prevent their introduction from abroad, than to guard against their local and intestine engendering among ourselves. Disbelieving the contagiousness both of the one and the other of these distempers, he considers the importation of their spe-

cific poison from countries beyond the seas, and their propagation by means of it in our own, as a gross and vulgar mistake.

The publication having been made at the request of the Medical Society, Dr. C. has dedicated it to the members.—After a modest and handsome exordium, he states his subject, and passes some pointed strictures upon the author of the *Treatise on Plague and Yellow Fever*, which was reviewed in our vol. iii. p. 373 & seq. He afterward, in page 7, proceeds to enumerate the analogies thus:

“The plague of Asia, like the yellow fever or pestilence of our own country, is a disease which delights in the devastation of populous cities. Perhaps neither of these calamities has ever been known to originate, as an epidemic, in villages or country situations; nor do they oftentimes extend to such places, even in times of their most general prevalence. It is only in the artificial and vitiated atmospheres of large cities that they are able to find a sufficiency of their proper nourishment.

“True plague, when it has prevailed in the cities of Europe, has always made its appearance about the close of spring, or in the course of the summer—has reached its summit in the autumnal months, and declined, or wholly disappeared, on the commencement of cold weather. But such is known to be, in like manner, the course of the yellow fever or pestilence of America. To the generation and propagation of both these diseases, therefore, a warm atmosphere is no less necessary than the filth and crowded population of large cities. Even when committing their heaviest devastations, a few nights of cold weather, particularly if it be accompanied by frost, will check them as certainly, and almost as speedily, as it will the vegetation of tropical plants. I know of no instance on record of either of these diseases having prevailed, to any extent, throughout the winter of high latitudes.

“It is a circumstance alike common to plague and yellow fever, that they occur epidemically, in places subject to them, only at certain irregular periods, or after indefinite intervals of time. Fortunately, these destroyers of the human race do not appear as the regular endemics of any situation. Though summer and autumn are their native seasons, yet these seasons are not alone sufficient to produce them, unless they be aided by a pestilential constitution of atmosphere.

“Epidemic plague banishes from around it every other

form of febrile disease, and reigns itself the solitary tyrant of the place where it prevails. It would be superfluous to offer testimony in confirmation of this fact. Most authors on pestilence, who have written from observation, bear witness to its truth. But the same thing is true with regard to the epidemic state of yellow fever. Taking possession of the atmosphere, it expels or suffocates all other descriptions of fever, and creates for itself a dismal solitude. During the late autumns in which it prevailed in this place, it is known by our practitioners to have suffered no rival disease to approach it.

“ Plague and yellow fever are alike remarkable for being preceded, followed, or accompanied in adjacent places, either by new diseases, or by an increase in the frequency, but more particularly in the malignity of common diseases. Since the year eighty-nine [1789?], this country has been several times visited by epidemic catarrh, and in some places by an epidemic cynanche, diseases which had not before occurred to such extent, within the memory of our oldest citizens. Since the same period, the common diseases, in different parts of the United States, have undergone such a striking change, as to call for a different and much more energetic mode of treatment. That similar phenomena are connected with the prevalence of plague in Europe, and in the East, we learn from many works on the subject, particularly from that of Dr. Patrick Ruffel, and from Mr. Webster's excellent ‘History of Epidemic and Pestilential Diseases.’

“ It belongs in common to plague and yellow fever to be attended with most fatality on their first occurrence. It is a melancholy truth, that these diseases seldom fail to hurry to the grave a great proportion of their earlier subjects. As they become more general, but especially when they are on the decline, individual cases, laying aside their malignity, prove much more manageable, and may be generally conducted to a favourable issue. These circumstances are probably attributable to a threefold cause.

“ 1. Those first attacked by, would appear to be most strongly predisposed to, the above diseases, and therefore to be most likely to have them in a violent degree.

“ 2. In this early state of things, an ignorance of the dangerous nature of their complaints, prevents patients from being sufficiently prompt in applying for medical aid.

“ 3. On the first occurrence of an epidemic, physicians themselves, neither acquainted with its character nor aware of its



malignity, generally fail to treat the early cases of it with sufficient boldness.

“ Neither plague nor yellow fever can prevail at any time, nor in any place, which is not calculated to give rise to an abundance of putrid exhalation. Whatever is inimical to the origin of such exhalation, proves equally inimical to these complaints. But the production of this poisonous gas is particularly prevented by three causes, namely, cold, great humidity, and excessive heat, accompanied by an excessive aridity of the atmosphere.

“ The hostility of the first of these causes to the diseases in question, has been already mentioned; that of the two latter shall be treated of in a subsequent part of my address.

“ Thus far on the analogies derived more immediately from the origin of plague and yellow fever. In the phenomena connected with their propagation, they exhibit no less of a kindred nature.

“ Though they have both somewhat the appearance of spreading by contagion, their progress is certainly too rapid to depend on a cause of such limited powers. Allow me to call your attention to a palpable inconsistency (not to say an absolute contradiction) which exists in the state of common opinion on this subject.

“ Plague and yellow fever are acknowledged by every one to be much less contagious than small-pox, because they attack, with much less certainty, persons exposed for a short time to their influence. Nor are they supposed to be communicated to so great a distance as small-pox. Notwithstanding this, they spread with nearly tenfold its rapidity. In the course of a few weeks they will overrun an extent of city, which it would scarcely pervade in twice as many months. Here, then, admitting plague and yellow fever to spread by contagion at all, they would appear to be both more and less contagious than the small-pox. But this is a position which even the advocates of contagion will reject. Perhaps the only method of removing the contradiction is to admit, that the two former diseases are not propagated by contagion at all, but by the more powerful medium of a vitiated atmosphere. But more of this hereafter.

“ It is a fact notorious in the United States, that if a patient in the most malignant state of yellow fever be removed from the city to the country, he may there be visited and nursed, without endangering the health of his physicians or attendants. But we learn from Prosper Alpinus, Russell, Mariti, Sonnini,

and various other writers, that the same thing is true with regard to the pestilence of the East. When persons ill of that disease are conveyed from a place where it is epidemic, to one where it is not, they may be approached and attended without hazard.

“ True plague, therefore, exhibits no unequivocal marks of contagion, when removed without the limits of a malignant atmosphere. That calamity is believed to be, for the most part, introduced into Syria and Egypt from Constantinople. Yet, in common years, when no pestilential state of the elements prevails, persons in all stages of it arrive from the latter in different parts of the former places, without communicating infection to any one.

“ The physicians of America have not now to learn, that certain classes of persons are much more liable than others to be attacked by yellow fever. But this is in like manner true with respect to the oriental pestilence: and it is not a little remarkable, that these two diseases manifest a predilection for persons and habits of the same description.

“ Does yellow fever attack and destroy men rather than women? So does pestilence.

“ Does the former select, as its victims, the robust, the healthy, and the young, rather than the weak, the infirm, and the aged? Such is also the case with the destroyer of the East. Persons turned to their seventieth year have, comparatively speaking, but little to apprehend from that dreadful calamity.

“ Does yellow fever spare infants and children rather than adults? And does not a similar discrimination characterize the desolating course of pestilence?

“ Finally, do not both these diseases either entirely pass over, or but slightly affect, the frugal and the sober, while they attack more certainly, and more certainly destroy, the luxurious and the intemperate?”

Dr. C. then goes on to note the concomitant sickness, from the same cause, of dogs, cats, horses and kine, and even of birds and fishes. He enumerates some peculiarities in natural phenomena during pestilential ravages, such as irregularities in the weather, the disappearance of birds, the multiplication of insects, and the luxuriance and sickliness of plants. He next recites the *pathological* characters of the two diseases, and shows that they have a strong and marked resemblance. In their *decline* and *termination* there is as striking a similitude. Local considerations concerning Egypt and Syria are brought forward to illustrate and enforce the argument; wherein he

boldly assigns the reasons which have inclined him to consider the plague of the eastern world "as propagated not by contagion, but through the medium of a vitiated atmosphere."— In doing this he varies widely from the common doctrine of the schools. But in this case we consider a departure from ancient prejudice and authority highly necessary. And we applaud the intrepidity of spirit no less than the justness of conclusion manifested in this well-timed and well-managed address. We wish it may be extensively read; for, to the young and unlearned, it will exhibit an instructive parallel between two distempers heretofore thought very dissimilar; and to those of more mature years, whether they coincide in sentiment with the author or not, it will present an ample theme for reflection.

According to the plan proposed in the title-page, the orator should have concluded here, and we really wish he had made this his peroration. We should then have had no ground of difference with him on any point of moment. But, animated with his subject, he undertakes the discussion of another question, in which, we believe, he is less fortunate and successful. Not content to establish the general identity of cause and character between plague and yellow fever, he goes a step further, and attempts to prove the radical dissimilarity of *plague* and *jail* or *typhus fever*. It had been asserted by some, that pestis was nothing more than the highest grade, or most exalted form of typhus. Dr. C. differs entirely from them, and declares typhus to be "perfectly independent of the putrefactive process," and that a "vitiated secretion" (specific contagion we suppose) "is all that it requires for its origin and propagation." We have no evidence of such a morbid secretion. On the other hand, it appears more probable that the poisonous matter exciting typhus is formed from human excretions, sweat, urine, &c. by means of the chemical changes they undergo, like other inanimate substances. This is formed commonly within doors, in close chambers, and inheres particularly in bedding and clothing, not washed and alkalized as often as they ought to be. This explains its more common prevalence in the abodes of poverty and filth, and its connection with petechiæ produced by the local action of the virus upon an unclean skin. We are further inclined to believe, that the difference of the typhoid symptoms is no evidence of a difference of exciting cause; because it would be very extraordinary indeed if the morbid virus, acting upon emaciated and impoverished constitutions, should produce the same effects

which it might be capable of working in those which are full fed, and in a highly vigorous state.

We conceive that much of the difficulty of this subject may be explained, by calling to mind that the heat of the human body, operating upon its own excretions too long retained and accumulated in bed and body clothes, by habits of uncleanness, in close and filthy apartments, during the cooler seasons of the year, may probably produce effects analogous to those of high atmospherical temperature upon dead animal and vegetable matters during the summer and autumn. Particular constitutions of the air favour each of these processes; but they seem likely to exert a more decisive influence in the latter than in the former. Hence typhus may occur, often during a cool season, in any family where cleanliness and ventilation are neglected. But the pestilential epidemics of the summer and autumn appear always to require the aid of a general unsalutary condition of the atmosphere.

ART. IV. *Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, &c. Part iv.*

[Continued from page 182.]

*Hints relative to the stimulant Effects of Camphor upon Vegetables. By Benjamin Smith Barton, M. D.*

**T**HE experiments made on this subject induce Professor Barton to think that camphor exerts a greater stimulant effect upon plants than any other substance with which he is acquainted. If the expensiveness of it should forbid us to employ it as a manure upon a large scale, still the author suggests, that "a few grains of camphor, acting as a cordial, will revive a drooping plant, will increase its beauty, and prolong its existence"—objects of no mean importance in the eye of the florist. After some experiments on the comparative stimulating effects of camphor and nitre, Professor B. concludes that the result favours the idea, that camphor is a more wholesome stimulant than nitre.

*Experiments and Observations on Land and Sea Air. By Adam Seybert, M. D.*

In this paper we are presented with a variety of eudiometrical experiments on land and sea air, in many different situations.

Dr. Seybert believes that the air over a large body of water is always purer, *cæteris paribus*, than that of the adjoining land, owing, as he conjectures, to a decomposition which the water may suffer from the action of the sun's rays; and likewise, in part, to its absorbing many foreign matters, which, on land, are more or less intimately mixed with the air in a mechanical way.

As to the state of the air in different situations on land, Dr. S. adopts the conclusion of all the more respectable eudiometrical experimenters, that the results vary but little. And he is disposed to admit the opinion of Fontana, that "the difference in the purity of the air, at different times, is much greater than the difference between the air of the different places."

*Observations intended to favour a supposition that the black Colour (as it is called) of the Negroes is derived from the Leprosy. By Dr. Benjamin Rush.*

The opinion supported in this paper is supposed to be rendered probable by the following facts and analogies. 1st. That the leprosy is accompanied, in some instances, with a black colour of the skin. 2dly. That the preternatural whiteness of the skin, often observed in leprosy, bears a striking resemblance to that morbid condition of the skin, among some negroes, distinguished by the name of *albinos*, which has been suspected to be a modification of leprosy. 3dly. By the blended appearance of white and black sometimes observed in cases of leprosy. 4thly. By the similarity of the morbid insensibility of the nerves, in leprosy, to the constitutional insensibility common among negroes. 5thly. By the strong propensity to venereal gratifications, which equally distinguishes the leprous and the negro constitution. 6thly. By the big lip and flat nose of the negroes, which are likewise symptoms of the leprosy. 7thly. By the analogy between the woolly hair of the negroes, and the trichoma or plica polonica of the Poles, which is a symptom of leprosy.

*An Inquiry into the comparative Effects of the Opium Officinarum, extracted from the Papaver Somniferum, or White Poppy, of Linnæus; and of that procured from the Lactuca Sativa, or common cultivated Lettuce, of the same Author. By John Redman Coxe, M. D. &c.*

Dr. Coxe's first experiments on these two species of opium were made on solutions of them in water, alcohol, and in a

mixture of equal parts of both. And the results convinced him that the two species are very similar in their qualities.

After subjecting them to a variety of chemical tests, he still found the similarity to hold good in a remarkable degree.

By introducing the watery solutions and spirituous tinctures of each species of opium under the skin, and in contact with the muscles of frogs—into the stomach and rectum, and into the cavity of the abdomen, of the same animal—and likewise by bringing them into contact with the eyes and brain—he discovered that both species possess nearly the same powers.

*Experiments and Observations on the Atmosphere of Marshes.*  
By Adam Seybert, M. D.

It is the object of this paper, first, to determine whether or not the air of marshes differs from that of other situations; secondly, to ascertain what are the causes of the differences which are found to exist; and, thirdly, to make observations and remarks.

I. It appeared from a number of experiments on air, obtained immediately as it was disengaged from the marshy soil, that carbonic acid gas enters largely into its composition—that hydrogen gas is an ingredient in it—and that no oxygen gas is present.

It was found that air, obtained at the height of several feet above marshes, contains little or no hydrogen gas—that the proportion of carbonic acid gas is pretty considerable—and that a large quantity of oxygen enters into its composition. Hence the author is induced to believe that the air *above* marshes is not considerably different in its properties from the common atmosphere in other situations, where animals respire with ease, and enjoy perfect health, except the proportion of carbonic acid gas being greater, the gravity of which permits it to rise only to an inconsiderable height.

II. What are the causes of the peculiarities found to exist in the air of marshes?

Putrefaction of the animal and vegetable matters upon the soil of marshes is considered by the author as the great cause of the changes observed to exist in the air of them. That this is so he infers from the following circumstances:—  
“Marshes have no noxious influence during the winter season. They cause disease when the circumstances are present which promote putrefaction; as a proper degree of heat, a due quantity of moisture, and the contact of atmospheric air, or substances capable of affording oxygen, as water.”

Many experiments to ascertain the action of mud, obtained from marshes, on atmospheric air, were made at different times, by our author, during the summer and autumnal months of the years 1796 and 1798. He observes that these “experiments teach us that mud vitiates the atmosphere in a very powerful manner. They also enable us to account for the presence of the elastic fluid forming the atmosphere of marshes. It appears that the carbon of the mud unites with the oxygen of decomposed water, and forms the carbonic acid gas, whilst the hydrogen gas is set at liberty.”

III. The remainder of the paper is devoted to inferences and concluding remarks.

In order to arrive at any just conclusion concerning the effects of marshes on the atmosphere, the author recommends the investigation of their composition. They are found to consist of more or less water—of different proportions of dead animal and vegetable matters—and of the earthy substances composing the original soil. Heat, moisture, the contact of atmospheric air, and rest, are circumstances attendant on marshy situations during the unhealthy seasons. From this assemblage of materials and agents, it might be supposed *a priori*, our author observes, that the following effects would result: 1. That hydrogen gas would be disengaged. 2. That oxygen, combining with carbon, would form the carbonic acid gas. 3. That azote would unite with a portion of hydrogen, and thus produce ammonia; whilst another portion of it would, during its combination with oxygen, form the nitric acid. And, 4. That when sulphur and phosphorus were present, they, with hydrogen, would form the sulphurated and phosphorated hydrogen gases.—Dr. Seybert considers the presence of hydrogen gas, and of carbonic acid gas, in the atmosphere of marshes, as established by undoubted proofs. Ammoniacal gas he supposes to be one of the products of putrefaction; but he doubts the presence of it in the air of marshes, on account of its ready combination with water, and its proneness to unite with carbonic acid gas into a carbonate of ammoniac. As to nitric acid, though doubtless a product of putrefaction, he concludes that it is immediately absorbed by the neighbouring waters. He expresses conviction, that sulphurated and phosphorated hydrogen gases do not exist in the air of marshes.

On the whole, Dr. S. considers marshes as necessary to keep the atmosphere *in a proper degree* of purity: for not only the impure atmosphere, but the too pure also, is de-

structive to animals. And he imagines marshes to have been formed by the Author of Nature in order to operate against the powers which vegetables and other causes possess of purifying the atmosphere, so that the oxygen may exist in a proper proportion fit to support animal life and combustion.

(To be continued.)

ART. V. *A Physiological Treatise, &c.* By Joseph Young, M. D.

[Continued from page 285, and concluded.]

HAVING already examined that part of this work which respects astronomy, we now proceed to the second part, which treats of a number of physiological topics, and delivers rules and precepts for the management of many important diseases.

In the first place the author considers the earliest stage of life in the incipient animal, and shows the means by which circulation is performed in the first rudiments of it, before the vessels are completely organized.

The animal spirits, duly prepared, according to our author, are the plastic means by which the incipient embryo is produced out of an unorganized mass of animal gluten. He considers them as the link of connection between the soul and body, operating through the mechanism of the nerves and living solids. He supposes them to be secreted in the brain—to consist of the most highly attenuated parts of the lymph, united with the electric matter—to be the spring of heat, life, sensation and muscular motion in the animal system—and the sole cause of circulation in the lacteals, lymphatics, &c.

In the next place the author proceeds to treat of the *vis medicatrix naturæ*—of his doctrine of *vinous fermentation*—and of *digestion* by means of *alimentary fermentation* and the gastric liquor. He likewise offers his opinions concerning the organization of the animal system by fluids—concerning cold and its effects on animals—and concerning the generation of heat in respiring animals.

Having laid down his general doctrines on these subjects, he then goes on to treat of particular diseases. He gives directions for the management of *frozen limbs*, by immersing them in spring-water for some time before the application of warmth. His theory and practice in *dysentery* are next pre-



sented to the reader. In the management of *cancers* he places much dependence upon the root of the sharp-pointed dock, used internally by way of infusion, and externally by application of its expressed juice; and he also thinks well of arsenic, and the phytolacca, or poke.

*Cynanche maligna* is the next subject of discussion. As a specimen of the work, we quote the following practical directions concerning that disease:

“ If the disease is at first attended with great heat and thirst, add two table spoonfuls of the best yeast to a pint of a strong infusion of good ground barley malt (in boiling water), after the infusion gets to be about milk warm, of which the patient may take a wine glass full every hour while it is fermenting; and, at the same time, use the following gargle:—Take the root of the yellow or sharp-pointed dock half an ounce, Virginia and Seneca snake-roots of each one drachm and an half, Peruvian bark six drachms, myrrh and sal ammoniac of each two drachms, sal nitre one drachm, honey three ounces; infuse the roots and bark in one pint and an half of boiling water, rub the myrrh in a mortar with two ounces of camphorated spirit of wine, until it is pretty well dissolved, and when the infusion is milk warm add the ingredients, together with two table spoonfuls of good yeast; and while it is fermenting the patient should gargle it in his throat frequently; and if the tonsils are ulcerated they should be frequently washed with a small swab, made by rolling old soft linen about a small stick. And when the throat is very sore pour boiling water on the inside bark of the red elm until it grows slimy, and hold some of it frequently in the mouth, and gargle it, which will yield great relief.

“ When the violence of the fever has abated, if there are yet evident signs of putrefaction remaining, take Peruvian bark six drachms, Virginia snake-root and contrayerva of each two drachms, bruise them in a mortar, and infuse them in a pint and an half of boiling water, and when it is milk warm strain it off, and add two ounces of sugar and two table spoonfuls of yeast; and while it is in brisk fermentation let the patient take a wine glass full every second or third hour.

“ But in the country, where these ingredients cannot be obtained, I am certain that a gargle, made by infusing an ounce of the inside bark of the wild cherry-tree, and half an ounce of fresh sharp-pointed dock-root, bruised, in a pint of boiling water, and sweetened with honey, and an infusion of the cherry bark and wild alspice, used in the same manner as

above directed, would answer a very valuable purpose; using the mucilage of the red elm bark, as above directed, to prevent irritation.

“ Good Port wine and water, sweetened with loaf-sugar, may be taken to advantage, as a cordial, if the heat of the body is moderate.”

The remainder of the work is devoted to cynanche trachealis—to small-pox by inoculation—to yellow fever—to anasarcaous dropsy—to putrid fevers—to confluent small-pox—to mania—to fistula lachrymalis—to fistula in ano—to scrophula—and to phthisis pulmonalis.

In the treatment of putrid fevers Dr. Young relies greatly upon the virtues of yeast. In mania, after blood-letting, cathartics and emetics, he recommends a free use of camphor combined with vinegar by the mucilage of gum arabic, a mild and indulgent treatment, &c.

The work is concluded by the following sentiments of philanthropy, which must impress every reader with respect for the venerable author.

“ In the preceding stages of my life I have been actively employed in the service of my fellow beings; but, being worn out and superannuated, I offer them this little book, probably as my last tribute; and if its utility but equals my intention, it will add one more gratification to a person who wishes every created being every degree of happiness and pleasurable sensation which their beneficent Creator has fitted them to enjoy.”



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## Medical and Philosophical News.

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### DOMESTIC.

#### USE OF ALKALIES IN CANCERS.

*Extract from a Letter of Dr. J. Barker to Dr. Mitchell, dated Portland (Maine), March 12, 1801.*

“ **B**ESIDES the beneficial effects derived from the use of alkaline remedies in FEBRILE diseases, I have, for a few years past, found them to be of singular efficacy in certain *surgical* cases, as well as in other maladies. My experience seems to verify your important ideas concerning the proneness of animal matter to grow *acid* under certain circumstances; as also the propensity which the pus of ulcers has to absorb oxygen, and to become *sour*.

“ Six years since, a peasant in a neighbouring town was afflicted with painful cancerous tumours in his face, which discharged a very corrosive humour. Several of these tumours were extirpated with the knife; and mercury was employed both externally and internally, as well as cicuta, with a view of correcting this humour, and of disposing the sores to heal. The sores, however, would not heal upon this plan. Indeed, the humour increased in degree of virulency and corrosive power, notwithstanding that the external applications were reinforced with vitriols, lead, various unguents, and even *arsenic*.

“ He remained for a considerable time in this forlorn condition, laid aside all means, and considered his disease as irremediable.

“ I then directed a strong lixivium of wood-ashes to be applied. This readily stopped the progress of the corroding humour, alleviated his pains, and allowed the sores to heal. By this means the cancerous humour was subdued, and rendered harmless; so that, in a short time, the ulcers healed, and a radical cure was effected.

“ Since this event, it has become a common practice in this part of the country, not only among physicians, but

others, to eradicate cancers with a strong solution of pot-ash, as well as with the lixivium of ashes.

“ This lixivium is made by boiling a gallon of common ley down to a pint. A dossil of lint, impregnated with this ley, and applied to the cancerous tumour, soon alleviates the pain, and converts it into a black lump, which, by a common digestive poultice, readily separates from the sound flesh. The sore then heals by a simple dressing.

“ I have employed alkaline remedies in several cases of *scrophula*, both externally and internally, with very great advantage.”

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#### ALKALINE REMEDIES IN SYPHILIS.

The prevailing opinions, for two or three years, in Europe, have been strongly in favour of curing lues venerea by oxygen and acids. The virus of this formidable disease is confidently said to be decomposed, or neutralized, or expelled from the body, or the constitution to be rendered proof against it, by means of remedies abounding with the principle of acidity in a very separable state. Of these, the *Medical Repository* contains ample accounts. In America we cannot learn that the acid practice has, in any instance, alone wrought a cure of lues. It is insufficient without the aid of quicksilver. The general rule of successful management is to eradicate the syphilitic poison by means of mercury; and, in case the constitution of the patient wants oxygen, to prescribe acids also. In some habits they will do good, in others no good at all, and in others certainly harm. For a radical cure of the disease, they are not to be relied on.—It is remarkable how practisers run into extremes. No longer ago than 1786, the second edition of Mr. PEYRILHE's octavo volume on a *new remedy* against venereal distempers was published at Montpellier, and reviewed in the *Journal de Medecine* of Paris, for the month of December that year. This new remedy was the VOLATILE ALKALI, on the antisyphilitic virtue of which the author wrote an able dissertation. He was Regius Professor of Chemistry and Botany in the College of Surgery in Paris; and his book, which contains the account of his own experience with *ammoniac*, is allowed by the critics to be full of valuable and nice practical remarks. And yet this work is disregarded in Europe, and, we may say, in America is almost wholly unknown.

## ADULTERATIONS OF PEARL-ASH.

*Extract of a Letter from Mr. William Henry, of Manchester, in Great-Britain, to Dr. Mitchill, concerning the Adulterations of American Pearl-ash, dated February 2, 1801.*

“ It is now nearly thirty years since my father introduced some improvements into the process for preparing magnesia, which were approved by the London College of Physicians, and published in their Transactions. Calcined magnesia being, at that time, a medicine extremely difficult to be procured genuine, and, consequently, very little in use, my father, with the advice of some of the leading members of the College, undertook the manufacture, and has continued it to this day. About four years ago I joined him in the business, and have made considerable improvements in the process (chiefly in the mode of purifying the alkali), which enable us to offer to the public an article of very superior quality. There is one impurity, however, very frequently found in the alkali, which, of late years, has thrown considerable difficulties in our way; and which no one, of the almost numberless experiments I have made, has instructed us to separate. This is the carbonate of lime, for which, in small proportion, the carbonate of pot-ash has so strong an affinity, that no chemical expedient I am acquainted with can wholly detach it. This carbonate of lime may be discovered in an alkali in the following manner: Mix a solution of the best American pearl-ash with one of sulphate of magnesia; wash the carbonate of magnesia very well, and expose it, in open day, to a very strong heat for a sufficient length of time. The calcined magnesia ought to be perfectly insipid; but it will often be found to have a very pungent and caustic taste; and on digesting it with distilled water, a true lime-water will be obtained. Now, as the same sulphate of magnesia, with a solution of pearl-ash, from a different barrel, or a different manufacture, will afford a magnesia perfectly insipid after calcination, and which imparts no impregnation to water, it is clear that the defect must have been in the alkali. The lime, contained in carbonate of pot-ash, cannot, on account of its strong affinity for carbonic acid, exist in the state of pure lime, and must, therefore, be present in a carbonated form. On mixing the alkaline solution with one of sulphate of magnesia, this carbonate is precipitated along with the carbonate of magnesia; and the impurity does not become perceptible to the taste till the carbonic acid is expelled from both by calcination.

“Of late years this defect in pearl-ashes has become almost universal; and during the last eight or ten months we have not been able to meet with any American pearl-ashes fit for the manufacture of calcined magnesia. That the adulteration is not practised in this country, I satisfied myself by remaining some time in Liverpool, and trying samples from the warehouses of the most respectable merchants there, whose assurances that the ashes were really as imported I cannot possibly doubt.

“The lime, I conceive, is purposely introduced into the ashes by the American manufacturers, not with the intention of a fraudulent adulteration, but with some view to the improvement of the article. It is, perhaps, added to the ley, with the view of clearing and strengthening it; and part of it, being chemically dissolved, will adhere to the clear ley, and even to the dry alkali. Now, a very few grains of carbonate of lime; in a hundred weight of pearl-ashes, will totally unfit them for the preparation of magnesia; and a small quantity of mortar, from the brick-work of the ovens, will spoil a very considerable quantity of alkali. We are peculiarly anxious to obtain a supply of pearl-ashes, in the manufacture of which every source of lime has been carefully avoided. We should even wish a careful trial to be made of each barrel, or, at least, of each lot of barrels of one boiling, before the ashes were sent to us. This trial might be conducted as follows:—Dissolve four ounces of pearl-ash (we use none but the first sort) in four ounces of distilled water, and four ounces of sulphate of magnesia in the same quantity of water, mix the two solutions, and wash off the sulphate of pot-ash by repeated affusions of hot-water, which should be quite free from carbonate of lime or sulphate of lime: dry the magnesia, and calcine it during two hours in a strong fire. If the calcined magnesia, when mixed with a little water, be absolutely tasteless, the ashes will answer. To ascertain their purity decisively, digest about a dram of the calcined magnesia in half an ounce measure, or more, of distilled water, for half an hour, shaking it occasionally; filter the liquor, and blow air through it from the lungs, by means of a tobacco-pipe; and to another portion add a little oxalic acid. If neither of these tests indicates lime, the magnesia is pure, and the ashes may be purchased.

“To bring within a short view what I have to request, I subjoin the following queries:

“1. By what means does the carbonate of lime gain admittance into the American pot and pearl-ashes?

“ 2. If the source of it be known, is it one that can be easily avoided ?

“ 3. If the lime be purposely added, and this addition be, in general, necessary, could we not have ashes manufactured expressly for our use, without this admixture ?

“ 4. Is the exportation of the unlixivated wood-ashes permitted ; and could we not obtain a purer alkali by importing these wood-ashes, and lixiviating them ourselves ?

“ 5. Would you, or any other person you might point out, undertake to make, carefully, the necessary experiments, on the pearl-ashes intended for us, before they are sent from America ? For such assistance we should be ready to make a liberal compensation.

“ 6. Supposing that it is possible to have an alkali made purposely for our own use, how long a time would elapse between the order from New-York to have them manufactured, and their being sent from an American port ?”

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#### DISCOVERIES IN MINERALOGY.

MOLYBDÆNA has been repeatedly found in the granitical rocks, which abound in the southern parts of the State of New-York.—Beautiful ZEOLYTES have been lately discovered at Hoboken, filling up veins in the rocks of Telgstein and Jade, which abound thereabout—and by the blowing down of a tree in the town of New-Marlborough, west of Poughkeepsie, and near the bank of the Hudson, a *parcel of coal has been laid bare*. Smiths have worked this in their forges, and find it to be of a good quality. The specimen of it sent us, burned very well, affording much blaze, and emitting a bright light. Future researches and experiments can only determine whether this valuable material exists there in quantity sufficient to supply the metropolis, and lessen the extravagant and increasing price of fire-wood.

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#### EXTINCT SPECIES OF ANIMALS.

G. Cuvier, member of the National Institute, and Professor in the College of France, is engaged in a very extensive work upon the species of quadrupeds whose bones have been found in the interior parts of the earth. Our readers will recollect that the State of New-York is now the theatre of the latest discoveries that have been made of fossil bones; the particular accounts of which, as contained in the letters addressed to Dr. Mitchell, are inserted in our present volume, p. 211. Mr. Cuvier has undertaken to settle the controversy

concerning these animal relics. He says that the strata of every country upon earth contain bones different from those of the animals which now inhabit their surface: that, with the single exception of ruminant animals, all the complete fossil bones which he has seen are different from those of quadrupeds now alive: that of these he has been able to ascertain *twenty-three species*, all certainly unknown at this day, and which appear to have been entirely destroyed, though their bones evince their existence in former ages.

These species of creatures, whose races are now extinct, M. Cuvier divides into two classes—1. Those which have been determined by others; and, 2. Such as have been settled by himself. In the first he enumerates the following: 1. The *Siberian animal* which affords fossil ivory. 2. The *mammoth*, differing from the former chiefly in the size and points of its grinders. 3. The *long-headed rhinoceros*. 4. That animal of the *tardigrade family* called *megatherium* and *megalonix*. 5. An extinct species of *large bear*. 6. *Another species* of the bear. 7. A *carnivorous animal*, intermediate between the wolf and hyæna. 8. A *creature a-kin to the moose*, whose horns measure fourteen feet from tip to tip. 9. The *great fossil tortoise*. 10. The *maastricht crocodile*. 10. A *sort of dragon*. 12. An unknown kind of reptile or cetaceous animal.—In the second class, the chief of which have been discovered in France, Mr. Cuvier places the following species: 1. The animal whose *teeth, when impregnated with copper*, form the occidental turquoise. 2. A *tapir*, differing from that of South-America only in the form of its grinders. 3. *Another tapir*, of a gigantic or elephantine size. 4. A *species of hippopotamos*, of about the size of a hog. 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10. Six fossil skeletons of an unknown species between the rhinoceros and the tapir, from the plaster-quarries in the neighbourhood of Paris. 11. A species of crocodile, considerably like that of the Ganges.

But these are not all which the earth contains: there are *parts* of skeletons of which M. Cuvier cannot speak with equal assurance; but of which, however, enough is known to encourage a hope that the list of zoological antiquities will be soon lengthened. Of these, some resemble the bones, 1. Of the tiger. 2. Of an hyæna or sea-calf. 3. Of the fallow-deer. And others of uncertain characters; as the petrified bones, 1. Near Verona. 2 and 3. Two sorts in the Rock of Gibraltar. 4. In the vicinity of Dax. 5. Near Orleans. 6. Near Aix and Cete. 7. In the islands of Dal-



matia, &c. And, 8. All other *uncertain bones* found in the peat-mosses of all parts of Europe and Asia. In the course of a short time M. Cuvier hopes to determine the exact place in the system to which these doubtful species are to be referred.

M. Cuvier solicits information on these subjects from all parts of the world. He wishes to procure the bones themselves, or figures of them, or correct descriptions in words.

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#### THE AMERICAN BISON.

An animal of this species has been for some time exhibited in New-York. He is a male, and was taken on the west side of the Mississippi. He has a shaggy covering of hair on his pate, under his jaw, along his neck, and on the back part of his fore legs. His shoulders are very much elevated, so that the depth from the withers through to the brisket is greater, in proportion, than, perhaps, in any other creature. The hinder parts taper away, and are comparatively of a diminutive size. This bison has covered a number of our domesticated cows. He is strong, and so capable of defending himself, that though he has often been baited by two bulldogs at once, they have not been able to fasten him. He was taken when a calf, and is now so docile as to be easily managed by means of a ring in his nose. He feeds upon grass, hay, &c. like common neat cattle.

Some of the naturalists who have seen this animal have doubted to which of the *species* of the *Bos* family he belongs. It seems to be settled among the zoologists, that the genus of *Bos* is divided into *two important species*—the bison and the buffalo. To the bisons belong the varieties known by the names of *bonafus* by Aristotle and the Greeks, of *urus* by Cæsar, of *aurochs* by the harsh modern imitators of that Latin name, of *bison* by Pliny, of *bos feras* by Strabo, and of *zebu*, or small Barbary cow, by travellers from Africa. These are affirmed to intermingle and breed with each other, and their offspring are not mules, but can perpetuate their race. To the *buffaloes*, who seem to have been unknown to the ancients, belongs that species of ox who, about the seventh century, was imported from Africa into Italy, and domesticated there, and known latterly by the very improper appellation of *bubalus*. These have no sexual or other intercourse with the bisons; and are destitute of the elevated structure of the shoulders.—Our neat cattle are the descendants of the bisons—not of the buffaloes.

The figure of the bison, in Goldsmith's second volume of his History of the Earth and animated Nature, has a nearer resemblance of the variety we are describing than any we have seen. The figures of the urus and bison, in Bewick's History of Quadrupeds, are of the same general character; and the latter, particularly, has a near likeness to this native American. The withers of the former are not high enough. In two editions of Buffon and Daubenton's Zoology (vol. xxiii.), which we have consulted, there is a figure of the buffaloe, but not of the bison. Pennant, in his Arctic Zoology, vol. iii. has described the bison very well; though it is presumable there are more varieties of the breed than we are yet acquainted with. It is a remarkable fact, that with such a creature in their neighbourhood, of a temper so very docile, and capable of becoming so singularly useful to man, the aborigines of the western continent seem never to have thought of taming it! The domesticated kind of America are all descended from the milch cows of Europe. The bisons still continue in their savage state, and constitute one part of the cattle of the forests; while the offspring of imported cows, turned out to range at large in the wilds of Brazil and La Plata, and gradually returning to the state of freedom and fierceness, forms the other.

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METHODS OF DECOMPOSING MURIATE OF SODA (COMMON SALT.)

M. Carendeffez has made many experiments on this subject, with the intent to procure separately both the acid and the alkaline basis of sea-salt. He thinks he has made some observations which are peculiar to himself.

Substances capable of decomposing this neutral salt are divided by him into classes. In the *first* are five substances—*pot-ash, barytes, oxyd of lead, lime and iron*. In the *second* class he places such things as can effect the decomposition, though in an indirect manner: these are six—the *boracic, phosphoric, arseniac, nitric, sulphuric and tartaric* acids. The latter of these decomposes not only the muriates of pot-ash and soda, but likewise the sulphates and nitrates of these alkalies, so as to form acidulous new compounds with them respectively, convertible into oxalic acid by the aid of the nitric. In the *third* class he ranks the *sulphates of pot-ash, of alumine, of copper, of iron, of magnesia, and of ammoniac*; and the *sulphures of the same metals*.

He also finds that the nitrates of silver and of quicksilver

have the like property, as well as clay and all the earthy sulphates. These experiments show how far chemistry has penetrated in this inquiry; and he who undertakes the decomposition of sea-salt, has it now in his power to choose from these modes of operating the one which to him shall appear preferable. Though soda is found *native* in Egypt, Barbary, Turkey, Persia, India, Siberia, Hungary, and some other places, it has long been highly desirable to obtain it *by art*. The river Belus, in Judea, whose sand is remarkable for the manufacture of glass, is mentioned by the historian Tacitus. This sand is said to be a natural mixture of the silicious girt with soda; and it is upon the shore of this stream that Pliny places the fabulous story of the accidental discovery of the art of making glass by the Phenician merchants. We mentioned, in page 82, that in Egypt the muriate of soda seemed to be decomposed by the carbonate of lime.

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SHORT PROCESS FOR MAKING STARKEY'S SOAP.

This kind of soap consists of the combination of an *essential oil* with a *fixed alkali*. The old process for making it was difficult and tedious, requiring long trituration. M. Geoffroy discovered that the difficulty of combining the two materials arose from the employment of the *carbonates* of the alkalis instead of the naked or caustic salts. For if ten parts of pot-ash, deprived of its carbonic acid, be rubbed in a hot mortar with eight parts of oil of turpentine, the soap may be formed at once. M. Carendeffez employs the same proportions; but he powders the caustic pot-ash very fine, passes it through a silk seive, and forms instantly this compound, which is esteemed, by many, an excellent external remedy for rheumatisms, &c.

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MORE PROOF OF THE UTILITY OF ADMINISTERING  
OXYGEN IN SCURVY.

It was mentioned in our present volume, p. 79, that a method had been discovered of procuring the citric acid in a concrete state. The application of this discovery to the cure of scorbutic diseases is confidently related by Dr. Trotter, Physician to the British fleet, in a letter to Mr. Coxwell, of London, the discoverer:

“ *Plymouth-Dock, July 13, 1800.*

“ SIR,

“ With much pleasure I now inform you of the complete success of your concrete acid of lemons in the cure of the

scurvy, which, in every respect, has equalled, if not surpassed, the usual effect of the fresh lime, lemon, or Seville orange-juice.

“It is no small satisfaction to myself, from the nature of my studies for the last ten years, to find that my service has been protracted to see the final blow to this sea disease. In justice to his majesty’s navy at large, I have therefore addressed the board of admiralty on the subject, and I have announced the success of my experiments to the medical world, through the London Medical and Physical Journal. You are extremely welcome to make what use you think proper of this letter.

“I am, with much respect,

“Sir, your very humble servant,

“T. TROTTER, M. D.”

It seems, from this testimony, that the lemon-juice loses none of its virtue during the preparation. To be enabled to carry oxygen, thus concentrated and imprisoned, into the holds of ships at sea, for the invigoration of sickly mariners, is a great improvement in nautical medicine, and will have a tendency to lessen a large proportion of the distempers to which sailors are victims.

It is in this, and the kindred forms of febrile disease, that we believe the acid remedies recommended by Professor Reich (p. 314 & seq.) would be particularly serviceable. And the *citric* promises much more success than the *sulphuric* and *muratic* acids. Reich’s general reasoning on the subject has great appearance of truth in it, as far as *one certain form* of malignant distemper extends; but he would be more likely to win the assent of his readers, if he limited his doctrine to *the scorbutic form of fever*, as Trotter does, instead of extending it to fever universally. That acids are highly serviceable in many kinds of febrile malady, there is as full evidence as of any fact in physic. What these states of body are, both Reich and Trotter have, in their respective publications, attempted to explain. In Dr. S. Brown’s (of Boston) Treatise on the Yellow Fever, there is a letter of Dr. Mitchill’s, not published any where else, containing some ideas of that distemper as prevalent at New-York in 1798; *one* of the forms of which is thus described:

“Symptoms of torpor, listlessness, coma, low delirium, moderate heat, *little*, and, in some instances, *no* pain; extreme muscular debility, want of irritability, destruction of the vis insita, dulness of sensation and perception, yellowness of the

eyes and skin in most cases, without pain in the right hypochondrium, shortness of breath, with little or no special disorder, either in the blood-vessels or alimentary canal. This train of symptoms forms one of the most insidious modes of the disorder, the patient declaring, that little or nothing is the matter with him, though verging fast upon dissolution. In such a dangerous state of the constitution, I have, from much observation and much reflection, been led to believe, that the *nerves* and *muscles*, as well as the *blood*, are *overcharged* with septon, or *undercharged* with oxygen; whence a rationale of the torpor, &c. can be easily deduced. The indication of cure, then, will be the same as in scurvy; that is, to introduce oxygen and to subduct septon. For, I believe, and you will, I think, find it true, that the form of disease now under consideration might, with propriety, be denominated *acute scurvy*, in contradistinction to the *ordinary* or *chronic scurvy*, and receive a suitable treatment. I have prescribed *neutral mixtures*, *lemonade*, *cyder*, *peaches*, *pears*, and *apples*, for several patients, mostly to try whether this idea is founded in fact."—*Brown's Treatise, &c.* p. 10.

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NITRIC ACID NOT TO BE RELIED ON TO CURE LUES  
VENEREA.

Dr. Rodgers, Professor of Obstetrics in Columbia College, and Lecturer on Clinical Medicine in the New-York Hospital, has made many trials with nitric acid in syphilis. The general results of his experience, both in the hospital and in his private practice, are, that this acid does not appear to exert its good effects where the constitution is in much tone, or where the inflammatory diathesis prevails; that its benefits are most evident where the habit of the body generally, or any particular part thereof, has been much debilitated by the long continuance of disease, or by the operation of remedies; and that it is not to be relied on as an antisyphilitic remedy, especially in recent cases, or where the patient is of a sanguine temperament, though it is often of the greatest service in all debilitated and disoxygenated habits, where, *after the use of quicksilver*, the body has acquired great irritability, and may be said to be *MERCURIALIZED*. The communication of Professor Rodgers, on this subject, will be inserted in the first number of our fifth volume.

## PLAGUE NOT CONTAGIOUS.

Dr. D. Whyte, in a communication made near the end of the year 1800, from the Pera of Constantinople, declares his conviction decidedly, that the plague is in no instance either an incurable or contagious disease. Some of the persons, interrogated by Mr. Howard, seemed to entertain a similar opinion. Latterly, these doubts are more boldly expressed even in Europe. In all the accounts of the plague we have seen, even in the quartos of the Russels, there is very little to be found of those subjects, concerning which, a sensible inquirer wants information; we mean of the food, way of life, dress, habitations, materials of building, manner of washing clothes and cleaning houses, and of the physical geography of the places where the plague prevails. Until these are known, we can never know much, correctly, of the plague of Asia. The accounts given of it by the Franks are, beyond a doubt, very partial, or imperfect in some respects and exaggerated in others; and, for the most part, tinctured with prejudice or enmity against the Turks. There is strong reason to believe, that great mischief is engendered *on board* the filthy vessels engaged in the Mediterranean trade; and it is well known, that some of the cells and apartments of Lazarettos, are among the foulest of human abodes. Ships rendered foul by innate poison; this poison, concentrated and worked up to great malignity by confinement during a quarantine, and the passengers and crew immured in an execrable pest-house, are enough, of themselves, to produce a plague in any region almost of the globe. There is strong ground to believe, that the most considerable share of the plague complained of among the Christians, is both produced and perpetuated under *their own ill-judged regulations*, and then most preposterously said to be imported from Syria, Egypt, or Greece, where, among the Mohammedans it is pretended, its contagion is never extinguished; but it is high time to get the better of these delusions. A little more science, and a few good observers will decide this question, and rescue philosophy, commerce and navigation, from the terrors of imported contagion.

## NOXIOUS QUALITY OF THE SALIVARY DISCHARGE.

*Communicated to the Editors of the Medical Repository by Mr. Abel Catlin, of Litchfield (Connecticut.)*

“The deleterious effects of the *septic acid* are,” writes Mr. Catlin, “I think, satisfactorily ascertained, and scarcely

need a proof be offered to confirm the doctrine of the existence of that principle, which is capable of destroying animal nature; and was it not for the curious and well-defined manner in which it operated in the following instance, I would waive the communication, as unnecessary to establish a doctrine that bids fair to be long retained by the philosophical world.

“ During the last August and September I suffered a long and violent fever, attended with very malignant and nervous symptoms; and though then incapable of any observation myself, I had the symptoms and circumstances of the disease very accurately related to me by the gentlemen who attended me. The detail of these I consider it unnecessary to mention for the purpose of the particular object of this communication. That object I express thus:—Sometime about the height of my disorder, the expectoration and salival discharge, which were very great, *did, for one day, and two hours of the next, instantly kill every fly that in any manner came in contact with them,* (which, from the season and other circumstances, were very numerous). A sweat that then broke out terminated its noxious effect on the flies,

“ It will be needless to mention the excoriating effect of a discharge thus virulent on my mouth and throat, and to express my wonder and gratitude, that a system, fraught with so deadly a principle, should survive.”\*

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*For the four following articles we are obliged to Dr. John Vaughan, of Wilmington, in the State of Delaware.*

#### PARTURITION.

In 1797 I was called to a woman in labour; and, shortly after my arrival, she had a daughter: and while I was separating this child, and handing it to the midwife, two boys were born with a single pain. They lay parallel to each other, and the navel strings were wrapped about their necks, and knotted as completely as if it had been done by art.

They appeared to have been strangled at about the seventh month of gestation.

There was but one placenta, into which the umbilical chords of the boys entered in contact, while that of the girl was three or four inches distant.

The last year has been remarkable, in this neighbourhood, for tedious and difficult labours. The difficulty was generally

\* Was not quicksilver administered in this case?

owing to a rigidity of the *os uteri*; and in several cases, to which I was called as a coadjutor, the midwives had neglected the evil until the orifice of the womb was pushed back towards the *sacrum*, and the child's head protruding, with the womb before it. But by resisting the descent of the child during the pains, and very gradual pressure upwards in their absence, until the *os uteri* was brought over the vertex, and afterwards preserving it in a proper situation, the womb dilated, and all difficulty was overcome.

In several cases of rigidity of the *os uteri*, without inversion, blood-letting answered a valuable purpose in producing relaxation. In one deplorable case of this kind, to which I was called in the evening, after drawing eight ounces of blood from the arm, which produced faintness, I endeavoured to dilate very gradually; but the pains were intolerable, and in about an hour the unfortunate woman was attacked with severe convulsions. My situation was now perplexing in the extreme. The attendants gave her up for dead, and left the room; and, being without assistants, I tied up her arm, and let it bleed in the bed until the spasms ceased, and immediately delivered her of a very large child. It was said to weigh 28lbs.—This woman had a speedy recovery.

The only fatal case of parturition which I have had the misfortune to witness was so peculiar that it deserves communication, and may be an useful lesson to others as well as myself.

Mrs. —, the mother of two or three children, was delivered of twins at eight o'clock in the evening; and a tumour remaining in the uterus, the midwives (there were two) supposed there was a third child, and sent for me at two next morning. On examining the uterus externally, it was of an irregular form, and of a sufficient size to excite suspicion of a third child. But the woman not being sensible of any motion in the uterus, and free from pain—and having met with some previous cases where the effusion of blood, from a partial separation of the placenta, into the uterus produced a considerable tumour, I decided in the negative, and wished to bring away the placenta as soon as convenient. However, the midwives and relations controuled, and proposed sending for another physician; and he agreeing with the midwives, I gave up to the delusion; and while we were waiting for a return of labour, the poor woman expired without a struggle or a groan. On examination after death, I found the placenta partially separated, and the uterus filled with coagulated blood.



There is one circumstance to which I request the attention of my obstetric brethren, *the effects of vomiting during labour*. It is proverbial with the old women, that vomiting is a favourable symptom, and I have frequently seen a tedious labour terminated by spontaneous vomiting:—hence, the following query has arisen. Would not emetics, or nauseating doses of ipecacuanha, be serviceable in removing rigidity of the os uteri, and in dilating the vagina and *os externum*? The effects of nausea, in moderating febrile action, are universally admitted, and we are authorized to infer, that it would be highly serviceable in many cases of parturition. The peculiar sufferings of the sex demand our special attention, and we should be assiduous in our endeavours to lessen their violent pains.

## AURA EPILEPTICA.

Miss M——, at the age of puberty, was attacked with spasms in the fore finger of the right hand, which gradually extended up the arm to the right side of the head, affecting the muscles of the eye lids particularly. During one of those paroxysms, I placed her on the insulating stool, in connection with the prime conductor of an electric machine, and drew sparks from the affected hands. In a few minutes the spasms ceased, and returned but once afterwards.

## GUTTA SERENA.

In February last I was applied to by a young lady, who had lost her sight without any manifest cause or apparent injury to the eyes. Electricity presented itself as the most probable remedy; and I at first drew sparks from the eye-lids with a wooden point, and afterwards with a metallic one. Its effects were immediately beneficial, and a few electrifications cured her.

## LUSUS NATURÆ.

In the fall 1797, I was sent for to a negro child that had an extra finger on each hand, growing at right lines from the little fingers. They were about  $\frac{3}{4}$ ths of an inch in length, contained an artery and vein, had perfect nails, but were destitute of bone. They were taken off by ligature.

A few weeks since I dissected a child aged thirteen months, that had been distressed with difficult respiration from its birth. On dissecting off the integuments, to expose the cavity of the thorax, I was surprized to find it destitute of a sternum, and

the ribs united by a small cartilage. The lungs were flattened—the pericardium contained an unusual quantity of liquor, and the heart was preternaturally large. The abdominal viscera were, also, much diseased—the liver enlarged, and rising upwards against the mediastinum, lessening the thoracic cavity; but the spleen was small and dark coloured.

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NEW PUBLICATIONS INTENDED.

The Medical Faculty of the University of Pennsylvania have it in contemplation to make a collection of the best Inaugural Dissertations of their graduates, and to republish them in volumes. The propriety and usefulness of this was hinted in the review of one of their collegiate exercises, in *Med. Rep.* vol. ii. p. 197, first edit. The ingenious and excellent matter which many of them contain, render them valuable articles for such a *Theaurus*.

Professor Woodhouse intends to publish an American Dispensatory. It will consist of three parts. 1. An elementary treatise on Chemistry, and its application to Pharmacy. 2. A history of substances employed in *Materia Medica*, with an account of a number of the active indigenous plants of the United States, and a theory of their action on the human body. 3. An account of the best medicinal preparations employed in private practice, in hospitals, and of various foreign pharmacopœias, with a plate of chemical apparatus. Dr. Woodhouse expects to put it to press some time in the ensuing autumn, or next spring.

Dr. Barton, Professor of *Materia Medica*, Natural History, and Botany, in the University of Pennsylvania, will speedily put to press, a work, entitled, “*Elements of Botany*.” This work, the plan of which is essentially different from that of the elementary works on Botany now in use, will be elegantly printed, in one volume large (royal) octavo, of at least 280 pages, and will be illustrated by a number (not less than eighteen) of plates, engraven by an able artist.

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NEW COURSE OF LECTURES.

Dr. Mease, of Philadelphia, intends to deliver, in the ensuing autumn, a course of Lectures, “*on the Application of the Principles of Natural Philosophy and Chemistry, to the common Purposes of Life*.” These Lectures will be nearly on the plan of those delivered by Dr. Garnett in the “*Royal Institution*” of Great-Britain.

## FOREIGN.

## NITROUS ACID AND OPIUM IN DYSENTERY.

IN the *Medical and Physical Journal* for May, 1800, there is a remarkable paper on the treatment of dysentery, by a combination of nitrous acid and opium. The author (Dr. Hope, of Chatham) intimates a suspicion, that the dysentery and yellow fever are produced by the same causes, operating under different circumstances. In all the cases, reported in this paper, where the efficacy of this new mode of treatment was observed, the disease was somewhat advanced, and the more common remedies had been all ineffectually prescribed. The first occurrence of this acid to the author's mind was suggested by the symptoms of extreme thirst in a case of dysentery, and the addition of opium was merely intended as a corrective of the acid. The signal advantages, however, of the composition, soon induced him to extend the use of it. The formula was as follows:—℞ Acid. Nitr. ℥ ij. Opii gr. ii. Aq. puræ, ℥ ij. M. ft. cap. coch. i. m. ter quaterve die in vehiculo.

## REPUBLICAN LYCEUM AT PARIS.

During the year 1800, which was the sixteenth from its establishment, the branches of knowledge taught, and the names of the Professors in this institution, were the following:

1. Experimental Physics, or Natural Philosophy,	} Professor Citizen Butet.	
2. Chemistry,		Fourcroy.
3. Natural History,		Cuvier.
4. Anatomy and Physiology,		Sue.
5. Hygiene, or the art of preserving health,	} Moreau.	
6. Technology, or the application of science to arts and trades,		Haffenfratz.
7. Education, and the physical and moral faculties of man,	} Le Roy.	
8. Literature,		La Harpe.
9. History,		Garat.
10. Public or Political Economy,		Roederer.
11. Moral Philosophy,		Degerando.

- |  |   |          |
|--|---|----------|
| 12. The art of Designing, particularly in Architecture, both ancient and modern, | } | Legrand. |
| 13. English Language,  |   | Roberts. |
| 14. Italian Language,  |   | Boldoni. |

END OF VOLUME IV.



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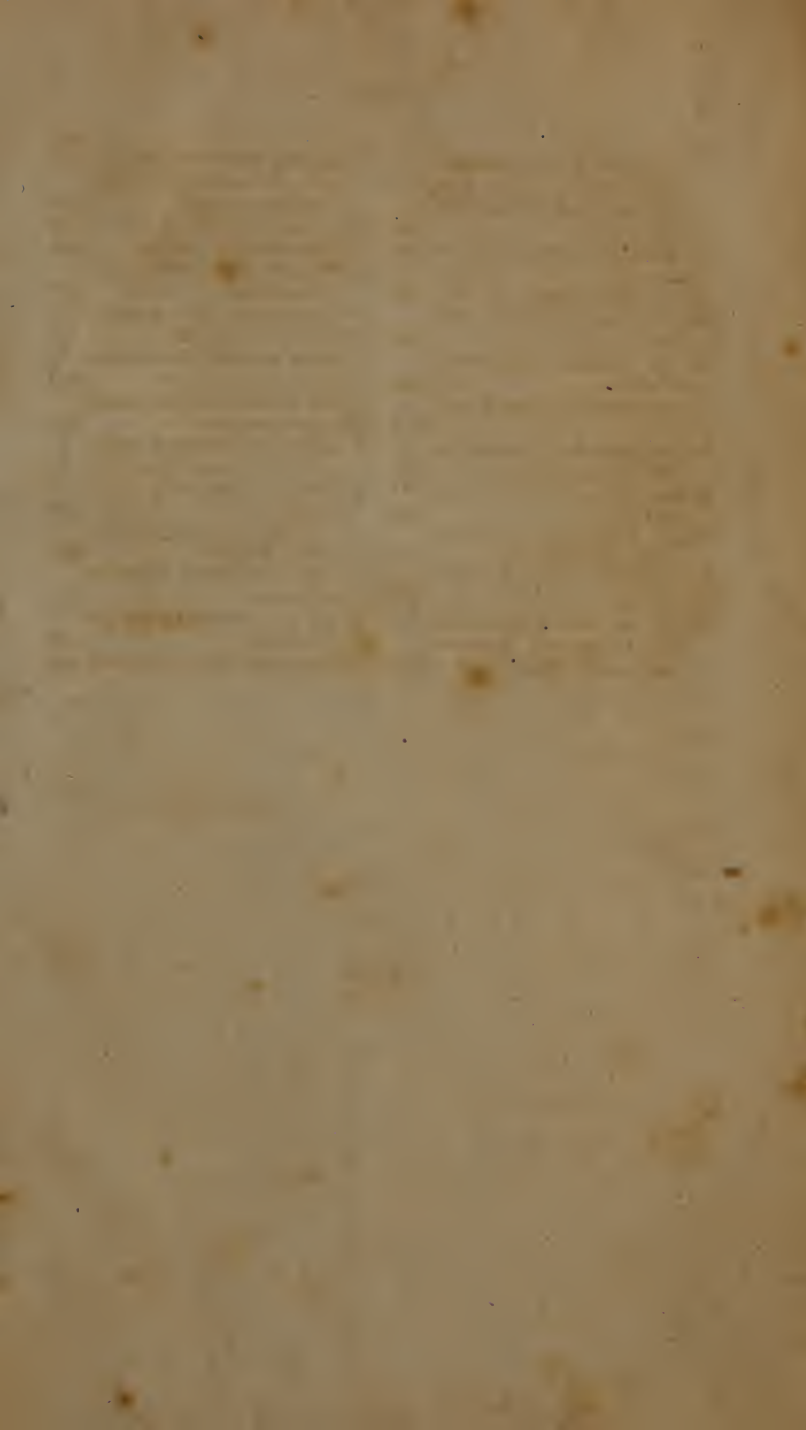
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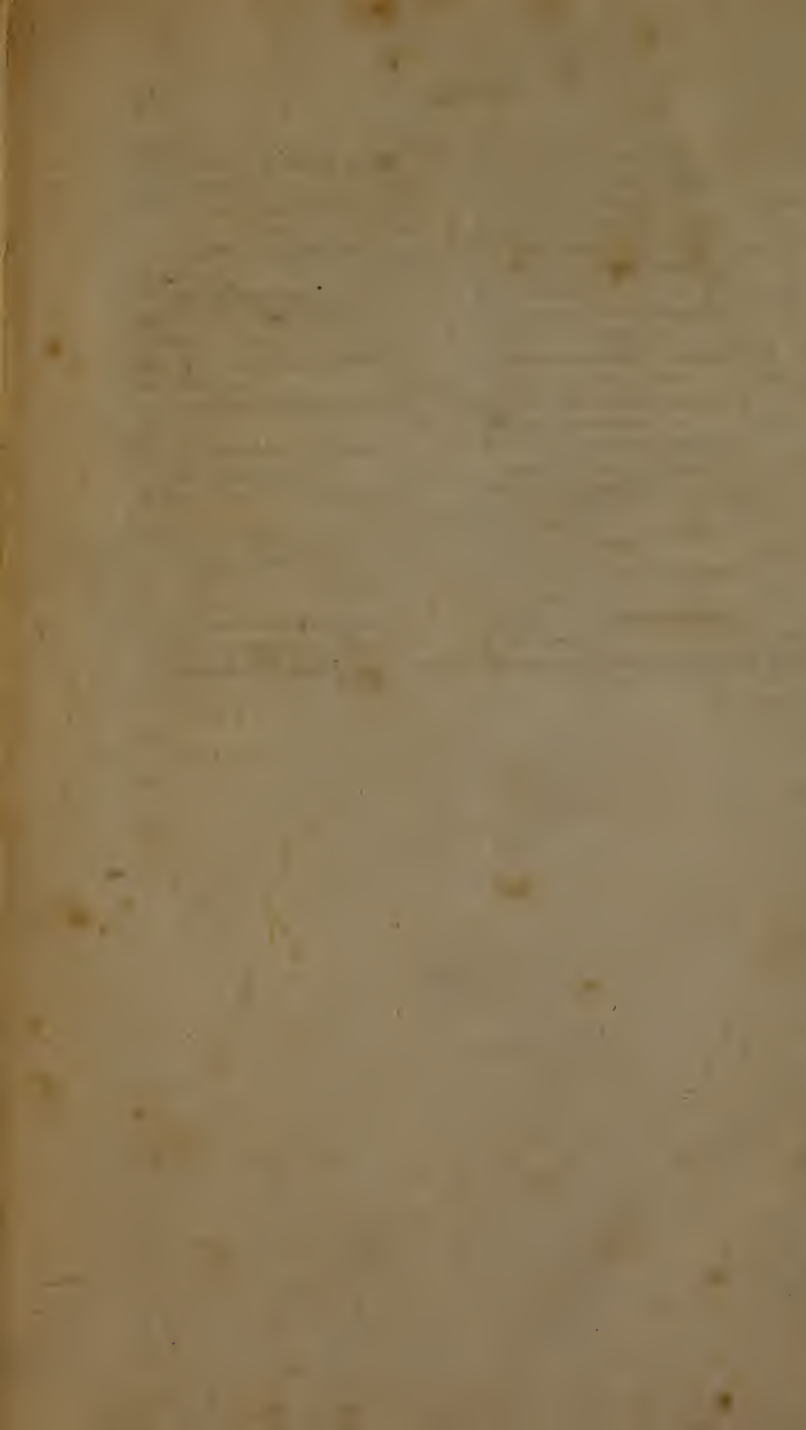
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